

# **BRIDGING THEORY AND PRACTICE**

## **PROCEEDINGS OF THE 2001 ANZAPS CONFERENCE**

Editors Robert Freestone  
Susan Thompson



**ANZAPS**

# **Bridging Theory and Practice in Planning Education**

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**Edited by Robert Freestone and Susan Thompson**

**Faculty of the Built Environment  
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# INTRODUCTION

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The annual meetings of the Australian and New Zealand Association of Planning Schools (ANZAPS) have traditionally rotated around urban and regional planning programs in New Zealand and Australian universities. Recent meetings have been held at the University of Auckland (1997), the University of Queensland (1998), University of Northern Territory (1999) and Massey University (2000). The 2001 meeting marks the first time that the organisation has met at the University of New South Wales in Sydney.

This year's meeting has been organised by the Planning and Urban Development Program in the Faculty of the Built Environment with the assistance of the Faculty's Urban and Regional Studies Research Group. The Planning and Urban Development Program is responsible for the undergraduate Bachelor of Town Planning (BTP), an enduring degree first introduced by the late John Shaw in 1966.

The major theme of the 2001 conference is 'Bridging Theory and Practice in Planning Education'. The central question under consideration is 'how do we deliver professionally relevant education that is also theoretically challenging and exciting'? This issue is addressed in various ways by the papers reproduced here. How do we make theory more relevant to planning practice? What are the curriculum content implications? Where do mainstream land use plans fit within the broader discourses of planning today? What of the challenges in urban design education? How might we reinvigorate the teaching of strategic planning skills? These are some of the questions canvassed in this volume. Despite the small number of papers, the scope of deliberations is broad: from translating the realities of a diverse and cultural pluralistic society into educational curricula through consideration of ethical issues to the need to promote planning as an attractive career option to secondary school students. The teaching modes embraced in these contributions are also remarkably varied – practical experience placements, studio learning, fieldwork, on-line learning, and innovation in traditional classroom settings.

Not all the papers delivered at the conference are included in full in these proceedings. Nor can the papers themselves, despite their intrinsic value as valuable educational perspectives and tools, convey the fullness of the discussion which they have stimulated.

Nevertheless, many of the issues raised are fundamental to planning educators worldwide. In the future ANZAPS will need to increasingly acknowledge that wider environment. Since its inception ANZAPS has maintained an informal and bi-partisan trans-Tasman character which has made its annual meetings welcome forums for frank, open and good-mannered discussion and debate. One future challenge will be to sustain this informality while at the same time ensuring a productive engagement with global debates through the international network of national and regional planning school organisations forged at the first World Planning Schools Conference in Shanghai in July 2001.



# **IN SUPPORT OF METHODOICAL PLAN DESIGN**

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## **CONTEXT AND AIM**

Under Australian state and territorial planning and other land management laws state, territorial and local governments are responsible for the preparation of public environmental instruments, including land use plans and plans of management, to regulate the use and management of land and other natural resources. This paper argues for methodical land use plan design and notes its centrality to the institute of planners and resistance of planners to it. The paper proceeds with sections on provisions for plans, an explanation of a plan, methodical plan design and resistance.

## **PROVISIONS FOR PLANS**

The making of plans for the use and management of land is provided for under planning acts, local government acts, Crown lands acts, national parks and wildlife acts, forest acts and other statutes. Types of plans include land-use and environmental plans, zoning schemes and plans of management. Land-use and environmental plans and zoning schemes allocate land uses and use controls (e.g. land use prohibition, land use permission) to locations. Plans of management allocate land use controls and land management operations (commitments to action) to locations. While exhibition, consultation and plan 'making' phases are regulated, there are few explicit provisions for the integration a plan and the objectives it is intended to achieve (provisions in the NSW Crown Lands Act are exceptional). The disciplinary matter of plan preparation is left largely to the discretion of the plan preparation agency.

## **EXPLANATION OF A PLAN**

A land use plan can be explained as subject matter, purpose instrument and method. The subject matter, the thing that a land use plan acts upon, is land use control. Land use control is a necessary and sufficient activity for land use plans to exist (c.f. Alison 1986). The purpose is decisions that best satisfy the community's land use objectives. The instrument is a scheme of land use control decisions distinguished by the interrelationships (coordination, integration) arranged in its design. Method integrates subject matter (decisions) and purpose (objectives) in a scheme of spatially interrelated decisions - a land use plan (Compagnoni & Khan 1999).

The following section deals with the integration of land use decisions and the objectives they are intended to achieve, in area wide schemes of interrelated decisions.

## **PLAN DESIGN METHOD**

Land use plan generation, selection and comparison techniques have been progressively adapted to critical rationalism, participatory practice and multi objective decision analysis. Critical rationalism has us state a problem clearly and examine the options critically (Popper 1958, *Preface*). In planning methodology, consequentialism replaces the empirical proposition falsification rule in critical rationalism to discriminate amongst options (Faludi 1986 p.83) - plans cannot be falsified (as can scientific propositions) but they can be compared on the basis of their consequences.

The formulation of design problems as multi-criteria 'selection' problems (Alexander 1964, p.74) facilitates solution when a wide range of options can be generated and criteria for solution stated clearly. The AIDA (analysis of interconnected decision areas) formulation of spatial and other selection problems (Luckman 1967) led to the Strategic Choice formulation of a land allocation or zoning problem (Friend and Jessop 1977 Ch.9; see also 1<sup>st</sup> ed. 1969 and Friend and Hickling 1987 pp.38-9) in which all possible land uses are assigned to each of a small range of decision areas to generate all possible land use plan options.

Readily accessible information systems technology facilitates multi criteria evaluation and choice in dealing with spatial selection problems. Goals-achievement analysis, developed initially to evaluate (a narrow range of) alternative plans (Hill 1968), has been adapted for iterative, interactive, multi objective scanning of exhaustive sets of land use plan options to choose, and analyse for their consequences, interest group land use strategies.

To design a land use plan, preferred consequences are elicited from community interest groups as multiple design criteria or land use objectives, an exhaustive set of objectives satisfying area wide land use plan options is generated (e.g. over a base map of environmental areas), land use strategies are chosen interactively by or for groups, and differences between strategies are explained on the basis of their consequences – all to inform political choice. Consultation and public participation in plan implementation and monitoring feed back to the review of objectives and plan. Data is collected to assess the extent to which any strategy achieves its objectives. Spatial information and decisions support systems facilitate interactive multi objective choice. Australian work in the field (e.g. Ive and Cocks 1983, 1988) has substantial support from Conacher and Conacher (2000) and the Land and Water Resources Research Development Corporation (1996). My paper to ANZAPS99 (referenced) sets out an explicit approach to land use plan design, detailing support for iterative, interactive, multi objective choice using spreadsheet technology.

Alexander (1998 p.368) found that: *The interactive potential of multi-criteria evaluations and their use as a framework for political and value-related discourse is gaining increasing recognition* but applications are limited because of institutional constraints and prevailing organisational and political cultures. This, he suggests: *enhances the importance of the successful examples we see, as exemplary prototypes for what may be the wave of the future.*

Voogd's (1998) analysis of the usefulness of multicriteria evaluation methods in a range of 'spatial planning arenas' in The Netherlands ('but it is probably rather universal' p.120) finds a high probability of their usefulness where 'strategic' planning operates in a structured and regulated single sector decision environment and that this is where they are actually in use

(p.122-3). As a complement to multi criteria evaluation Voogd (p.119) finds *the technical possibilities of a DSS [decision support system] approach are very interesting and for 'routine' decisions certainly attractive.*

By the mid 1980's, planning literature was replete with arguments counteracting the challenge to planning (e.g. Lindblom 1965) of decision making by political bargaining and mutual adjustment. Klosterman (1985 p.11-12) for example wrote: *Group bargaining also fails adequately to provide collective goods and services which provide small benefits to a large number of individuals.* He provides reasons for this, and continues: *By turning government power over to the most interested parties and excluding the public from the policy formulation and implementation process, pluralist bargaining systematically neglects the political spill-over effects of government actions and policies on unrepresented groups and individuals.* Against this, Klosterman assembles arguments for promoting the collective interest of the community on the basis of external and long-term effects of plans as judged against available information.

Pluralist bargaining was suspect but pluralism and participatory democracy remained on the rise through the political process. Across Australia, new planning legislation paved the way for consultation and public participation in plan preparation - but rationalism and planning methodology, exemplified in the CSIRO's South Coast Project (see particularly Vol.1, Austin and Cocks 1978) and the follow-on SIRO-PLAN method and LUPLAN and LUPIS multi criteria choice packages (Cocks et al 1983, Ive and Cocks 1983, 1988) hardly raised a comment in the Australian institutional planning literature.

In the academic literature of the USA, planning practice as communicative action (Forester 1980) began to challenge rationalism and related planning processes. Communicative planning put land use development control decision back in the arena of social interaction, negotiation and bargaining (cf. Healey 1997 pp.28-9). Ideally, arguments presented and reasons given for and against possible decisions are resolved in a consensus. Consensus is the goal rather than improved information about the long-term effects of possible schemes of decisions. Underlying the communication is the Habermasian 'dream' of 'discourses' based on 'fair play' (Voogd 1998 p.115).

Almost all examples in the communicative planning literature deal with local situations (Voogd 1998 p.116). When a land allocation or development control problem involves only a small number of areas (sites, locations or places) it may be possible for all involved in decision making to envision all plan options, all interactions between areas and all of the consequences. Strategic Choice focuses on such problems, having small groups in intense communication 'taking' decisions in a workshop arrangement. In Strategic Choice, problems having up to 4 or 5 decision areas are considered feasible of solution but where the number of areas is large (17 is a given example) they are reduced to groups of maximum 5 for resolution (Friend and Hickling 1987 p.119). Good communication in negotiation may satisfy participating actors sufficiently to reach consensus over a small scheme of decisions but, for larger schemes (e.g. local government area wide and regional plans), whether all relevant interest groups have participated, whether the evidence (e.g. scientific knowledge) for design and choice has been given proper consideration or has been overwhelmed by values of

wealthy or otherwise powerful groups, and whether the consensus can be justified in terms of the evidence to all those 'others' who were not directly involved in the communication but who may be affected, are matters of concern.

Communicative practice is of limited practical value for strategic planning because the abstract issues involved seldomly raise enough public attention for a balanced 'discourse' (Voogd 1998). Land use plans are rarely questioned until operational (e.g. development control) decisions have to be made. Voogd (1998 p.125) lists a range of other 'handicaps' frustrating the achievement of consensus building some of which parallel arguments against pluralist bargaining. In Australia, regional plans, whole of local government area plans and plans of management, allocate land uses, controls and management operations to hundreds and possibly thousands of areas. They are, by law, multi objective planning problems. Area wide strategies have to be prepared and data collected to reveal the consequences of plan options for affected groups.

I am not arguing that the 'communicative approach to spatial strategy formation' is at odds with strategic, multi objective land use planning. I see no good reason why Healey's (1996 p.231) 'set of questions to help political communities invent their own processes' cannot work with planning methodology; no good reason why communicative practice cannot complement methodical land use plan design. But despite a revival of interest in 'making strategic spatial plans' (e.g. Healey et al 1997, Neuman 1998, Needham 2000) communicative practice has not been adapted to the systematic generation of land use plan options and the 'unconcealing' of their consequences for different groups or views. I am arguing that abandoning or even avoiding methodical, participatory land use plan design has not been justified.

The theory of 'communicative rationality' was not proposed as an alternative to rationalism but to incorporate into rationalism central insights of the critique of rationalism. It defends reason by way of a critique of reason (Habermas 1984:1; in Translator's Introduction). Communicative planning reveals weaknesses in planning methodology through such critique. Planning methodology reveals weaknesses where social interaction without area wide planning is the chosen way to reach a land use control decision. A dialogue could improve land use plan design practice.

## **RESISTANCE**

Statutory plans prepared under New South Wales planning legislation (EPAA), including local and regional plans, deal with area wide land use control. EPAA s.25 requires that aims, objectives, policies and strategies be made explicit. But the aims and objectives written into many plans are so poorly focussed on guiding actual land-to-use and use-to-use relationships, so insensitive to competing interests, so unconnected to the powers available to implement plans (e.g. land use prohibition, permission, reservation, contribution), that they have little if any operational value for the methodical design of land use plan options or their comparison in terms of consequences for different groups or views. The requirement implicit in EPAA ss. 24 & 25 (and fundamental to the idea 'planning') for the integration area wide of aims/objectives and policies/strategies is widely ignored with impunity.

A New South Wales Government (2001) white paper on plan making contains no reference at all to the methodical integration of a local or regional scheme of land use decisions and its objectives, nor any direct attempt to tackle the inadequacy of environmental assessment in plan preparation: *The lack of adequate environmental assessment at the stage of strategic planning is a major flaw in the operation of the [NSW planning] legislation and has flow-on effects on environmental assessment at the project control stage* (Farrier et al 1999 p.488). At least one substantial submission on these matters was made to the Government's review. The white paper has a section outlining the plan 'preparation process' (p.29) but this process deals only with public exhibition, community consultation, submission and the like – not the integration of a plan and its objectives nor the justification of plans by arguments based on consequences revealed by area wide environmental data.

The Royal Australian Planning Institute's Education Policy (page 1) states: *That the Institute views planning as being centrally concerned with arranging and relating land-use activities in space and time taking into consideration the physical, environmental, social and economic influences on these within a legislative, administrative and political context. Its distinctive approach is to identify objectives; review changes in land use; predict and compare the outcomes of alternative strategies; and identify suitable implementation and management methods.* RAPI sets standards of planning education and offers an accreditation path for planning courses in Australia. Its four Education Policy goals include one: *To respond positively to the directions and responsibilities inherent within the objects of the Institute by establishing national standards for land use planning within Australia and encouraging the maintenance and improvement for those standards.*

RAPI's national journal, since 1984, has published perhaps 150 articles less than a handful of which are about methodical, objectives based, land use plan design, subject-matter the Institute itself describes (cited above) as central to planning. Three of four papers I submitted to the journal, dealing with land use plans as schemes of interrelated decisions and interactive multi objective plan design, all well enough written for further consideration and properly referenced, have been rejected outright, two recently.

I put at the beginning that a task of planning is to turn legal provisions for plan making into land use control (regulatory) instruments including land use plans. Resistance to methodical, participatory land use plan design described in this paper adds substance to Dawkins (2000 p.25) claim that: *In Australia today [land use regulation] is reluctantly, and therefore badly, administered by planners... RAPI, like many of its members, consistently denies the centrality of land use regulation, avoids using those very words, and seeks to define planning only in terms of its ultimate ends.*

## CLOSING COMMENTS

In planning land use control there will always be a need to examine alternative schemes of interrelated decisions and justify the one chosen as preferred on the basis of available evidence. Nothing in the material above explains directly why practicing planners, at least in

New South Wales, when preparing area wide land use plans such as whole of local government area plans and regional plans, largely ignore or avoid methods, techniques and technologies developed to do it. ER Alexander (above) refers to institutional constraints and prevailing organisational and political cultures. This paper suggests that there is more to it than that.

While Australian planners continue to ignore the discipline and practice of methodical land use plan design and interactive multi objective choice the possibility increases for the discipline to be embraced by applied scientists who, as students at least, are naturally inquisitive about the land resource base and land resource management and related spatial information and decision support systems, and as researchers and practitioners publish locally on these matters. Corporate Australian Planners could loose to environmental managers possibly the only activity that is unique to the planning discipline – the methodical participatory design of area wide schemes of interrelated land use decisions for development control.

In ‘Conclusions’ to the book *Evaluation in Planning* Alexander (1998 pp.370-371) wrote: *Most of our attention has been devoted to the improvement and refinement of evaluation methods, and extending the repertoire of evaluation approaches available. It would be worth the effort to develop answers to the question; What are the most appropriate evaluation approaches and methods to use, if specified situation characteristics apply?* For any among you who may be interested to take and read them I have some copies of a draft ‘Explanatory and Manual for Land Use Plan Design’. It adapts and assembles techniques and technologies, including environmental area mapping (for map and data base), strategic choice (for plans’ generation) and iterative, interactive multi objective choice, to requirements for land use plan preparation in Australian state and territorial planning and other land management jurisdictions. I seek and would welcome comments on it.

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## **REFRAMING PLANNING: BRIDGING SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY AND THE PROFESSION**

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Earlier this year, a group of staff in the Department of Planning at the University of Auckland ran a professional development seminar for senior secondary school geography teachers. The seminar offered a fresh look at the “role of geography in planning and decision-making” topic in the year 13 geography curriculum (NZQA, 2000, 640). The purpose of the seminar was to inform teachers about planning as a discipline and demonstrate how it can be incorporated in the teaching of the topic. The purpose of this paper is to present in summary form the substance of the seminar then engage in a critical review of the place of planning in the geography curriculum. Accordingly, the paper is presented in two parts.

First, we report on the approach we used in reframing the curriculum in a planning context. We outline the way we mapped the “focusing questions” contained in the geography curriculum to what we see as some key dimensions of planning. Then we show how we used some of the “important geographic ideas” in the curriculum and mapped them to exemplars, in this case heritage. The second part of the paper reflects more broadly on the implications of the positioning of planning within the geography curriculum. We discuss three needs: to distinguish planning as a discipline independent of geography, to make stronger links between the academy and the profession, and to give planning a much stronger public profile in order to attract more students into tertiary planning programmes.

### **REFRAMING THE CURRICULUM**

The geography curriculum reviewed here is offered in the final year of secondary school (Year 13) taught to seventh formers. The planning and decision-making topic forms 30% of internal assessment (worth 50% of the total mark). The external bursary examination paper (worth 50%) traditionally has a question (part c) that is arguably planning-centered, worth 50% of the paper. Thus, planning as a topic forms a substantial component of the curriculum, along with other topics such as geographic processes (natural and cultural). There is a major change underway in secondary school education as school certificate, sixth form certificate, and bursary are replaced by the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA). The change signals a shift to achievement-based assessment through a mix of internal and external assessment. While the Year 13 NCEA is three years away (due 2004), we considered that our approach would help teachers in the classroom as well as in their NCEA preparation.

The planning and decision-making topic requires that teachers address two dimensions, namely “focusing questions” and “important geographic ideas”. The context for the focusing questions and important geographic ideas is a prescription that includes the following aspects:

- Fieldwork, practical work, and other class work will be achieved through studies selected and assessed by the school on the role of geography in planning and decision-making
- The study will be a local or regional example from New Zealand
- The achievement standards are:
  - Examine the interrelated natural and cultural processes
  - Examine the various value positions of the individuals and groups involved
  - Apply suitable methods for examining the example under study
  - Examine alternative courses of action
  - Examine the implications and constraints of any decision made
- The prescribed geographic ideas

As planners, we decided that we had a perspective to offer that could add to the knowledge geographers could bring to their work. In thinking this, we were conscious that planning and geography are not synonymous. Aspects of both disciplines overlap, but, for example, the normative elements of a planner's perspective add other dimensions to their tasks. It is this idea that provides our contribution to the planning and decision-making part of the Year 13 course.

### **Matrix 1: Focusing Questions and Planning Dimensions**

To illustrate the idea of Planning Dimensions, we identified five that play a key role in shaping the thinking of planners. While this set is not complete, nonetheless it assists in bridging the gap between the geographic dimensions of concepts and issues and their application in a planning context. The Planning Dimensions chosen were:

#### *1. Legislation*

Planning works within a framework of legislation. There are requirements of planners and other persons participating in the planning process that have their legitimacy in public law. When understanding planning (in answer to the Who? What? and Why? questions) it is important to ask about the applicable statutes, and where they may apply to the focusing questions.

#### *2. Institutions*

Planning is an activity that involves public and private institutions and persons. They respond as actors to situations that require a response through planning. These actors in the planning process introduce the political contexts that overlay the focusing questions. It is through the Institutional dimension that we can recognise the tension between technical and political responses to any problem.

#### *3. Maori (tangata whenua)*

Planning in New Zealand occurs with a recognition in legislation of the tangata whenua and their values. This recognition is linked to the Treaty of Waitangi, Treaty claims settlements, and spiritual and traditional environmental beliefs. Claims settlements and moves to reorder tribal affairs to manage the assets of these settlements (e.g. fisheries quota) make up most of the current political debate in Maoridom. In the meantime competing demands on the environment by multiple stakeholders are the focus of local iwi attention, especially in the coastal marine zone. Bicultural values provide a basis for the growth of a sound multicultural future.

#### 4. Stakeholders

Planning separately distinguishes between “Institutions” and “Stakeholders”. This is because institutional categories may contain a number of separately identifiable stakeholders directly affected, or with an interest in, a particular planning activity. Recognising these stakeholders may be important for the focusing questions.

#### 5. Values

Planning requires recognition of the way people’s attitudes and values shape their response to any problem. Identifying these attitudes and values is important when working with the focusing questions.

Matrix 1 relates the nine focusing questions to the five planning dimensions (Appendix 1). Within the broad description of each dimension provided above, connecting ideas can be placed in each of the cells. In the seminar we showed how the matrix could be used in respect of four exemplars; water and coastlines, heritage, transport and liveable communities Appendix 2 shows how question 4 on methods can be developed for our exemplar of heritage. These ideas are not intended as a complete set. Rather they are intended to provide teachers and students with starting points that can be extended through their own enquiries and discussion. Depending on the case study adopted by the individual or the group, our suggestions may be reinforced, extended, or replaced by others particular to the situations being investigated. In other words, this framework is intended as a catalyst for lateral thinking on the part of teacher and student.

#### **Matrix 2: Important Geographic Ideas and Exemplars**

Matrix 2 has been constructed to serve the same purpose as Matrix 1, that is, as a catalyst for lateral thinking. In our example, we have selected one of the six important geographic ideas (patterns and processes) contained in the curriculum and demonstrate its relevance for examining heritage (Appendix 3). Each of the key concepts embodied in the geographic idea is developed in respect of some aspect of heritage, often with examples.

#### **Comment on the Seminar**

The morning seminar attracted over 30 teachers from across Auckland, although mainly from the inner city. We had circulated notice of the seminar to over 100 schools in the Auckland region, and elected not to charge any fee, at least on this first occasion. Each participant was given a comprehensive resource kit with copies of all the material presented by staff. They were also asked to complete evaluation sheets. The sheets explored issues such as timing of the seminar in the year, structure of the morning, selection and relevance of topics. The response was overwhelmingly positive. Comments included:

- *good professional development for Year 13 Geography Teachers- well overdue*
- *should be a whole day,*
- *the most value to me was the nuts and bolts of planning issues in the greater Auckland area,*
- *really liked the matrix idea and link to important geographic ideas.*

We were very encouraged by this response. Consequently we propose to offer the seminar again next year for a full day rather than a morning session. We are also publishing the resource kit and propose to offer it through the national Geography Teachers Resource Centre so that it can be disseminated across the country.

## **POSITIONING PLANNING IN THE GEOGRAPHY CURRICULUM**

In part, while the seminar was intended to inform teachers about planning and applications of planning, it also formed part of a profile building exercise on the part of the Department. First, we saw a need for the Department to contribute publicly to an area of the geography curriculum as some teachers are not well informed about planning. Second, it provided us with an opportunity to identify ourselves independently of geography as a discipline. This is important too as geography and planning at the University of Auckland are located separately and in different faculties; geography in the Faculties of Arts and Sciences and planning in the Faculty of Architecture, Property, Planning and, more recently, Fine Arts. Elsewhere in the country this is not always the case. Two planning programmes are located within geography departments (Waikato and Otago), and a third is co-located with geography within a larger school (Massey). Third, the seminar also provided us with an opportunity to promote our profession as a worthwhile career for students to follow. Geography teachers are well placed to discuss career choices with their students.

### **The subsuming of Planning**

The positioning of planning within the geography curriculum poses some dilemmas for planning educators, particularly given the competitive praxis within which we operate. In the absence of planning as a school subject, the inclusion of planning within the curriculum sends out a strong message to students, parents and teachers that planning is in fact subsumed as part of the discipline of geography. For example, one prominent Auckland state school presents planning as a career option for students taking geography and economics but it is not mentioned in relation to any of the other humanities or sciences. The positioning of planning by teachers and the curriculum is compounded by the inevitable competition for students in a tight tertiary market, and the tendency for geography to appropriate planning. For instance, at least one university geography department offers a competition for the best seventh form planning project, completed by students as part of their internal assessment. Similarly, others offer sessions to assist seventh form students and their teachers with the planning and decision-making topic. Furthermore, some geography departments promote the acquisition of a geography degree as means of securing a career in planning, even though the only guaranteed route is by means of completing a professionally recognised planning degree or diploma.

As academic disciplines, geography and planning are distinct, although there are of course points of overlap. Thus, it is important that the notion of geography subsuming planning is dispelled. One way of addressing this is by promoting the distinctiveness of planning. Planning has a distinctive body of knowledge centred around prescription informed by those disciplines that it draws upon, such as the social and natural

sciences, law, architecture and engineering. In particular, it has a strong normative and vocational context. All this translates into proposed actions that have a strong normative base.

From an academic perspective, the educational requirements for planners are three fold. First, planners need an intellectual understanding of the wider societal processes that underpin their work and the issues involved in engaging with increasingly diverse communities and abilities to interpret these experiences. Sitting alongside is the need for a distinctive tool kit of knowledge and methods to assist their work. Third, they need particular skills to integrate their theory, knowledge and methods in an applied context embracing both policy and urban design. In addition, the professional perspective requires a stream of instruction on the practical requirements of planning, as well as related knowledge of ethics and the regulatory environment. At the University of Auckland, we believe that the mix of academic and professional competencies is strengthened by Planning's location within the Faculty of Architecture, Property, Planning and Fine Arts. This is the only New Zealand planning programme located in this grouping.

The point of this critique is not to disparage the validity of geography as a discipline. Indeed, a geographic education is considered by many of us as a useful route to planning. But, importantly, it cannot supplant the requirements of a planning education. We readily acknowledge that geographers have knowledge and skills that are useful in supporting and complementing planners in their work. But, again, a complement is not a substitute. Nevertheless, we are particularly conscious that, in the broader policy-making environment, today's professionals are required to work more intentionally across disciplines so that traditional boundaries are becoming somewhat blurred. The disciplines of planning and geography ought to work in mutual co-operation rather than hegemonic competition. Consequently, it is preferable to work in a collegial relationship with geography departments, both to model this wider environment and to promote mutual respect of the distinctiveness and integrity of our disciplines and the qualifications we offer.

### **Fluctuations in student numbers**

Given the focus on planning in the year 13 curriculum, it could be expected that there might be a steady stream of interest from geography students whose interest in planning as a career is sparked by the planning topic. However, this is not the case. While there is likely to be about 1000 students taking seventh form geography in the Auckland area in any year, at the University of Auckland we are only attracting a very small percentage of this potential source of undergraduates into our BPlan degree. We usually take in about 35 students into our first year. A recent analysis of the educational backgrounds of first year planning students over the last three year suggests a slight shift in that the numbers of students joining us with science and mathematical backgrounds have decreased slightly while those from the arts and social sciences are increasing (APPFA, 2001). And of course, we want to encourage students from a wide range of backgrounds into planning. So we need to avoid placing all our marketing efforts in one disciplinary basket. While there is an obvious curriculum relationship with geography, we can develop more creative connections with, for example, history, languages, sciences and economics.

At a recent meeting of planning educators in Christchurch, it emerged in discussion that only one of the five planning programmes has relatively stable numbers (Thomson, 2001). Elsewhere, while there are some variations between undergraduate and postgraduate enrolments, the numbers are at their lowest ebb for some years. The impact of student loans are affecting numbers of students taking up postgraduate studies, and it seems, anecdotally at least, that more are embarking on part time studies, combining it with paid work. Thus, at Massey where graduate papers can be taken in block mode, postgraduate numbers are increasing while at Otago, numbers in the first year intake of the MRPP are down this year. These trends have considerable implications for the delivery of planning education. As an aside, we also note that at Auckland, many of our undergraduate students spend a considerable amount of time during the week in paid work. For example, students will not come in for 1 or 2 hour classes if there are no other lectures scheduled for that day. They also want days free of classes so that they can work in paid employment.

Along with the concern about poor recruitment and fewer students taking up planning as an option, several of the planning educators present at the Christchurch meeting expressed concern about the quality of students. In part, we are failing to attract significant numbers of able students. It is interesting to note that this is occurring in a buoyant job market for planners. In part too, there is no doubt that for some planning students part-time paid employment is having a detrimental affect on the quality of their university studies. They are failing to maximise their opportunities while at university and so emerge less well prepared for the market place than they might have otherwise been. The unfortunate outcome is that they both undervalue themselves as well as the planning education offered to them.

### **A need to promote planning**

All of the above points to the need to that it is very much in the interests of the profession as well as tertiary planning programmes to promote planning as a worthwhile and exciting career to pursue. It is important to attract high calibre students into our planning programmes at a time when there is strong competition from other disciplines and professions. Recently, our staff attended some secondary school careers evenings in Auckland. The low turnout of prospective students at the planning sessions demonstrates the difficulties of competing with the “high media profile” and more “glamorous” professions of law, architecture, and so on. The careers expo held recently in Auckland also showed just how problematic it is for universities to promote their programmes when competing with camouflage paint, free haircuts and condoms.

While there are many planning issues out there in the public domain, appearing on a daily basis in most major and community newspapers, we need to link the issues to the profession much more clearly in order to give planning a stronger profile. Instead of councils being portrayed in the media as grappling with complex issues of transport centres, community resistance to residential intensification and stormwater pollution on city beaches, the role of the planner in addressing these problems needs to be highlighted and somehow made more substantial and enticing. The creative and future-shaping dimensions of planning can be used imaginatively to counter negative, bureaucratic images of what planners are perceived to do.

Similarly, links between the university and the profession need to be strengthened. Inevitably there are tensions for educators in delivering a professional planning programme that both meets the requirements for scholarship from the academy, on the one hand, and demands from the profession for a strong vocational orientation on the other. However, it is incumbent on planning educators to think strategically about the positioning of planning in their local academic and community environments. There are ways of communicating about planning and what planners do through radio, local newspapers and “good news” stories. Seminars for secondary school teachers and addresses to career guidance counsellors are other avenues, along with university events such as open days. Publicising university seminars through local planning institutes and running joint events with local planners are also effective in maintaining a presence for the profession. A dilemma that faces us all, however, is just how much time we can give to the promotion and marketing of our discipline when faced with all the other demands placed on us. The prospect of changes to tertiary funding in New Zealand signals potentially difficult times ahead for professional programmes, particularly if funding is tied more directly to research outputs (Dixon, 2001). Staff may need to focus on more traditional academic activities for which they receive much stronger recognition within the academy, and reduce the extent of their engagement with the profession and community.

In addition to our direct efforts as educators, we need the active engagement of the profession we serve, both to support the quality of planning education offered, and to give planning a much stronger profile in the wider community. But we also need a profession that speaks out, that acts as a public critic, that proactively engages. An effective example is that demonstrated by a group of architects who have formed a ginger group in Auckland on urban issues, prompted by concern about the quality of urban design in the inner city and along the harbour edge. A three-person design panel will now evaluate major development proposals in downtown Auckland when they are submitted to Auckland City Council. This initiative could have been promoted by planners.

In conclusion, we contend that there is an increasingly important and urgent role for our planning institutes to play in the promotion of planning as a career for prospective students, as well as building the public profile of planning.

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## APPENDIX 1

**MATRIX 1: CONNECTION BETWEEN FOCUSING QUESTIONS AND PLANNING DIMENSIONS**

FOCUSING QUESTIONS	LEGISLATION	INSTITUTIONS/ political context	MAORI/ tangata whenua	STAKEHOLDERS	VALUES
1. What is the problem, issue, or need that prompted the demand for action?					
2. In what ways is there geographic significance in the problem, issue, or need?					
3. Which groups or individuals are interested and why? What are their interests and value positions on this issue?					
4. What methods are used to investigate it and by whom?					
5. What natural and cultural processes are involved in the problem, issue, or need?					
6. What can geographers add to an understanding of the natural or cultural processes involved?					
7. What are the constraints and alternative courses of action?					
8. How is a decision on the course of action being made? How have decisions been made? What are the implications for different groups and individuals?					
9. To what extent have the students been involved in: - investigation of the issue, problem or need? - identification of the groups and individuals involved? determination of alternative courses of action? - making the decision or helping carry out the action?					



## APPENDIX 2

### MATRIX 1: CONNECTION BETWEEN FOCUSING QUESTIONS AND PLANNING DIMENSIONS – HERITAGE EXEMPLAR<sup>1</sup>

FOCUSING QUESTIONS	LEGISLATION	INSTITUTIONS/ political context	MAORI/ tangata whenua	STAKEHOLDERS	VALUES
<b>4. What methods are used to investigate it and by whom?</b>	<p>Preparation of heritage registers:</p> <p>agencies use a variety of methods and criteria, drawing on research and professional judgement.</p> <p>The plan review and submission process may identify oversights. Given the limited real involvement of the wider community in this process, sites/buildings important to local communities maybe overlooked until they come under threat eg. the Chapel of the little Sisters of the Poor in St Marys Bay, Auckland.</p>	<p>The complexity of institutional involvement in heritage has resulted in a fragmented approach and oversight.</p>	<p>Maori Heritage Council of the New Zealand Historic Places Trust: registers wahi tapu, wahi tapu areas and archaeological sites.</p> <p>The Maori Heritage Council has three appointed or elected Maori members, one other Board member, and four members appointed by the Minister of Culture and Heritage.</p>	<p>Cultural planning (not widely used in NZ) approaches seek to obtain information on a wide range of factors – quantitative and qualitative. Cultural mapping seeks to map different cultural groups, ‘spirit of place’, cultural mind-sets, artifacts and their messages, livability resources, access and barriers, coordination opportunities etc.</p> <p>Maps may map things seen and unseen (eg. archaeology below ground, mythical associations etc.)</p>	<p>Appreciation of the subjectivity of heritage assessment is important.</p> <p>Communication and discussion with all stakeholders is essential. Communities need to become involved in researching their pasts and assessing heritage significance broadly – drawing on a range of knowledges (traditional and multidisciplinary) and texts (visual, oral and documentary)</p> <p>Issues of equity are paramount – the rights of the owner must be balanced with those of the wider community.</p>

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Elizabeth Aitken Rose, Department of Planning, University of Auckland

## APPENDIX 3

### MATRIX 2: IMPORTANT GEOGRAPHIC IDEAS – HERITAGE EXEMPLAR

#### **2A: Patterns and Processes**

Spatial patterns and processes delimit regions and simplify perception of the world and its inhabitants.

2.1 PATTERNS <sup>1</sup>	PLANNING COMMENTARY <sup>2</sup>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Phenomena which are inter-related form patterns in space. Such patterns can be identified and interpreted.</li> </ul>	Heritage should be interpreted in a broad spatial context, rather than on a site by site basis. Sites, objects, structures etc, are part of a pattern of landscape and settlement relationships – although these may no longer be obvious with the loss of evidence over time.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Some spatial patterns are the result of people's organisational structures, either social, economic, or political.</li> </ul>	Heritage may be shaped and reshaped over time through different organisational structures. For example Maori developed the Otuatua stonefields for gardening and farming. Missionaries and settlers later developed European gardens and dairy farms on them. They now form a reserve following advocacy from Maori and action by Manukau City Council.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All spatial patterns, whether natural or cultural, are the result of processes.</li> </ul>	Heritage is conserved through planning and heritage protection processes, Resource Management Act 1991 and the Heritage Protection Authority – established legal processes.
2.2 PROCESSES.	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sequences of related actions, which modify or maintain the environment are known as processes.</li> </ul>	Public planning processes define heritage conservation goals and objectives, appropriate policies which lead to regulation and resource investment, monitored for effectiveness. The private development process may seek to modify or demolish heritage in the interests of profit. Buildings are maintained or adapted through conservation process. Heritage is subject to physical deterioration and decay.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Processes vary in time and space.</li> </ul>	Heritage is dependent on interest, will and adequate resources. Appreciation of significance may alter according to fashion and political circumstance. For example the heritage buildings on the Waitemata Waterfront were re-evaluated following a change in local government.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Processes vary in magnitude and frequency.</li> </ul>	Pressures on heritage may vary with the buoyancy of the private property market or tourism development. For example, many of Auckland's old commercial buildings were demolished during the property boom during the 1980s, to be replaced by car parks following the property crash. Regeneration may be boosted through a major event e.g., the Millennium and the transformation of the Bankside Power Station into the Tate Modern in London. The availability of funding may also prompt action.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Some processes encourage concentration, some encourage dispersal.</li> </ul>	Heritage may be used to give new purpose to urban centres depopulated through suburban expansion and out of town shopping malls. For example Glasgow, Ponsonby Mainstreet.

<sup>1</sup> Drawn from NZQA Year 13 curriculum

<sup>2</sup> Interpretation of geographic idea by Elizabeth Aitken Rose, Department of Planning, University of Auckland

Fresh Look at Planning and Decision Making: A professional development seminar for Year 13 Geography teachers

# BRIDGING THEORY AND PRACTICE IN PLANNING EDUCATION: A STORY FROM AUCKLAND

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## INTRODUCTION

The paper outlines the approach used at the University of Auckland to develop student understanding of contemporary and post-structural planning theory and phronetic practice as it applies to their own developing professionalism. This latter planning theory and phronetic practice is largely derived from post-structural, hermeneutic and neo-pragmatic philosophy, discursive ethics and feminist literature and it is interpretation into planning theory by a diverse range of writers such as Forester (1989, 1999), Flyvbjerg (1992, 1998, 2001), Harper and Stein (1997), Allmendinger (2001), Sandercock (1995, 1999, 2000), Healey (1997) and Hillier (1995) -- while traditional theory can be comprehensively covered by Friedmann's (1987) opus. It is a teaching structure where a planning theory unit with a focus on postmodern critique, power, genealogy and deconstruction is taught fully integrated with the students' final year applied studio unit which is focussed on 'rational' synoptic planning.

This paper will document the pedagogical theory underlying the approach. It will outline the course contents of the two units of taught and practice based learning and illustrate how the two units interact and re-enforce student epistemic, creative and ethical understanding in relation to the messy real world of complexity, volition, particularity and finite temporality.

## UNIVERSALITY VERSUS PARTICULARITY

As I have suggested elsewhere (Gunder 1998a, 1998b), one way forward for planning education and the discipline is a contemporary broadening and re-acceptance of the importance of Aristotle's full range of intellectual virtues -- *episteme* (science, understanding and deducing universals), *techné* (applying aesthetic judgement and science in making things well), and *phronesis* (effective value judgement and conduct for successful action) -- within planning practices. The latter, arguably most important virtue, is consistent with a style of neo-pragmatic planning *praxis* rooted in aspects of Dewey's pragmatics of experience where intelligence is the ability 'to grasp situations as processes-in-context' (Alexander 1995, 85) in a reality 'which is defined through *situations of problems*' (Ploger 2001, 222; italics in original). Bourdieu (1998, 25) calls this having the '„feel” for the game' or '„habitus' in „the field of power.' For Dewey, experience is central to knowledge and knowledge is itself only useful to an actor when it can be used to solve problems (Friedmann 1987).

Yet as Rorty wrote at the start of the post-modern deconstructive period on the sophistries embedded in modern rationality:

We are the heirs of three hundred years of rhetoric about the importance of distinguishing sharply between science and religion, science and politics, science

and art, science and philosophy, and so on. The rhetoric has formed the culture of Europe. It makes us what we are today . . . Galileo, so to speak, won the argument, and we all stand on the common ground of the „grid’ of relevance and irrelevance of that victory. (Rorty 1979: 330)

The concept of science is derived from one of Aristotle’s three intellectual virtues -- *episteme*. This is an excellence in knowledge „that is universal, external and can be demonstrated to be true from first principles’ (Flyvbjerg 1992, 67). It is knowledge which can be taught as a set of universal facts in a lecture. While *techne* remains in our language as technology (negating *techne*’s artistic side), *phronesis* is obscured (Flyvbjerg 1992). Unlike *episteme*, Aristotle’s intellectual virtue of *phronesis* must be learnt from experience (ibid). We can only develop student *phronesis* by allowing them opportunities for gaining primary experience by doing planning, or perhaps less effectively via secondary experience, in hearing how others do planning. *Phronesis* is a skill in analysing „values and their implications for action’ (Flyvbjerg 1992, 68). Hillier (1995, 294) also suggests that it is context dependent talent, with a „focus on the variable and particular.’ Flyvbjerg (2001) proposes, in this light, that it also must be an intellectual excellence in understanding the workings of power in concrete situations.

*Phronesis* is a concept largely lost in modernity’s instrumental rationality and focus on science. Yet Flyvbjerg (2001) argues that it is an essential talent for achieving desired complex human action, as well as a critical intellectual concept for effective analysis and understanding of the real, rather than ideal, rationality that is often involved in accomplishing complex political activities, such as planning. Flyvbjerg suggests that social science will largely continue to be ineffective in these arenas until its epistemic focus of universal predicability is replaced by a phronetic focus on the virtuosity of actors creating effective action in the complexity and particularity of civic political and similar labyrinthian social forums.

Gunder and Fookes’ (1997) research suggested that much of planning education, like many other university disciplines still dominantly stuck in modernist rationalities, proceeds „from the tacit premise that education is a matter of transmitting neatly packaged [universal] bodies of knowledge’ (Baum 1997: 23). Scope exists, however for the development of rudimentary phronetic skills by students in an university programme (Gunder 1998b). Experience can be gained through studio or workshop practice that attempts to mirror the complexity of the real world, or actually occurs within it. This can be significantly enhanced by providing students the concepts – Harris’s (2000) lens -- for Schön’s (1988) critical reflection on practice and actively encouraging them to think about their actions, the how and why of what they do, and in particular, how they use intuition and gut-feel assumptions when learnt rules of procedure do not readily fit a situation or provide a solution. This author suggests that story-telling and critical case-studies have an important role here. This is to tease out the nuances in issues of value and judgement and, in particular, provide secondary experiences of individual cases for the development of imagination, creativity and phronetic skills for synthesis of the complex and particular. Reed (1996, 93) defines two types of experience for acquiring knowledge, primary experience is the ability to select in an unbounded manner „information obtained autonomously.’ In contrast, secondary experience is codified, selected and supplied by others.

Gunder (1998b) suggested that you can collect primary experience either ad hoc or with purpose. The latter is learning where to perceive what matters. That is the ability to focus attention at what really matters in processes-in-context, to filter out the relevant data, to know how and where to listen effectively (Forester 1995, Sandercock 1995). This also includes knowing where and why to look. This is Foucault's (1973) professional „gaze’ where morality is most at risk and yet most important in its application for „good’ practice.

The act of seeing generates knowledge about the seen. Power (the gaze) and knowledge are thus intertwined in the concept of power/knowledge. The gaze is asymmetrical. It is unidirectional in that the gaze upon do not know when they are being watched. It is a technique of power/knowledge which enables administrators to „better’ or „more effectively’ control their subject populations. (Hillier 1997, p140)

This author suggests that the way to enhance „good’ practice and avoid the potential for subjugation through planning „gaze’ is by, firstly, creating this awareness and understanding of the moral implications and complexity of action as dynamic processes-in-contexts within the student through *praxis* during planning education prior to the commencement of professional practice. This first requires the development of imagination and creativity on the student's part -- a disenfranchisement from the conventional ways of seeing and talking about the world. Gunder (1998a) suggested that one effective way to do so is for planning educators to introduce to students the theoretical ontological concepts of Heidegger and his students; Foucault; ecofeminism's ethics of care; and postmodern critique – a focus on „being’ and „power’ rather than just epistemic fact within emframing language. Then provide studio/workshop opportunities to test and play with these concepts of ethical enquiry on the self and the „Other’ in conjunction with more traditional planning theories and tools while doing mock, or even real (supervised), *praxis*. These opportunities are crucial for seeing and developing creative alternatives which can accommodate difference and diversity in place of instrumentality's seeking of conformity and normalisation. As Dreyfus (n.d., 9) states:

Thinking the history of being, for Heidegger, and the genealogy of regimes of power, for Foucault, opens a space for critical questioning by showing that our understanding of reality need not be defined by techno/bio power – that we need not be dominated by the drive to order and optimize everything.

Here Dewey's transactive pragmatism can form „a pedagogy of communicative action’ where human and nature are one and education is creative imagination (Biesta 1995, 279). As Fesmire (1995, 57-58) states in support of Dewey's educationalist perspective of encouraging imagination within one self as part of nature:

Moral and educational theories that ignore imagination are, therefore, morally irresponsible. They ignore morality's most valuable resource, leaving imagination and the aesthetic outlets that it demands blowing in a capricious breeze. . . Much more than this, immorality stems from a scarcity of moral imagination and a failure in moral artistry.

We as academic teachers can only provide a place to commence development of morality and artistry in practice. If planning practice can only be learnt through primary experience then planning students must have experience of personal *poiesis* (making) and *praxis* (doing). More than just initial knowledge of facts and theories, this also requires exposure to stories and case studies on how planning occurs in the world (Forester 1994, 1995), then studio or field work related learning through both doing aspects of practice and making products of planning – planning policy and plans. Higgins and Morgan (2000: 118) argue that developing creativity in planning students is crucial to developing good planning practitioners. They define creativity as *„the ability to repackage or combine knowledge in a new way which is of some practical use or adds value’* [their italics]. For Dewey this means planning students must develop the ability to „continuously explore the new and leave the old behind’ when a theory, hypothesis, or working assumption no longer fits a given situation (Friedmann 1987, 191). This recombinant creativity and ethical enquiry about values in the particularity of the concrete, rather than the universal, can be quite at odds with the neatly defined packets of knowledge and epistemic concerns of universal fact core to the philosophy of science.

Yet Forester (1999, 177) argues; planning education, literature and research „that remains intellectually inarticulate about questions of value’ that contribute to the everyday creative actions of professional practice results in „questions of better and worse processes and outcomes’ being „hardly [of much] worth’. For Forester (1999, 182) states:

Planners cannot really ignore these nuanced questions of better and worse, and until our „planning theory’ helps us to understand these value questions better, it will be deeply flawed – and we will all be the worse off.

Gunder (1998a) argued that planning education has a crucial role to promote students understanding of the importance of human values, local truths and power in the „everydayedness’ of professional practice while incurring multiple opportunities for students to develop their creative abilities. This will allow students, both at university and as they become practitioners, to have the necessary tools and insights to play and explore the public stage. This is a place of rhetoric, strategic games and negotiation – all of which occurs under the deployment of power and knowledge to distort rationality into rationalisation (Flyvbjerg 1998). As recent research is showing (ibid; Gunder 2000a), a significant arena for this imposition of value is in the plan preparation and implementation process. Gunder (1998a, 2000b) suggests, like Sandercock (1999), that developing an understanding of planning as creative ethical enquiry will result in our students developing planning actions – plans and planning practices – with both good processes and outputs that also, more importantly, ensure a good and just society and environment. Practices and plans which leave little or no room for what Yiftachel (1998) refers to as the dark side of planning – social control and oppression -- at least on the part of the reflective planning practitioner.

The following sections describe the approach used at the University of Auckland to promote this creative ethical enquiry. This is an approach which also bridges the perceived modernist divide between theory and practice. It is an approach which strives to develop the three intellectual excellences, or virtues, of Aristotle – *episteme*, *techne* and *phronesis*.

## **STUDIO COURSE CONTENT – DEVELOPING *TECHNE* WITH OPPORTUNITIES FOR ACQUIRING *PHRONESIS***

The course is part of the last twelve week semester of each of the two professionally accredited planning degree programmes. For the first eleven weeks there is six hours of studio contact per week with the last 35 hour week of the semester dedicated purely to studio activity. While both final semester undergraduates and final semester masters students follow the same studio structure, they are separate courses delivered at different times, with the exception of the final week's work, when both groups come together. The studio is a comprehensive synoptic planning exercise from initial identification of an planning issue through the policy and political processes required to implement action that addresses the identified issue in strategic, district and financial annual planning documents. A staff student ratio of 1:15 is maintained for instruction, with staff taking the role of „office superior’ reviewing and revising one-on-one drafts of student works prior to their submission for assessment. Access to staff in studio time is only rationed by student demand.

Short lectures are given on how to do tasks such as effective report writing and public speaking. These brief lectures are very much process and task orientated, explaining such things as the value of active voice in report writing, maintaining group eye contact in public speaking, or media skills on effective sound-bites. Most of the studio time is devoted to doing the assignments – making planning policy documents (developing *techné*) and implementing them through action (developing *phronesis*) including some time devoted to public speaking, interaction with elected politicians, and television media experience. The course seeks to achieve skill developing in the most important craft areas of planning identified by Ozawa and Seltzer (1999). These include skill areas of effective communications, team work and individual initiative, and the ability to synthesis complex issues into recommendations for implementable action.

## **PLANNING THEORY COURSE–*EPISTEME* WITH OPPORTUNITIES FOR REFLECTION ON *NOUS* (INTUITION)**

The planning theory course is a conventional eleven week course with three hours of student lectures each week. It is taught in the final semester of each professional programme, with both streams sharing lectures, but having separate seminars. It builds on previous courses on planning history and theory, a course on gender issues and a course on planning from a Maori perspective, as well as the wider content of the two degree programmes. In addition each student participates in four seminars with a maximum seminar size of 15 students to further explore concepts raised and individual student reactions to them. Story telling is used by the lecturer to illustrate points of theory and practice. These are drawn from personal experience and peer reviewed case studies such as Flyvbjerg (1998) and (Gunder 2000a). Three practitioners are invited to two lectures to discuss personal issues of practice and ethics. There is no exam, but two assignments are required. In the first, an essay of 4,000 plus words is required citing at least twenty references from the literature.

The second assignment is to maintain a diary during the course of the semester. The diary is required to have dated entries reflecting, at least, weekly thinking on the course and the

studio (as well as in relationship to other relevant courses, if desired). To this end it is graded on evidence of regular thinking and reflection on issues/concepts raised in lectures, readings (distributed each week) and seminars. Discussion and reflection on feelings towards issues are encouraged, as are any comments on the teaching.

## **SYNERGIES INDUCING OPPORTUNITIES TO ACQUIRE *PHRONESIS***

This section reviews the two courses on a weekly basis with particular regard to the ethical and phronetic outcomes produced. The first week commences by introducing the student to the courses, assignments and terminology to be used. The studio is primarily concerned with getting the students to identify an opportunity or problem in the study area which is a CBD area or inner city suburb of Auckland. Site visits are made to the area with studio instructors who strive to focus the students' gaze on relevant issues at a scale appropriate for the student for the scope of the studio. Issues taken up range from those of open space and recreation provision, transport, urban design, economic development, heritage, stormwater management, public facility provision through to cultural activities. Students are not discouraged from any topic area provided it is sufficient to provide for all studio tasks. The key action is to get students to conceptualise their own concrete planning issue.

The theory course truly commences by asking why the students are sitting in the lecture theatre, if they are free why are they not on a tropical beach or the ski slope? Concepts of structure/agency, social fields of activity and Foucaultian normalisation are introduced in the lecture using a/v overheads of cartoons of fish swimming in a school of the „illusio' sea. The readings focus on modern planning (Friedmann 1987, Healey 1997) and Kant's (1990) „What is Enlightenment' with the latter used to introduce the concepts of planning as social control and planners as social guardians. The key reflective outcome is that students realise that their concept of personal freedom is significantly different than their reality.

Week two in studio gets students involved in articulating their issue via giving short speeches to the class and drafting a two page council committee report recommending action on their identified issue. The theory course in its lectures and readings further overviews modernist SITAR planning theories (Hudson in Sager 1994), while deconstructing instrumental rationality. This is reinforced by having the students break into groups and play Lifeboat. This is a „game' where each group has to develop and report on a methodology to cull an overcrowded lifeboat with a range of diverse characters down to a sustainable capacity to avoid the death of all – needless to say illustrating to the students that sometimes there are no rational solutions, we all are biased, and any solution has the price of opportunities foregone.

Week three has students in studio honing their reports based on mentoring by the instructors. In the theory lectures the concept of strategic winning versus merit and excellence is developed and demonstrated to not necessarily be synonymous. Foucaultian concepts of governmentality are introduced in the readings and lectures illustrating planning as a human discursive discipline. Concepts of progress, historical contingency and the Hegelian Absolute are discussed in this light. Of particular value, based on student feedback, is a discussion of intuition, insight (*nous*), synthesis and the then latter need to justify this

position rationally, reflective of the report writing the students are just completing – the answer generally comes before the science.

Week four through six has the students in studio doing more public speaking and identifying the best means to address their identified planning issue, this is then written up in a second committee report evaluating at least three potential means and recommending a specific course of action. These reports are assembled in a „mock’ committee agenda and presented to Auckland City Councillors (who generously give their time) in a „mock’ committee in week six.

Theory lectures and readings in week four further introduce Habermas’s (1984) communicative action, Derrida’s (1976) concepts/problems of duality, truth and presence/absence, Nietzschean genealogy (Smith 1996) and the differentiation between the „ought’ and the ‘is’ in planning. Week five focuses on the Heideggerian critique of „being as temporality’, the enframement of language within modernity and Lacan’s (1977) concepts of language/social law castrating our being from the Real. Students readily buy into Heidegger’s (1962, 1977) concept of *Dasien* and his short work: „The Question Concerning Technology,’ albeit with considerable help in lectures, a Dreyfus (1995) companion reading and a dedicated seminar. At the end of the week they are quite upset when informed that Heidegger was a Nazi and violently anti-Semitic – diaries show this to be a useful lesson for reflection.

Week six of the theory course is perhaps the most important. Until this time the concept of *phronesis* is only alluded to in lectures. Both *phronesis* readings (Flyvbjerg 1992, Hillier 1995), in conjunction with the experience of defending their second studio report before non-nonsense City Councillors works like the focus on a lens – to extend the Harris (2000) metaphor – to snap the paper and studio into focus. Drawing not just on taught material, but actual practice experience in studio, diary entries show that a majority of students begin to fully understand what is being presented to them, many students comment that not just these courses, but their whole degree programme now is seen in a different perspective. Students perceive that they can act effectively in their presence before the Councillors, they have an understanding predicated on intellectual virtues of how their practice works – I suggest that much of the theory/practice gap is transcended. The second half of the theory course builds on this understanding.

Weeks seven through nine in studio are used to draft detailed policy sections of the three required plans using a format of Issue, Objective, Policies, Explanation, Methods for each document section. By now students have learnt the complexity of converting the simplest of good ideas into action on the public stage. The last three weeks in studio are spent doing team work with some time devoted to developing further television media and public presentation techniques. Learning outcomes are: an understanding of the complexity of policy making, experience in working in teams, mediating compromises as much individual policy work is not consistent with that done by fellow team members. Finally, the studio builds self confidence that the students are now ready for professional practice and this is a major course objective.

Weeks seven and eight of the theory course focuses on power and exclusion, drawing on the students now established personal experiences of power and knowledge. Arguments on the ideal and dark side of planning theory are introduced and Habermasian consensual value rationality is critiqued. The corporate capture of sustainability by Harvey's (1995) ecological modernity are discussed and deconstructed. These two weeks lay a foundation for the understanding that there are multiple cultural lifeworlds, not just European predicated modernity. This is reinforced by lectures on Maori philosophy in week nine and then Western constructs of social equity are then deconstructed. Week ten discusses liberal assumptions underlying universal human rights, including Rorty's (1989) position that anything goes as long as it does not cause pain. To focus discussion extreme cultural practices such as cannibalism are considered in contrast to universal rights. The question is asked should an oak tree also have rights? Neo-pragmatic planning is then discussed as is the concepts of creativity in action. Student dairies show a mix of positions in regards to universal versus local rights, goods and values, but significant evidence of reflection on these ethical perspectives is consistent across the dairies.

The final week of the theory paper takes creativity further and proposes, somewhat tongue in cheek, poetic planning. Poetry is demonstrated as a mechanism to dis-emframe from modernist language and students are encouraged to write a poem in their dairies. Many do so, with considerable surprise in what they can convey in a few words. Finally „What is Enlightenment' is revisited from Foucault's (1997) perspective and the course is summarised from the perspective of ethics of freedom. Expertise is then discussed as put forward by Drefus and Drefus (in Flyvbjerg 2001). Students are finally informed that this is not a planning theory course, but a course on ethics. Gratifyingly, diary entries and teaching evaluations show most students appear to understand this.

Combined, the two courses have provided students with seven opportunities for public speaking in front of their peers, Councillors, invited professional guests at the final team presentation and the television camera. Between academic staff and invited professionals, students are exposed to the comments and stories of approximately a dozen experienced practitioners. As the above sections illustrate, students are also exposed to significant contemporary planning and wider social theory. Students develop *epistemic* knowledge, *techne* craft and most importantly – opportunities for acquiring *phronesis* – experience in doing planning requiring the evaluation of values for action. The latter is in a range of areas such as developing effective committee report recommendations, maintaining audience interest while speaking, coordinating, mediating and integrating their diverse policy positions, or in holding their own in committee debate.

## CONCLUSION

This author suggests that the above approach to theory and practice in planning education largely transcends the duality of the theory/practice gap. It suggests that Flyvbjerg's (2001) „rational fallacy' of the avoidance of the „logic of practice' and social scientific understanding of professional behaviour can indeed be transcended, at least in planning education. Central to this transcendence are a return to an Aristotelian ethics and a contemporary appreciation of all his intellectual virtues, particularly *phronesis*. Smith (1996) suggests that much of post-

structuralism is predicated on an Aristotelian rather than a Platonic philosophical perspective. Aristotle's influence on Nietzsche and in turn Heidegger cannot be overstated and both thinkers were the beginning of the turn to post-modern thought. Indeed Smith (1996, 316) agrees and further argues the significance of Aristotle's virtue of *phronesis*.

Premodernity was initially intent on carving out a place for thinking and defending it *from the political*. Modernity felt the need to carve out a place for thinking in the *face of theology*. Postmodernity would have to try to find a way to defend the practical experience of reality *from the hegemony of autonomous theory*.

Contemporary adaptation of Aristotelian ethics with a focus on values-in-doing frees practice from the hegemony of theory, while still retaining its usefulness where appropriate. Flyvbjerg's (2001) phronetic social science is one such application of this approach. The above planning theory and conjoint planning studio approach in developing planning education is another way to accommodate the 'logic of practice' while still appreciating theory, but a valuation of planning theories subjugated to an ethics of value in the context of power. The latter needed, I suggest, for the truly enlightened planning practitioner.

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## **BRIDGING THEORY AND PRACTICE IN PLANNING EDUCATION: THE CENTRALITY OF WORK PLACEMENTS**

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Writing a paper for a conference like this is both liberating and constraining: liberating in the sense one feels a degree of freedom not allowed in more formal conferences, a degree of freedom that allows one to be both speculative and exploratory; constraining in that this mid-semester, lectures have to be written and today is August 27, four days before submission!

Four stories or reflections to start with, stories that underlie the rest of this paper.

At RMIT I organise the Work Placements for third year students, fifty this year, and once placed, run classes around Work Placement experiences. Parallel to these classes, I run a subject entitled Planning History and Theory, inherited from Leonie Sandercock and Margo Huxley: more of the relationship between the two classes later. In the Work Placement classes we do a variety of things, one being bringing in guest lecturers to talk about aspects of emerging planning practice. This year, amongst others, we invited Andrea Cook, formerly a Canadian exchange student to RMIT and one of five such students to eventually settle in Melbourne (but that is another story). Andrea is now working in community health care in central Victoria and is completing her PhD with Leonie Sandercock. Andrea spoke to the students about ethics in planning and ran some workshops using hypothetical situations involving ethical dilemmas faced by planners. The student response was excellent as they were able to relate to many of the hypothetical situations to their own experiences. After the class Andrea told me that when she came out from Canada to RMIT she was looking for direction in life and by chance I organised her work placement with Wendy Sarkissian, then a consultant in Melbourne. From her work with Wendy she developed an interest in planning theory and theoretically-informed practice, one of her latest publication being on planning ethics (Cook and Sarkissian, 2000). This history might be repeated. In early 2001 I organised a placement with the Urban and Regional Land Corporation (URLC) for a student who had just taken a year out to „find herself“. The student has been working with Wendy running workshops for senior URLC senior staff on environmentally and socially sustainable residential development, the ideas generated being trialled in the URDC's North Epping estate. The student has brought these experiences back into the classroom to share with other students. Like Andrea, they have been experiences that have enabled her to grow both personally, academically and professionally.

The second story comes from the related History and Theory of Planning class I ran in Semester 1, 2001. In this I invite students to choose their own essay topic, one to be approved by me. Catherine Coco wrote on “Evaluating the TAMED agenda: making room for reality”. Evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of Leonie Sandercock's model (1998) of the content of the ideal planning undergraduate course, TAMED,

Catherine came up with her own proposal: ACT - Analytical, Communication, Technical – a model complemented by more specialised studies in either Design, Ecology or Multicultural Studies, a model, in Catherine's and my view, more in tune with the time, resource and cultural limitations of RMIT. Catherine and I are now trying to develop her ideas with a view to rethinking the undergraduate Urban Planning, Urban Design and Environment courses at RMIT, in my view, now too close to professional training needs.

The third story involves the project I am currently running with third year Environment Students. Melbourne Water (MW) has put out a Discussion Starter, "Planning for the Future of Our Water Resources", 2001, an accessible and full discussion of the strategic options that MW can consider for planning water supplies for Greater Melbourne for the next decade or so. It is available in summary form in a variety of languages and it invites people to make submissions on the Web. One feature of this website is that you can read all the other submissions and so draw upon others' ideas to support your own. We have had class presentations from both the authors and critics of this document and all students have made submissions as part of their assessment. A member of the MW Steering Committee for this project is Mary Crooks, executive Officer of the Victorian Women's Trust and founder member of Purple Sage, a grassroots organization formed at the height of the Kennett years to empower citizens and protect Victoria's democracy. Purple Sage has taken on water management as its major project for the next three years with the intention of making it a national campaign. With Mary's assistance the students are going out into the community to form and run their discussion groups about water – to listen and record people's values and behaviours regarding water – as part of Purple Sage's wider strategy of making water a more central concern in public debates and policy. Students are being encouraged but not forced to include people outside their age group and ethnic and class backgrounds. On August 28 we ran training sessions on how to bring a group together, and how to conduct and record discussions. The students' findings will assist Purple Sage develop a Community Primer to be used by discussion group leaders and participants in a survey of possibly 100,000 Victorians in 2002 and 2003. In the related tutorials we are discussing the community consultation literature and relating it back to our project work experience: in short, practice and theory are brought together in ways that has real meaning for the students.

The fourth „story' is a more a reflection on my teaching of History and Theory of Planning<sup>1</sup> and Professional Practice (Work Placement)<sup>2</sup> subjects to undergraduate (third year) students. The undergraduate History and Theory of Planning subject is carefully and sequentially structured using some of the material that Leonie Sandercock and Margo Huxley used in the past, and tries to make explicit links with earlier subjects and to Work Placements.

With the occasional exception of students like Catherine Coco, there is little comparison in the quality of the Individual Essay required in Planning History and Theory and the Reflective Report based on students' work placements. The theory essay is often a cut and paste job, the reflective report, by contrast, is full of the excitement of learning, comments on practitioners' values and practices and when appropriate, judicious use of

quotes from texts used in the Planning History and Theory classes. One wonders why: same students, same time, same teacher.

All these stories of course reflect my interests and biases, the main ones I think being my belief about active citizenship and my preference for „learning by doing’: with undergraduates in particular, you creep up on theory through well designed projects which are implicitly tied back to social and planning theory. The links between practice and theory are there but particularly before Work Placements, the theoretical aspects are underplayed. Emphasis at this stage, I believe, should be in developing students’ research skills and their self-confidence in completing high-quality projects.

In this view, Work Placements become the keystone of the undergraduate planning programme with the year after the formal placement is completed being the time for the more reflective, critical and explicitly theoretically-informed subjects, the year when students realise the importance of understanding social and planning theories, a pre-requisite for progressive planning practices.

That said it is increasingly difficult to find spaces for reflective and critical thought in planning courses given the constant demand for new content and skills to be introduced. I would argue therefore, following Catherine, that planning educators have to make choices about what they leave out to enable spaces to be created within programmes for „deeper learning’ to occur.

The RMIT undergraduate course has undergone a variety of ideological, format and content changes over its forty year history: from its beginnings as an offshoot of Surveying through to its recent flirtations with Sandercock’s TAMED. In my view the programme came to its peak in terms of attracting able students (some of whom now influence planning debates in Victoria) after the decision in the early 1980s to take an explicit social science approach and a focus on strategic planning and research, similar to the recommendations made by McLoughlin (1992). „Deep learning’ in sociology, politics and economics became possible. Key lecturers who delivered the programme and sometimes inspired the students included Ian Winter, Geoff Rundell, John Milton, Margo Huxley and Julian Golby, all of who have now left the RMIT Planning Programme. The Work Placement element was built into the early 1980s programme revamp and has been the only constant element since. It fair to say it is the part of the programme most appreciated by the students, not least because it has provided an entrée into full-time employment on graduation.

Since its move into a School of Social Science in 1999, the RMIT Planning Programme’s grounding in the social sciences has been renewed but only to a limited degree. There has been a strong push to have planning students take several subjects from its sister Environmental Management programme together with an insistence that the statutory aspects of planning, RMIT’s strength in the 1970s, be mandatory. Furthermore an undergraduate programme in Urban Design was introduced in 1999, Urban Design and Urban Planning students now taking several common subjects. These are moves RAPI is pleased about. It has meant, in my view, a return to a cluttered programme and a

loss of „deep learning’ and so a loss of intellectual challenge to the students, and in turn, a drying up of what I have term critical graduates who have the ability and training to effect progressive changes to planning policies and practices.

With the bastion of Work Placements unmoved, I would argue that the first two years, prior to Work Placements, should be designed to introduce students to relevant social, political and economic theories with associated projects which exemplify aspects of these theories and within which students apply the full array of social science research methods. Such projects can be designed so as to respond to „real’ issues brought to the classroom by a „client’ or community groups. In this manner the students appreciate the need for an understanding of social theory and a command of relevant research methods if a well-grounded and perceptive report for the „client’ is to be produced.

This sets the stage for students to be more relaxed and willing to take on “Planning Theory’ in third year and to be able to look for and reflect on the connections between planning theories and practices, both in their work places and back in the classroom, something that is not altogether successful at present. I would argue this is because of the cluttered, all-embracing syllabus they have to plough through in their first two years.

That said, I would argue for a subject on Planning Law and Procedures immediately before Work Placements commence and a second, more reflective and critical one (see the first subject in the list below) immediately afterwards. Beyond the principles that lie beneath statutory planning practices, I believe that statutory planning is best learnt by doing it either through Work Placements and/or after graduating.

Given the current circumstances of the RMIT Planning Programme and the students it attracts, I would argue that the subjects after the Work Placement are the most vital ones in terms of encouraging reflective, critical practice amongst young graduates intending to work as planners.

Suggested subjects (and possible key authors) in which theories and practices meld, in which students bring to the classroom their own experiences and reflections, in which the teacher now becomes the facilitator, include:

The Victorian Planning Provisions: a critical perspective (Patsy Healey)  
Implementation: from knowledge to action (John Friedmann)  
Conflict Resolution (John Forester)  
Personal, Professional and Work Place Ethics (Cook and Sarkissian)  
International Planning Practices (the journals)  
Small Group Project  
Conversations with Designers

Only one of the suggested subjects will be explored here and this bring us back to Andrea Cook. I would argue her concern with planning ethics is particular relevant just now for three main reasons: the increasingly deregulated nature of planning and the related increase in discretionary power of planners who, in Victoria at least, are often enjoying

rapid promotion, sometimes well beyond their level of experience. This leaves them open to making poor decisions be they on technical, procedural or ethical grounds. Such a subject forces students to reflect back on the values that underpin their own personal beliefs, those enshrined in professional practice and those of the market place. This in turn should encourage students to go over what they considered in the History and Theory of Planning: can the Weberian notion of planners as „gatekeepers’ be linked professional ethics; how do we define public good and private interests in planning practice? It should mean they properly evaluate the values espoused by RAPI before they graduate and so the relationships between the professions and the market place (Alford and Friedland 1985). Through workshops they can work through some of the knotty problems of day-to-day practice and through such exercises develop a network of colleagues and friends they can confidently refer to in later professional life.

As a personal reflection, I will have to look through Sandercock’s and Huxley’s earlier Planning History and Theory subject guides again to see what they said about such topics and more generally, follow through on the literature on planning ethics. I should be more confident about bringing my own stories into the Planning History and Theory undergraduate class. Perhaps we should have discussions trying to determine students’ individual value systems as it relates to their attitudes to professional practices. And I should bring more ex-students like Andrea Cook into the classroom. Maybe Catherine Coco in years to come<sup>3</sup>.

More generally, the success of these post-Work Placement subjects partly rests on how well the Work Practice and Planning Theory subjects are taught in the previous year, which in turn depend on the ground work in „learning by doing’ of the first two years.

Finally, I would add that to promote progressive and critical planning practice depends as much on the selection of students. I would argue that planning students selected purely on school scores often tend to be conformist, conservative people who have little sense of personal or intellectual adventure. Selection should be based, at least in part, on the candidates’ sense of purpose in life, their motivations and achievements to date. They might be uncertain but they should demonstrate a curiosity, a willingness to try to make a difference. School scores often tell you more about the school the student attended and their parents and tutors. But these are other stories for another day.

## Notes

<sup>1</sup> The History and Theory of Planning subject has been changed from a lecture-tutorial format to one based on a set of weekly readings, student commentaries being placed on a Web Board before weekly class discussions. This style of teaching has several advantages. It forces students to read key texts: no Web Board commentary: no mark. It allows the more introverted student to speak with a degree of confidence to their Web board contribution up on the overhead; all students have voice. It creates a more informal environment in which some of the more obtuse aspects of planning theory can be talked through. It allows time for the students to make cross-reference, where appropriate, to Work Placement experience and Professional Practice discussions.

<sup>2</sup> All RMIT planning students are required to complete a minimum of 60 days working with either a public or private sector planner. Students work Wednesdays to Fridays during Semester 1, Year 3, coming into

classes on Monday and Tuesday. Potential employers submit job descriptions from which students choose their preferences. RMIT then organises competitive job interviews. Students and employers who do not get a placement in the first round, go into a second round. Work supervisors are provided with a manual of what is expected of them. Students keep a Work Diary. RMIT staff make progress visits to each work placement. In the class component of the Work Placement, Professional Practice, students make presentations on aspects of practice that interest them, guest speakers usually involved in some aspect of emerging practice are invited, mock appeal tribunals are organised.

<sup>3</sup>Would you believe it. As I write this, the Course Co-ordinator walks in asking me how I want to use the three hour contact time in undergraduate Planning History and Theory in Semester 1, 2002. I was obliged to say I wanted to change from a 2 hour lecture plus one hour tutorial to a one hour lecture and a two hour tutorial.

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# **THE IMPORTANCE OF CONCEPTS OF SOUND PRACTICE IN CONCEPTUALISING USEFUL PLANNING THEORY**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

This paper first discusses sound practice and then the relevance of theory to sound practice. It indicates a need to reconceptualise planning theory so it is more relevant to practice. The paper begins by suggesting planning practice is primarily about cases, in the sense a case is an instance of a general type. For example, cases are instances of general types of plans, planning instruments, development proposals and assessments. Cases are discursive as both the products of the case and the process involve discourse.

The paper will argue that planning theory, if it is to be relevant to practice, needs to be reconceptualised and extended to include conceptual frameworks which relate to the construction and justification of sound and useful practical discourse. It will suggest theory should be based on concepts pertaining to sound and useful discursive practices, rather than on any substantive area of knowledge. Furthermore, the paper will suggest a theory should not be considered to be a planning theory unless they can be shown that its constitutive concepts can be used in constructing sound and useful discourse. Theory that does not assist in structuring practical discourse is unhelpful for two reasons. First, it is misleading, as a wide range of concepts with dubious utility can be presented as planning theory. Second, and more importantly, it does not provide a framework to guide practitioners or a basis for demonstrating a practitioner is acting in accordance with sound practice.

While planning theory may act as a source of ideas for practitioners, it cannot provide justification for the use of any ideas, or for statements made using them. Justification requires reasoning. Theory that seeks to provide a basis for planning practice must encompass the construction of sound cases, which rely on practical reasoning for both their construction and their justification. In short, sound practice requires reasoning; theory is not required, unless theory is reconceptualised to include reasoning in enacting and constructing sound discourse pertaining to cases.

While much of what follows is abstract, the principles outlined are simple. The position outlined is an ordinary-language approach to the construction of understanding and discourse about cases that is based on practical reasoning. In this approach, practitioners in conceptualising cases and in enacting critical and reflective inquiry consciously use conceptual frameworks. Such inquiry enables the practitioner to move from general concepts to specific statements and discourse that the practitioner considers sound and relevant.

## **CASES ARE CENTRAL TO PRACTICE**

Planning practice entails enacting cases and producing discourses in particular contexts and for particular purposes. Cases are considered to be cases in the sense they are instances of some general conception about planning practice. This immediately raises questions of what constitutes a valid and useful conception of practice, and of how such a general conception can be used by a practitioner in enacting a case?

The position taken here is that general concepts can be used in enacting critical and reflective inquiry. General concepts are used in asking questions in particular contexts, which lead to answers that are specific statements about that context. Hence we can readily use general concepts to make specific statements that may then be used in constructing discourse that is valid and useful in that context. This leads back to the first question concerning which general concepts are to be included in a useful conception of practice.

To answer this question we must work backward from the useful kinds of specific statements involved in sound practice. These statements lead to the appropriate questions, and then to concepts to be included in our frameworks, so we can use the concepts to ask questions that lead to the kinds of sought answer. In essence, this is simply taking two complementary ideas: questions using general concepts can lead to answers that are specific statements, and specific statements can be seen as being answers to questions asked using general concepts.

The term conceptual framework is used here to refer to an idea which is similar to those referred to by a range of terms, such as: schemata, cognitive structures, conceptual maps, proto-types, and geno-types. The basic idea is that we use sets of related concepts to structure our understanding of the work. This use is extended to also connote that we can construct and use such frameworks consciously, especially with asking questions and using answers to construct subsequent discourse.

The above discussion recognises planning practice involves both particularising and generalising. Cases are particular expressions of general forms that have been constructed with the intention that these general forms can be particularised in enacting sound cases. In essence, sound cases are instances of general concepts about sound practice.

Ascertaining that discourse is sound and relevant a fundamental activity of the practitioner. Soundness and relevance are established by the practitioner on the basis of their reasoning in a particular context and with regard to particular purposes. No prior commitment is made to any attributes of a discourse, other than it should be considered sound by the practitioner. Here the practitioner engages in critical and reflective behaviour, especially with scrutiny of proposed discourse to ensure it is justified in the sense it can be reasonably be considered to be sound and relevant. Relevance and soundness are realised by the practitioner using practical reason. In essence, the movement from general concepts to sound specific requires inquiry and practical reason.

## **PRACTICAL CASES ENTAIL REASONED DISCOURSES**

The discussion on cases above indicates the discursive nature of inquiry enacted by a practitioner with asking and answering questions to enable the use of general concepts in enacting discourse related to particular cases. It says little about what cases are, other than that they are instances of general types.

The position outlined here is based on the idea that cases are instances of practitioners enacting proper practice and constructing sound discourses using general concepts. Hence, the aim is to construct conceptual frameworks that enable the practitioner to enact cases properly and construct sound discourses. Hence, frameworks need to contain several sets of concepts, so that there is a sufficient range for the practitioner to enact a case. One set of concepts must include the idea of a practitioner using concepts in reflective inquiry and in enacting discourse.

Here, discourse can be viewed as being at two levels. First, with expressed and potential speech or documents, such as those used for communication or recording; this level is primarily concerned with the substantive and procedural aspects of the world which are in part the object of the discourse. And second, with conscious reflective discourse which, among other things, is concerned with the relevance and soundness of what may potentially be stated or has been stated at the first level. The second level here is concerned with reflection about relevance, soundness, completeness, form of discourse and other concerns the practitioner has about discourse at the first level.

The other conceptual frameworks relate to the two levels of discourse indicated above. The first is about the substantive and procedural world, in essence the components of the world that may be the object of discourse (obviously such a group cannot be specified and must remain open). The second is about discourse and comprises two groupings of concepts: basic kinds of discourse, and about forms of practical discourse. The reason for the two groups is that the discursive product combines concepts from both, for instance, a development proposal presenting a sound argument, or a report telling a story explaining how a plan was prepared.

Which terms are used for these groups does not matter, and the contents are flexible; like a tool-kit, if another tool is needed it can be added. The main concern is to have general concepts that relate the practitioner and their related discursive activities to: sound discourse, forms of practical discourse, and to aspects of the substantive and procedural world that are the object of discourse. The kinds of ideas that may be in such frameworks are outlined below.

*The practitioner enacting cases and constructing discourse*, including the construction of documents presenting practical discourse; consciously using concepts in frameworks to ask and answer questions; drafting and editing discourses; and engaging in critical and reflective practice to ensure discourses are sound and useful.

*Substantive matters*, relating to elements of the world which is the object of discourse, such as views, vistas, heights, traffic, streetscape, densities, access, parking and many other matters.

*Procedural matters*, such as enabling legislation and procedural requirements, administrative arrangements, meeting schedules, budgets, organisational structures, delegation, agendas, reporting practices and other matters that contribute to procedural aspects of the world in which practice is enacted.

*General forms of discourse*, such as stories and arguments, which in turn entail related concepts, such as actors, powers, resources, decisions, motives, outcomes, procedures, and outcomes (for a story), and (for an argument) data, evidence, reasoning, claim, rebuttal, qualifier.

*Forms of practical discourses*, such as local plans, development control plans, impact statements, design guidelines, development applications, statements of effects, assessment reports and other basic forms.

### **SOME COMMENTS ON “CASES”**

The term case, as used here, refers to a concept that has several connotations that differ from the usual use. The concept here refers to events experienced from the perspective of a practitioner. The concern is to enable reflective inquiry by the practitioner since this is fundamental to the enacting of sound practice. No other perspective is appropriate. This acceptance of perspectival knowledge is not at odds with any notions of objectivity since one of the characteristics of reflective practice is to ensure statements are valid and useful. The criteria of objectivity, critical discourse to ensure supporting evidence, would be the same as alleged objective stances. The concern is to construct valid and useful knowledge for the practitioner.

Another unusual connotation is that the events referred to are not necessarily documented; a case is not a case study, but it could be the topic of a case study. When a practitioner reflects on a case, the experience of the case may be from memory, besides documents and other materials. It also differs from a case study in that the case is viewed at a point of time while events are ongoing, rather than being retrospective. Furthermore, the concept requires the practitioner to be actively involved in enacting the case. In essence, there are different connotations to the conventional use to give the concept flexibility so it can refer to an ongoing case in which a reflective practitioner is involved, and in part enacts.

Within the conceptual framework of sound practice advanced, cases entail the enacting of discourses, some of which are reflective, often involving the construction of discursive products, such as plans, proposals, reports etc. A connotation of this is that a practitioner should reflect on what needs to be reflected on, and how reflection can be enacted, in enacting sound practice. For example, if a practitioner wants to be able to say to themselves that they have engaged in sound practice in preparing a plan, the practitioner

has to first reflect on what needs to be reflected on, and on what is involved in reflecting on plan preparation. Second, they need to reflect on whether they have properly enacted such reflection. In essence, reflection is at two levels.

Cases are ill-defined and dynamic, in the sense a case evolves as a consequence of ongoing events, including the actions of the practitioner. The scope of what is considered relevant in the substantive and procedural world is a matter for the practitioner. There is no prior commitment to what aspects are relevant. The only commitment within this framework is to the reflective practitioner engaging in reflective practice, which entails reasoned discourse. In this regard cases of sound practice enacted using this approach only requires reasoned discourse; there is no requirement for any substantive or procedural theory. This does not mean theory is useless for it may be useful in some instances as a source of useful ideas. It does mean however that we should not base our ideas of sound practice on such theory; it is not necessary.

### **COMMENT ON THEORY**

Planning theory does not present ideas about relationships in the world that must apply or provide reasons that can be used in constructing practical knowledge, as does theory in technical areas such as chemistry, hydraulics, electricity, or optics, or other technical subjects. At best planning theory provides ideas that may assist in understanding issues. Whether such understanding is valid and useful is a matter for investigation in the particular context. Knowledge claims using concepts drawn from such theory are justified by reference to the particular circumstances; they are not justified by any presumptions that theory provides a basis for making knowledge claims.

Planning theory does not lead to knowledge claims, and practical knowledge does not require planning theory. At best theory, along with other sources (historical and legal works, films and novels, for example) provides ideas that can be used in constructing discourse that presents understanding and knowledge. Whether such ideas are useful and how they may be used in constructing discourse is a matter for inquiry. Any knowledge claims for discourse using ideas drawn from theory, or any other source, are justified by practical reasoning about their use in the particular context. Hence, knowledge depends on reasoning. Theory is not necessary for constructing practical knowledge. Reasoning is fundamental.

Planning theory does not consider how a practitioner may use general concepts, and thus does not directly relate theory to practice. Supplementary general concepts are needed; the approach outlined here is based on using conceptual frameworks to construct reasoned discourses about cases. With this approach planning theory is taken to be one source of concepts. It does not treat planning theory as irrelevant, but as one of many sources of ideas, where the relevance of the ideas is to be established by inquiry in the particular case being enacted.

Recognising theory is not of central importance to sound practice does not mean there are no useful general principles to guide practice. For example, a set of principles could be

based on such fundamental concepts as: ordinary-language, practical reasoning, critical and reflective inquiry with constructing and using conceptual frameworks, capability to enact sound cases, and to produce a range of sound discourse. Of course, it may be argued that such principles are too general and do not sufficiently indicate what planning practice is about. If further indication of what planning practice entails is needed to distinguish it from other scholarly activities this distinction should be based on matters which relate to what planning practitioners do that is different from others. For example, this distinction can be based on: kinds of discourses that practitioners can prepare, the types of conceptual frameworks they can use, and the kinds of cases in which they can enact sound practice and construct valid and useful knowledge.

We should be trying to base our ideas about sound practice on principles, which a practitioner can draw upon and are generally applicable, rather than seeking any new or revised theory. Theory needs to be supplemented by sound principles about how concepts drawn from theory and other sources can be used in enacting sound practice. Recognising the basic role of principles helps to demystify what theory is, and how it may relate to practice. It will demystify by indicating planning theories are one source of ideas, and that we should not assume any theory is relevant to practice. In essence, theory becomes a source of potential relevant concepts that cannot be taken to have demonstrated utility until this has been demonstrated in practical cases. Such a position makes theory another source of ideas, which may or may not be of use. Practitioners do not then have any reason to consider them as useful until their relevance has been demonstrated.

A theory should not be considered to be a useful planning theory until the utility of its constitutive ideas has been demonstrated. This implies a case-based approach, which would serve two related purposes, with ensuring concepts drawn from theory (or from other sources) can potentially be used in practical discourses, and by demonstrating how a practitioner can use these concepts. The concern here is to avoid accepting concepts drawn from theory (or elsewhere) that may not be useful, and to avoid rejecting concepts from other sources that have utility because they are not deemed to be theory.

While this may sound to be a severe criteria it is an important one, for it would help to differentiate concepts that are relevant to planning practice from those that are not. Not only would such criteria avoid the term theory being used to refer to concepts that have no demonstrated relevance to practice; it also recognises the value of concepts drawn from other sources. The general principle that underpins such a criteria is that utility is located in and demonstrated by practice. Not only does this avoid giving privilege to theoretical concepts over ones drawn from practice, it also locates experience as the centre of attention.

Theory does not focus on what a planner does in enacting sound practice or on how they justify their practical knowledge. This lack is potentially problem. Planning as a professional and scholarly activity made weaker by not having principles that support sound practice. A practitioner cannot relate their work to theory that provides justification; critics can say theory offers no justification for what practitioners do, and that there is no clear and sound base underpinning planning practice.

## **BLENDING THEORY AND PRACTICE: APPROACHES TO A REVISED CURRICULUM IN URBAN MANAGEMENT**

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Last year, in a lively (or should we say acrimonious?) dispute in the normally rather peaceful pages of *Australian Planner*, we found ourselves debating with Leonie Sandercock some fundamental questions to do with the nature and purpose of planning. In contrast to Leonie's vision of planning as a socially transformative process, we argued for what we saw as a more realistic and pragmatic understanding of the profession's actual role in society. Of course words like 'realistic' are loaded. By some, we were no doubt seen as right wing, market-oriented economists. The word 'fascist' may even have been thrown around. As a matter of fact, neither of us is an economist, and neither of us is anti-planning. Both of us, on the other hand, are interested in making planning education as relevant as possible.

Ah, but what do we mean by 'relevant'? That is the question. And in trying to answer it, we have to take some sort of position on the planners' role. Another question arises. Ought we to be concerned with what planners *actually* do, or what we as educators think planners *should* be doing, or *could* be doing? (And can we, in any case, generalise like this about 'planners', or is the term simply too vague to be useful? Should we define 'planners' broadly or narrowly? We prefer to take a fairly narrow view.)

These are, in their way, theoretical questions. They go to the what and the why - and perhaps the how - of planning.

We start with the proposition that 'professional relevance' and 'theoretical challenge and excitement' are far too often seen as potentially separate qualities. Certainly, many of our students at the University of New England, with an eye on job interviews, appear keener on narrowly-defined technical relevance (section such and such of the Act, etc) than on broader investigations of how society works. One can understand that attitude - which is not to say that one should entirely go along with it.

It is probably true in planning as in other professions that, for most people, most day-to-day work is done by the book, is routine, hurried, and not particularly theoretically challenging. Students are pretty much aware of that. Having had a bit of work experience, they have a fair idea of the sort of tasks that await them, at least in the early years of their careers. And even at quite senior levels, it is possible for planners to be so submerged in the issues of the day, in fire-fighting so to speak, as to have little time or inclination for questioning the basic frameworks within which they operate. Probably academics feel a stronger and more persistent need for theoretical challenge than do professionals employed in the non-academic world.

Still, it would certainly be regrettable if planning ever came to be perceived as a relatively low-grade bureaucratic/clerical task offering little in the way of intellectual interest and little scope for asking deeper questions. The risk of this happening has in our view increased in recent years. Planners have become less distinguishable than

they once were from health and building approvals officers. There is a lot of ticking of boxes going on in planning departments, these days.

What, then, should we be teaching our students?

As to what we actually *do* teach them, at the moment, we can report that the curriculum that our undergraduate students at UNE work their way through is not greatly different from the curriculum at other planning schools. Like all such schools, we are occasionally inspected by RAPI, and we are to some extent constrained by the Institute's educational guidelines. There is a lot to be got through in the four years of the Bachelors degree. We cover the usual range of topics.

But what of the underlying values? As in any educational institution, the attitudes and assumptions of staff - call them ideological orientations if you like - must presumably tend eventually to make themselves felt, like the dripping of water on a stone. And what is that orientation, in our case? Suffice it to say that we tend not to see members of the planning profession as agents of social revolution.

The notion of planning we tend to be most comfortable with is the so-called 'communicative action' theory associated particularly with people like John Forester and Patsy Healey. We are inclined to see planners as playing, for the most part, a mediating role. We use that word in a rather general sense. We are not necessarily speaking of formal mediation sessions under the auspices of a court, for example. And we recognise, of course, that planners also find themselves involved in plan-making, policy development, urban design projects, and many other kinds of work not directly classifiable as mediation. But in general terms planning is largely about finding acceptable solutions in situations where the interests or opinions of various parties are in conflict, or potential conflict.

Every time a junior planner tries to calm an irate customer at the council's front counter, by explaining the rationale of a council policy document, or interpreting a plan, or providing information, or explaining how to put in a submission, that planner is participating in the larger communal task of defusing conflict and misunderstanding, and working towards outcomes that satisfy as many people as possible.

If we really see that as the essence of what most planners mostly do, or what the planning system is basically for, what are the educational implications?

Up to a point, mediation is a generic skill, or a skill in its own right. On the other hand, mediation in any particular field may require a certain amount of background and expertise in that field. In the case of planning, the relevant field is basically the development of land. Of course, even that statement is contentious. It is contentious by reason of what it leaves out. We are suggesting that the promotion of multicultural tolerance, for example - highly desirable as that is - is *not* part of the town planners' field. We are also inclined to deny that the pursuit of social justice is part of the field. This is where we part company from Leonie Sandercock. (It is not that we have no sense of justice; it is just that we don't see town planning and the development control system as a particularly effective tool for achieving welfare objectives.)

But to return to mediation. If we are training mediators, we would be wanting our students to be articulate. We would want them to be 'people' people, with good interpersonal skills, good listening skills, calm in the face of anger and frustration. Diplomats, in fact. People good at seeing both sides of an argument. Good at grasping and expressing the real issue. Good at getting to the core of a dispute. People good at seeking and suggesting compromises. People who are good at meetings. People with a good telephone manner. Friendly and persuasive people. People focussed on win-win outcomes.

And at the same time, underlying all this, one would want these paragons to have, if possible, a sound understanding of the social, economic, environmental and technical realities. They need to be people who understand the processes they are working within. In fact, in order to be able to come up with helpful ideas or creative solutions, they probably do need to be experts. Clearly it is not enough just to be a nice well-meaning person.

So planners surely need, for example, to understand where a developer is coming from, in terms of the financial calculations affecting a development proposal. They need to know a bit about architecture, and bio-physical environmental issues, and storm-water run-off, and road engineering, and other subjects. (All the sort of stuff found in a traditional planning degree, in fact.) But all that is, in a sense, mere background. The *real* expertise - or at least so we are suggesting, for the purpose of provoking discussion - does not lie in book learning. It is to be found, ultimately, in face-to-face communication, over the counter, or around the conference table, or in the appeal court, or in public meetings, or in radio interviews.

If we believe this to be true, or even partly true - and admittedly we are really only talking about degrees of emphasis here, such as whether to give increased weight to developing students' communicative skills, at the possible expense of teaching them less about, say, planning history, or demographics, or whatever - then it should affect the way we teach.

Unfortunately, while we can (and already do) make efforts to develop students' verbal skills, the reality is that it is difficult, time-consuming and resource-intensive to teach people to be good mediators. For a lecturer, it is always far easier just to stand up and talk for 45 minutes than to spend days setting up semi-realistic role-playing exercises, or small-group workplace simulations. We have no ready solutions to this. In any case, it might be argued that personal communicative talents to a large extent come with peoples' natural personalities, and cannot be very greatly increased by academic training.

We do however fear that, for various reasons, the planning profession has, over the decades, developed an unfortunately grey and bureaucratic image. The species 'planner' is generally perceived by the public as a rather mousy well-camouflaged creature, mostly found in local council corridors and obscure back offices full of reports and files and incomprehensible regulations. To a large extent this can be put down to the fact that the planning profession has hitched its existence to the legislation that supports it. Planning, in the public mind, is essentially a regulatory process. It is largely to do with zonings and approvals and prohibitions and court hearings.

If an image makeover is required, one might think of beginning with a shift in the kind of education we give prospective members of the profession. Journalism might replace regional planning. Film making might replace research methods. Psychology might replace traffic engineering. Drama studies might replace geography. We jest, perhaps ... but with an element of seriousness.

# **TEACHING PLANNING IN THE CULTURALLY INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM: GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATORS**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

Cultural inclusivity in both curriculum content and class room teaching practices is increasingly important given the diverse and multicultural nature of our community, growing numbers of overseas university students and the tendency for work to be set in a globalised context.

The guidelines in this document build on previous ANZAPS presentations (Kwitko and Thompson, 2000; Kwitko and Thompson, 1998; Allison et al, 1997). At the last ANZAPS in Palmerston North, New Zealand participants said that they needed specific skills to help them develop greater cultural sensitivity in both curriculum development and teaching practices. These guidelines are a direct response to that request. The purpose of our presentation to this ANZAPS is to trial these guidelines.

Elsewhere we discuss the current theoretical debates in this area and report the findings of a survey on the ways that Australian and New Zealand planning academics teach students about issues of difference and diversity (Kwitko and Thompson, in press). This research highlights the need for academics to make theoretical/practice linkages explicit and to integrate the issues of cultural inclusivity into their course content and classroom practices. Our survey also illustrates some of the difficulties that educators have in this area and reinforces the need for practical assistance.

The guidelines presented here have the following qualities:

- They are pragmatic - we have used very practical and realistic examples.
- They have been developed to enhance their implementation by academics who are overworked and stressed in an under-resourced higher education sector. Accordingly, the guidelines may be criticised for not going far enough.
- They are planning education focussed, while based on general principles of inclusivity in curriculum design and teaching practices (see for example, Hutchison et al, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Moxham, and Roberts, 1995; Sinclair, 1995; Sinclair and Britton Wilson, 1999).
- They are only a beginning. We welcome feedback on the guidelines so that they can be developed further (eg. is the level of detail appropriate; what is missing; other examples?).

## **Defining 'Inclusivity'**

In developing the guidelines we have adopted a working definition of 'inclusivity'. This encompasses the following principles:

- Being aware that any decision about curriculum content and/or design is a subjective judgement (Hutchison et al, 1997: 13)
- Incorporating indigenous issues
- Taking care in making generalizations about the characteristics and qualities of different groups; while generalizations are important they have to be used very carefully to guard against stereotyping
- Being open minded; not taking a fundamentalist, absolutist position or only seeing the world through one perspective
- Creating the opportunity for many voices and perspectives to be heard
- Incorporating a diversity of experiences and planning contexts across gender, age, race/ethnicity, religion, culture, language, sexual preference, ability, region, socio-economic status.

### **Format of the guidelines**

The guidelines are written in a simple format using a set of key concerns for each of four major issues:

- 'Self Reflection'
- 'Who is in my Class?'
- 'Classroom Practices'
- 'Course Outline'
  - Content, Language, Assessment Modes, Teaching Materials.

Practical, how-to-do-it 'Strategies, Suggestions and Tools' for addressing each key concern are detailed in the guidelines.

## GUIDELINES

### A. Self Reflection

<b>Key Concerns</b>	<b>Strategies, Suggestions and Tools</b>
What is my background? How does this influence my world view?	Consider how your gender, ethnic/cultural background, first language, level of physical ability, sexual preference, age, class and religion influences the way you see the world and the perspective you bring to planning issues in the classroom
What are my stereotypes and value judgements about people who are different to me?	Consider your reactions/ feelings to people who are different to you. For example: When an Aboriginal youth or homeless person walks behind me, how do you react? What do you feel? When you see a woman in a hajib, what sort of a person do you think she is? When you see a person in a wheelchair, what is your reaction?
How does the way that I use language include or exclude others?	Think about your use of short forms of words, slang, technical abbreviations, sexist and racist language. Does this inhibit communication? How?

## B. Who is in my Class?

Key concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
What is the gender balance in my class?	Is the class gender balanced? If not, how might this impact on the class and your teaching? What do gender relations in the classroom mean in relation to status/power issues?
What is the age range?	Consider how age and experience vary within the class. Consider how this might impact on your relationships with students in terms of supervision, assessment and mentoring.
Are there differing levels of physical ability?	What are the practical implications of teaching those who are hearing impaired, visually impaired, physically impaired, physically disabled or wheelchair bound? How do these different abilities impact on classroom, interactions? What are the unconscious assumptions you make about people in the class with different abilities?
What is the cultural and ethnic mix?	Read about different ethnic groups to gain an informed understanding of cultural values and social customs, communication and learning styles (see Putnis and Petelin, 1996). Be cautious about adopting generalised stereotypes of a group.
Am I aware that there may be people with different religious affiliations in my class?	Inform yourself about different social mores and be careful of making generalised stereotypes.
Am I aware that there may be people with different sexual preferences in my class?	Be aware of making generalised stereotypes of those with a different sexual orientation to yourself.
Am I aware of the range of family situations in my class?	Are any of your students parents? What implications might this have for class attendance and going on field trips? Acknowledge and appreciate that all students come from different life contexts with a variety of responsibilities and obligations which may impact on their class room behaviour and successful learning.
What sort of paid employment are students undertaking?	What do you assume when a student falls asleep in class? He/she is lazy and disinterested? He/she has been working all night to earn money to live? How do you deal with this situation?
What is the range of socio-economic status in my class?	How does socio economic status impact on students' access to teaching resources, IT equipment, the ability to present material and going on field trips?
How do I find out who is in my class?	Talk to students informally at social enrolment and other related social functions. Look at student enrolment records. Ask students to fill out background sheets, including why they are doing planning, previous experiences and interest in the class they are undertaking.
Where else can I go to get help for me and for my students in addressing diversity in the class?	Seek out advice, guidelines and resources from the university's equity and diversity unit, student disability unit, student association or council, cross cultural or international students' unit, learning centre, counselling service, indigenous student support centre and indigenous preparatory programs.

## C. Classroom Practices

Key Concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
What is my educational philosophy?	<p>What is your approach to teaching? Do you see your teaching role as facilitator, expert, analyst, researcher or a combination?</p> <p>How does your educational philosophy impact on your teaching in practice?</p> <p>How does your educational philosophy impact on your students' learning experiences?</p>
How do I teach in a diverse classroom?	Does your teaching style acknowledge the existence of a range of teaching and learning styles?
Am I aware of the way I teach?	<p>Consider inviting a colleague into your classroom to give you feedback on your classroom interactions.</p> <p>Conduct regular and informative student evaluations.</p> <p>Look for opportunities to develop teaching skills for example, supervision workshop.</p>
How do I encourage discussion in my class?	<p>Ask broad questions to open up student debate.</p> <p>Use student initiated questions to facilitate further classroom discussion.</p> <p>Provide non-threatening opportunities for students to engage in discussion and ask a range of questions.</p> <p>With large numbers in a class, ask each student to write down a question arising from the class to which you respond and/or use to generate further discussion/ideas in the next class.</p> <p>Walk around the class and encourage individual students to respond to ideas (this is particularly powerful following an A-V presentation.)</p> <p>Request classrooms where you can move the furniture to allow for different discussion formats.</p>

## D. Course Outline

### Course Outline: Content

Key Concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
Does my approach incorporate a diversity of perspectives into the course design?	Look for opportunities to team teach. Have a variety of perspectives from different staff and/or visitors for a diversity of inputs. For example, in a land use class examining retail use, get perspectives from local government developer planners, shopping centre developers & managers, architects, shoppers including women with small children, teenagers and older people.
Do my course objectives bring out issues of diversity relevant to the topic?	In a land use course, consider the variety of people who use different sites.
Does the use of practical examples draw on the everyday lived experiences of my students?	Use the experiences of students as young people who use and move about the city to explore current urban issues. For example, do they feel that they 'belong' in the city or are they marginalised? In relation to what activities and services? When teaching about safety and planning, get students to conduct a hands-on safety audit of their local area or university campus. Use experiences of overseas students to share with the class how their home cities and planning systems operate. Use these different ideas to generate discussion. In a class examining sustainability issues, use student experiences of resource use, recycling and garbage disposal. How can these practices be changed to conserve resources?
Does my course material minimize bias and stereotyping? (Hutchison et al, 1997: 13)	Make explicit the exclusionary assumptions in planning examples. For example, what assumptions are made in housing and neighbourhood planning/design about family structure? What assumptions are made about physical access in transport interchange and bus station design?
Does my course make students aware of the assumptions that underpin planning?	In a history class, discuss the way cities have been traditionally designed for white, middle-class Anglo Saxon men who drive cars (see Short, 1989). Discuss the contributions of both women and men in the history of planning (see Sandercock, 1998). In a land use class, get students to discuss/analyse the different assumptions behind land use and zonings.
How does my course fit into the overall planning curriculum?	Examine the ways in which the planning curriculum sequentially builds students' capacities in understanding and articulating the issues of diversity.

## Course Outline: Language

Key Concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
Do I use plain English in the classroom?	Be aware of, and avoid using technical abbreviations, slang and colloquialisms. For example, what DOES this mean! 'In the LEP, SEPP 5 has precedence over the DCP objectives and will not be politically palatable to the Libs'. Lecturer to overseas student: 'See me in the arvo'. Student has no idea where the 'arvo' is.
Are the images, language, and problem contexts in the materials I use inclusive? (Lewis, 2001)	Use both international and domestic city images. Use images that have both women and men, as well as culturally diverse groups, interacting with the built environment. Use images that contain children and the elderly. Be explicit about images that are not inclusive and why. This is a good discussion starter. In a development process or urban design course, incorporate both western and eastern design principles/philosophies (eg feng shui).
Do I speak clearly and audibly in the classroom?	Be aware that there may be students who have a hearing impairment. Be conscious of students whose first language is not English. You may need to slow down if there are problems of understanding.

## Course Outline: Assessment Modes

Key Concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
Does my course assessment allow students to show different abilities across individual skills and knowledge?	Encourage students to draw on their own everyday experiences in responding to assignments. For example, ask students to analyse their personal transportation experiences - how easy/difficult it is to use public transport, cycle ways, parking. Set students the task of auditing their personal/household's use of non-renewable resources. How could their use be more environmentally responsible? Use this as an entrée to discussing environmental sustainability.
Do I have a variety of assessment modes that takes into account a diversity of abilities and strengths amongst students?	Include different assessments that involve different tasks including individual work, written essays/ reports, small group work, exams, oral presentations, reflective journals, visual portfolios.

## Course Outline: Teaching Methods

Key Concerns	Strategies, Suggestions and Tools
Does my course use a variety of teaching methods?	Consider use of different techniques: lectures and guest lectures; team teaching; small group discussions and reporting back; audio-visual materials; e-learning formats; seminars and workshops; specific exercises and simulation games; field trips; internships; individual research; distance education; tutorials; role plays; studio exercises.
Does my course incorporate opportunities for experiential learning?	Teaching safety in the city, design a safety audit for student participation and/or work with a local community on its safety audit. Teaching about transportation and accessibility, hire wheelchairs, walking sticks, crutches, visibility reduction glasses, ear plugs, strollers, and prams for students to use in the field. Get them to record their experiences (both physical and emotional). Teaching about cultural diversity, take students on a field visit to different places of worship (eg. Mosques, temples, churches), community centres, retail areas; sample different ethnic foods. Organise a multicultural students' food fair. Teaching land use planning, get students to produce a land use plan of a local area they are studying; organise site visits to areas where land uses are changing eg. Gentrification, reuse of old industrial sites. Organise visits to land and environment courts, government departments, local councils, libraries, major public institutions (eg. Hospitals, nursing homes, kindergartens), shopping mall, major railway stations, building sites.
Do I encourage students to develop skills where they have particular weaknesses?	Work with specialist learning centres in the university to improve students' written expression and oral presentation skills. Ask students to nominate areas in which they would like to have further training.
Does my course take advantage of current events?	Seek out current exhibitions, films, museum/ library displays, talk fests and other contemporary events.

## CONCLUSION

### Feedback

This presentation is a beginning. We would greatly appreciate feedback on the guidelines, particularly from the following perspectives:

- Are they practical?
- Are they useful?
- Are the examples relevant?
- What else should be included (eg. Examples and resources)?

## **Putting this into practice**

These guidelines form a practical framework for planning educators to begin to develop an inclusive pedagogy and curriculum. But difficult issues remain in the real world of the classroom and university. For example, what do we do when we have a student or colleague eg Christian fundamentalist or Muslim fundamentalist, who is vehemently opposed to ideas of inclusivity? How do we cope with diminishing resources and greater demands for higher levels of productivity?

## **Where to from here?**

These guidelines are only useful to planning educators if they can be incorporated into regular practice and ways of thinking about teaching and learning. This will take both time and commitment from within and outside the academy. Accordingly, we are proposing to seek support from RAPI to further develop these guidelines to production, as well as assisting in guideline dissemination and feedback. This will ensure that contemporary planning education is at the cutting edge of inclusive practice and that academics are adequately skilled in this vitally important area.

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## **CHILD'S PLAY: IMAGINATIONS FOR A RESPONSIVE CITY**

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Contemporary planning students are taught that cities are contested sites of power, difference and inequity. Their curriculum has expanded beyond the traditional sphere of physical planning to encompass social, environmental and cultural planning issues. They learn the theoretical benefits of stakeholder involvement, community consultation and the valuing of diversity. Yet, for many, their lived reality remains conservative, privileged, and deeply modernist. Without some means of bridging theory and practice, there is a real possibility that these planning concepts will remain intellectual abstractions; irrelevant to the pragmatism of the students' later professional indoctrination.

This pilot project was designed to help bridge that disparity and to instil a concrete appreciation of the complexities of planning from the very outset of planning education. It was intended also to encourage students to personalise their understanding of community diversity, consultation and empowerment through lived experience, and to negotiate the operationalisation of such concepts within capricious real-life situations.

The project was undertaken by first year Bachelor of Urban and Regional Planning undergraduates as part of their 'Understanding Cities and Regions' course and Communications workshop. The ostensible aims of the project were twofold. Firstly, to experience the process of consulting with a minority or under-represented group within society, in this case, a group of young children from a community school. Secondly, to work with these children to discern their urban imaginations and to explore effective representations of such dialogue.

The children were aged between 6-12 years of age and attended the Kirinari Community School in Unley, an inner suburb of Adelaide, South Australia. Kirinari is not part of the mainstream state public school system, and espouses a philosophy of education through freedom, creativity and responsible interaction. The curriculum is flexible, adaptable and attempts to balance the traditional requirements for primary level education with the individual needs/talents of each child.

The undergraduates visited the school three times over the course of four weeks, and worked with the children for approximately 1½ to 2 hours on each occasion. The students formed three teams with three groups of children - a group of younger boys and girls, a group of older girls and a group of older boys. The older children chose to remain within their peer and gender groupings.

Over the course of their interaction, each group of undergraduates and children experimented with various representations of the children's urban imaginings, but all succeeded in creating three-dimensional models of a more child responsive urban environment.

Utilising recycled containers and scrap material, the older group of boys and undergraduates worked in the sandpit to create a very environmentally-friendly city complete with alternative energy generation, pedestrianised precincts and self-sustaining natural resource utilisation. There was a notable preference for decreased car-dependence and greater pedestrian and public transport. The children's manipulation of space and the proposed environmental design/technology reflected a high level of thoughtfulness, knowledge and sophistication. Some of this might be attributable to their home environment and familial life-choices, but much was probably reflective of the children's well-developed sense of independence and creativity which enabled them to offer urban imaginations less constrained by more pragmatic mainstream sensibilities.

The older group of girls and undergraduates also employed recycled boxes and material to create several city models which reflected a more recreational and consumer-oriented imagination. The children in this group were similar in age, if not slightly older on average, than the boys in the other group, but their urban imaginations focussed more heavily on the presence of popular retail and commercial outlets, and the incorporation of increased amusement and recreational opportunities. Sharing the other group's preference for public transport and walking, the girls also showed a preference for mixed use and community-based activity.

The group comprising the younger children worked with the undergraduates to build an extended urban structure out of discarded cardboard boxes. Although less specific and more amorphous than the models created by the older groups, this group's model still demonstrated a considerable level of thoughtfulness and sophistication. A covered and connected agglomeration of buildings and 'crawl-ways', the city contained vertical mixed use, urban design detail and, semi-open courtyard spaces and skylights. Unlike the models made by the other groups, which were scaled-down facsimiles of their ideal city, this group's model was life-size insofar as it was large enough for the children (but not the adults) to move through and actively engage with their urban creation.

While these models are reflective only of the urban imaginations of these particular children, they do provide unique insights into both the general world of children within an urban environment and the particular world of the children at Kirinari. Visual, aural and tactile stimuli are important palliatives for the boredom which children experience in their urban surroundings (Lynch 1979), and all the models placed strong emphasis on the creation and maintenance of such stimuli within a more child responsive city. The more generous use of colour, increased accessible public art and street furniture/ornamentation and attention to street level detail provide stimuli for children in a rather drab and austere adult environment.

Closely related to the creation of a more vibrant and engaging urban environment is the issue of scale. For the younger children at Kirinari, their sense of alienation from the adult-scaled world of the city may have influenced, wittingly or unwittingly, the lack of comfortable access for the undergraduates into their model city. In the adult city, street structures, access portals and even spatial distances are designed for able-bodied adults and for cars. By designing a child-scaled model, the children were perhaps seeking to remind adults of the importance of scale in the negotiation of streets and cityscapes.

Thirdly, all three models emphasised the supremacy of pedestrianised space and the preference for public transport. The most obvious explanation for this would be to say that not being of legal driving age, the children would have no reason to support car-use. However, their discussions with the undergraduates revealed several alternative, but not mutually-exclusive, explanations. Lynch (1979) observed that almost all space and movement were under adult control, and that children are drawn to areas or activities which allow them to exert some control. As non-drivers, car travel means constant adult presence and control over destination and duration. In the group of older children, the girls who travelled to and from school by car envied the girl who travelled by bus because of what they perceived as her independence and greater wealth of public experience. Furthermore, the dominance of cars and the hazards they pose to unsupervised children means that large portions of urban space are off-limits to children or require extraordinary caution when used. Most significantly, a child's sense and sphere of play is severely limited and constrained.

At the highest level of abstraction, the children of Kirinari are symbolic of people and groups with little power or control, and are subject to environments created by others. Any exploration of their urban imaginations must invariably involve a consideration of the consultative and interactive processes employed to elicit and operationalise their needs and views.

By serendipity rather than intent, the project was carried out by first year undergraduates in the first semester of their university program. In hindsight, the timing of the project was most appropriate because it provided a very real and challenging introduction to the principles of community-type planning. By placing the project so early in their university program meant also that their perceptions and responses were less likely to be tainted by powerful planning paradigms, or constrained by the prevailing 'expert' methodologies on community consultation and/or planning.

Preliminary process and project guidelines were provided to the undergraduates, but they were deliberately kept general and flexible. This was to encourage the students to learn to manage and respond quickly to situations of dynamic uncertainty. One of the pitfalls for expert professionals conducting community consultation is the temptation to deploy preordained consultative approaches circumscribed by detailed and comprehensive procedures and buttressed by a predetermined mindset. As it turned out, several of the undergraduates admitted to having strong preconceptions of what to expect and how they would undertake consultation with the children. However, because the guidelines were so broad, students felt less compelled to adhere to their preconceived ideas and were able to modify their approaches accordingly. The intermittent, but more regular, contact over the three weeks also meant that the undergraduates had time to review their progress and to discard or change the methodologies used.

One of the prerequisites to feeling able and willing to drastically alter one's ideas and methods is to acknowledge one's situational vulnerability and the prospective value of the people one is consulting with. Having cautioned the undergraduates about the hubris of professional experts, the students realised early that accomplishing their aims was more important than preserving their ostensible status, and that their frustration could be assuaged by a genuine willingness to listen to and learn from the consulted. Aided by their teachers,

the children of Kirinari reasoned that in order to participate more confidently and to ensure that their views were not overwhelmed, they would have to redress any perceived imbalance of power. Thus, on the second visit to the school, the children built an obstacle course which the undergraduates had to negotiate in order to gain entry into the school. For their part, the undergraduates resolved to suspend many of their own impressions of a child-responsive urban environment and to follow advisedly the children's leads.

As a corollary of such awareness, the undergraduates realised the importance of forum and technique in any consultative process. At the beginning, all groups commenced interaction in a formalised setting (eg. sitting round a large table or in a circle on the floor), but the students soon realised the invisible restraints which surrounded such arrangements and fora. One group shifted their interaction to the adventure playground while another group moved to the sandpit. The third group began creating objects and playscapes out of clay. Besides changing the consultative fora, the undergraduates also altered their consultative techniques. Rather than trying to elicit responses through massed direct interrogation, the students switched to more intimate groupings of two- or one-to-one interaction. Furthermore, they sought to acquaint themselves with the children as multi-faceted individuals and to create a bond of familiarity. Conversation became much less interrogative and information was gleaned from within a much broader discursive framework.

The staff and students of Kirinari felt that this project had been a rewarding play and learning experience for them, while all the undergraduates agreed that it had been a challenging but very beneficial component of their planning education. For many of the undergraduates, the uncertainty and reality of the project scenario compelled them to step beyond their comfort zone and, to re-evaluate their own presumptions and ideas of planning. Most significantly, it emphasised the complexity, flexibility and personal investment required for effective consultation. Hopefully, the project provided a lasting reminder of how the consultative process can either hinder or help the realisation of equitable planning within society.

### **Acknowledgments**

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# TEACHING URBAN DESIGN TO PLANNERS

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Urban design is in the news. The current critique emphasises the visual appearance of buildings. The recent draft SEPP also emphasises the visual appearance of buildings. It focuses on what it terms “design quality principles” which include context, scale, built form, density, aesthetics, amenity, resource, energy and water efficiency, social dimensions and safety and security.

This position is somewhat at odds with the more generally accepted notion that urban design is concerned with the organisation and articulation of the public realm. The public realm is generally taken to mean the streets and places, the parks and open spaces. In some instances the public realm may be absolutely defined by buildings, but there are many instances where the definition of a place does not involve buildings or is some combination of buildings and other elements. Other elements include water bodies, the sky, natural land forms as well as artificial land forms, natural and designed landscapes.

Examination of „accepted’ examples of good urban design may lead to the conclusion that all good examples involve the strong definition of a place by buildings. „Accepted’ examples such as Piazza San Marco, the Campo, Piazza Navona and Piazza dei Signoria are all well defined „urban rooms’. But their relevance to today’s society is totally different to their relevance to the societies that created these places; this may be attributed to the robustness of their design, to the rich collection of artefacts embodied in the place or to the availability of cheap air travel that enables large number of people to experience the vicarious pleasure associated with visiting exotic places.

Other „accepted’ examples might include the „New town’ of Edinburgh and possibly the designs for both Washington and Canberra, and even Versailles. The London Squares might also qualify as might the early Radburn suburbs. Most of these examples achieve a unity of design because they are examples of urban development shaped by a single authority. Some of the post-war suburbs of Sydney, mainly developed by the then Housing Commission, have qualities that might qualify as good urban design. The Coral Sea Estate at Maroubra, Villawood and Lalor Park come to mind, as do the neighbourhoods of Canberra, particularly those in Woden/Weston Creek. But few of these examples are lauded as exemplars of urban design. Yet they all, to a greater or lesser degree, demonstrate a high degree of integration between, and well articulated design of, the public and private realms.

There is clearly confusion about what urban design can actually achieve. Recent policy shifts in NSW tend to support the idea that better designed buildings will produce better places. Few will argue with the aim to raise design standards, but this will not automatically produce better places. The key question facing those concerned with urban design is how to get better places.

It is relevant to ask who manages the public realm. We know that it is primarily the responsibility of Local Government, and we also know that the public realm has to accommodate a very diverse array of competing functions and activities. Are planners, or indeed any group of professionals, educated to effectively manage the public realm. The evidence suggests that neither planners nor any other professional group are adequately equipped to fulfil this task.

One of the attractions of „new urbanism’ is that it offers a formula solution to the design of the public realm. In effect, it says address the street, ensure an active street frontage and café tables on the pavement and good urban design is sure to follow. Already there are a sufficient number of empty ground floor commercial units to indicate this mindless approach is not a universal panacea to getting better use of the public realm. Further it assumes the whole community is interested in drinking cappuccino in public places and ignores all those other sections of the community that may wish to do other things, like skate boarding, just crossing a road safely or having an afternoon nap on a sunlit grassy bank.

If a more positive stance towards the management of the public realm is to be adopted then it is necessary to ensure that a range of skills can be brought to bear on the task. It is appropriate for planners to seek to exercise this role because the public realm is the primary means of connecting urban activities to each other. It is the glue that binds the urban system together. The articulation of the public realm is one of the prime vehicles for achieving equity between different social groups. That requires an understanding of the incidence of costs and benefits of alternative allocations of public realm space as between interest groups. This is central to the achievement of more equitable outcomes. These considerations are central to the purpose of planning. And, in the final analysis, the public realm is more able to be managed by government than is the private realm for obvious reasons.

Yet planners have not demonstrated a strong commitment to the articulation of the public realm. Indeed it may well be argued that planners place far more emphasis on the relationships between private properties (overshadowing, overlooking, loss of privacy, noise, visual intrusion etc.) than between private property and the public realm. The welcome renewal of interest in the aesthetic qualities of buildings should not be allowed to substitute for a more considered approach to the articulation of the public realm and the role of structures accommodating activities in shaping and defining that realm. It also needs to be recognised that both the activity system as embodied in buildings and public realm allocations are dynamic. The two constantly interact. The public realm is modified in response to changing community needs and the activity system is modified in response to changing technology.

Let me now turn to a consideration of the skills required to effectively manage the public realm.

The first consideration must be an understanding of behaviour. It is necessary to be able to predict that a certain configuration of the public realm will lead to a pattern of behaviour that was anticipated when the configuration was being shaped. What is meant by behaviour? What this means is all the activities that occur in the public realm. At its simplest this includes movement (all modes), congregations or assemblies for various purposes, the location of certain activities within the public

realm (street vendors, buskers, collectors for the salvos etc.) and the location of activities relative to the public realm.

What is the current state of knowledge about behaviour? In fact it is quite good and in some respects excellent. But it is also very uneven and divided across institutional lines. For example, driver behaviour is very well understood and the high standard of road design that is achieved today is fundamentally based on research into driver behaviour that has been developed and refined over many decades. Pedestrian behaviour is less well understood and less well researched. There are some useful works on capacities of footpaths, public stairs, escalators and the like which are useful in planning for movement around transport terminals (such as railway stations, airports, bus stations etc.). And shopping centre design is clearly based on certain assumptions about behaviour in retail environments, although most design seems to be based on a hit and miss approach. But overall the design of the public realm lacks conviction in terms of its fitness for purpose. The location of seating in public places is one of the most frequently observed examples of poor understanding of behaviour. Pedestrian behaviour is the least understood activity in the public realm.

Behaviour responds to environmental stimuli. For example, slopes influence the paths that people choose. Sunlight and shade influence the location of resting places. Exposure to winds or breezes likewise. Outlook, or visual command, can attract certain activities. Sheltered or protected positions may also attract. Environments are modified through human intervention. Understanding how behaviour responds to environmental stimuli and how those stimuli may be modified by interventions in the environment is essential to the achievement of intentional public realms.

What is the current state of knowledge about the influence of environmental stimuli on behaviour in the public realm? Not very good. Practice has been adapted to sets of data, such as the probability of getting skin cancer if exposed to excessive sunlight, but overall there is little to guide the shaper of the public realm other than understanding generated through observation. One example is the changeover from sitting in the sun to sitting in the shade that occurs around the middle of October in Sydney, and vice-versa in May.

Competition for space in the public realm can be acute in some places and non-existent in others. This suggests a misallocation of space. If space could be constantly readjusted to changing needs it would be possible to avoid misallocations. That it is not is a product of the formal system of land tenure. That makes any readjustment difficult. Nevertheless readjustment does take place. New roads are built and footpath widths are increased through arcading or setting building lines back. Resolving competing demands requires that different users or claimants of the public realm have to be identified and their claims assessed. Working through the incidence of costs and benefits of alternative distributions of the public realm on various competing interest groups is essential to the achievement of equity.

Is competition well understood? Generally no. The strongest determinant of public realm (re)allocation is political expedience. Consider, for example, the reallocation between vehicles and pedestrians outside schools. Or the introduction of bus only lanes on certain roads. Both actions were dependent on political will. There is at present a greater willingness to consider and give effect to reallocations where they

can be justified. This opportunity should be welcomed. Safety in the public realm is a paramount consideration. The aged and the impaired are two groups that are seeking a greater share of the public realm. More changes can be anticipated.

So how important is the visual appearance of buildings? There is not much evidence to support the notion that behaviour in the public realm is significantly influenced by the appearance of buildings. The approachability of a building is significant indicating that the interface between the public and private realms is important. It may be welcoming or shutting out. Very subtle factors like changes in levels and the design of barriers can be promote or inhibit approachability. Yet building initiators continue to commission buildings that are designed to command attention. Devices such as signage, house style and assertive form are used to promote commercial interests; devices such as capturing solar access and views are commonly used in residential design. And some of these are effective in influencing behaviour. The easy flow into a well designed service station certainly attracts and invites patronage. Macdonalds house style is universally recognised and is well patronised even if not always readily accessible. And the UTS and UNSW tower signs are good examples of assertive forms registering in the public psyche.

How well understood is the visual impact of proposed buildings? Despite attempts to get better site and contextual analyses undertaken most buildings are presented in a visual vacuum. Even when accompanied by perspective drawings the perspective invariably distorts the context to show the whole building. What is essential is to understand how much of a building may be seen and from where. This requires an appreciation of the laws of perspective.

Buildings that are intrusive are most likely to be considered objectionable. This is true for intrusions into broader views and vistas as well as those that intrude locally, taking away sky and sunlight. The texture of an intrusive building can heighten the degree of intrusiveness. A heavily modelled treatment will give a stronger light and shade effect which will increase the visual impact whereas a lightly etched surface of medium reflectivity can minimise the visual impact. Understanding how forms can be modified to reduce/enhance their visual impact is essential to the effective management of the visual environment.

How can this be taught? The four essential skills are (1) understanding and interpreting behaviour for the purposes of shaping the public realm; (2) understanding and interpreting the effect of environmental stimuli on behaviour and knowing how those stimuli may be modified by various forms of intervention; (3) identifying and understanding the competing users of the public realm and developing skills in assessing the incidence of costs and benefits of alternative configurations on different user groups; and (4) developing skills in the manipulation of the spatial organisation of the public realm.

The subject can be taught by the use of very simple exercises. These will be introduced at the seminar.

# **TOWARD A NATIONAL EDUCATION STRATEGY ON STRATEGIC PLANNING**

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## **BACKGROUND**

*“The goal of education (in planning) is not how to stuff the most facts, techniques, methods, and information into students’ minds, but how to raise the most basic questions of values. How might we live with each other in the multicultural cities and regions of the next century? And how might we live well and sustainably on the earth?”*

Leonie Sandercock (1998:230)

The Development Assessment Forum (established in 1997 in response to the recommendations of the Prime Minister’s Small Business Deregulation Task Force relating to development assessment processes) recently sought advice on the development of “a national training program in best practice strategic planning related to each State and Territory”. In particular, DAF was seeking advice on the need for a national program of training workshops around each of the capital cities and a limited number of provincial centres.

It was our view that education and training in strategic planning is vitally important and that any effort directed towards training initiatives should be nested within a wider strategic approach to education and training in this field.

There are many reasons for forming this view. They include:

- previous experiences with national training initiatives in the planning and development field have had a mixed success and there is a need to draw some lessons from these experiences;
- the scope and coverage of education and training in strategic planning skills has never been examined or assessed at a national level;
- education and training is a continuum from formal to informal with a range of overlapping sectors along the continuum;
- any national training initiatives need to be couched within a broader education strategy and be developed in consultation with a wide range of key stakeholders. It also needs to take account of the significant differences in approaches to strategic planning and development assessment between the States/Territories.

This paper is an edited extract of our report to DAF. In our report we suggested that further work be done to develop a coherent national strategy on strategic planning education and training through a consultative process with the full range of stakeholders. The following outlines why and how this should be done.

## PREVIOUS EXPERIENCES WITH NATIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVES

Over the last decade, a number of Commonwealth initiatives in the planning and development field have involved a training component. The initiatives include:

- The Local Approvals Review program (LARP);
- The Australian Model Code for Residential Development (AMCORD);
- Integrated Local Area Planning (ILAP);
- Coastal Planning;
- The *Disability Discrimination Act 1992* (Cth);
- The *Native Title Act 1993* (Cth);
- The National Urban Design Education Strategy.

A number of lessons of relevance to education and training in relation to strategic planning can be drawn from each of these experiences. They include the following:

- Most of the initiatives that included the production of education and training materials involved a considerable investment at the front-end in consultation, research and development. Many of these initiatives would not have been anywhere near as successful without this initial investment in research and development with associated research with key stakeholders, the participants and potential users of the education service or tools.
- The Commonwealth is the only sphere of government that can provide the necessary resources for research and development on a national scale. Other spheres of government do not have the financial capacity nor the ability to fund or undertake activities outside their jurisdiction.
- The need for specific attention to developing good inter-governmental relations cannot be over emphasised. Significant difficulties will be encountered if the States/Territories are omitted from the development of new initiatives aimed at encouraging the take-up of new approaches or systemic reforms.
- Close co-operation and collaboration with the State/Territory Governments and the right balance of representation of the major stakeholders on national steering committees or reference groups is a crucial element to successful implementation.
- As the national evaluation report on LARP concludes, to be successful, reform initiatives inevitably challenge entrenched boundaries of geography and jurisdiction. National initiatives often have to confront and negotiate with strong cultural and institutional habits and reflexes to change (The Albany Consulting Group 1996:47-48).
- Reform initiatives in planning and development have lengthy time frames and require a long-term focus. These processes take considerable time and effort in order for them to be widely accepted by key stakeholders.
- There are Constitutional and other jurisdictional constraints on the extent to which the Commonwealth can impose or coerce other spheres of government to adopt its reform initiatives if it does not have the necessary legislative power to do so. For example, AMCORD. Whereas in other areas, such as disability and native title, the Commonwealth has a responsibility to assist other spheres of government and other stakeholders in understanding their obligations.

- The Commonwealth's role does not cease once core manuals or resource documents are produced. It also has a continuing role to play in dissemination, facilitation, education and training, and further research and development.
- If facilitation is considered an appropriate strategy, it should be aimed primarily at dissemination and facilitation and not at administering projects (Purdon 1995:53).
- Professional associations can play a key role in the development of high quality educational materials, but external support is required to ensure take up and use.
- National programs designed to encourage other spheres of government to adopt new approaches or undertake systemic reforms need to be carefully designed and implemented on the basis of mutual understanding and co-operation between all the key stakeholders, and include a component on organisational change.
- The development of the national urban design education strategy was undertaken in an iterative way and involved consultation with a wide range of key stakeholders through workshops as well as direct discussions.
- Independent or external evaluation of national programs is crucial to assessing their merits and monitoring their effectiveness.
- There is a need to revisit some of these initiatives to pick up where they left off, especially LARP (which touched on the links between strategic planning and development assessment), AMCORD, ILAP and coastal planning.

As Bunker and Minnery (1996:61) observed with LARP, the dilemmas for the Commonwealth in conducting national programs in areas where it does not have clear Constitutional, legislative or executive roles, include:

- its role in, and the level of commitment to, continuing with reform initiatives once core documents are developed: and
- the extent to which the Commonwealth is able to influence reform or improvement that impinge on relationships between State and Local Government.

Some pertinent lessons can be learnt from these previous experiences. They include:

1. Developing a partnership between the Commonwealth, the States and Territories and Local Government to ensure there is a common understanding of the objectives and expected outcomes.
2. Applying a collaborative approach to program design that involves State and Local Governments, the relevant tertiary education sectors, private sector groups, the professional associations and the community.
3. Allowing sufficient time for the development of appropriate educational materials, especially taking account of the differences between the various jurisdictions.
4. Taking a long-term view with a commitment to dissemination and implementation following the development of core materials.
5. Ensuring that monitoring and evaluation measures are built into program design from the outset.
6. There is a need to re-visit some of the earlier initiatives such as LARP, AMCORD, ILAP and initiatives in coastal planning. Many of the ideas and

concepts remain valid and could be updated or adapted or just simply be resourced to continue where they left off.

## **EXISTING OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN STRATEGIC PLANNING**

We assessed existing opportunities for education and training in strategic planning. In the brief time available, we carried out an assessment of the courses offered through the University Planning Schools, and other disciplines at University level, the vocational training sector, and continuing professional development opportunities for education and training in strategic planning. Details of the consultations and assessments will be available in the full report when it is released by DAF.

All of the University Planning Schools were asked to provide information on the extent to which education on strategic planning is included in any of their course materials, and/or whether they offered any specific courses on strategic planning. Not all of them responded and those that did respond, provided different levels of information about their courses. Admittedly, the scope of the project did not permit the time to conduct a more conclusive analysis. However, we were able to make the following observations:

- The extent to which education in strategic planning is included in the various University planning school courses varies enormously. Some do it well, others not so well.
- Several practitioners commented that recent graduates from University planning schools in some jurisdictions were good strategic thinkers and planners, but were not appropriately skilled in development assessment processes.
- In contrast, some practitioners commented that the reverse was the case. That recent University planning school graduates were reasonably competent at development assessment, but not good at strategic planning.
- Other practitioners commented that the problem is not with strategic planning processes, but rather the inability of development assessment officers to take the strategic planning objectives and targets into account in the development assessment process and that the University planning schools do not equip graduates with these skills.
- Several senior and well experienced practitioners commented that active inclusion of development assessment officers in strategic planning processes was required if integration of the two was to occur.
- Where strategic planning does comprise a significant component of a University Planning School course, it is generally oriented around spatial physical planning. It appears the wider contexts in which strategic planning can be applied and the tension emerging between strategic planning for corporate governance as distinct from strategic planning for physical land use and natural resource use planning and development, is not apparent in many of the offerings.

These may appear to be harsh criticisms, but not all the University Planning Schools responded with the same level of detail about their curricula for particular units to enable a more informed assessment to be made across the board.

We agree with Joan Vipond's (2000:179) recent assessment that planning and the planning profession do not enjoy a high status within the community. Local communities around Australia are not shy in expressing their dissatisfaction with planning and planning outcomes for their local communities. Local communities also have unrealistic expectations of planning to deliver particular results or outcomes.

Efforts to improve education and training in strategic planning and development assessment should not overlook the needs of the wider community, nor their ability to make contributions.

## **STRATEGIC PLANNING EDUCATION AND TRAINING NEEDS**

### **Justification**

We believe it is crucial that before embarking on the development of education and training initiatives (in terms of both its content and methods of delivery), three crucial questions need to be considered:

- what are their specific training needs?
- who are the recipients going to be? and
- who are the deliverers going to be?

When the steering committee for this project was asked, who the target audience would be for the proposed national training program in strategic planning, the answer was Local Government. Perhaps this was because Local Government has the primary responsibility for development assessment decision making. However, Local Government is only one of a number of players. The needs of other players, including State/Territory governments, the private sector and community opinion leaders should not be overlooked in developing national education and training initiatives.

Strategic planning is an iterative, proactive, dynamic and deliberative process. The need for planning arises from the interdependence between various land uses, and from the fact that different facilities and uses are developed at different times and locations by different people, businesses or public agencies. A plan or planning strategy enables these activities to be better integrated and coordinated. Planning is "an ongoing process of setting objectives, exposing connections, presenting alternatives and their likely consequences, and making choices about strategies, policies, projects and developments" Westerman (1998:10). It is the process of managing change in our communities.

As such, strategic planners are seen as people who have inter-disciplinary skills, analytical skills, communication and consultation skills and an ability to think creatively and strategically. Strategic planning embraces all dimensions and disciplines and strategic planning outcomes are influenced by a very wide range of factors and considerations.

A national strategic planning education and training strategy should therefore, emphasise the importance of integration and dialogue, across disciplines, across institutions, across traditional approaches to education and beyond the tertiary sector itself. A comprehensive education strategy should also address the need for education

and training in development planning and development assessment skills, and not just strategic planning in isolation.

Just as the Mant report (CoA 1994) on urban design raised a number of issues about urban design education, similar observations can be made about strategic planning education:

- the need to strengthen the cores of education and research to inform and benefit the entire spectrum of professionals and practitioners involved in strategic planning;
- the need to communicate strategic planning processes and methods to various interest groups;
- the need to disseminate approaches to and leading practice examples of strategic planning to decision makers in all spheres of government; and
- the need to assist practitioners to broaden and enhance their skills.

As Mant (CoA 1994) states (with some adjustments for strategic planning) the quality of strategic planning matters. It matters because of the *functionality* for the efficient and effective working of local areas, regions, towns and cities; *environmentally* or *sustainability* for the way it can reduce the demand on finite natural resources and minimise waste and pollution; *socially* because of the way strategic planning can deliver fairer, more equitable and supportive communities, towns and cities; and for the ways that strategic planning can strengthen *economic* life and the community's prosperity.

A national strategy for education and training in strategic planning is needed for several important reasons. The following three in particular:

- Good strategic planning is a matter of national significance. It affects the quality of life of the majority of Australian citizens in all regions, towns and cities; the economic performance of local and regional communities; the environmental quality and ecological sustainability of local and regional communities; and it affects the equity, fairness and cultural diversity of local and regional communities. The Commonwealth has a role to play in working together with the various spheres of government and sectors at the national level to encourage and achieve the best possible results from strategic planning. A key element of this is to develop a long term focus on education and training in strategic planning.
- The education arena has the capacity to reach every stakeholder, including the general community, elected representatives, public sector officials, professional practitioners, developers, students, teachers, trainers and academics. "Education is adaptable, flexible, and capable of reaching different audiences efficiently through a wide range of existing services and technologies" (BDP 1996:3). A nationally coordinated approach to education and training has the potential to ensure cross fertilisation of ideas as well as cooperation between a wide range of key stakeholders.
- Strategic planning education is currently confined to a small number of discrete professional degree programs. The differences and links between spatial strategic planning and other areas of corporate planning and management are not

clear and need to be clarified and strengthened. There is a need to enhance the „body of knowledge’ about strategic planning and to widen opportunities for education and training beyond current professional degree courses in tertiary institutions. A national education and training strategy is the most effective way of consolidating the core elements and the „body of knowledge’ on strategic planning and to encourage diversity in teaching method and emphases.

## **Approach**

The most ideal approach to developing a national education and training strategy is to recognise that education is a lifelong learning experience. The „educational continuum’ stretches from informal (e.g. community based) to formal education (e.g. post-graduate specialised study), with a range of overlapping sectors along the continuum (e.g. professional development and work-based training falling somewhere between informal and formal). The various target groups can be reached through programs and initiatives aimed at different parts of the educational continuum.

Some practitioners are suggesting that a clear set of competency standards should be developed in consultation with the range of educators and trainers and the RAPI as the accreditation body for tertiary sector courses.

Ideally, a national strategy for education and training in strategic planning should contain programs or initiatives for practitioners, educators, and students of planning and other related disciplines, and for improving their access to educational and training opportunities. A national strategy should also contain initiatives for schools and vocational training providers, as well as for the community. A national strategy should aim to strengthen the links between and within the formal education sector, and between formal education, the professions and the community. Identifying priority areas will also be an important component of such a national strategy.

Of course, the development of a national strategy will propose some changes. Education, after all, is about change (BDP 1996:5).

## **Initiators, Deliverers and Receivers**

A strategy will identify appropriate initiators, deliverers and receivers of the programs, projects or other activities in the strategy. These terms are used to convey the following meanings or interpretations:

- An *initiator* will be the agency or organisation that will ensure a program or activity gets underway, or that the deliverers have been identified and have taken ownership of the program or activity.
- A *deliverer* will be the main action agents of the strategy. That is the agency or organisation that will be responsible for the transfer of knowledge, skills and information.
- A *receiver* will be the individuals, practitioners, agencies or organisations that will be the participants in a program or activity.

There are many agencies, organisations or individuals that will be interested in education and training initiatives in strategic planning. Some of them may be

recipients or they may be capable of implementing parts of an overall strategy. They potentially include:

- the Australian Council of Building Design Professions and their constituent professional associations;
- the Commonwealth, State and Territory Governments and Local Government;
- industry;
- the community;
- the Universities;
- the vocational training sector; and
- schools.

This is just a brief overview of the potential target audience for strategic planning education and training. The need for a more comprehensive assessment of education and training needs before embarking on any particular programs or activities is essential and cannot be over emphasised.

### **TOWARD A 'NATIONAL STRATEGIC PLANNING EDUCATION AND TRAINING STRATEGY'**

Building on the work already undertaken for the development of the National Urban Design Education Strategy (BDP1996:8), what follows in Figures 1 and 2 below are:

- a suggested vision;
- a goal;
- a set of objectives; and
- a set of principles to guide the development of a national strategic planning education and training strategy.

It is not suggested that these statements are given and not able to be amended, meritorious as they are. They are a useful starting point. As discussed above, the development of a National Strategic Planning Education and Training Strategy should be done in consultation with all the relevant stakeholders and in an inclusive and iterative way. The process of developing a national education and training strategy must be iterative – because research and development go hand in hand with education and practice.

The objectives for the National Urban Design Education Strategy were deliberately framed to target five key areas. In the BDP document, each objective is followed by amplifying statements that clarify the scope and focus for that particular objective.

In the framework outlined below, the objectives for urban design education have been modified for strategic planning and cover the following parameters:

- The first objective is aimed at raising community awareness of the value, purpose and scope of strategic planning.
- The second objective is aimed at improving and expanding the range of opportunities through the education continuum.

- The third objective is aimed at enhancing and strengthening the overall body of knowledge about strategic planning, the skills and techniques, research and development, and (where appropriate) defining competencies.
- The fourth objective is aimed at encouraging greater levels of cooperation between the various agencies involved in strategic planning education and training, and enhancing diversity in learning and teaching methods.
- The fifth objective is aimed at improving the interdisciplinary links and crossing traditional institutional divides.

The development of the strategy should identify for each particular program:

- the scope;
- the initiator;
- the deliverer;
- the action required; and
- the priority.

For specific projects or activities, the strategy should identify:

- any linked projects;
- the initiator,
- the deliverer;
- the target user or recipient;
- the goals;
- a description;
- the means of delivery;
- the estimated cost;
- the expected outcomes or outputs;
- the key performance indicators, and
- any examples.

The strategy must be developed through an iterative process that is consultative and inclusive of as many stakeholders as possible. While we have suggested the breadth of the strategy embrace the full spectrum of the education continuum, there will be priority areas, and these will need to be identified. The core needs are professionals, government agencies and the private sector. The strategy needs to highlight their needs and identify activities that are realistically within the reach of available resources.

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**Figure 1: A National Strategic Planning Education and Training Strategy\***

## **VISION, GOAL, OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES**

### ***Vision***

To predict, plan and shape our environment in ways that will enhance our quality of life in all its facets and to create better quality, more productive, fairer and sustainable human settlements which enrich the lives of all Australians.

### ***Goal***

To achieve a national education and training strategy in strategic planning, including awareness raising for communities, practitioners and all those involved in decision-making about the use and development of land and natural resources.

### ***Strategy Objectives***

1. To raise awareness and facilitate community involvement in strategic planning.
2. To improve and expand access to education and educational opportunities in strategic planning, in terms of cost, range, choice, location, information, and convenience. In particular, to assist practitioners to broaden their skills.
3. To enhance the body of knowledge and the content in strategic planning, strengthen the research capacities of existing educational providers, define broad skills, and improve resources available to existing and future deliverers of education.
4. To encourage a cooperative approach to the core elements of strategic planning education, while supporting diversity in teaching methods and emphases.
5. To strengthen links between vital components in the strategic planning process: inter-disciplinary, cross-sectoral, inter-institutional, and between teachers, practitioners, and users.

### ***Strategy Principles***

A national strategy for education and training in strategic planning should:

- be comprehensive and easily understood;
- be useful in the short, medium and long terms
- assign responsibility for delivery of actions and programs
- be capable of being implemented
- achieve ownership by key deliverers
- be flexible and capable of being adapted to suit different contexts
- be capable of being monitored and reviewed to ensure its effectiveness
- include key competency standards.

\* Adapted from BDP 1996:6.

**Figure 2: Making a Difference\***

When the strategy takes hold, its influences will be felt in various ways and by various people. The following examples can be imagined:

- The *school student* who uses inter-active computer based curriculum material which imparts an awareness of strategic planning issues.
- The *school teacher* who has access to information kits, and short courses which places strategic planning in a total curriculum context.
- The *local government Councillor* who has been exposed to a detailed briefing on the links between strategic planning objectives and the quality of development assessment decisions in the municipality.
- The *developer* with better links to the local Council and to strategic planning, development planning and development assessment information.
- The undergraduate planner (name your discipline) who undertakes strategic planning units combined with other courses.
- The *planning lecturer* who can relate course curriculum to texts, lists, and examples of strategic planning knowledge and experiences, all readily available on the internet.
- The *brick manufacturer* (name your supplier) who finds that sponsoring a popular competition based on the new city or region simulation game is great promotion.
- The *postgraduate strategic planning student* with excellent communication and collaborative skills.
- The vocationally-oriented professional who can update specific strategic planning skills through project-based continuing education.
- The *employer* (consultancy, local government etc.) who can employ young professionals in relevant disciplines, confident that their training fits them for their involvement in strategic planning, development planning and development assessment.
- The *specialist strategic planner* who has easy access to up-to-date, good practice examples and research.
- The *resident* who has an enjoyable time participating in strategic planning processes and then benefits from its outcomes.
- The *community activist* who enrolls in a short adult education course about strategic planning and development assessment and learns how to “read” local planning documents and development applications.
- The *commuter* listening to a current news item where the link between good (or bad) strategic planning and the story is made explicit.
- *Everybody; who as a result of improved strategic planning, development planning and development assessment, lives in a better quality, fairer, more productive and sustainable communities.*

There is probably nothing here which does not already happen somewhere, sometimes, to a degree. Together, however, these measures will make a significant difference.

\* Adapted from BDP 1996:4.

# **ON LINE PLANNING: BOON OR BURDEN?**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

The primary question addressed by this paper is the impact of the introduction of online teaching in the Graduate Diploma in Urban and Regional Planning on a group of academic staff.

The paper briefly reviews the history of UNE as a distance education provider and explores recent shifts in approach. Having set the context, the reported work is placed within the context of research into distance education generally, and work relating to the pedagogy of online delivery.

The overall intent of the exercise is to address the broad question "is it worth it?". That question is broken down into a number of sub parts which include: the impact on academic staff of online development and delivery, skills development and acquisition by academic staff.

## **UNE AND DISTANCE EDUCATION**

UNE has a lengthy history as a traditional distance education provider with a substantial institutional and organisational investment in traditional print based distance education delivery. The so-called "New England Model" was based on the delivery of high-quality print material incorporating administrative and study information, lecture notes and readings. These were complemented by compulsory residential schools, typically four days in duration. 20 years ago approximately two-thirds of the total student enrolments were distance education students.

In professional programs such as Planning, there is some evidence that the so-called "commodification" effect is occurring. Most internal students appear to enroll because of the hope of a "meal ticket" rather than some particular vocational calling. The majority of external students are already in the workplace in planning or related areas and are seeking to qualify as quickly and painlessly as possible.

### **Online teaching and learning**

Online education has been touted as the new teaching tool of the future, with the promise that it will allow students to learn more, cut costs, permit academic staff to lecture to larger classes and facilitate overseas expansion of tertiary programs (Flowers, et. al. 2000, Piotrowski and Vodanovich, 2000). Indeed, pressure is growing to utilise technology in a variety of guises as the main way of delivering higher education. In addition, there is a widespread belief that distance education, properly delivered, can be as effective as traditional classroom teaching. Phipps and Merisotis cite Moore, (1990) who states:

The weight of evidence that can be gathered from the literature points overwhelmingly to the conclusion that teaching and studying at a distance, especially that which uses interactive electronic telecommunications media, is effective, when effectiveness is meant by the achievement of learning, by the attitudes of students and teachers, and by cost effectiveness. (Moore, quoted in Phipps and Merisotis, 1999, 22).

Within this context, UNE's moves can be seen as typical of many universities both in Australia and abroad which are seeking to take advantage of these new methodologies in order to both realise the claimed advantages and, one suspects, to "keep up with the Joneses". In 2000, the University implemented a program to allow one of its awards from each of its four Faculties to be taken online. In the Faculty of Arts, the Graduate Diploma in Urban and Regional Planning was selected. Key elements were providing better access for those constrained by employment and remote location together with better preparing students for technologies in the workplace and, hopefully, extending the market.

### **Pedagogy of Teaching and Learning**

Ragan (1999) supports the view that good practice is not exclusive to distance education but in fact contributes to all educational experiences. These principles fit comfortably into the framework provided by the work of Truman-Davis, (2000, 48) who provides a useful summary of the key pedagogical components of online teaching. A project at the University of Illinois (anon. 1999) found that on line teaching is time-intensive if the benefits of interaction are to be realised. Indeed, the authors concluded that matching the quality of classroom delivery required more time and money than classroom education.

Critical to the delivery of effective online teaching is adequate training of academic staff. This is clear from the Truman-Davis criteria and also the demands of the emerging online teaching and learning pedagogy. Work by Lieberman and Ko (2000) recommends an integrated model of training and support for online teaching.

### **THE ACADEMIC STAFF PERSPECTIVE**

The project reviews attitudes by the broader academic staff towards the on-line initiative, and provides an indication as to the changing relative skill levels associated with involvement in the program. An attempt is also made to relate overall skills levels by academic staff to attitudes towards the on-line initiative.

#### **Skills**

As part of the interviews with academic staff, a survey instrument sought to assess the use of various software functions both prior to and following engagement in on-line development and teaching.

Overall skills levels were fairly good amongst academic staff. The obvious major area of improvement was in the area of bulletin board usage with some modest improvements in HTML handling and graphics software. In interpreting these figures, it needs to be understood that academic staff were supported by both an

instructional designer and a programmer. This suggests that high levels of skill acquisition are not necessarily a prerequisite for successful on-line implementation provided that appropriate support skills are in place.

### **Attitudes of Academic staff to the Online initiative**

The core method of assessment of impacts on academic staff of the on-line initiative was through a semistructured interview format. A range of possible issues were provided to participants prior to the interview and these could be used as a guide to the discussion if the interviewee wished. Alternatively, interviewees were free to raise any other issues or to approach the interview in a different way they wished. The majority of interviewees chose to follow the suggested issues and these have been used to structure the discussion.

#### *Process by which your participation was sought in the project*

For the majority of academic staff, consultation was not specifically sought. Following the program being nominated, and after some considerable time, academic staff were advised that they had been selected and that work would begin about a week later. A typical response from academic staff when asked about their feelings on this was "given that the whole program was going to go up anyway....I don't think that I had any grounds on which to object". As another member of academic staff put it, "it seemed like a good idea the time". A number of academic staff were annoyed by this process which some considered as typical of the institution's approach to change. It was, without question, a very unfortunate way to commence the project.

#### *Your understanding at the commencement of the project of the potential implications for you*

Did the academic staff realise what they were letting themselves in for? There was some realisation that the project would require a fairly substantial revision of course materials and also the acquisition of technical skills. As one academic staff member put it "I think the enormity of the task was made clear very readily". In some cases, however, academic staff did not fully appreciate the detailed specifications that would be required in the material. There was also a lack of appreciation as to what the new format would mean in terms of time and commitment during the teaching of the course subsequent to preparation. There is no doubt that at the time of development academic staff considered the project a significant burden notwithstanding a modest financial sweetener offered to staff to spend as they chose.

#### *Overall organisation of the project*

Views regarding organisation of the project were varied. One academic staff member stated "it seemed to be a typical UNE type thing. We'll rush into it and we will put all this onto academic members of staff, because it seems like a really important thing to be involved in". One early participant, however, expressed themselves as being impressed with the organisation once the hurdle of the initial selection process had been overcome.

Given that the project ran basically to time the macro coordination appeared adequate, with several participants noting that it appeared "quite coherent in a conceptual sense". What did become apparent was that the organisation of the project was perceived very much through the interface of the instructional designer and programmers. The feeling of support offered by these individuals went a substantial way to allaying the fears of academic staff about the project, although one noted that this had been at considerable personal cost to the individuals involved who faced a severe learning curve. Another felt that "most of the work was done for me" and it was not until faced with the reality of teaching on-line, that they felt "thrown in the deep end". The selection of the instructional designers and programmers was quite a rigorous with, in both cases, very careful selection of interview panels and assessment of the skills required.

#### *Access to resources (support, training and assistance)*

One academic staff member summed up the experience of many when they stated "if we didn't have somebody here putting it onto Web CT I really don't know how it would have happened because I didn't have the skills. And probably more important I just did not have the time to do that kind of thing.... I guess you say resources at that point of the project were very good because otherwise it wouldn't have got up and running on-line". A number of academic staff indicated that their major resource constraint was the time that they had available to undertake the project.

A number of academic staff who felt comfortable with the level of resources available for initial course development felt real concerns about the lack of training and assistance in terms of how to use the Web CT interface once it had been constructed. These concerns were held by some of the more technically literate staff as well as those with less computing experience.

Concerns were also expressed that the timeframe for development was short, particularly in the context of very heavy existing workloads. As one academic staff member stated "staff generally were overstretched and it was simply not possible to find the additional time even if more resources were available".

Another theme through the interviews was the strong support for individualised assistance and training rather than training in a group situation. Not only do peoples technical backgrounds differ, (one member of academic staff who had already taught on-line found the mandatory training very limited in usefulness), but there was a strong feeling that training needed to be provided at the point of time of course development or amendment rather than when convenient to the trainers. The need to provide personalized support is a major resource implication if academic staff concerns regarding future developments and ongoing maintenance are to be allayed.

#### *Course development issues*

Traditionally, course development has been a "cottage industry" whereby individual members of academic staff develop a course in their own fashion perhaps with input from one or two other colleagues with whom they might be team teaching. The concept of working with an instructional designer and programmer was certainly new to most. One academic staff member remarked "I found (the instructional designer) in

a way particularly useful for pointing out, giving me a second opinion for example on the legibility or comprehension of what I was saying and some improvement, several improvements to the course were made". Another, whilst praising the support staff noted that: "It's a different way of developing material. I didn't have nearly enough time with the support team". This comment suggests that it is important to develop a shared understanding of what the on-line course is actually trying to achieve, and what constitutes a good on-line pedagogy.

Those who were able to spend significant time with the instructional designer uniformly reported effective outcomes in terms of overall pedagogy, not just on-line. In addition, where considerable effort had been applied to developing print based distance education pedagogy it tended to transfer well to the on-line environment. This reinforces findings by Ragan, (1999) that good teaching remains a good teaching to an extent independent of the delivery mechanism.

It is the observation of one author of this paper that notions of on-line pedagogy developed progressively for both the instructional designer and many academic staff through the course of the project as these had not been explicitly articulated at its commencement despite the presence of considerable literature regarding this.

An issue that arose for one academic staff member was continuity. Because of timing issues, three different sets of support staff were involved in the course development. This academic felt frustrated with the lack of continuity. Tight timing also created some friction for some academic staff with difficulties in matching their own time with that provided by support staff. What was evident to many academic staff was the intense pressure placed on the instructional designer in particular. The general consensus was that this person "coped magnificently". It does highlight, however, the critical importance of the support staff in the development process – a point well-reinforced in the literature (see for example Ragan, 1999, etc).

Other challenges, difficulties and issues which arose during the course of the project and your response to these both academically and organisationally

There was a strong view that the expectations being placed on academic staff in terms of the use of sophisticated technology are unrealistic. Several academic staff are of the view that their role should be that of content provider with others, more expert, dealing with pedagogical issues of on-line course construction together with the mechanics of assembling these. As one academic staff member stated "I prefer to see myself as putting in the intellectual content into it and the technical side being done by somebody else. And yet I'm not confident that that is a strategy that the university has endorsed." Another staff member who identifies as not being computer literate has major problems with the production chain in particular shifting from a "cut and paste" approach with paper and scissors to a wholly electronic approach.

#### *Current issues you may have with the project*

These were quite broad and to a degree overlap with issues raised earlier in the interviews.

The most common theme was the concern previously expressed regarding ongoing support both in terms of the teaching of the unit once developed and, more critically, its updating and redevelopment. As one academic remarked: "I didn't have, or I felt I didn't have the appropriate backup and support at that stage (for revising the course).... Now I was really quite anxious about that. In actual fact my anxiety was misplaced to a degree and I say that because what I found was that I could without learning HTML, I could muddle through and edit the appropriate pages that I wanted to make additions and deletions, in a self-taught fashion quite readily and it didn't involve very much work. Had I needed to substantially alter the structure of the unit, I would have been floundering. But fortunately we put so much effort into it, it was a fine tuning job and that way I didn't have difficulty".

Other academic staff raised concerns that the benefits of moving on-line have only partially being realised and that there are a whole raft of disbenefits which appear to be emerging. One of the unrealised benefits is seen as being in the reduction in costs in managing a course. A further actual benefit is perceived to be the ability to update a course close to the time of delivery without the lead time for print materials and to introduce materials to students during the period the courses are being taught. Opportunities are also seen to have frequent small assignments which are pedagogically sound.

The major concern was seen to the lack of participation by distance education students. Several academic staff felt that this was not so much due to real problems of access but to the mindset of the students involved. On the other hand, one member of academic staff felt the bulletin board substantially changed the educational experience for them. "I suddenly felt a lot closer to a lot of the external students than I had before". This academic reported similar participation rates and logon rates to those experienced by some other staff but felt very positive about this aspect whilst noting that "there was going to be a hard-core that never were going to access the course on-line even once". This academic also found considerable interest in seeing who was and wasn't using the course, and how often. Unlike the experience in the development control course, no particular evidence emerged of better relationships or interaction between internal and external students. This academic would, however, prefer not to return to teaching without an on-line component.

A further and interesting downside observed by number of academic staff is the sharp downturn in attendance at face-to-face sessions for on-campus students. As one stated: "given the attendance that I've got we have got real problems with internal students. I thought of ways in which to rectify it, but in fact a lot of them seem to be pedagogically suspect. You could actually hand out marks to the people coming through the door, which doesn't grab me".

Other members of academic staff felt that they required better feedback about the student perspective. A more systematic approach to utilisation patterns and the needs of individual types of learning style was considered important. Not only was it important to gain information about the percentage of students that were on-line but also how they were actually using the on-line environment. There is only so much that can be learned from patterns of hits and the like. Conversely, one member of academic staff noted that "I found the most unexpected benefit of this was from very good internal students who are highly motivated and before the lectures actually read

all the work material, came along and used the notes from the Web as a basis to put further annotations based on what I introduced in the lecture by way of new material".

*Your recommendations and suggestions for future online initiatives*

"I like the idea. I was very impressed by the way it all went. I would like to see it extended as much as possible. And I would like to see all the courses online, not just the ones that are in the graduate diploma." This view contrasted sharply with the views of several academic staff who raised concerns as to whether the effort was justified in view of poor use of student interactivity tools, particularly bulletin boards. One noted that several courses had "a minimal on-line presence and I would query whether there is any academic or educational benefit at all". This was echoed by another who stated "you would get on the bulletin board and point to some interesting thing that was in the Sydney Morning Herald or raise some interesting questions. You would get virtually no response whatsoever. I don't blame the students for that. I understand the pressures they are under.... It just did not seem to be worth it at all. I could not really see the point of it... it's just seems to meet to be a quite ridiculous waste time and effort".

It is noted that lower responses to the use of interactivity tools by students tended to be associated with those academic staff with a weaker computing background and who had limited time through other commitments. What seems critical is, as one stated, "I think that what we have got to do is somehow get online teaching into the mindset of the academic as an acceptable way of doing things so that is part of normal life". For some academic staff, this is already a reality and they tend to be both enthusiastic though pragmatic about the challenges in opportunities offered through online teaching. Certainly though, the universal experience is that the time involved in teaching rises and that this is a fairly significant issue given the pressures on academic staff. The resourcing question needs to be revisited.

The tensions regarding expanding the online initiatives were nicely summarised by one academic staff member who said: "I think it probably can be OK for chatting to lecturers and tutors and that kind of thing. But in terms of actually using the full Web interface for study, reading stuff up on the screen and that kind of thing, I still think we are a long way short of that. Yes we can do great things with lots of interactive packages, and I'm aware myself of all the great things you could do on the Web with say teaching research methods, or population... but we are hamstrung by lots of things. Hamstrung by the technical capacity and the infrastructure we have got here, we are hamstrung by the ability of our students to be able to access and use all those great things. It's time. Even if you just taught, you would have more than a full-time job. But a lot of us have research we want to get done as well. The students just seem to like the text based stuff and coming to residential schools.... They are really happy with the old technology as it were. To be perfectly honest I completely understand why that is the case.... I can understand the general pressure to go online because if you're not in on it early then you may well miss out".

Another stated: "I think it is a really exciting development in educational resource delivery and I understand that we probably can't stay out of that area" but this academic staff member also felt the stresses of developing the skills and concerns about the level of support. "I can't cope with another dimension". Again, the critical

nature of ongoing high levels of technical support becomes apparent if the intent of online learning is to be progressed. In many respects academic staff should, whilst having sufficient technical knowledge to appreciate the possibilities, not be required to be "in the engine room" of the technology. Time and time again the need for more support and more backup was felt to be an essential need. A number of academic staff felt that it is more time-consuming to produce materials for online teaching and that the process of online teaching is a much more labour intensive than traditional print based models of distance education.

One member of academic staff expressed some concern regarding the Web CT environment, although their own experience did not seem to have borne out of the problems reported by other academic staff in other parts of the university. More generally, this member noted the needs to improve the second generic instructions available to students so that these did not need to be repeated for each course. More generally, there was some interest in seeing the university move towards an "electronic reserve list" where readings, government data and the like could be held in a single repository without being duplicated across a range of courses. This is also consistent with requirements under the new Australian digital copyright legislation.

One of the implications for some academic staff of continuing with the online initiative is a rethink about the quantity of material provided to students. The view was held by some that the primary issue was not how to use the Internet as a delivery mechanism but the type of learning framework that is provided. "I think text on the screen should be more about raising issues, communicating, pointing people in the right directions, giving them the links to link to etc. I think it requires a rethink of the way your handling a particular course, particularly if it is a course which has until now been a traditional course and then is suddenly an online course." "Perhaps for content acquisition, we need to return to the textbook" suggested one academic.

## CONCLUSIONS

Despite the limitations of the work, the UNE experience seriously challenges Moore's confident assertions in terms of the benefits of on-line teaching. This research supports the fundamental conclusions reached by Phipps and Merisotis, namely that "the higher education community has a lot to learn regarding how, and in what ways, technology can enhance the teaching/learning process, particularly at a distance." (Phipps and Merisotis, 1999, 29). It also mirrors the experiences reported by Newby-Fraser (2000) at Waikato Polytechnic. Yet there are benefits in persisting, although they will require re-thinking by both academic staff and students.

Engaging with the technology and gaining the benefits is a non-trivial exercise for both academic staff and students, and will require a true commitment to education, rather than merely passing through the accreditation mill as painlessly as possible. Organisations delivering on-line need to understand that it saves neither money nor time, but instead is a way of adding value by way of interaction to the distance education experience. It is clear that academic staff have mixed views about the benefits of this, but in the UNE experience, those less keen on the on-line approach either have concerns about the "resource hit" or were not appropriately engaged in the process.

It is also clear that on-line initiatives require sound pedagogical foundations, including integrated support and training. Use of the Truman-Davis criteria (2000) provide a sound starting point for assessing “organizational relevance”.

UNE in many respects represents a “typical” institution in terms of experience, approach and outcomes. Nothing particularly startling or new has come out of the UNE experience, except that for some people, students and academic staff, it has changed how they view what they do and how they do it. Anything which improves the degree of reflection on the educational experience in a way that assists both students and academic staff to strive is worth it. We should also not expect homogenous outcomes, as students and academic staff are individuals. Instead we have added another layer of possibility, that for some will provide a richer, more meaningful experience.

It is in the personal experiences where the value lies – far removed from the “commodification” threats perceived to university education. This irony has yet to become obvious to most governments, which continue to threaten decent into an impersonalised mass education system as in some way beneficial to society. The interaction of learners and teachers, however mediated, remains the key to a worthwhile educational experience.

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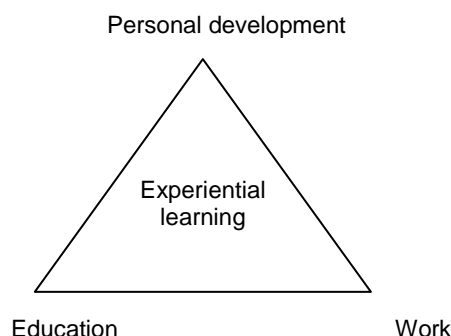
# LEARNING BY OSMOSIS: LINKING THEORY AND PRACTICE IN THE FIELD

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*'Best field trip I ever went on. Liked learning by osmosis' (Experiential learner 1998).*

## INTRODUCTION

For around 2000 years educators have relied on '... talk techniques (lectures, seminars and tutorials) for transmission of knowledge' (Hoberman & Mailick 1994: 17). These passive techniques, Dewey, Lewin and Piaget argued, are not conducive to the synthesis of theory and practice because they rely on the description of others' experiences rather than the experiences of learners (Hoberman & Mailick 1994; Kolb 1984). Learning, they believed, should be experiential '... the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience' (Kolb 1984: 38), a process that '... combines experience, perception, cognition and behavior' (Kolb 1984: 21). While experiential learning lost favour in the 1960s and early 1970s, its revival in the 1980s was stimulated by educationalists' beliefs that experiential learning is an invaluable component in developing a nexus between, education, work and personal development, a nexus that is particularly pertinent to professional education (Brookes-Harris & Stock-Ward 1999; Hoberman & Mailick 1994; Kolb 1984) (see Figure 1). While experiential learning can be achieved through devices such as role-playing and simulation it ideally involves real experience. This paper describes an experiential learning program developed for third year Urban and Regional Planning students at Curtin University. The program involves fieldwork in a remote part of Western Australia where students participate in real projects, where they work with real practitioners, where they have real experiences, experiences that prepare them for work in different milieus and contexts.



**Figure 1: Experiential learning**

Source: Kolb 1984: 4.

## CHANGING PLANNING MILIEUS AND CONTEXTS

Planning practice and planning education in Western Australia are firmly rooted in planning for metropolitan Perth. Perth is arguably one of the most deliberately planned cities in the world and although the State's first planning legislation, the *Town Planning and Development Act 1928*, was a belated reaction to growth at the turn of the century, it adequately provided for Perth's plodding suburbanisation until the late 1940s. Then, in 1955, with the prospect of migration from Europe and opportunities for industrialisation, the Stephenson Hepburn *Plan for Perth and Fremantle*, set in train the establishment of a planning system that would lead to very orderly development from the 1960s onwards. The subsequent *Metropolitan Region Town Planning Scheme Act 1959* and the *Metropolitan Region Scheme* (MRS) zoned all land in the Metropolitan area and required all local Town Planning Schemes to comply with these zonings. To help implement the MRS, the State introduced a Metropolitan Improvement Tax to enable government land acquisition so that when Perth grew, land for parks, roads and other public purposes was not only allocated, it was often already vested in government agencies. Furthermore, while later plans such as the *Corridor Plan for Perth* and *Metroplan* may have changed the location and extent of development, the MRS could be amended to cater for change.

This prescriptive land use planning system was confined to the city and provided work for generations of planners based in the State planning agency and in local government and consultancies in Perth. In fact little planning occurred outside the metropolitan area except when a new town was required to service mining in the North West or when politicians embarked on pork barrelling exercises in Western Australia's regional centres. Consequently, planning practice and education dealt predominantly with metropolitan planning issues and even as demand for planners grew in country areas in the 1980s and 1990s graduates were often loath to leave the comfort zone of metropolitan Perth. So too planning educators seldom ventured outside the city and when they did it was usually to visit other urban centres in what Western Australians call 'the Eastern States' to study new approaches to capital city planning or innovative approaches to housing provision.

However, in the 1990s, new political and economic directions, growing resource and land use conflict, the development of new industries, environmental concerns, globalisation, Native Title and amendments to planning legislation amongst other factors prompted changes in planning practice and the planning curriculum at Curtin University. With Australia suffering the affects of the 'recession we had to have' and with the Labor Government staring down the barrel of almost certain electoral defeat, Paul Keating presented his One Nation statement aimed at addressing some of the inequalities that resulted from almost ten years of economic rationalism and three years of recession (Blewett 1999). One Nation included a bundle of stimuli for regional development and a year later Bill Kelty toured regional Australia identifying economic development opportunities. Other reports followed and in 1994 Keating released his White Paper, *Working Nation* that reinforced the Government's intention to intervene in regional development through infrastructure funding, education, employment and training programs, regional leadership and stimuli for growing, labour intensive industries such as tourism.

Regional development was also a priority for the newly elected Liberal-National coalition that came to power in Western Australia in 1993. Hendy Cowan, the leader of the Nationals, became Minister for Regional Development and immediately moved to establish nine non-metropolitan Regional Development Commissions charged with fostering economic development and employment growth in regional Western Australia (*Regional Development Commissions Act 1993*). While the Regional Development Commissions lacked both a legislative base and adequate funds to implement their plans, they were ideally suited to draw on Commonwealth Government programs for regional development. For a short time some Regional Development Commissions became de facto planners as they prepared for economic development initiatives and in the absence of a State planning presence in the regions. However, this role was relatively short lived as the National's coalition partners soon initiated amendments to the State's planning legislation to require the State to develop plans for non-metropolitan regions and to enable it to establish regional planning committees and regional offices.

However, as discussed above, planning in rural areas is a recent phenomenon in Western Australia and problems abound in regions throughout the State. There is conflict at the periphery of rural settlements where good rural land is consumed for residential purposes, a problem exacerbated by subdivision regulations for unsewered land. Rural land is also lost to degradation, the legacy of excessive land clearing and poor farming practices. There is conflict in mining towns in the North West where land for down stream processing operations is scarce and is often subject to environmental and Aboriginal heritage issues or is constrained by tenure, notably pastoral leases. Another key problem affecting rural Western Australia is the availability and protection of water resources, a problem exacerbated by the fragmentation of power and responsibilities between government departments and the corporatisation of service provision.

The State's response to many of these issues is to develop policies, strategies and plans whose implementation challenges the capacities and imaginations of planners. However, even these challenges pale into insignificance compared with the affect of Native Title. Much of the land in resource rich areas of the State is Crown Land and is subject to Native Title claims. Further, many towns like Broome are encircled by Crown Land and consequently developments for hotels, housing, marinas and the like are subject to Native Title processes. While there are a few examples of promising negotiations between claimants and developers, be they state or private sector, the Court government's intransigence over who should negotiate and its adversarial approach to settling claims has led to misunderstanding and conflict. Lacking the power to negotiate and seldom understanding the complexities of representation amongst diverse Aboriginal communities, planners are left languishing in confusion. (It should be noted that the newly elected Gallop Labor Government has not yet made clear its position on Native Title.)

While planning in the bush may be professionally challenging, planners also represent government whose intervention in regional development is often met with distain by the people it is purported to help, particularly in the North West. This is a haven of liberalism and neo-liberalism, a land where the enterprising made good and the weak flounder, where people who have jobs are well paid and those who don't leave town.

The North West is part of a global economy where business is more powerful than government and where government takes away wealth to distribute it to poorer places and people, the soft underbelly of Australia. It is also the land of pastoralism where, although lessees have fallen on hard times, they tough it out on a diet of mutton, beer and nicotine and rue the day Aborigines, their labourers of the past were granted equal pay.

While the problems outlined above are the tip of the rural planning issues iceberg, they illustrate the changing contexts of planning practice to which a planning curriculum must adapt. However, without exposure to first hand experiences, students often find such issues difficult to comprehend and often adopt the perspectives of popular media, particularly in relation to indigenous rights. The field program discussed below describes an experiential approach to developing a better understanding of planning theories and practice in rural Western Australia.

## **A PROGRAM FOR EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING**

### **Choosing a location for experiential learning**

When asked to assess a field trip, one student commented that ‘... political and social networks to enable and facilitate meetings with appropriate authorities within organisations’ (experiential learner 1998) was a determinant of its success. The choice of a location for the Department of Urban and Regional Planning’s field trip, the Gascoyne (see Figure 2 overleaf), was pragmatic, a matter of selecting a region that was well known to a staff member who had established a network of contacts through ongoing research and consultancy projects. However, while the choice of a region was a quirk of fate, the Gascoyne proved ideal for experiential learning because of its novelty value for students and because the array of issues is limited making it possible to develop an understanding of the place during a relatively short visit. The only apparent disadvantage of the Gascoyne is its remoteness from Perth and the consequent travel time and cost involved. For this reason, staff chose to take students to the South West the following year and although the trip was successful, the complexity and number of issues in the region made it more difficult for students and staff to assimilate theory and practice. Since then, field trips have centred on Shark Bay and Exmouth in the Gascoyne region except in 1999 when Cyclone Vance forced the program to be based in Shark Bay alone. While the hurried retreat to Shark Bay caused logistical problems for staff because it necessitated the development of a new program, it also raised the spectre amongst students that they would not have the same experiences their predecessors had fondly related to them. They thought Shark Bay would be tame compared with Exmouth. To offer this cohort of students a unique experience comparable with their perceptions of earlier field trips, they were taken to Dirk Hartog Island by boat where they prepared an assessment of a hypothetical tourism development. In reflection, the Shark Bay field trip



**Figure 2: The Gascoyne Region of Western Australia**

Source: Department of Commerce and Trade and the Gascoyne Development Commission (1999).

highlights the value of involving students in activities that are foreign to their life worlds because, like McCannell's tourists, they are stimulated by new experiences that differentiate them from others. Following this experience, each new cohort of students is exposed to at least one major activity that is different from the last, an activity that is enjoyable and emphasises the process of learning rather than being driven by outcomes.

### **Activities for experiential learning**

*'The activities we did for assignments weren't boring, we were able to actively participate which made it fun' (Experiential learner 1998).  
The field trip never had a dull moment, as well as being heaps of fun. I learnt a lot about the area and the current issues concerning the region' (Experiential learner 1998).*

Whenever possible, students are involved in projects proposed by a government department which in turn may contribute to field trip costs. While the fiscal benefits of this approach are obvious, the advantages accruing to students from involvement in what they call 'real projects' are a boon to experiential learning and an added benefit is the acknowledgement of students' work in government reports. Projects undertaken to date include work for the North West Cape Structure Plan and the Ningaloo Marine Park Management Plan.

However, while such projects provide fertile ground for student involvement they do not always extend students' powers of critical analysis and for this reason they also work on hypothetical development proposals and regional strategies independent of a client but still involving government personnel and interest and community groups and individuals including Yamatjis (local Aboriginal people) and environmentalists. Examples of such projects include tourism developments on Dirk Hartog Island and on the coast south of Exmouth, a limestone quarry at Exmouth and development and management strategies for the Gascoyne and its four local government areas.

Each year, students also undertake a tourism survey which they analyse and include in tourism plans and regional and local strategies. Surveys are undertaken on the understanding that information can also be used by participants of future field trips, post-graduate students, staff and clients if the survey attracts funding. However, data is not made available to students for commercial use unless all students who participate in data collection agree. These surveys are a rich source of data for longitudinal studies of tourism in the Gascoyne.

Although the subject of specific projects changes from year to year, there is a core itinerary that has evolved to develop in participants an understanding of planning theories and principles through the investigation of themes. The following table illustrates the standard itinerary for the Gascoyne field trip, its themes and examples of agencies, groups and individuals encountered whilst in the field.

Place	Themes	Agencies etc
Shark Bay 2 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Corporatisation &amp; environmental commodification</li> <li>• Environmental ethics</li> <li>• Resource depletion/competition (fishing)</li> <li>• Intergovernmental relations</li> <li>• Interagency relations</li> <li>• Tourism planning traditions</li> <li>• Competition for resources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Department of Conservation &amp; Land Management (CALM)</li> <li>• Shire of Shark Bay</li> <li>• Tourism operators</li> <li>• Fisheries Department</li> </ul>
Carnarvon ½ day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regional development &amp; leadership</li> <li>• Globalisation &amp; regional competitive advantages</li> <li>• Role of a regional centre</li> <li>• Regional decline</li> <li>• Diversity &amp; race relations</li> <li>• Resource competition</li> <li>• Land degradation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gascoyne Development Commission (GDC)</li> <li>• Horticulturalists</li> <li>• Pastoralists</li> </ul>
Coral Bay ½ day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Neo-liberalism &amp; private sector tourism development</li> <li>• Environmental degradation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CALM</li> </ul>
Exmouth 6-7 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regional development</li> <li>• Small town decline/diversification</li> <li>• Developing regional/local advantage</li> <li>• Native Title</li> <li>• Competition for services</li> <li>• Competition for resources</li> <li>• Globalisation</li> <li>• Value adding</li> <li>• Information technology &amp; regional/local disadvantage</li> <li>• Tourism planning traditions</li> <li>• Environmental impact assessment</li> <li>• Corporatisation &amp; environmental commodification</li> <li>• Environmental ethics</li> <li>• Intergovernmental relations</li> <li>• Interagency relations</li> <li>• Land degradation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDC</li> <li>• CALM</li> <li>• Fisheries Department</li> <li>• Fishing entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Local government</li> <li>• Department of Defence</li> <li>• Water authority</li> <li>• Tourism operators</li> <li>• Tourists</li> <li>• Other local business people</li> <li>• Yamatji Land Council representative</li> <li>• Environmental lobbyists</li> <li>• Pastoralists</li> </ul>

Formal presentations are kept to a minimum and wherever possible discussions with agencies and the like take place on sites, in processing plants or quarries and on beaches or even at sea. The exceptions to this rule are a meeting in Exmouth that involves most of the key players in the town and a presentation evening where students present their perspectives on the region to the same group towards the end of the field trip. While students primarily use presentations as sources of data they are also expected to prepare charts illustrating key players in regional planning and development and their relationships to one another including tensions over jurisdictions. The following comments demonstrate student reactions to discussions with key players in the region.

*‘The interaction with local stakeholders and interested parties was especially beneficial’* (Experiential learner 1998).

*‘The organisation of lectures from local management groups helped to get a local view on projects’* (Experiential learner 1998).

*‘The regular presentations from outside agencies provided useful insights into the operation of the regional planning process’* (Experiential learner 1998).

Students clearly value the assimilation of work and learning and produce some excellent assignments when they return to Perth. One participant commented: ‘The field trip was excellent and definitely improved my enthusiasm to produce good work’. However, while work production improves, on reflection it is argued that the

greatest benefit that accrues to students through experiential learning in the field is their personal development.

### **Experiential learning and personal development**

*'What seemed to be poor organisation in regards to meals was excellent as people worked as a team and people really enjoyed doing the work'* (Experiential learner 1998).

*'Develop(ed) camaraderie among my classmates but have a sense of belonging to the group'* (Experiential learner 1998).

*'Each individual was involved – no one was left out '* (Experiential learner 1998).

Students and staff participate in all aspects of the program from planning the trip to driving, cooking, cleaning and managing money. What develops is an air of true cooperation and collaboration that pervades group activities when students and staff return to Perth and is, hopefully, carried to the workplace by graduates but however beneficial experiential learning may be, it also provides challenges that are sometimes difficult to surmount.

### **Challenges of experiential learning**

*'His organisation was not overdone in that students were left to work out why they were taken where they went which gave rise to self learning'* (Experiential learner 1998).

*'Got to go to key areas of interest and still have time to do entertaining stuff too. By this I mean touristy – not that the other things weren't interesting'* (Experiential learner 1998).

Effective experiential learning in the field involves sharing power. Staff must be prepared to participate in group activities and adapt to the needs of other participants. However, some academics find sharing power very difficult particularly when it involves sharing it with other academics and while the inability to collaborate effectively may impinge on day to day activities it can reach monumental proportions when staff differ over expected outcomes. Just as some planners argue that planning processes are paramount, proponents of experiential learning believe that process leads to self directed learning and outweighs the achievement of concrete outcomes (Forester 1999; Healey 1997; Kolb 1984). It suffices to say that not all planning educators place the same emphasis on process and those who have more prescriptive approaches to planning and learning sometimes find it difficult to allow students the freedom to learn through their experiences particularly when they involve professionals who may be perceived to be judgemental.

Risk on field trips is not confined to the emotions and philosophies of teachers and students. Experiential learning often involves potentially hazardous activities like snorkelling and climbing or walking in areas where there are snakes and scorpions. Participants sometimes suffer physical disabilities or have to come to grips with imaginary monsters that make performing seemingly simple tasks personally

challenging. Materially, the problem of risk is that staff are responsible for the well being of students and can be sued if someone is hurt and although students sign codes of conduct whereby they accept responsibility for injury if their behaviour is inappropriate, legal advice suggests that even in these circumstances staff may be liable. The dilemma for staff involved in experiential learning is not to avoid risk but to differentiate between risks that constitute part of a learning experience and those that are gratuitous.

Another shortcoming of experiential learning is that students sometimes attach a status of truth to the opinions of practitioners. This problem is particularly prevalent when students work with practitioners who are powerful, well dressed and who have well paid jobs that sometimes dictate the presentation of partisan views rather than balanced discussion. Consequently, it is important to present many, diverse truths to stimulate students' powers of critical analysis.

Finally, experiential learning programs dictate the need for adaptability amongst all participants. Weather, fatigue, illness, emotions and a variety of other factors affect the smooth running of field programs and provide daily challenges that have to be addressed. Therefore, it is recommended that academics carefully assess their own suitability for experiential learning before taking their charges into the field.

## **CONCLUSION**

Experiential learning is an active vehicle for synthesising theory and practice. It is a process that links learning and work with personal development and is ideally suited to professional education because it is grounded in practice (see figure 1). While participants in the program over the last six years have produced very pleasing assignments, it is argued that these outcomes are less significant than their heightened capacities to cooperate and collaborate with each other and with staff and practitioners. Other, less tangible, outcomes of the program include the development of better understandings of planning contexts and milieus and, hopefully, the diversity of Western Australia's regional populations. These are the legacies students take to professional life.

However, experiential learning is not always a bed of roses, particularly for academic participants. Sharing experiences often entails sharing power with students and other academics and may challenge philosophical approaches to planning education and the planning per se. Similarly, academics are sometimes forced to observe student practices that may cause embarrassment when practitioners are present. Experiential learning in the field also entails risks that are part of the learning process but which could also lead to litigation. However, in spite of the difficulties, this participant is preparing for next year's adventure because above all, experiential learning is fun.

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## **ABSTRACTS**

### **DIVERSITY, CONTROVERSY AND CONFLICT AS RESOURCES IN PREPARING STUDENTS FOR THE REAL WORLD**

**Peter Herborn**

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This paper is based on reflection on the experience of teaching a planning subject to groups with diversity in terms of course enrolment, mode of attendance, experience, gender and ethnic background and options with respect to modes of delivery. The subject was originally taught in a conventional lecture-tutorial format and converted to a more student-centred workshop and tutorial format. Workshops proved to be successful, but were avoided by students when given a choice. Diversity, controversy and conflict can provide powerful learning experiences but many students are risk averse. The problem become one of reducing the risks and rewarding problem-oriented activity and principled negotiation in the classroom.

### **‘PAPER, SCISSORS, ROCK’: LEARNING IN AND FROM THE SCHOOLYARD**

**Elizabeth Aitken Rose**

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There is growing interest in the role and participation of children in the planning process. This paper will focus on a third year undergraduate studio programme developed by the Department of Planning in partnership with a primary school in South Auckland. The studio explores the role of young people in sustainable development. Planning students are placed in a ‘quasi-real’ situation where they are asked to work with children to identify, design and implement practical projects, which might improve the children’s quality of life and promote sustainability issues. The studio seeks to give students a greater understanding of the opportunities and obligations imposed by international and local conventions and policies such as Agenda 21, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Resource Management Act 1991. It asks them to develop skills in community participation processes and to address issues of difference and diversity. Project management skills are emphasised during the second phase of the studio. A series of projects were developed in the schoolyard in 2000. Projects are situated in the local town centre in 2001, requiring a more sophisticated understanding of planning in the public realm. This paper will examine the pedagogical issues associated with ‘studio’ or practical learning programmes involving children.

## ANZAPS ROUNDTABLE ON PROFESSIONAL ACCREDITATION

**Joan Vipond**

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**University of New South Wales**

The aim of this Roundtable is both to have a general discussion on the inter-relationships between the practising professionals and academic planners and to seek feedback on RAPI's new *Draft Education Policy for the Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications*. To facilitate the discussion there will be a panel of three to initiate comment on the following issues:

1. „Planning education in Canada’ by Nancy Marshall. Nancy has recently completed a PhD at UNSW on the topic “Into the Third Millennium: Neocorporatism, the State and the Urban planning profession”
2. “Lessons from conducting accreditation reviews in Australia and New Zealand” by Richard Cardew. Richard has been a member of the Accreditation Committee of the NZPI and has been chairman of several Visiting Boards of Review in Australia.
3. “ Restructuring accreditation guidelines to respond to changes in universities and the profession by Dr Joan Vipond. Joan is Honorary National Education Convenor of RAPI

During the last year Joan Vipond has chaired a committee reviewing accreditation procedures. The committee, comprising also Hedley Thomson, Elizabeth Bensz, Barrie Melotte, Professor Tong Wu of UNSW and Neil Head, was established in October 2000 by the National Council of RAPI to review the current policy *RAPI Education Accreditation Policy, October 2000*.

Planning Schools and the Education Convenors of the RAPI Divisions were consulted in the period November 2000 to April 2001 and a new draft policy was drafted on the basis of submissions.

The committee met for the 28 July 2001 to consider this draft. It reached agreement that:

- The new policy document should be concise rather than detailed
- It should reflect new ways that universities are organised. For example, departments and schools have been restructured and the term course now has different meanings in different universities.
- The new policy should contain a statement of RAPI's educational objectives and its views on the core curriculum of planning.

Much that is in the current policy has been transferred to the new. For instance, there are not many changes in the model schedule for a visiting board.

A final draft of the new policy *Draft RAPI Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications* has been agreed upon by the committee and is attached for comment and feedback Joan would appreciate your comments either at the Roundtable or by email to [joanvipond@bigpond.com](mailto:joanvipond@bigpond.com) before 30 September 2001.

It is intended to that this draft policy, amended as a result of consultation at ANZAPS and with RAPI Division Education Convenors, should be considered by the National Council of RAPI in October 2001.

## **DRAFT**

# **RAPI** ***EDUCATION POLICY FOR RECOGNITION OF AUSTRALIAN PLANNING QUALIFICATIONS***

August 2001

## **INTRODUCTION: AIMS OF RECOGNISING AUSTRALIAN PLANNING QUALIFICATIONS**

1. The Royal Australian Planning Institute aims to promote the study of planning and the improvement of the skills of planners. To achieve these aims, the Institute has for many years accredited education courses and recognised Australian planning qualifications.
2. Recognition establishes national standards for the educational attainments of entrants into the planning profession. Gaining a recognised qualification followed by two years' experience of working as a professional planner is the prime means of becoming a corporate member of the Institute and using the affix MRAPI. There are alternative routes to membership, which generally require longer work experience.
3. RAPI also provides advice on an on-going basis to planning programs in universities. Through its Divisions, it encourages planning programs to establish advisory committees, which include members of RAPI. These committees can provide information on trends in professional practice that have an impact on the education needs and employment opportunities of graduates.
4. As an endorsed policy of the national council of the Institute, this *Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications* demonstrates the Institute's commitment to achieving and maintaining high standards in the knowledge, skills and ethics of professional planners and in planning education.
5. This *Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications* describes the criteria for recognition of qualifications, the reasons for these criteria and the procedures followed to evaluate whether qualifications should be recognised. It provides a guideline for universities that apply to have qualifications recognised and for academics and professional planners who assist in reviews to recommend whether qualifications should receive RAPI recognition.

## **DEFINITIONS**

6. The term „qualification' is used to describe both degrees and diplomas obtained after undergraduate or postgraduate study.
7. The term „planning program' describes the organisation of planning education within a university. In some universities the planning program will take the form of a department or a school.

## **CRITERIA FOR RECOGNISING AUSTRALIAN QUALIFICATIONS IN PLANNING**

8. The Institute views planning as being centrally concerned with relating and arranging land-use activities in space and time taking into consideration the environmental, social and economic influences on these within a legislative, administrative and political context. Its distinctive approach lies in integration and co-ordination both of policy development and its implementation, by statutory and other means. It is a process for assisting the public, private and voluntary sectors in making choices about land-uses and related decisions about the conservation and development of land and its resources, in ways conducive to sustaining the natural, economic and social environment of Australia.

9. Qualifications that are recognised should achieve the Institute's academic and vocational objectives for students of planning education.

10. The Institute's vocational objective is to encourage students to develop the skills and professional ethics required by professional planners and to have a well-rounded understanding of the role of planners in society.

11. The Institute's academic objective is to encourage students to think creatively, analytically and critically, and to be able to communicate effectively. Students should understand the benefits of sound land use planning in a complex decision-making environment. They should know about the effects people have on the natural environment and the use and management of natural resources and about conservation and change in the cultural and built environment.

12. The Institute recognises that universities aim for academic excellence in teaching and research and that their autonomy is essential to the development of the discipline of planning. RAPI therefore appoints a senior academic as well as two professional planners to review qualifications for recognition, as described in the next section. These procedures also require that planning programs define their academic objectives and their relevance to planning and to the vocational and academic objectives of the Institute outlined above.

13. In setting criteria for the educational content of recognised qualifications, the Institute does not specify a precise planning curriculum. Rather, it has outlined the knowledge and skills base, and understanding of professional ethics, which are the national standard for educational attainment of those who enter the profession. The content of this core curriculum is described in Appendix A.

14. The Institute also encourages planning programs to have their own educational focus and to develop specialist areas of study that are relevant to planning practice. It encourages collaboration between planning programs and other discipline and subject areas, within and between universities, where this can best achieve tuition in the core curriculum and specialised areas.

15. The Institute encourages the combination of planning education with professional work experience, acknowledging that their interaction can enhance the quality of each. Where professional work experience is a formal requirement of a qualification, RAPI in determining whether to recognise the qualification, will evaluate the quality and supervision of the work

experience. It will seek to ensure that it assists in the acquisition of core knowledge and skills.

16. The Institute considers that there is a minimum time needed for students to achieve competency in the core curriculum of planning. Four years of full-time study, or its equivalent, in the case of undergraduate degrees and of two years full-time study, or its equivalent, in the case of postgraduate degrees, is regarded as the usual minimum duration. For linked undergraduate and postgraduate courses a 3-year full-time undergraduate degree followed by a one-year full-time postgraduate professional qualification (3 + 1), or their equivalents, is the minimum appropriate duration. In recognition of development in methods of teaching and study, the Institute may recognise qualifications that can be gained after a shorter duration, when this is recommended by review procedures that are satisfied that the objectives of recognition are being achieved.

17. The Institute requires that adequate educational resources support recognised qualifications. Adequacy is measured partly by a requirement that the head of the planning program has the autonomy within the university to provide academic leadership in planning. Adequacy is also measured in terms of the number and quality of staff, relative to the number of students, and in the quantity and quality of accommodation, equipment and library resources. In total the resource support must ensure that the vocational and academic objectives of the recognised qualification can be achieved.

18. In order to ensure the ongoing relevance of recognised qualifications to professional practice, the Institute encourages the staff of planning programs to be Members of the Institute and the program head to be a Corporate Member. To provide an ongoing forum for professional and community response to the education program, the Institute suggests that course advisory committees be established. These should comprise representatives from the community and the profession, with at least one member being a representative of the relevant Division of RAPI, as well as representatives of recent graduates and current students.

19. Recognised qualifications are reviewed every five years to ensure that these criteria are met on a continuing basis.

### **PROCEDURES FOR RECOGNITION**

20. The national education convenor of RAPI is an appointed member of the national council of the Institute who has responsibility for organising the reviews that lead to the continued recognition of qualifications. When a review of is due, the national education convenor will contact the head of the planning program to arrange a convenient date during term time, when students are available to take part in the process.

21. Heads of planning programs who wish to have a new qualification recognised should contact the national education convenor through the national secretariat of RAPI to arrange a review.

22. If a planning program has created a joint degree or diploma which includes a recognised qualification, then the head of the planning program may apply to the national secretariat of RAPI for the joint degree to be recognised without a review. If the joint degree involves only a part of a recognised qualification, then the head of the planning program may apply for a review to determine whether the joint degree should be recognised by RAPI.

23. Reviews for both continued recognition and for recognition of new qualifications are undertaken by visiting boards appointed by the national education convenor of RAPI in consultation with the national president and the relevant State president of RAPI and the head of the planning program. Visiting boards are usually composed of three members, two being members of RAPI from the Division in which the planning program is located and one other, normally a full-time academic, from interstate. The latter person is normally the chairman of the board. It is desirable that one of the State members is the current national council member from that State and the other should be the chair of the course advisory committee, though circumstances may require other local members of RAPI to be chosen. In order to ensure both an academic as well as professional review of accredited courses, the chairman of the visiting board is usually a full-time academic.

24. As far as practicable, reviews of all recognised qualifications provided by one planning program will be undertaken at the same time.

25. When a review has been arranged, the head of a planning program will be asked to provide written reports as described in Appendix B and arrange meetings between staff, students and senior academics and the visiting board, in consultation with the chairman of the visiting board. The visiting board's stay at the university will normally be for two days. A model schedule is at Appendix C.

26. Prior to the visit, the national education convenor will provide the visiting board with copies of the report of the previous visiting board (where appropriate), a report on the subject qualification(s) prepared by the university for the visiting board in accordance with Appendix B, and any other relevant material so that the views of the profession about the qualifications can be taken into account.

27. Prior to a visit, the relevant Divisional Committee of RAPI will organise that local visiting board members review the documentation provided by the head of the planning program to identify any areas where the local members of the visiting board feel that more information is needed. These requests for further information should be conveyed to the national educational convenor, to the chair of the visiting board and the head of the planning program.

28. All visiting board members will meet prior to commencing their formal review to brief each other on any points they particularly believe they should pay attention to, and to determine whether any changes are needed to the draft schedule of the visit. Any changes should be discussed and agreed to with the head of the planning program.

29. Each visiting board has discretion in making recommendations as to whether the qualifications they are reviewing are appropriate for recognition by RAPI. The criteria described in the section above are for guidance and are not mandatory.

30. At the end of the visit, the chair of the visiting board will summarise to the head of planning program, staff and students the agreed position of the visiting board in relation to the qualifications being examined, prior to the board departing from the university.

31. The visiting board will produce a draft report of the visit within 4 weeks, which will make recommendations about the recognition of qualifications and give reasons for those

recommendations. This report is to be sent to the head of the planning program for correction of matters of fact and to the appropriate Division for comment. Once these comments have been received and agreement has been reached among members of the visiting board, a final report will be produced for the national education convenor to take to the national council of RAPI.

32. The national council of RAPI will consider the recommendations of the visiting board and will determine whether to continue recognition of qualifications or recognise new qualifications. This will be done as soon as possible, subject to the dates for forthcoming meetings and teleconferences of the national council.

33. A written record of the determination of the national council of RAPI will be sent to the head of the planning program with a copy of the final report of the visiting board.

34. Students who enroll in courses leading to recognised qualifications will be regarded as being eligible for RAPI membership if they successfully complete their courses in the normal time, even if the qualification is no longer recognised, or is no longer offered, at the time they graduate.

## **APPENDIX A**

### **CORE CURRICULUM IN PLANNING**

#### **Knowledge of**

- The purpose and methods of planning (the traditions, current philosophies, principles, practice, and the emerging issues)
- The natural and cultural environment, principles of ecologically sustainable development, methods of evaluating, improving, building and managing the environments
- The political, legal and institutional contexts of planning including the influence of native title on land tenure; and,
- relevant social, economic and environmental principles
- indigenous Australian cultures, including relationships between their physical environment and associated social and economic systems

#### **Skills in**

- problem definition and objectives formulation for development and conservation
- understanding policy formulation, evaluation and implementation
- plan making and the use of planning instruments
- understanding urban design principles
- understanding strategic dimensions and their implications
- strategic planning related to economic climate, social change and environmental sustainability
- development control and its relationship with its environment and with strategic plans
- mediation and conflict resolution
- research methods including quantitative and qualitative analysis
- verbal written and graphic communication
- the use of information technology
- knowledge synthesis and application in planning practice
- understanding and responding to cultural diversity and practice.

#### **Adoption of professional ethics**

- Integrate value issues in practice; ranging from professional practice ethics of consideration of future generations, to respect for diversity and the importance of social equity
- Assess critically the use of professional knowledge, skills and communication.

Appendix A is adapted from Melotte, B (1996) *Planning Competencies: Report to National Council*, Royal Australian Planning Institute, November Mimeo

## **APPENDIX B**

### **VISITING BOARD REQUIREMENTS**

Four weeks in advance of the visit the head of the planning program should send four copies of the following documents to the National Education Convenor. It is preferred that they be bound into one document and that the information be concise.

1. Institutional Setting

A statement of the context of the planning program and the ways that this has influenced the nature of the qualifications offered. A brief description of the history of the university. Description of the local environment. Involvement of the planning program with the profession and the RAPI.

2. History of the Qualification (s)

A brief description of the history of the degrees and/or diplomas

3. Aims and Objectives

This statement is to enable the visiting board to identify the planning program's educational philosophy and the capabilities it seeks to develop in its students and how these are related to the planning environment in which it is situated.

4. Student Resources

A statement to indicate any characteristics in the backgrounds of students, which influence the direction of the qualifications offered. Entrance requirements. Student numbers and enrolment trends.

5. Staff Resources

A statement summarising the academic staff profile, including teaching as well as non-teaching activities and other duties such as research, publications and community involvement. Status of the head of program. Involvement of outside teaching resources.

6. Physical Resources

This statement should encompass teaching spaces, library and equipment as well as financial support.

7. Academic Program

Brief description of the structure of degrees and diplomas seeking continued or new recognition, including how subjects relate to each other in each year and from one year to the next. Description of inputs from other programs and disciplines within the same university and from other universities, where relevant. Requirements for graduation and methods of assessment of students' work. Lecture syllabi, including

details of contact hours and recommended reading material for all subjects taught. Copies of the course handbook(s).

8. Administrative Structures

Intra- and inter-program decision-making networks and processes in the context of the university, committees and management structure of the planning program. Role and function of the course advisory committee (if any).

9. Self-Appraisal

The head of the planning program is to provide a self-appraisal statement showing how the degree(s) and/or diploma(s) satisfy RAPI's *Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications*. This should also include an account of developments since the report of the last visiting board, unless the subject qualification is a new proposal. The statement should be complete in itself, removing the necessity for the visiting board to make reference to documents prepared for other purposes.

This appraisal should cover:

- a) Issues raised in previous visiting board and/or course advisory committee reports.
- b) Changes introduced to the degree or diploma leading to the qualification(s) since the last visit (if appropriate).
- c) Effects of changes in resource provision since the last visit (if appropriate).
- d) Critical evaluation of objectives in relation to the Institute's *Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications*.
- e) Critical evaluation of content, duration and use of resources in terms of criteria in RAPI's *Education Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications*.
- f) Special features of the qualification(s) where appropriate.
- f) Feedback from graduates including on their employability.
- h) Future developments

## **APPENDIX C**

### **DRAFT MODEL SCHEDULE FOR A VISITING BOARD**

In the first instance it is the responsibility of the head of the planning program to propose a draft timetable. This should be based on a series of meetings, inspection of student work and inspection of school facilities.

Previous visiting boards have found that the schedule suggested at the end of this appendix allows Boards to achieve their objectives. However the head of the planning program and the visiting board should feel free to suggest alterations. The visiting board will want to see the planning program functioning as normally as possible and may break into small groups to develop a broader understanding of the qualifications that are provided.

#### Meetings

Normally the visiting board would expect meetings to include:

- A discussion with the head of the planning program, the Dean and senior colleagues. This meeting would normally take place at the beginning of the visit so the visiting board can obtain an overview of the degree or diploma and clarify information already provided.
- Discussion with the staff responsible for specific areas of study.
- Discussion with the staff as a whole.
- Discussion with students and recent graduates.
- A meeting with the Vice Chancellor of the University or his/her representative.

#### Inspection of Student Work

The head of the planning program is asked to arrange for a member of staff briefly to explain the work of each year, its relationship with the preceding and following years, and the relationship between subject areas in that year. The purpose of this is to demonstrate the structure of the degree or diploma and the integration of subjects. The school may wish to arrange for one or two students from each year to be present.

#### Inspection of Facilities

The school should arrange for a member of staff to show the Board major facilities including teaching spaces and library.

## A MODEL SCHEDULE

Prior to the start of the visit the visiting board will consider the documents provided and the suggested schedule to determine whether any changes are needed to the draft schedule of the visit. Any changes should be discussed and agreed to with the head of the planning program.

### Day One

<b>0900</b>	Board convenes in private session.
<b>1000</b>	Board meets with head of planning program, Dean and senior academic staff members. Visiting board chair provides overview, and raises any issues arising from initial meeting. Head of planning program has opportunity to clarify any outstanding points.
<b>1100</b>	Overview of student work.
<b>1200</b>	Meeting with staff.
<b>1300</b>	Lunch with staff.
<b>1400</b>	View student work by year/discussion with individual staff members.
<b>1700</b>	Board private session. <i>(A meeting with the Vice-chancellor or other senior representative of the University may be held at this time, if appropriate).</i>

### Day Two

<b>0900</b>	Discussion with head of planning program/senior academic staff.
<b>0930</b>	Inspection of school facilities.
<b>1100</b>	Meeting with students.
<b>1200</b>	Lunch with students.
<b>1400</b>	Board private session.
<b>1600</b>	Head of planning program/Dean/senior academic staff debriefing.
<b>1630</b>	Presentation of summary of report to staff and students.



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