

## PLANNING THE PATHS OF PLANNING SCHOOLS

Keynote address prepared for the  
Symposium on the Future of Planning Education  
marking  
60 Years of Planning Education  
University of South Australia  
Adelaide  
13 February 09

Bruce Stiftel, FAICP  
Professor of City and Regional Planning  
Director, City and Regional Planning Program  
Georgia Institute of Technology  
245 Fourth St., NW #204  
Atlanta GA 30332-0155 USA  
(voice):+1.404.8949837  
(fax):+1.404.8941628  
[bruce.stiftel@coa.gatech.edu](mailto:bruce.stiftel@coa.gatech.edu)

## PLANNING THE PATHS OF PLANNING SCHOOLS

### ABSTRACT

The history of planning education recalls the phrase, "Physician, heal thyself!" Planning schools have seized opportunity from social movements, policy fashion, and academic vogue to build a global system of planning education that could not have been imagined when the first planning schools were created in Liverpool, Karlsruhe, Boston and Adelaide. Certainly this system has been to the betterment of urban development and human welfare. Certainly the system has never been larger, today comprising perhaps 600 planning schools and 13,000 academics. At the same time, the system has evolved with little planning, and now it is threatened by pressures for budget cutbacks in universities, national research quality measurement schemes, and a pervasive tension between planning academics and practitioners.

This paper seeks to understand the pressures urban planning schools face in the early 21<sup>st</sup> Century through exploration of the factors leading to planning school evolution in the 20<sup>th</sup>. The unplanned paths of planning schools will be set against the phenomenal growth in planning education. Today's planning school debates between design and policy, practice and scholarship, context-specificity and one-world embrace, modernity and post-modernity, will be used as a platform to examine the choices planning education faces today. To advance in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, planning schools will have to get much better at systematic assessment of knowledge; this will demand much more effective methods for exchange of scholarship across national boundaries. How we manage relevance to our national planning professional contexts while building capacity for global learning will define the planning school of the future. To succeed in balancing these competing objectives, planning schools must get more serious about planning themselves: we will have to apply our own practice skills at forecasting, collaborating and design to the choices we face about our own futures.

## PLANNING THE PATHS OF PLANNING SCHOOLS

City planning education began in the early twentieth century as reformers clamored for more cohesive approaches to urban problems of the industrial cities, and as architects, landscape architects and engineers thirsted for more direct training in the urban-scale design processes they found themselves tasked to complete. For half a century, the Planning Schools Movement was small and limited to the major industrial countries, but by the late 1960s there were schools on all continents and enrollments were in the thousands. Growth had been fueled by Keynesian government economic interventions, responses to urban unrest, and a growing environmental movement. Schools struggled to find capable faculty to address an ever-widening breadth of planning specializations, and ties to planning practice were stressed. Then, under pressures from a Reagan-Thatcher economic regime that questioned government's potential to redress urban problems, and national pressures to adapt university professional education to scientific models, many planning schools re-invented themselves often in the mold of the applied social sciences with emphases on knowledge creation and dissemination. New markets for students, graduates and research products were eagerly embraced, sometimes with little attention paid to the appropriateness or efficacy of the old tools to the new applications. This evolution, in which schools seized opportunity where it lay and sought continuation and growth in opportunistic or even defensive ways, was described as "the unplanned paths of planning schools" by William Alonso (1986).

There have never been more planning schools than at the present time, nor more faculty or students, and their rates of growth are unprecedented. Still, while governments and universities create new schools eagerly, they place increasing pressures on schools to deliver education, scholarship and outreach more productively and more efficiently, and the professional and community constituencies served by the schools press for divergent and sometimes conflicting academic outcomes. Planning schools can no longer succeed without planning themselves. We will have to get much better at assessing our capabilities, at learning from each other, and at choosing strategically among alternative futures. It is vital that as schools and as a community of scholars, we plan the path of planning schools.

This paper traces the history of planning education in its unplanned past, examines the pressures facing planning schools today, and suggests attitudes and tools we might adopt to balance competing objectives, learn more effectively as a discipline, and apply our own planning practice skills to the choices we face about our own futures.

## HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PLANNING EDUCATION

University urban planning education began in the early twentieth century with courses taught for the benefit of architects, landscape architects and engineers who wished to expand their practices into the city planning domain. The University of Liverpool (UK) is widely cited as having offered the first course beginning in 1907, and other early schools included Lvov Technical University's (Poland) Department of Town Planning from 1913 (Pawlowski 1973), University of Karlsruhe (Germany) from 1915 (Frank and Mironowicz 2008, 5), Harvard University (USA) from 1928 (Batey 1985; Adams and Hodge 1965), and St. Petersburg School for Civil Engineering (Soviet Union) from 1930 (Hirt and Stanilov 2008, 86). As Krueckeberg (1985) shows, these early years of planning education were firmly set in the design profession tradition, while drawing on the growing sentiment for scientific applications in government and industry.

Growth in the early decades was modest, with only nine programs in the United States by 1941 (American Society of Planning Officials 1941, 263-6.). By the end of that decade, however, design was no longer the sole orientation of planning schools, with new schools formed in social science settings (including those at the University of Chicago and University of North Carolina), and other schools in design college settings admitting students whose prior work had been other than in a design profession (Krueckeberg 1985; Sarbib 1984; Birch 1980; Nocks 1974). Britain was quick to join the adoption of a social science orientation. While some European countries clung to the design paradigm, economic planning flourished as a distinct enterprise in Soviet and Eastern European universities throughout the communist era (Hirt and Stanilov 2008, 87).

With loosened reigns of the design orientation and the adoption of applied social science tools, planning schools were free to branch into wider ranges of policy concerns, building regional coverage and adding transportation, housing, social welfare, environmental resource issues, and economic development. So that, by the late 1970s, many planning schools covered much of the range of domestic policy matters affecting human settlements.

The broadening of scope was a challenge. By the mid-1950s, Harvey Perloff had articulated a “generalist with a specialty” framework for University of Chicago planning students (Perloff 1957). This framework spread widely and became a key component of U.S. accreditation criteria when those began in 1984 (Planning Accreditation Board 1984). At the same time, the breadth led inevitably to weakened focus, and there were challenges from practitioners and from scholars in other fields that the boundaries of planning had become too diffuse. Policy scientist Aaron Wildavsky famously asked, “If planning is everything, maybe it’s nothing?” (Wildavsky 1973). British schools moved away from the model beginning in the 1970s (Healey 1980).

Spread of planning education beyond Europe and North America dates from the late 1940s, with the establishment of two Australian programs at the South Australian School of Mines and Industries (now the University of South Australia), and the University of Sydney in 1949. Developing country-based planning programs date from at least 1958 when Ghana’s Kumasi College of Arts, Science, and Technology started a planning program (Inkoom 2008, 5). Initial growth was slow, however, and relatively few developing countries had planning programs until the 1970s (Bell and Packard 1976; Stiffler and Watson 2004). Many countries, including some in the European periphery, did not have any planning degree programs until the 1990s (Gospodini and Skyannis 2005).

The numbers of schools and numbers of students skyrocketed in the 1960s and early 1970s, coincident with the broadening of scope. This may have been a function of the lower cost models in social science colleges compared with design colleges, and it may have been driven by workplace demands tied to government planning initiatives in the U.S., U.K., and other European countries. In 1975 almost 1,500 master’s degrees were awarded by nearly 65 U.S. schools, and planning-related instruction became commonplace in departments of geography, urban studies, and other social science fields (Krueckeberg

1985, 427-9). By the late 1970s, there were 211 diploma or specialization programs in the U.K (Healey and Samuels 1982). The growth of the 1960s and 70s is illustrated by U.S. enrollment data presented in Figure 1.

The growth was not without problems. Criticism of loss of technical content from the profession was heard: *ASPO Planning* published the notable commentary, "Why can't Johnny Plan?" (Levin 1976). Some commentators tied the skill deficit to the adoption of the social science paradigm and the emphasis on doctoral degree requirements, in contrast to professional practice degrees and experience, for academic staff (Alonso 1986). Others saw the skill changes following planning job definition changes from design consultant, to staff policy analyst in government, "generating information for decision makers" (Hemmens 1988, 87).

There has been a resurgence of design in planning schools in the past decade, driven by the wide interest in new urbanism, walkable communities, urban design more broadly, and the emphasis in European policy on spatial planning, but this has supplemented rather than diminished the social science orientation (Grant 2005). Ironically, physical design has become the basis of much communication between Western planners and those in some countries such as China where Western policy perspectives may be seen as politically volatile (Abramson 2005, 92).

Conceptions of planning widespread in mid-twentieth century emphasized rationalist top-down models of planning embodied in concepts such as master, comprehensive and general planning. The Rational Planning Model, articulated by Banfield (1959) became the principal language of planning method. Data analysis was central as were new tools of computer-based analysis.

The social unrest of the 1960s subjected these modernist approaches to intense criticism. Radical planners such as Goodman (1971) saw the rational model as a tool used by elites to disenfranchise poor, inner city residents. The legacy of this criticism and the planning profession's responses have been a series of models for greater *deliberation* in planning, including greater involvement of community residents and other stakeholders in planning processes, including advocacy planning, citizen participation, empowerment and civic engagement. Each has held sway in planning school curricula for its time, and movement internationally has been uneven. This "communicative turn" in

planning research and practice remains a major force today (Allmendinger and Tewdwr-Jones 2002), at the same time distrust of indigenous knowledge and fear of decentralized power remains a concern in many countries (Irazabal 2009).

In the same era, dissatisfaction with centralized, modernist approaches led to increased attention to development control, growth management, and development management. By the 1980s, plan implementation tools were mainstream parts of curricula in many countries, with course work including zoning and subdivision regulation, impact assessment, site plan review, negotiation and conflict resolution. Today, high rates of population growth coupled with limited regulatory/implementation capacity in many countries strains planning systems. Schools often find themselves struggling to match modernist-era ideas and tools with post-modern pressures of international trade, ethnic conflict, migration, and reduced public sector capacity.

Planning education has been significantly tied to the institutional, legal and cultural context of specific countries. When planning schools in the major industrial countries found they were enrolling students from developing countries in significant numbers, they initiated specializations oriented toward practice in the developing country setting. This transition faced challenges of adequately illustrating general principles in the context of widely-divergent countries, as well as questions of the appropriateness of industrial-nation originated concepts to developing-country problem solving (Qadeer 1988; Sanyal 1989). Much planning scholarship assumes the context of democratic governance and market-based economics (Gunder and Fookes 1997). While other work is focused in other contexts, it is highly unusual to find theoretical or methodological work that systematically addresses implications across all major political and economic systems (Frank 2006, 19-20).

The one-world approach to planning education seeks to bypass these challenges by orienting planning school curricula to draw internationally regardless of the anticipated future location of the student's practice. This universalist orientation seeks to broaden the focus of general planning theory and method so that it is relevant and useful everywhere (Frank 2006; Sanyal 1989). As international agreements, such as the European Union's Bologna compact require or promote cross-border

credentialling and movement of urban planners, educational programs are under pressure to move in a one-world direction (Davoudi and Ellison 2006; Confederation of EU Rectors' Conferences 1999).

One-world planning education faces its own challenges, not the least of which is the difficulty of defining meta-frames of reference across a wide range of planning systems that involve divergent socio-cultural and historical backgrounds and value systems (Burayidi 1993). As planning practice has increasingly emphasized the importance of place and identity, singular models are less convincing (Yuen 2008, 97). There is the concern that one-world approaches may privilege ideas from industrial, particularly Anglo-American countries (Kunzmann 2004). There is also the problem of limited access to scholarship and practice documents produced in many countries in various languages primarily for local or national consumption (Stiftel and Mukhopadhyay 2007; Stiftel, Watson and Ascelrad 2006).

## PLANNING SCHOOLS IN THE EARLY 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY

Industrial countries experienced substantial growth in planning education in the 1960s and 70s, and certain newly-industrialized countries, such as Brazil, had active planning education beginning in the 1970s, but many nations had no or few planning schools until the last decade (Stiftel and Watson 2004). That situation has changed substantially in recent years. Today there are at least 553 universities offering planning education in 83 countries (Stiftel *et. al.* 2009). Figure 2 shows the distribution of these schools across major world regions. There are definitional challenges in determining this number, as planning education is not subject to school accreditation nor professional certification in many countries, and as planning is often taught as part of curricula in aligned areas including architecture and geography. None the less, the magnitude of this number is surprising to many observers, reflecting the isolation of many schools from international networks and the lack of inter-regional communication in urban planning more generally. Perhaps equally surprising is that, with an average reported academic staff size of 23, these 553 schools reflect an academic staff headcount of approximately 13,500.

Comparing school numbers with world-regional population, Europe (163 schools), North America (109 schools) and Oceania (24 schools) have a higher percentage of schools than of population, while

Africa (69 schools), Asia (161 schools) and Central and South America (27 schools) have lower percentages of schools than population. Certain nation-specific counts are notable: China has 97 schools; Nigeria has 36. Planning degrees are offered in more than 35 languages, although English and Mandarin together account for more than 50 percent of all offerings. (Stiftel *et. al.* 2009)

Undergraduate education (66 percent of schools) is slightly less common than post-graduate professional education (77 percent), and doctoral degrees are awarded by 29 percent of schools. (Stiftel *et. al.* 2009). 33 percent of schools require a doctoral degree of all full-time academic staff; 60 percent require a post-graduate degree; 6 percent require at least a bachelor's degree. 65 percent of the planning schools reported they emphasize both physical design and policy/social science research, while 27 percent reported a singular emphasis on physical design and 6 percent reported singular emphasis on policy/social science research, and 3 percent stated they follow a different approach. Singular design-oriented planning education is more common in Asia, Eastern and Southern Europe and Latin America. (Stiftel *et. al.* 2009)

61 percent of the planning schools are members of a regional planning school association (Stiftel *et. al.* 2009). There are nine of these associations banded together in the Global Planning Education Association Network (GPEAN). Of these, the U.S.A.'s Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning (ACSP) is the oldest, founded in 1959. Canada's Association of Canadian University Planning Programmes (ACUPP) began in 1977, and three of the others date from the 1980s: the Francophone Association for the Development of Planning Education and Research (APERAU; 1984); Brazil's National Association of Urban and Regional Post-graduate and Research Programmes (ANPUR; 1986); and the Association of European Schools of Planning (AESOP; 1987). Three others began in the 1990s: the Asian Planning Schools Association (APSA; 1991); the Australia and New Zealand Association of Planning Schools (ANZAPS; 1994); and the Association of Latin-American Schools of Urbanism and Planning (ALEUP; 1999). The Association of African Planning Schools (AAPS) held its first meeting last year in Cape Town (see Figure 3).

Australian planning schools have seen sharp increases in enrollments, up 23 percent from 1993 to 2000 with continued growth since, yet a shortage of professional planners remains in the country. Starting

salaries for planners were recently shown on a top 10 list across fields for graduates of Australian Universities (Sipe 2009), and there is pressure for students to work before graduation which helps with student finances but reduces degree completion (Jones *et al*, 2009). This shortage has led the Planning Institute of Australia to rethink skills and capabilities, teaching methods, the role of accreditation and the responsibilities of various stakeholders in planning education. Among the issues they are considering are: responsibilities of various stakeholders in planning education, role differentiation among schools, indicators of school quality, access in rural areas, industry engagement, and funding for research. They are asking whether the Institute can better support planning education through advocacy and direct involvement (Gurran, Norman and Gleeson 2008).

## CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES

Planning schools face substantial challenges related both to the demands of planning practice and the re-structured landscape of higher education.

Rapid urbanization rates, mega-city growth, urgent problems of sustainability and climate change, environmental justice concerns, pressures for movement toward international parity in economic and environmental outcomes, and multi-cultural challenges tied to migration and ethnic conflict, all place stresses on practicing planners who in turn ask their schools to suggest solutions and to prepare new entrants to the profession who can better address these stresses.

Many exciting innovations are underway at key schools that are leading to these solutions. 74 percent of schools teach topics they describe as sustainable development; 53 percent say they teach social equity; 35 percent say they teach climate change (Stiftel *et al* 2009). All these subjects are heavily represented in the pages of our journals; indeed the number of journals featuring planning research has increased substantially in the recent past, with at least 14 new planning journals beginning in the past twenty years (Stiftel 2005). Most schools integrate technical, analytic and communicative skills in their curricula, and are sensitive to participatory and multi-cultural needs. Yet, 33 percent of schools do not teach policy- or do not teach design-oriented approaches to planning and half of schools do not have substantial international content in their curricula (Stiftel *et al* 2009). The softer “people skills” side of

planning is often not considered appropriate for university professional instruction, even though planning directors repeatedly cite these skills as vital to good practice (Seltzer and Ozawa 2002; Dalton 2007).

Moreover, in the world context many schools do not have minimal resources to facilitate effective education, research or both. Especially in developing countries, the resources and incentives for research may be lacking (Rodriquez-Pose 2006, 609). Many schools depend heavily on part-time staff, lack computers, and studio space to conduct their work well. Doctorates are required for full-time academic staff by only one-third of planning schools worldwide and competition from industry and overseas institutions can make staff retention problematic. Many schools require neither research nor practice of their academic staff and assign them teaching loads which make it impossible to carry out such professional development in any event. Library materials are particularly in short supply in many developing country schools, with staff resorting to reading aloud from key sources (Stiftel *et al* 2009).

Governments of industrial nations are increasingly using research assessment tools to provide feedback on the quality of research and to inform resource allocation decisions. These governments are influenced by views of university research and education as drivers of economic development and they seek to maximize the return on their education investments in terms of development payoffs (Hambleton 2006). Summarized by Stiftel, Forsyth, Dalton and Steiner (2009) in Figure 4, the measurement exercises are most often based on a very limited set of measures, almost entirely focussed on research activity, sometimes use new judgements of quality made by peer review panels assembled for the purpose, and lead to single measures of unit quality. In some countries there are direct links to national government funding. Commentators argue that university research has been increased and enhanced as a result of some of these systems. Preliminary evidence suggests that urban planning schools have not fared particularly well under certain programs. Twenty years of the British Research Assessment exercise, for instance, has contributed to consolidation among British planning schools, with five of the thirty schools that submitted to the exercise in 2001 no longer in place to submit in 2008 (Punter 2007). And now, the UK RAE has stimulated somewhat similar exercises in various countries including Australia, Canada, Belgium, Hong Kong, Ireland, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia, and Taiwan (Geuna and Martin 2003).

It is difficult for planning programs that are designed to serve a wide range of multiple objectives and that draw from a wide range of disciplinary traditions to score well on single-measure based research assessment exercises. Especially when original panel assessments are used, there is the danger that the work of planning academics will not be evaluated by true peers, but rather by scholars who disagree with the approaches undertaken. Moreover, planning education's need to be connected to practice through outreach and grounded research and teaching may not likely to be respected and rewarded.

Global learning may be an even greater challenge. As noted above, only 61 percent of planning schools are members of a regional planning school association. This indicator corresponds to a much wider pattern of regional isolation in planning education.

The growing widespread use of English as the language of scientific communication has contributed to a fragmenting of the planning scholarship world. It has always been true that planning scholarship followed national lines reflecting language, legal structure and cultural dimensions of planning (Friedmann 2005). The movement to global English has largely left French- and Spanish-speaking planning scholars on the outside. Kunzmann (2004) claims that the movement pulls planning scholars away from the practice communities in their home countries as they must often choose between scholarly respect for their work and national or local professional relevance. As shown in Figure 5, Stiftel and Mukhopadhyay (2007) found that 67 percent of the authors publishing in twenty-five leading English-language planning journals work in the five principal Anglophone countries, leaving just 33 percent of authors coming from 67 other countries. More significantly perhaps and shown in Figure 6, five journals, all leading U.S. journals, have less than 10 percent of their articles written by authors working outside these five Anglophone countries (555). Stiftel, Watson and Acselrad (2006) found, as shown in Figure 7, that leading planning scholarship draws most heavily from prior works published in the authors' home region and that few scholars from any other regions 'import' references from Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

There are planning school accreditation systems in place in many countries, including Australia, U.S., U.K, and South Africa, but many nations do not have specialized accreditation for urban planning education. This has been a source of debate. Many schools wish to have the external validation that

international accreditation would bring, and portability of credentials is of concern to many graduates and schools. At the same time, there are concerns about how to effectively assess degree quality when planning contexts and national educational systems differ as widely as they do. The Commonwealth Association of Planners is now embarking on a program to extend credentialing services to planning schools in the British Commonwealth.

## PLANNING OUR FUTURE AS SCHOOLS

How can planning schools rise to the simultaneous tasks of developing new ideas and tools that will contribute to solution of pressing local, regional and global problems, prepare entry-level planners for ever-more complex practice responsibilities, update and enrich the practices of mid-career planners, respond to increased university focus on traditional research outputs, ensure currency of faculty skills and support professional institutions through outreach, learn effectively in a global context, and increase the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of university operations? It would seem that we cannot be all things to all people and that trying to do so will leave us ineffective at representing our strengths to the constituencies and administrative leaders upon whom we depend for budgets and other forms of support?

Read that last paragraph again. What if I recast it in a more general way....How can planning schools respond to conflicting multiple objectives in a resource-limited and contentious stakeholder environment?

How can any organization respond to conflicting multiple objectives in a resource-limited and contentious stakeholder environment? Plan! For a century, our profession has argued that planning is the key to effective action when choices are hard. It's time we applied our beliefs to ourselves.

Planning our paths as planning schools will require that we get serious about assessing our needs, defining our goals (individually as schools and collectively as a community of scholars), and evaluating alternative courses of action. Along the way, we will need to be savvy at forecasting, collaborating, and of implementation tools.

Assessing needs will require that we are accurate at understanding our current strengths and weaknesses and that we are effective at explaining these to university and professional leaders. It is up to us to display believable yardsticks of school performance that reflect our multiple objectives, such as the variables suggested by Stiftel, Forsyth, Dalton and Steiner in Figures 8 and 9. These respect social science research, design work and connections with practice as foci of planning education. With such measures, reliable appraisals about school accomplishments as well as persuasion of university leadership about school resource needs will be closer in reach.

Defining our goals won't be easy. Individual schools reflect unique mixes of incentives and ambitions for research, design, outreach and service, on the one hand, and undergraduate, postgraduate and continuing education on the other. All of this, in turn, takes place within differing national contexts of university aspiration. Good unit performance data will help us to know how we compare with other schools on each of these objectives. This information will need to be integrated with institutional aspirations and realities. As a community of scholars, we need much more in-depth discussion of these choices and how they affect our relationships with our constituencies, our institutional successes, and our abilities to truly lead the planning profession in this dynamic era. Articulating alternative goal sets alone will be a valued step, as in the current environment it is all too common to see international research acclaim as a goal set in clear terms, while professional outreach, community engagement and teaching excellence are ill defined and as a result less well served.

Alternatives evaluation is a main theme of planning curricula, so it will be hard for me to convince this audience of any particular approach to carrying it out. Instead, I think it might be useful to have you ask yourselves the question of when was the last time your school conducted a formal alternatives evaluation of a major choice you faced? Whether you favor quantitative or qualitative approaches, optimization modeling or scenario building, expected value calculations or planning balance sheets, we have the tools and need only pay attention to applying them.

Hambleton (2006, 113-5) illustrates a successful experience of planning school strategic planning at the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC) from the 1990s. Moved by an institution that was eager to increase its research profile, but whose student body was largely drawn from its urban catchment, the UIC

College of Urban and Public Affairs defined several keystone initiatives, including a Great Cities Commitment that sought to transform the traditional tension between public service and research capacity. The College diagnosed its position and identified critical issues, then explored various future context scenarios, crafted a new mission statement that laid out core values, external and internal goals, and finally identified teaching program, publication and research strategies. Frank (2008) describes a proposal to use definitions prepared at Portland State University and the University of Indiana-Purdue University, Indianapolis, as well as a national portfolio review process, to help planning schools enhance outreach objectives.

Enhancing global exchange among planning schools and planning scholars has been a key goal of several of the planning school associations, as well as the Global Planning Education Association Network, and is illustrated in the time line in Figure 10. The international congresses that are the mainstays of these organizations have had substantial effect on international awareness and cross-fertilization in planning scholarship and any number of bi-lateral joint research and exchange programs have resulted. But, the need far outpaces the effects of these limited activities. Beyond these solid beginnings we need to open up the pages of English-language planning journals to authors who work in other languages and give access to the planning scholarship in other languages to those who work in English. Translations or partial translations, as well as search engines and indices that make work in one language available to others may be part of this effort (Stiftel and Mukhopadhyay 2007). We need to think more comparatively in designing our research, effectively treating former assumptions as control variables, if not experimental variables. We need to open our vision to different approaches to validity and reliability that may be accepted in other national or regional scholarship communities and recognize that we often have something to learn from scholars who do not share our pre-conceptions. We need to expand our efforts to bring examples from outside our own countries into our classrooms and encourage both short term exchange and degree-study abroad for our own students and those who might study in our institutions. While it is pre-mature to begin international accreditation, it is time to set up mechanisms for cross-border exchange of planning education expertise for the purposes of advancing education in all countries.

Planning schools face unprecedented opportunity as well as threatening challenges. In the past, they have been reluctant to apply their disciplinary methodological traditions to their own policy making. Today's planning school debates between design and policy, practice and scholarship, context-specificity and one-world embrace, modernity and post-modernity, will not be resolved easily. To advance in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, planning schools will have to get much better at systematic assessment of knowledge, at exchanging scholarship across national boundaries, and at balancing competing objectives through good planning.

## REFERENCES

- Abramson, D. (2005) 'The "studio abroad" as a mode of transcultural engagement in urban planning education: A reflection on ten years on Sino-Canadian collaboration.' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 25: 89-102.
- Adams, F.J. and G. Hodge. (1965) 'City planning instruction in the United States: The pioneering days, 1900-1930.' *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*. 31(1): 43ff.
- Afshar, F. (2001) 'Preparing planners for a globalizing world: the planning school at the University of Guelph.' *Journal of planning Education and Research*. 20(3): 339-352.
- Allmendinger, P. and M. Tewdwr-Jones. (2002) *Planning Futures: New Directions for Planning Theory*. New York: Routledge.
- Alonso, W. (1986) The unplanned paths of planning schools. *The Public Interest*. 82:58-71.
- American Society of Planning Officials (1941). Report of the Committee on Education for Planners. Pp. 263-6 in *National Conference on Planning: Proceedings*. Chicago.
- Banfield, E.C. (1959) 'Ends and means in planning.' *International Social Science Journal*. 11(3).
- Batey, P. (1985) 'Postgraduate planning education in Britain – Its purpose, content and organization.' *Town Planning Review*. 56(4): 407-420.
- Bell, G. and R. Packard. (1976) 'Human settlements education: A survey of programs in the less developed countries.' *Ekistics*. 41(264): 264.
- Birch, EL (1980) Advancing the art and science of planning: planners and their organizations, 1909-1980. *Journal of the American Planning Association*. 46(1):22-49.
- Buryadi, M. (1993) 'Dualism and universalism: Competing paradigms in planning education?' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 12(3): 223-229.
- Confederation of EU Rectors' Conferences and Association of European Universities (1999) 'The Bologna declaration on European higher education: an explanation.'

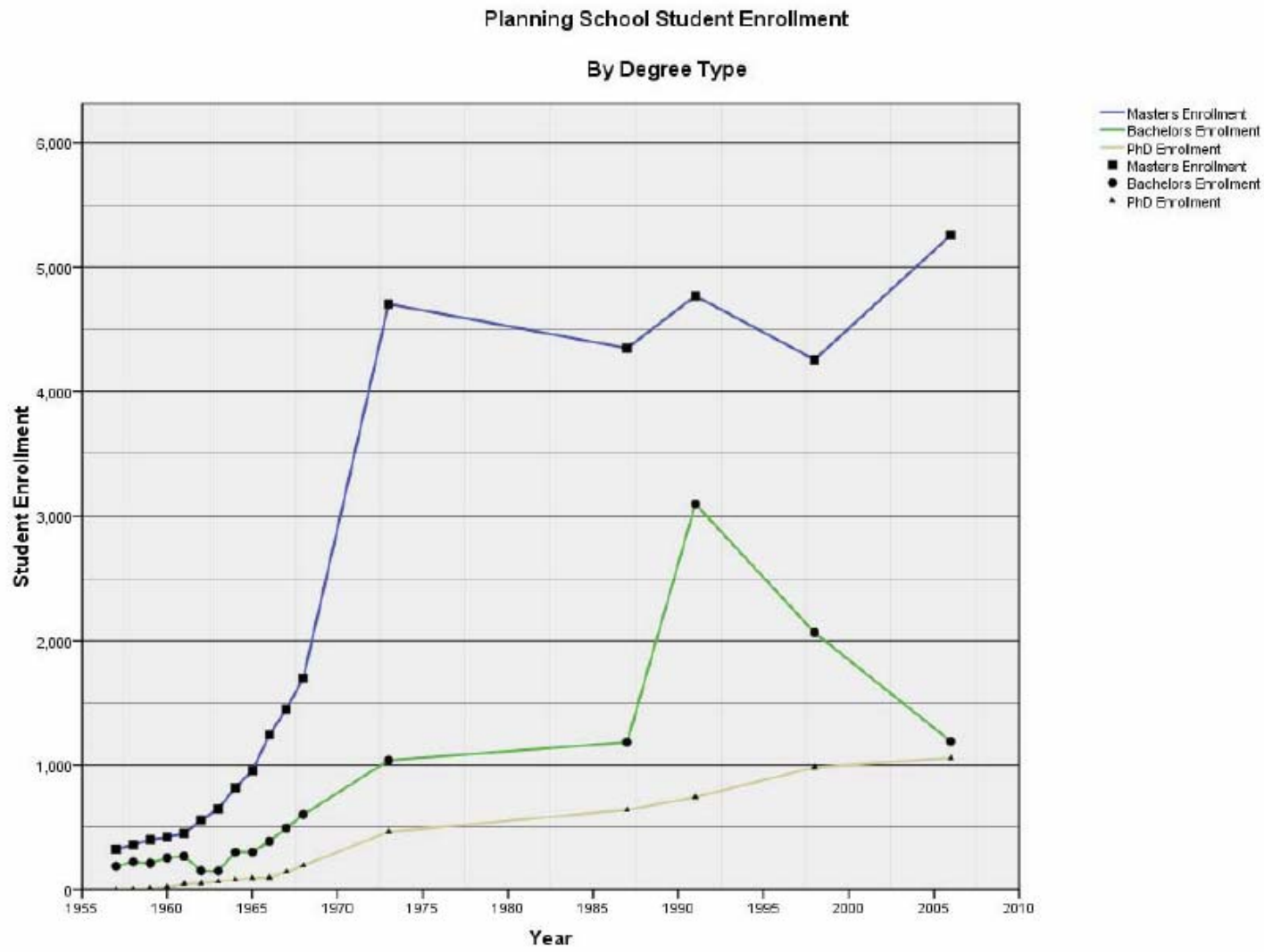
- <http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/educ/bologna/bologna.pdf> (accessed 13 September 08).
- Dalton, L. (2007) Preparing planners for the breadth of practice: what we need to know depends on whom we ask. *Journal of the American Planning Association*. 73(1):35-48.
- Davoudi, S. and P. Ellison. (2006) *Implications of the Bologna Process for Planning Education in Europe: Results of the 2006 Survey*. Association of European Schools of Planning, June.
- Frank, A. (2006) 'Three decades of thought on planning education.' *Journal of Planning Literature*. 21: 15-67
- Frank, A. and I. Mironowicz (2008) "Planning education in Poland." Case study prepared for the Global Report on Human Settlements 2009. Nairobi: UN Habitat. [www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009](http://www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009).
- Frank, N (2008) Measuring public service: assessment and accountability to ourselves and others. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 27(4): 499-506.
- Friedmann, J. (2005) "Globalization and the emerging culture of planning." *Progress in Planning*. 64:183-234.
- Geuna, A., and BR Martin (2003) University research evaluation and funding: an international comparison. *Minerva* 41:277-304.
- Goodman, R. (1971) *After the Planners*. Touchstone.
- Gospodini, A. and P. Skyannis (2005) "Towards an "integration model" of planning education programmes in a European and international context: the contribution of recent Greek experience. *Planning Theory and Practice*. 6(3):355-382.
- Grant, J. (2005). *Planning the Good Community: New Urbanism in Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.
- Gunder, M. and T. Fookes. (1997) 'Planning school programs in Australia and New Zealand.' *Australian Planner*. 14(1): 54-61.
- Gurran, N, B. Norman and B. Gleeson (2008) Planning education discussion paper. Prepared for the Planning Institute of Australia. Kingston: Planing Institute of Australia.
- Hambleton, R (2006) Purpose and collegiality in planning education: an international perspective. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 26(1):107-117.

- Hamnett, S (1999) 50 years of planning education in Australia. *Australian Planner* 36(1).
- Healey, P. (1980) 'The development of planning education in the UK and its relevance as a model for other countries.' *Ekistics*. 47(285): 416-420.
- Healey, P. and O. Samuels (1981) *British planning education in the 1970s and 1980s*. London: Social Science Research Council.
- Hemmens, G. (1988) 'Thirty years of planning education' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 7(2): 85-91.
- Hinojosa, R.C., T.S. Lyons and F.D. Zinn (1992) 'The relevance of North American planning education for overseas practice: a survey of graduates.' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 12(1):32-38.
- Hirt, S and K. Stanilov (2008) 'Revisiting urban planning in transitional countries,' Nairobi: U.N. Habitat. INK"<http://www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009>"[www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009](http://www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009)
- Inkoom, D. K. B. (2008) "Planning education in Ghana." Case study prepared for the Global Report on Human Settlements 2009. Nairobi: UN Habitat. [www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009](http://www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009).
- Irazabal, Clara (2008) "Revisiting urban planning in Latin America and the Caribbean." Regional report prepared for the Global Report on Human Settlements 2009. Nairobi: UN Habitat. [www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009](http://www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009).
- Jones, M et al (2009) Generating academic standards in planning practice education. Final report to the Australian Learning and Teaching Council. Melbourne: Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology.
- Krueckeberg, D. (1985) 'The tuition of American planning: From dependency toward self-reliance.' *Town Planning Review*. 56(4): 421-441.
- Kunzmann, K. (2004) 'Unconditional surrender: the gradual demise of European diversity in planning,' Paper presented at the Congress of the Association of European Schools of Planning, 3 July. Planum website, [http://www.planum.net/topics/documents/kunzmann\\_epp\\_01.pdf](http://www.planum.net/topics/documents/kunzmann_epp_01.pdf) (accessed 13 September 08).
- Kunzmann, K. (1985) "Educating planners in Europe: trends and requirements—an international perspective." *Town Planning Review* 56(4): 442-466.

- Levin, M. (1976) 'Why can't Johnny plan?' *Planning*. 42(8): 21-23.
- Nocks, B.C. (1974) 'Case studies: A decade of planning education at three schools.' In: Godschalk, D.R. (ed.) (1995) *Planning in America: Learning from Turbulence*. Washington DC: American Institute of Planners. 206-226.
- Pawłowski, K.K. (1973) 'Narodziny miasta nowoczesnego', *Sztuka drugiej połowy XIX w.* Materiały sesji Stowarzyszenia Historyków Sztuki, Łódź
- Perloff, H. (1957) *Education for Planning: City, State and Regional*. Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore USA.
- Punter, J. (2007) Personal communication. Cardiff, Wales, UK.
- Qadeer, M. (1988) 'Planning in the Third World in western universities.' *Ekistics*. 328: 64-68.
- Rodriguez-Pose, A. (2006) Is there an 'Anglo-American' domination in human geography? And, is it bad? *Environment and Planning A* 38:603-10.
- Sanyal, B. (1989) 'Poor countries students in rich countries' universities: possibilities of planning education for the twenty-first century.' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 8(3)139-55.
- Sarbib, J.L. (1983) 'The University of Chicago program in planning: A retrospective look.' *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 2(2): 77.
- Seltzer, E. and C. Ozawa (2002) Clear signals: moving on to planning's promise. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 22(2):77-86.
- Sipe, N (2008) Personal communication. Brisbane, Australia.
- Stiftel, B. (2005) Supply side planning scholarship. *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 25(1):7-8.
- Stiftel, B, J Demerutis, A Frank, T Harper, D K.B. Inkoom, L-M Lee, J J Lima, A Memon, T Milstead, I Mironowicz, T Nnkya, D Peris, H Rennie, C Silver and N Sipe. (2009) Planning education and the challenges of urban areas. Chapter prepared for the 2009 *Global Report on Human Settlements*. Nairobi: United Nations, Human Settlements Programme.
- Stiftel, B, A Forsyth, L Dalton and F Steiner. (2009) Assessing planning school performance: multiple paths; multiple measures." *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 28.

- Stiftel, B. and C. Mukhopadhyay. (2007) 'Thoughts on Anglo-American hegemony in planning scholarship: Do we read each others work?' *Town Planning Review* 78 (5, 2007): 545-572.
- Stiftel, B., D. Rukmana and B. Alam (2004) "Faculty quality at U.S. graduate planning schools: A National Research Council-style study." *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 24:6-22.
- Stiftel, B. and V. Watson. (2005) *Dialogues in Urban and Regional Planning*, Volume 1. London: Routledge.
- Stiftel, B., V. Watson and H. Ascelrad (2006) *Dialogues in Urban and Regional Planning*, Volume 2. New York: Routledge.
- Wildavsky, A. (1973) If planning is everything, maybe it's nothing. *Policy Sciences*. 4(2):127-53.
- Yuen, B. (2008) "Revisiting urban planning in East Asia, South-east Asia and the Pacific. Nairobi: UN Habitat.

Figure 1. U.S. planning school total headcount enrollment, 1957-2006.



\*Data from ASCP

Figure 2. University Urban Planning Schools: by World Region<sup>1</sup>

Table 10.1. Urban Planning Schools Inventory: by Region

Region	Number of Schools	Percent Schools	Percent Population
AFRICA	69	12.5	14.5
ASIA	161	29.1	60.4
CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA (includes Carribean and Mexico)	27	4.9	8.6
EUROPE (includes Turkey)	163	29.5	10.9
NORTH AMERICA	109	19.7	5.0
OCEANIA	24	4.3	0.4
Total	553	100.	99.8

<sup>1</sup>Source: Stifftel *et al* 2009.

Figure 3. Inaugural meeting of the Association of African Planning Schools, Cape Town, October 2008.



Figure 4. University unit performance: summary of systems in selected industrial countries<sup>2</sup>

**Table 1.**  
**University unit performance: Summary of systems in selected industrial countries.**

<i>Nation</i>	<i>Government or Nonprofit</i>	<i>Formative or Summative</i>	<i>Internal or External Basis</i>	<i>Primary Research Evaluation</i>	<i>Effects Funding?</i>
Australia	Government	Summative	External	Bibliometric	Expected
Belgium	Government	Summative	External	Bibliometric	
Canada	Government	Summative			
Denmark	Government		Internal		
France	Government		Internal		
Hong Kong	Government	Summative			Yes
Ireland	Government	Formative	Internal		
Japan	Government		Internal		
Netherlands	Government	Summative	External	De novo	
New Zealand	Government	Formative	Mixed	Bibliometric	Yes
Poland	Government	Summative			Yes
Slovakia	Government	Summative			Yes
Switzerland	Government		Internal		
Taiwan	Government	Summative			
United Kingdom	Government	Summative	External	De novo	Yes
United States	Nonprofit	Summative	External	Bibliometric	No

<sup>2</sup>source: Stiffel, Forsyth, Dalton and Steiner 2009.

Figure 5. Work country and work region of authors of articles in 25 planning journals, 2001-5<sup>3</sup>

**Table 2 Work country and work region of authors of articles in 25 planning journals: 2001-05**

Rank	Country/region	Per cent of authorship	Cumulative per cent of authorship
1	USA	31.25	31.25
2	UK	26.31	56.56
3	Canada	5.88	63.44
4	Netherlands	4.87	68.31
5	Australia	3.33	71.64
6	Germany	2.47	74.11
7	China	1.52	75.63
8	Italy	1.51	77.14
9	Hong Kong	1.44	78.58
10	Israel	1.42	80.00
11	Japan	1.38	81.38
12	Spain	1.36	82.74
13	France	1.25	83.99
14	Sweden	1.20	85.19
15	Singapore	1.15	86.34
16	New Zealand	1.08	87.42
17	Belgium	1.08	88.50
18	Turkey	0.99	89.49
19	Norway	0.95	90.44
20	Denmark	0.91	91.35
21	Finland	0.80	92.15
22	Ireland	0.76	92.91
23	South Africa	0.76	93.67
24	Greece	0.69	94.36
25	Switzerland	0.55	94.91
-	47 other countries	5.17	100.00
1	Europe (25 countries; incl. Russia)	46.02	46.02
2	North America (2)	37.13	83.15
3	Asia and Pacific Islands (28; incl. Turkey)	14.72	97.87
4	Africa (9)	1.49	99.36
5	Central and South America (8; incl. Mexico)	0.72	100.00
-	Anglophone 5 (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, UK, USA)	67.85	67.85
-	67 other countries	32.23	100.00
	TOTAL (72 countries)	100.00	100.00

<sup>3</sup>source: Stiffel and Mukhopahyay 2007, 552.

Figure 6. Proportion of authorship in 25 planning journals by anglophone status and world region<sup>4</sup>

**Table 3 Proportion of authorship in 25 planning journals by anglophone status and world region (journals are listed according to total share of non-anglophone authorship (column 8)).**

(1) Journal	(2) Country contributing most articles	(3) Anglophone 5 <sup>1</sup>	(4) Rest of Europe <sup>2</sup>	(5) Asia <sup>3</sup>	(6) Africa	(7) Central and South America <sup>4</sup>	(8) Sum of contributions from non- anglophone countries, (4) + (5) + (6) + (7)
<i>Habitat International</i>	13.5 (UK)	31.6	9.5	38.9	14.9	5.2	68.5
<i>European Planning Studies</i>	24.8 (UK)	39.6	56.9	3.1	0.2	0.3	60.3
<i>Landscape and Urban Planning</i>	26.1 (USA)	44.1	41.1	13.2	0.3	1.3	55.9
<i>Cities</i>	26.8 (USA)	46.9	21.6	25.3	3.3	2.9	53.1
<i>International Development Planning Review</i>	20.4 (UK)	50.1	9.6	29.8	9.6	1.0	50.0
<i>Built Environment</i>	24.3 (UK)	50.2	42.1	7.8	0	0	49.8
<i>International Journal of Urban Regional Research</i>	27.2 (UK)	59.8	28.9	7.1	2.3	2.1	40.3
<i>International Planning Studies</i>	38.8 (UK)	62.9	19.1	14.2	1.5	2.3	37.1
<i>Environment and Planning B</i>	30.5 (USA)	68.5	17.7	13.2	0	0.6	31.5
<i>Environment and Planning C</i>	53.6 (UK)	72.5	24.6	2.8	0	0.1	27.5
<i>Environment and Planning A</i>	39.8 (UK)	73.5	18.0	8.0	0.3	0.3	26.5
<i>Planning Perspectives</i>	32.9 (UK)	73.7	16.5	6.2	2.5	1.2	26.3
<i>Town Planning Review</i>	66.5 (UK)	74.4	17.5	6.5	1.6	0	25.6
<i>Planning Theory and Practice</i>	42.2 (UK)	75.7	19.4	2.7	2.2	0	24.3
<i>Planning Theory</i>	34.2 (USA)	77.4	17.0	3.8	1.9	0	22.6
<i>Growth and Change</i>	64.5 (USA)	78.3	18.8	3.0	0	0	21.8
<i>Journal of Architectural and Planning Research</i>	62.0 (USA)	78.4	6.6	14.2	0.9	0	21.6
<i>Planning Practice and Research</i>	58.1 (UK)	82.2	13.2	3.1	1.6	0	17.8
<i>Progress in Planning</i>	39.7 (Canada)	87.0	3.4	9.6	0	0	13.0
<i>Environment and Planning D</i>	41.9 (UK)	87.2	10.0	2.3	0	0.5	12.8
<i>Journal of Planning Education and Research</i>	83.8 (USA)	93.3	4.1	1.1	0.6	0.9	6.7
<i>Journal of the American Planning Association</i>	87.2 (USA)	93.8	4.2	2.1	0	0	6.3
<i>Places</i>	88.7 (USA)	95.7	4.3	0	0	0	4.3
<i>Journal of Planning History</i>	88.0 (USA)	97.3	2.0	0.7	0	0	2.7
<i>Journal of Planning Literature</i>	95.7 (USA)	100.0	0	0	0	0	0

1 The 'Anglophone 5' are Australia, Canada, New Zealand, USA and UK

2 'Rest of Europe' includes Russia; excludes Turkey and UK

3 'Asia' includes Turkey and Pacific Islands; excludes Australia and New Zealand

4 'Central and South America' includes Mexico

<sup>4</sup>Source: Stiftel and Mukhopadhyay 2007, 554

Figure 7. *Dialogues* volumes one and two: citation analysis<sup>5</sup>

**Table 1.1** *Dialogues* volumes one and two: citation analysis (percentage of references originating in region indicated)

<i>Region in which citation was published</i>	<i>Europe</i>	<i>North America</i>	<i>Latin America</i>	<i>Australia</i>	<i>Asia</i>	<i>Africa</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Region in which citing work was published</i>							
Europe	83	16			1		100
North America	21	75		1	2	2	100
Latin America	28	6	66				100
Australia	32	22		46			100
Asia	40	21		3	36		100
Africa	50	17			1	32	100
Total all regions	37	37	11	8	3	4	100

<sup>5</sup>source: Stiffel, Watson and Ascelrad 2006, 14.

Figure 8. Faculty work indicators<sup>6</sup>

**Table 2.**  
**Faculty work indicators.**

---

Indicators based on independent national sources

- Density (per capita incidence) of ISI-listed publications
- Density of ISI-listed citations
- Density of new books authored or edited by faculty assigned ISBNs by the Library of Congress
- Density of fellowships to faculty from a fixed list of granting institutions (e.g., Fulbright, Guggenheim, MacArthur, U.S. presidential, APA, etc.)
- Density of national awards to faculty from a fixed list of awarding institutions (e.g., AICP fellows induction, APA, AIA, ASLA, EDRA, etc.)
- Density of regional or state awards to faculty from a fixed list of awarding institutions (e.g., APA chapters, regional science associations, etc.)

Indicators based on survey of schools

- Density of faculty testimony before national and international legislative bodies or investigative commissions
- Density of faculty testimony before state or multistate regional legislative bodies or investigative commissions
- Density of faculty testimony before local or substate regional legislative bodies or investigative commissions
- Density of number of projects initiated for public or private planning clients
- Density of dollar value of projects initiated for public or private planning clients
- Density of faculty memberships on national or international boards or commissions
- Density of faculty memberships on state or multistate regional boards or commissions
- Density of faculty memberships on local or substate regional boards or commissions
- Density of number of exhibitions in which faculty work appeared away from home campus

---

Note: ISI = Institute for Scientific Information; APA = American Planning Association; AICP = American Institute of Certified Planners; AIA = American Institute of Architects; ASLA = American Society of Landscape Architects; EDRA = Environmental Design Research Association.

---

<sup>6</sup>source: Stiffel, Forsyth, Dalton and Steiner 2009.

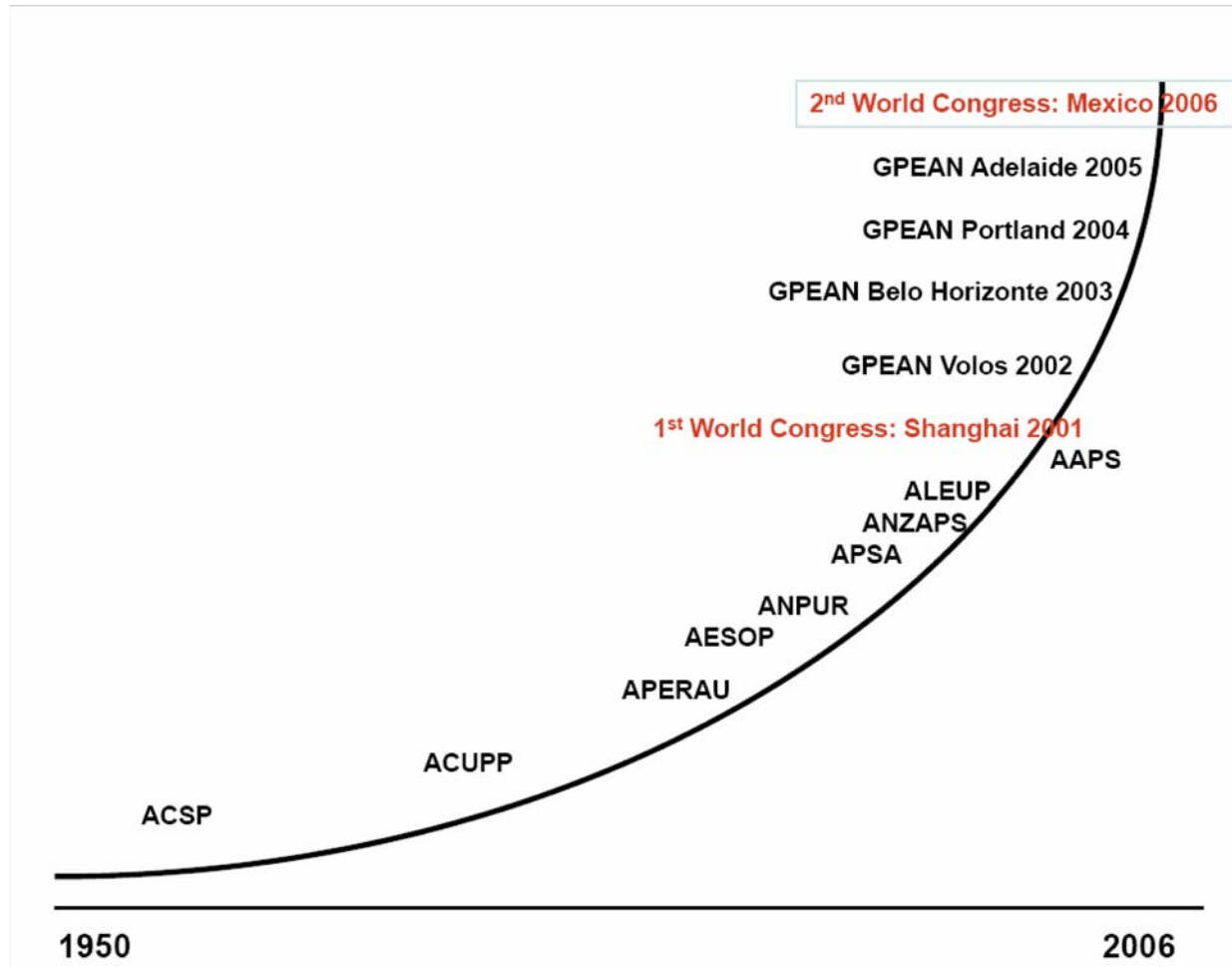
Figure 9. Student data indicators<sup>7</sup>

Indicators based on independent national sources
Numbers of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees awarded
Race of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree earners
Gender of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree earners
U.S. resident and foreign status of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree earners
Number of attempts at AICP exam by program graduates, number of program graduates
Pass rate for AICP exam by program graduates
Indicators based on survey of schools
Number of students admitted to bachelor's program
Number of students admitted to master's program
Number of students admitted to doctoral program
Number of students first enrolling in bachelor's program
Number of students first enrolling in master's program
Number of students first enrolling in doctoral program
GRE verbal interquartile range of entering graduate students
GRE quantitative interquartile range of entering graduate students
Percentage of full-time graduate students appointed to graduate assistantships
Percentage of full-time graduate students appointed to nonservice fellowships
Percentage of full-time graduate students appointed to tuition waivers

Note: AICP = American Institute of Certified Planners.

<sup>7</sup>source: Stiffel, Forsyth, Dalton and Steiner 2009.

Figure 10. Time line of the Planning Schools Movement<sup>8</sup>



<sup>8</sup>source: Presentation by Vanessa Watson, AAPS, to planning school association leaders, Mexico City, 2006.