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Enhancing experiential learning in planning education through an online toolkit of resources

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ANZAPS
THE AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND ASSOCIATION OF PLANNING SCHOOLS

2014

Planning, Politics and People

Proceedings of the Australia & New Zealand Association of Planning Schools Conference

Editors
Muhammad Imran, Joanna Ross & Ian Luxmoore

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA
UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

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Edited by Muhammad Imran, Joanna Ross & Ian Luxmoore

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Contents

Nos.	Papers	Page Nos.
1	Introduction	1
2	*Angela Feekery* Reflection, values, and learning in a New Zealand Planning Degree	3
3	*Caryl Bosman & Aysin Dedekorkut-Howes* Environmental planning education and the possibilities for studio pedagogy	20
4	*Christine Cheyne & Angela Feekery* Developing an online module to support students understanding of government–provided information sources	35
5	*Christine Slade, Johanna Rosier, Claudia Baldwin, Andrew Harwood, Eddo Coiacetto, Trevor Budge, Tim Perkins* Enhancing experiential learning in planning education through an online toolkit of resources	45
6	*Jeff McNeill* "Just like real-life!" collaborative planning, experiential learning and a class consultancy	53
7	*Karen Vella, Natalie Osborne, Severine Mayere, Douglas Baker* Studio teaching in Australian planning curriculum	68
8	*Michael Bounds & Peter Phibbs* Putting practice into theory: Reconciling academic discourse with experience	87
9	*Michael Gunder* The role of fantasy in the evolution of planning policy formation	98
10	*Neeti Trivedi & Shahed Khan* Community participation in the delivery of infrastructure: a cross-cultural examination of its impact on the capacity building of local communities	108
11	*Pip Wallace* Fragmented landscapes: the challenge of conservation planning in a fragmented legal landscape	125
12	*Tooran Alizadeh & Samantha Colbran* Introduction and evaluation of an online assessment to enhance first year Urban and Environmental Planning students' time-on-task	137
13	*Caroline Miller* Planning Heroes & Heroines? Does New Zealand Planning have any?	150
14	Hamish G. Rennie & Jerry Weitz Balancing the requirements of professional planning programme accreditation and academia: A comparison between the USA and New Zealand	151
15	*Libby Portera & Janice Barryb* Bounded recognition: urban planning and the textual mediation of Indigenous rights in Canada and Australia	152

16 *Trevor Budge* 153
University City Partnerships – an effective method for experiential learning?

17 Conference programme 154

Introduction

Welcome to the proceedings of the Australia and New Zealand Association of Planning Schools (ANZAPS) Annual conference. In October 2014, the conference was hosted by the Resource and Environmental Planning Programme at Massey University in Palmerston North, New Zealand. This is the second time the planning programme at Massey University has hosted the ANZAPS conference. In 2014, the Planning Programme also celebrates the 35th anniversary.

The theme for the 2014 ANZAPS conference, "Planning, Politics and People", is deliberately broad in order to reflect the strengths of the School of People, Environment and Planning as highlighted by recent successes in PBRF across a broad range of subjects, including Planning.

The proceedings includes eleven papers that went through blind peer review and revision as per academic traditions. The editors thank all reviewers for their time and constructive feedback on submitted papers. All abstracts were also reviewed by the editors before acceptance for presentations and inclusion in the proceedings.

The papers in the proceedings mainly cover themes related to planning education such as studio and online teaching and the role of planning practice into teaching. However, there are a number of papers that focus on broader planning research themes such as community participation, indigenous planning, and landscape and conservation planning.

The presentations and key note speeches clearly highlighted the changing direction of planning teaching and research practices in Australian and NZ universities. The focus is on experimental learning and online teaching, the revival of studio teaching, and challenging assessment methods related to this teaching environment. The issues raised are fundamental to planning education worldwide.

ANZAPS always provides a forum for an informal and open discussion related to a range of topics the proceedings has highlighted. We hope this spirit will sustain in throughout the conference and participants will identify questions and ensure positive engagement that would lead to global debate on making planning education exciting.

Editors

Muhammad Imran, Joanna Ross and Ian Luxmoore

Reflection, Values, and Learning in a New Zealand Planning Degree

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Abstract: *Part of becoming a successful Regional Planner involves learning to reflect on actions as an aspect of decision-making and professional practice. For any Planning programme, therefore, learning to be reflective is both an essential aspect of the curriculum and central to learning in terms of developing professional skills, supporting learning and improving communication in the discipline. However, creating space for sustained, purposeful reflection remains a challenging concept to apply in practice (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Hedberg, 2009; Moon, 2001). To be reflective learners, Planning students require repeated opportunities for engaging in purposeful reflection throughout their degree, and need to be supported towards becoming reflective learners from the beginning of their university experience. This paper reports on two interventions designed as part of an action research doctoral study aimed at enhancing information literacy and writing development within the Bachelor of Resource and Environmental Planning at Massey University, New Zealand. New assessment tasks were designed to encourage reflection on learning related to Planning. The first assessment, a 'Reflection on Values' task, is a low-stakes personal narrative assessment designed to encourage first-year students to reflect on their personal values and how these would impact on their responses to environmental issues within their discipline and profession. The assessment provided an opportunity to support students to engage in reflective thinking and promoted a focus on clear, concise writing early in the degree. The second assessment, a senior "Reflective Practitioner' task, encouraged students to engage in regular personal and professional reflective writing connected to an experiential learning class project. This paper outlines key considerations in developing the reflective assessments, and key modifications made based on student feedback, and the lecturers' and researcher's reflections. It explores the value of encouraging reflection through assessment, the impact of the reflective exercises on students' writing, critical thinking and professional development, and the challenges and implications for faculty when integrating reflective assessment into the curriculum.*

Introduction

Part of becoming a successful Planner involves learning to reflect on actions as an aspect of decision-making and professional practice. For any Planning programme, therefore, learning to be reflective is both an essential aspect of the curriculum and central to learning in terms of developing professional skills, supporting learning and improving communication in the discipline. However, creating space for sustained, purposeful reflection remains a challenging concept to apply in practice (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Hedberg, 2009; Moon, 2001). To be reflective learners, Planning students require repeated opportunities for engaging in purposeful reflection throughout their degree, and may need to be supported towards becoming reflective learners from the beginning of their university experience.

This paper reports on two assessments that encourage reflection designed as part of an action research doctoral study aimed at enhancing information literacy and writing development within the Bachelor of Resource and Environmental Planning (BRP) degree at Massey University, New Zealand (NZ). It outlines key considerations in developing the assessments, and key modifications made based on student feedback and the lecturers' and researcher's reflections. It explores the value of encouraging reflection through assessment, the impact of the reflective exercises on students' writing and critical thinking, and the

challenges and implications for faculty when integrating explicit, regular reflective assessment into the broader curriculum.

Contexts

Establishing the contexts is an essential first step in any action research process. This research had several contexts to consider, including the broader NZ university context. The specific context was the BRP, a four-year professional degree accredited by the New Zealand Planning Institute (NZPI) that offers practical-based Planning education by combining professional and academic learning opportunities. The BRP provides generalist Planning education with a minor in a Planning-related discipline and has an interdisciplinary focus, and supports students to develop interpersonal, communication, and conflict-resolution skills, and emphasises the importance of practical and real-world experiences. It provides students with the theoretical and ethical foundation to support them as Planning practitioners. Although the BRP is framed within the NZ context, it draws on international experiences and approaches, so graduates can apply their knowledge and competencies in both local and international professional and applied environments[1]. A 2009 NZPI report had identified that some students from Planning programmes across NZ universities were not graduating with acceptable research, communication (written and oral) or critical thinking skills[2]. Therefore, lecturers in the BRP were charged with identifying ways to improve these aspects of student learning. Thus, the BRP was identified as a potential discipline within which to explore academic and information literacy development across the full undergraduate programme for the author's doctoral research (see Feekery, 2013).

Adopting a Reflective Methodology

Participatory action research (PAR) was adopted because it is a context-specific, change-focused and critically reflective methodology. A central component of the research was on-going personal and critical reflection on practice and learning (Altrichter, Kemmis & McTaggart, 2002; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; McNiff, 2002) for all of the participants, including the researcher, lecturers (academic and library) and students.

Engaging in regular reflection and using it to understand the process of change is an important aspect of PAR. Reflection allows participants to explore the assumptions underlying ideas and practice (McNiff, 2002). It involves discussion before and during the implementation of interventions, and the evaluation of change (Avison, Lau, Myers & Nielsen, 1999; Seymour-Rolls & Hughes, 2000), and acts as a means for practitioner researchers to critically consider the implications of their interventions and develop theories from reflection that can inform new actions. Johns (2013) and Argyris and Schön (1989) advocate reflection before, during (reflection-in-action), and after (reflection-on-action) any interventions to ensure that doing reflection leads to becoming a reflective practitioner.

[1] Information in this section has been taken from the BRP programme website, which is not included in the reference list to prevent identification of the participating institution.
[2] The NZPI report for the participating institution was provided to the researcher by the programme co-coordinator and is not a public document. Therefore it is not included in the reference list.

Data collection and Analysis

Data were collected over four NZ university semesters, from Semester Two (July-November) 2010 to the end of Semester One (February-June) 2012. Mills' (2007, p. 73) taxonomy of action research qualitative data collection techniques guided the data collection. The taxonomy includes:

- Experiencing – through participant observation and meeting notes
- Enquiring – the researcher asking questions via interviews, questionnaires and surveys
- Examining – using and making records via journals and document analysis.

Data from the instructor interview and student focus group transcripts, student e-mail journal entries, participating instructor reflections and the researcher's journal were thematically analysed and manually coded for common patterns, meanings or themes guided by both the literature and those unique to this research (McClure, 2002; McKernan, 1996; Mills, 2007). The themes identified were guided by semi-structured interview, focus group, and journal questions, and additional themes emerging through discussion. All student focus group and journal responses to the same broad questions were separated into sub-themes as emerging commonalities and differences were identified. The complete data set was used for two purposes:

1. The Action Focus – to identify the key successes and changes needed for subsequent modification of the interventions during, between, and after each cycle
2. The Research Focus – to analyse the data for understanding and developing a deeper sense of the research process interventions that supported the embedding of IL development into the disciplines. This included identifying the participating lecturers' attitudes and understandings of IL and their role in supporting students' IL development, and seeing when shifts took place (McKay & Marshall, 2001).

Role of Reflection in Information Literacy and Learning

As mentioned above, the focus for this research was embedding IL development into the four-year BRP. This research draws on A New Curriculum for Information Literacy's (ANCIL) holistic definition of IL which extends it beyond library skills and towards key competencies fundamental to learning: "Information literacy is a continuum of skills, behaviours, approaches and values that is so deeply entwined with the uses of information as to be a fundamental element of learning, scholarship and research" (Secker & Coonan, 2013, p. xxii).

Part of being information-literate is being critically reflective of how information is used to support learning (Andretta, 2006; Bruce, 2008; Secker & Coonan, 2011). Planners are often faced with different viewpoints on the same issue, so students need to be able to think critically in decision-making and problem-solving. The development of critical thinking is strongly linked to reflection (Burns, Dimock & Martinez, 2000; Hinett, 2002a); however, in 2010, few explicit opportunities existed in the BRP curriculum for students to reflect on what and how they were learning. Most BRP lecturers believed that students lacked effective critical thinking strategies and that they did not make connections across the wider

curriculum as they progressed through the degree. Rather, students viewed each course as a separate topic to be covered before moving on to the next one.

The research created a platform to encourage and support change through embedding information literacy (IL) in the Planning discipline via learner-focused pedagogies, which recognise that students' learning needs and development relate to the academic competencies courses demand, and give students power over the learning process so they take more responsibility for their learning (Fry, Ketteridge and Marshall, 2003; Weimer, 2003). Learner-focused constructivist learning principles are underpinned by participative, collaborative, experiential, self-motivated and reflective pedagogies that offer a practical approach to teaching and learning, where the instructor and students participate in a shared learning experience to enhance learning (Booth, 2011; Cooperstein & Kovecar-Weidinger, 2004; Illeris, 2002; Wang, 2007). Being reflective requires both lecturers and students to be intentional about their reflection to improve learning (Huba & Freed, 2000), and may make the difference between students adopting surface or deep approaches to learning (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Moon, 2001). Reflection potentially promotes the development of higher-order thinking skills, including problem-solving, evaluation and critical analysis, synthesis of ideas (complementary and opposing), and meaning making (Burns, Dimock & Martinez, 2000), and is, therefore, fundamental to creating lifelong learners through higher education (Hinett, 2002a). Thus, if we consider learning to be an active and reflective process that combines experience and thought to create new knowledge (Burns et al., 2000), then, as Hinett (2002a) argues, reflection offers a means for individual learners to raise awareness of themselves as learners, and to be able to change and direct their learning.

Despite the recognised role of reflection in learning, as mentioned in the introduction, creating space for sustained, purposeful reflection remains a challenging concept to apply in practice (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Hedberg, 2009; Moon, 2001). Lecturers may not be aware of strategies they can use to facilitate reflection in the classroom, or may see reflection as something that students need to do on their own. Furthermore, lecturers who are already challenged with a lack of time will struggle to make time available for reflection within an already overloaded, semesterised curriculum, even if they see the value of on-going reflection on learning (Hedberg, 2009).

Students may also find reflection challenging. It can take time for them to appreciate the learning accomplished via deliberative reflection (Hinett, 2002b) and some students do not seem to positively respond to or engage with reflective tasks (Bulpitt & Martin, 2005; Huba & Freed, 2000; Waddington & Wright, 2007). Therefore, they may initially find little value in them and may feel threatened by learner-focused approaches and reflection designed to help them construct their own knowledge if they have not been asked explicitly engage in reflection before (Huba & Freed, 2000). Students may not understand what they are being asked to do, since they may be unfamiliar with the reflective process (Moon, 2001), and may want clear rules and boundaries to follow when engaging in reflective activities (Bulpitt & Martin, 2005). Some students may also see reflection as an add-on to the course rather than something central to their learning (Waddington & Wright, 2007).

Several authors argue that to make reflection a successful and rewarding activity, students need to be encouraged and supported to develop a habit of reflection from first year of tertiary study (and prior), which will likely lead to learning beyond the curriculum, the learning

outcomes, and the teacher's control of the learning in the classroom (Bean, 2011; Moon, 2001; Waddington & Wright, 2007). Supporting students to engage in deeper reflection requires a clear purpose and outcome appropriate for the reflection (Hinett, 2002a; Moon, 2001; Waddington & Wright 2007), which may be encouraged through formatively assessed learning opportunities (Bean, 2011; Partridge, Edwards, Baker & McAllister, 2008; Pickford & Brown, 2006). Furthermore, learning through experiencing (experiential and authentic learning) can be enhanced with explicit reflection. An important aspect of the experiential learning cycle and discovery process is that students learn as much from their mistakes as they do from their successes (Beard & Wilson, 2002; Cooperstein & Kovacar-Weidinger, 2004; Illeris, 2002), which suggests that practice and formative low-stakes reflective learning opportunities would be beneficial in supporting students to take risks in learning.

Value of Encouraging Reflection through Assessment

Assessment is an essential part of quality learning and teaching and strongly influences how students approach the learning process (Carless, Joughin & Liu, 2006; Fry, Ketteridge & Marshall, 2003; Huba & Freed, 2000; Lupton, 2004; Proctor, 2006). Carless et al. (2006) point out that “assessment impacts on what content students focus on, their approaches to learning and their patterns of study” (p. 2) and that assessment changes students’ behaviour more than anything else we may teach. Since students are highly motivated by grades (Dolan & Martorella, 2003; Moon, 2001; Proctor, 2006), they tend to see assessment as defining what is important in the curriculum and give higher status to assessed tasks (Proctor, 2006).

Shifting the focus to what is learned, rather than what is taught, emphasises the importance of the learning process in assessment (Huba & Freed, 2000; Lupton, 2004; Pickford & Brown, 2006). Formative ‘assessment for learning’ is a key to promoting learning and can be designed to help students learn by both identifying errors and reinforcing correct understanding (Dolan & Martorella, 2003). Encouraging a focus on process by having submissions of key tasks (i.e. formative assessments) while completing a summative task can help students identify the stages in the research and writing process that are often inadequately addressed. Learner-focused approaches to assessment mean that “students leave evaluative experiences with a grade and a deeper understanding of both the material and their performance” (Weimer, 2003, p. 53). Lecturers can help students overcome the challenges of the research and writing process by changing their approach to assessment and assessing both the process and the product to make ‘assessment for learning’ a larger part of their undergraduate teaching. The author argues that one key to understanding the learning process is explicit, on-going reflection on learning.

Interventions Encouraging Reflective Learning

In initial interviews, all BRP lecturers indicated reflection is an important aspect of being a professional Planning practitioner. For most lecturers, reflection related to engagement with, and critical thinking about, the content in order to complete the assessment. All lecturers indicated reflection was an important aspect of critical thinking and learning; however, in 2010, there was no explicit requirement for reflection on the learning process (i.e. what students discover about themselves as learners during the assessment task completion)

built into the curriculum and assessment of the courses. Interestingly, most lecturers asked students to give them feedback so that they could improve their teaching and course design, but didn't ask students to explicitly reflect on their own learning.

New assessment tasks were designed to encourage students to reflect on their learning. Many of the reflective opportunities connected to information source evaluation, selection and use, given the IL focus of the research, but also connected to using reflection to learn, with the ultimate aim or producing future reflective practitioners. Key considerations in developing the interventions included: integrating a focus on reflection at point of need; seamlessly integrating the interventions into the course; and maintaining a manageable workload balance for lecturers and students. To develop a thread of reflection across the four-year programme, reflective tasks were integrated at each year of the programme. The next section outlines two reflective tasks integrated into the BRP curriculum, one at first year and the other at fourth year which explicitly required students to be engage with reflective processes.

Course 1-2 - Reflection on Values

The 'Reflection on Values' task was a low-stakes assessment integrated into a first year course designed to encourage first-year students to reflect on their personal values and how these would impact on their responses to environmental issues within their discipline and profession. Students were asked to reflect on their core values about the environment and explore where they stemmed from, and then discuss similarities and differences with classmates to gain a deeper insight into what students bring to the classroom conversation. Comparing this to a task that identifies key value positions and asks students to align themselves with them, the author argues that the Reflection on Values task requires deeper self-awareness and critical thinking. The assessment aimed to support students to engage in reflective thinking and promoted a focus on clear, concise writing early in the degree. The 'Reflection on Values' was a personal narrative designed to:

- start reflective thinking by encouraging students to consider how their personal values would impact on environmentally focused decisions made as future Planners
- promote learning through exposure to the views of others (Diehm & Lupton, 2012).

A second focus of the task was to provide formative feedback on student writing, In Week 2, students submitted a draft of their reflective narrative about personal understandings of their values. No research, reading or referencing was required. In marking the draft, the lecturer focused on accurate sentences, indicating problems using a mark-sheet that explained common sentence-level errors to support students with understanding their mistakes. She then returned them in class and spent 30 minutes identifying common errors (for example, run-on sentences and sentence sprawl) using examples from the students' work, and showed how to fix and avoid similar errors in future written tasks (see Feekery, 2013).

The task also required students to engage in collaborative learning (Bean, 2011; Booth, 2011; Wang, 2010). Students were expected to clearly identify their values and develop their understanding of what has impacted on these throughout their lives. Feedback on the content of the task came via small group discussions of five to six students. The tasks were

read and discussed, and peers could comment on whether other students had clearly and sufficiently explained the origin of their values. An intended outcome was awareness-raising through reflection and discussion of how people with differing values would consider and approach environmental issues. Recognising these differences would likely support students when they become practising, decision-making Planners in the future.
Students recognised the assessment was safe and supportive and, thus, was a low-stakes task:

> *It was a completely different type of exercise. It wasn't one where you were supposed to have your statement about what you are going to talk about in this paragraph. It wasn't required which was safe. So it is so much easier to write a nice piece with a nice flow about yourself or about your family … a low-risk, safe assessment.*

Class survey comments related mostly to how the lecturer's feedback helped identify specific areas to focus on and the importance of clarity in writing. This was reiterated in focus groups:

> *It was good. For the first draft I edited it and made it all nice but I got the feedback and thought oh, actually I didn't pick up on that ... my first paragraph was two sentences, but I just didn't click that it could have been four sentences and made a lot more sense and so that was really good to be able to fix it and to have someone else show me that.*

The feedback encouraged reflection on learning and supported students to recognise errors in their writing. The focus on writing was also transferred to other tasks, with two thirds of the students indicating in a survey that they used this feedback to reflect on the essay task later in the course.

A review of the written tasks showed that some students only made changes where the lecturer had indicated a problem, and errors of the same type appeared elsewhere in the text despite the identification of a specific error. A further challenge connected to feedback on content, which was expected to come via the group discussions, but the lecturer hadn't explicitly indicated this in class. The absence of explicit feedback on content from the lecturer meant students who could write well were disappointed at getting lower grades than expected because they had no indication that their content wasn't developed appropriately. While some comments indicated the value of the discussions in recognising the impact on core values from upbringing and life experiences, others saw the discussions as a means for less motivated students to get unearned benefits:

> *My views differed from someone else in my group, so that was sort of, not an attack, but it was a critical speaking of the actual content, so that bit wasn't that helpful. But it was interesting reading other peoples' [ones]. There were some people in my group that weren't as motivated. They were quite slack, and it seemed they were reaping the benefits of us looking at their work when they had gone 'oh yours is pretty good'. I just think it wasn't very helpful.*

At the end of Cycle One, the lecturer recognised a noticeable improvement in writing competency, for example, in sentence structure from the draft to the final versions and some

improvement in the essays. Therefore, despite the challenges in Cycle One, the Reflection on Values assessment was re-used in the same form in Cycle Two with only minor changes:

- The expectation that a full draft should be submitted was clarified
- The mark-sheet was adapted to make the examples more relevant to the Planning context by using examples from previous students' Reflection on Values tasks and essays
- Feedback on content was still provided through peer discussion, but the purpose of the discussion was clarified.

Modifications to the task helped clarify the purpose and supported students with their reflection on learning. Students recognised the dual purpose of the assessment, i.e. to improve writing and to understand the values other students have:

> *I suppose it had quite a few different viewpoints, because, on one hand, it was the writing, you know the way you write. Then there was the way of understanding other people's values, and how you would make decisions based on that paper, you know, with authority and that based on other people's values and knowledge and culture and … sort of understanding other people quite a bit as well.*

Students also appreciated the early support with writing:

> *I personally found it was really good, because it sort of just pointed out how you write sentencing and paragraphs, and it defined those things. I suppose a lot of tutors will mark an assignment, and they will just put a cross or they'll fix an error or something, but sometimes they won't do anything. I thought that was a really good way of learning how you were writing.*

Students identified the benefits of the group discussions in sharing values and seeing how other students wrote the task, and recognised the social value of learning from people in groups:

> *I found that really useful for understanding the diversity of values and cultures and how these impact how we understand the environment and planning.*

The challenge around providing effective feedback without spending excessive time marking remained problematic for this task. As with Cycle One, students who had minimal comments on their writing indicated that they would have appreciated feedback on content because they felt they didn't get appropriate feedback through the group discussions:

> *I found it was, I don't know whether people were just too scared to say things … I think because it's your peers, you don't want to put someone down by saying 'what about this or this bit?' But none of that really happened in our group, and it was sort of a bit of a waste of time really. We ended up just sitting there talking.*

Comments suggested that students were challenged by having to take responsibility for their own learning and rely on feedback from peers. The value of peer-supported learning may not have been apparent to the students, and could account for the concerns connected to the absence of Jacinta's feedback on content.

The lecturer made a number of key changes in her course to add a strong focus on IL development within the research and writing process alongside content knowledge development, and to promote active engagement with assessment tasks through reflective and collaborative learning. Student responses to the interventions were largely positive in both cycles, indicating that the support around assessment and the research and writing process reduced stress and emphasised the importance of IL, reflection, collaborative learning, and writing well early in the programme:

> *The interventions brought the writing of this paper to a higher level and made me more motivated to do them. It seemed like there were expectations on us and a true place for improvement for us as learners.*

Course 4-1 - The Reflective Practitioner

The fourth-year Reflective Practitioner assessment was a task that encouraged students to engage in regular personal and professional reflective writing connected to an experiential learning class project.

By the fourth year of the degree, the lecturer was expecting students to be competent finders and users of information, and to be able to evaluate, critically analyse and reflect on sources they were using. He wanted them to think critically and use information to create knowledge and produce new information and ideas for their discipline. Students also needed to be able to communicate this information effectively in an appropriate format for the given task. However, during his three years of teaching, the lecturer had been repeatedly disappointed with his fourth-year students' performance both with class engagement and assessment tasks, particularly those requiring critical thinking and quality source use. Therefore, in 2011, he decided to completely revamp his fourth-year course and assessment, and put the onus of learning on students via an extensive group experiential authentic learning exercise.

The lecturer organised a contract for an investigative report with one of the NZ local councils for the students to conduct. The task gave the whole class of 25 students the opportunity to work collaboratively on a report for a client in a real-life context. The lecturer recognised that this was an experiment and that it would be challenging for both himself and his students. The project had both knowledge and skills learning objectives, with a strong focus on developing both IL and communication competencies.

While the lecturer had designed the report task and set up the context for the research to take place, he was unsure how to assess the experiential learning involved in the task completion. The final report was only one outcome of the process: the main learning would come from the self-directed experiential learning of working as a group, negotiating deadlines, keeping effective records and learning reflectively. Thus, the focus of the interventions for the course was on creating the new assessment for the experiential learning project. The assessment was designed to highlight and support key competencies that students would need as Planning practitioners, including professional IL, time-management, record keeping, and reflective practices. The assessment components included a project timeline (10%), a client folder (20%) and the reflective practitioner task (10%) which required students to write a personal and professional reflection on the process

of their learning and completion of the task at hand. Students were asked to identify Successes/Challenges/Techniques/Skills Development, and answer the question: What have I learned from doing a project like this in terms of both successfully completing the task and about myself as a Planner?

Student engagement in the project was high as the realism of this project caught their attention and they put huge efforts into ensuring they had a successful outcome:

> *For our group anyway, they were always concerned about wanting [the client] to actually read it and take away something from it rather than it just being a project from [university].*

The students were advised that if the report was written to a high standard, their findings would be used by the client, and this could go on their curriculum vitae. While the prospect of delivering to a real client both excited and scared the students, it definitely engaged them throughout the whole semester. However, towards the end of Cycle One, faced with the reality that students were not managing their workload, the lecturer recognised students needed much more guidance, particularly around selecting quality sources and managing group relationships. It seemed some students who were used to 'being taught' struggled with the self-directed aspect of the project, as the following lecturer reflection suggests:

> *The students have not engaged with the information sources as much as I had anticipated and only now am I getting requests for information, and so I am actually asking for information, anticipating their needs. I would do more of this, sooner, next year in retrospect. They don't necessarily grasp what is needed, the length of time that getting real-life data and reports take, and also they were not really engaging in the project in any depth to realise what was needed until about two weeks ago (week 5) which is too late for a 12 week semester.*
> *The 'on-demand' lecturing has not been particularly successful – they have appreciated the lectures that I have given them (ethics, ETS[3]), but they are not stepping back to think about the wider, scholarly component of this work. I will have to be more proactive next half-semester.*

Student comments to the lecturer also suggested that groups maintained a competitive rather than collaborative approach to the task completion. Furthermore, drafts of the report showed more guidance was needed on what to write in a report of this scope and size. At the completion of the project, and on reading the students' Reflective Practitioner tasks, the lecturer realised that there were common challenges identified by the students. He felt that there needed to be some closure to the task and learning. As feedback, the lecturer created a detailed 'Reflection on the Reflections' document which identified common concerns and lessons learned. One student's journal comments on the document showed how the feedback was beneficial at a personal and professional level:

> *The feedback [the lecturer] gave was amazing. I read it all thoroughly- it's the best feedback I have ever gotten for a piece of work. It was really constructive and insightful. I have saved the feedback documents, and plan to refer to them in the*

[3] Emissions Trading Scheme

future. Furthermore, the entire document(s) were beneficial to read - not just the info that was directly applicable to my group. … [The lecturer's] feedback on the reflective practitioner is good for many reasons. It showed me what others got out of the project, and other's views on dynamics within the class. The feedback could potentially come in useful in a job interview when asked scenario questions such as 'give me an example of a time you did something challenging that you thought you may fail at, and how you achieved it' or 'give us an example of a time you experienced conflict, and what you did to resolve it', etc.

The lecturer recognised that, although we can provide opportunities and provide feedback on reflection, the onus lies with the students to engage with reflection to benefit from it:

Those who put in the effort really got personal benefit out of it. And those who just did two pages of tripe just wasted two pages of ink.

Despite the challenges in Cycle 1, the lecturer felt overall the experiment with experiential learning was a success. It inspired a level of engagement not seen in previous classes, and encouraged students to move beyond surface and strategic approaches to task completion. Although challenges arose around supporting students through such a high-challenge task, the ensuing reflections were used to make key, yet minor changes for Cycle Two. When he explained the rationale of the project in Cycle 2, the lecturer used students' reflective comments from the previous semester to indicate some of the challenges former groups faced, so current students could pre-empt them.

The main change in the assessment was reversing the weighting of the Client Folder (10%, formerly 20%) and Reflective Practitioner (20%, formerly 10%), so that the reflective aspect of experiential learning was emphasised over the recount of the process. The descriptor for the reflective task was also extended as follows (italicised section added to previous descriptor):

The Reflective Practitioner (20%)

Due: 1 June (about 1,500 words)
Provide a personal and professional reflection on the process of your learning and completion of the task at hand in completing this course and the project. Reflect on:
Successes/Challenges/Techniques/Skills Development
What have I learned from doing a project like this in terms of both successfully completing the task and about myself as a Planner?
You need to review your own performance within your group and class and reflect on your own growth as a young planner.
This is a substantive piece of work that should not be taken lightly nor left to the end of the semester. To undertake this exercise successfully you will need to note your thoughts and experiences as a diary as you undertake the project regarding why you think the project and your group is performing the way it is, and more importantly, how you are performing and growing (Course Outline, 2012)

Learning from observation and reflection, the lecturer was able to provide greater support to students throughout the experiential learning process in Cycle Two. He was aware of

challenges previous students had faced, particularly around time management, and was able to promote ‘working smarter’ over ‘working longer’. Again the realism of the project from working with a real client impacted on students' approaches to source selection and information use:

> *I think the importance of it not just being a scenario, but actually producing it for someone. You didn’t want to get the wrong information and you didn’t just want to take everything everyone said. You want to make sure it’s correct, especially when you are working with their plans, they’ll know if you miss something.*

The reflection themes mirrored those from Cycle One, particularly around group communication and working productively towards a common goal. A key challenge the lecturer and researcher identified was the extent to which students struggled with self-directed learning. The lecturer provided more guidance on structure and group management, but the onus was still largely on the students to manage the task. Despite the increased support, feedback indicated that students felt the guidance the lecturer provided was minimal. This class struggled with group dysfunction initially, but managed to implement strategies to overcome this. The following focus group excerpt suggests that, by the end of the project, students recognised that having to navigate the process largely unguided contributed more to their learning:

> *S1: Well, at first it was quite frustrating with [the lecturer] just not doing anything; just like sitting back and waiting for us to make a move and then we kind of thought that he was the lecturer so he would steer things and then we went and talked to him and he was like 'no, I want you guys to have control, [and] steer it yourself' and that's when we started the class discussions.*
> *S2: I don't think we fully understood the concept at the start.*
> *S3: We didn't realise it was for us to take into our hands to produce, to work as a class, to get it together. We thought it was still like that lecturer-student kind of mentality and that he was going to lead us and tell us kind of what to do next.*
> *S2: And there was no formal layout or anything like that.*
> *S1: But once we realised, we started getting communication going. I think we progressed, but it would have been better if we had at the start.*
> *S2: But in hindsight it was helpful for us to figure that out ourselves*

Some students felt stronger students were controlling the project and wanted the lecturer to take control of the class. However, the following excerpt from the lecturer’s 2012 ‘Reflections on Reflections’ (lecturer’s comments with student comments bolded) shows how he addressed this tension:

> *I purposely refused to intervene to direct the class, believing that the students had to take responsibility for the project. This paid off:*
> ***…there were some points where I wished the lecturer would intervene. This was when we could not make a decision as a class. However, when we finally did resolve these issues it was far more rewarding***
> *Another also thought at first the lecturer needed to give more guidance and even guide group formation, but came to realise:*

That this would be counterproductive and that we need to start taking responsibility for our own learning.

In reflecting on Cycle Two, the lecturer recognised that students in this class were having similar problems as the previous class, particularly around group work, communication, and working independently with little instructor guidance. However, the experience gained in problem-solving and working in groups made the task worthwhile.

Although the benefits of learning through reflection were evident, the lecturer recognised in their reflections that students focused on the negatives and what to do better next time, but did not celebrate the success of completing the report to a satisfactory level on time. Students seemed to view reflective and critical thinking as focusing on the negatives rather than recognising strengths in their learning. This may have been in part be due to the reflections being completed after the task was completed rather than during the process. Overall, the lecturer felt allocating 20% to reflection over record-keeping was beneficial.

The thread of reflective and critical thinking was an important addition to the lecturer's course. The interventions encouraged students to experiment and reflect on learning through the extended experiential learning task. As students worked in groups, they discussed ideas, shared resources, negotiated meaning and collaborated on an extended written group report. The emphasis on reflection on learning gained from the experience highlighted the process of research and collaborative writing and offered a means to reflect on challenges in group projects before students enter the workforce. Some students saw the value of reflective learning, but recognised it came too late in the degree. One student suggested that longitudinal reflection throughout the BRP may benefit learning:

> *Maybe a reflective practitioner as an overall [process]. I don't know how they would give us marks for it, but I don't know, maybe a compulsory once every half semester that we have to submit a reflective practitioner, more for our benefit than anyone else's, showing that we are thinking about what we are doing* (*SFG/4-1&D/C2/B*)

Lessons Learned - Reflection and IL Development

Opportunities for reflection on learning are essential for developing IL and supporting student learning. However, a key observation in our research was that most students did not naturally engage in reflective learning practices. Students had rarely been required to reflect on learning at high school or since they entered university and, as a result, it seemed they had no real sense of how they were learning. Learning IL competencies was 'just happening' through feedback and practice rather than intentional reflective processes leading to change:

> *I've been thrown in the deep end and just worked it out for myself at university. I was terrible at school so that didn't help.*
> *I think now with [named course] that this semester has taught me to be so much more critical of what you have because everything is also from one's person's perspective. So that's where I think the majority of my skills are coming from now. Before it was just hit and miss; if you got it, you got it, if you didn't, you didn't.*

To encourage students to be more reflective, interventions that promoted reflective practice around IL and the research and writing process were embedded throughout the BRP programme (Feekery, 2013). The reflective, process-oriented tasks encouraged students to record and reflect on information-seeking processes, source selection, and key aspects of the learning process as they completed summative assessment tasks.

As Bruffee (1984) indicates, merely requiring students to be reflective does not mean that they can. In the first attempts at reflective learning, it became clear that students were not accustomed to being reflective learners. They tended to be product-oriented and strategic in approaches to assessment. Self-reflective practice is closely connected to engagement in learning, yet a number of BRP students seemed to be task-focused rather than learning-focused. Responses to reflective tasks indicated a surface review of learning processes, rather than a deeper analysis of strengths and weaknesses. Even though they saw value in reflecting on the process during and after assessments, they found it too time-consuming and not something they would likely do in so much detail if it wasn't part of the assessment. Therefore, activities that did not have sufficient scaffolded, formative support were perceived as 'busy work', particularly those designed to encourage self-reflective practice with no instructor input (Feekery, 2013). Because reflection on learning was not being expected in other courses, it seemed to be extra work in Planning courses. Therefore, justifying the purpose and learning outcomes within tasks was important.

The positive impact of encouraging students to reflect on their learning was observed in the fourth-year experiential learning project, where the Reflective Practitioner assessment encouraged students to reflect on what they had learned, rather than simply focusing on the group report produced (Feekery, 2013). The extensive feedback provided by the students and collated by the lecturer was viewed as the best part of the assessment for some students. Their experiences indicated that a stronger thread of reflective learning throughout the BRP would be beneficial to support the development of IL and other academic competencies.

Conclusion

During our conversations on how IL could be effectively taught within BRP content courses, we came to understand effective teaching and learning as a highly reflective process, involving both students and teachers in a collaborative, constructive learning environment. The research highlighted that effective learning requires the right balance of teachers teaching students and students learning from teachers (explicit instruction), teachers and students learning from students (collaboration), and teachers and students learning from themselves (discovery and reflective practice and learning). This understanding supported the shift to a focus on formative and reflective learning.

Developing a thread of reflective learning was an important feature of the interventions designed to support student learning and IL development in the BRP. Reflective learning tasks for students encouraged them to think about *how* they were learning alongside *what* they were learning. However, developing effective reflective learning tasks that provide formative feedback proved challenging. Increased workloads for both lecturers and students meant that engagement with the reflective learning tasks was not as deep as hoped, which is consistent with Hedberg's (2009) observation that providing room for reflection in an

already overloaded curriculum is challenging even for those who see its value. Engaging in reflective tasks did not seem to come naturally for students as it had perhaps not been an explicit aspect of their prior learning experience; this could be attributed to a lack of reflective learning at the university as a whole. This research suggests that making reflection on learning explicit through assessment is a valuable use of time, and is likely to produce better leaning outcomes. While the initial feedback during the research was promising, it remains to be seen whether the first-year students who entered the BRP in 2012 will become more reflective learners as they progress through the interventions developed over the four-year programme. Such a change would require continued emphasis on reflective learning by all BRP lecturers.

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Environmental Planning Education and the possibilities for studio pedagogy

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Abstract: *Environmental planning has a substantial impact on social, economic and environmental welfare and getting it right is a complex challenge. Teaching environmental planning is challenging at the best of times but periods of rapid political change can present additional difficulties. Planning studio pedagogy (a student-centred, collaborative, inquiry-based/problem-based pedagogy based on a 'real world' project) is a unique and valuable learning and teaching method used to educate environmental planners. Planning studio pedagogy teaches students how to successfully work, in a collaborative way, with 'wicked', complex issues. This paper will focus on the role of studio pedagogy in teaching students about the political landscapes of environmental planning. Students are required to be up to date with the current political contexts of planning during their studies and also develop an understanding of the challenges they will face in the workplace. A number of wicked learning and teaching issues arise in environmental planning education, these include:*

- *Developing student awareness of ethical responsibilities and personal values and dealing with potential conflicts driven by political contexts;*
- *Developing student awareness of the impact of choices made (neutral or advocate) in the workplace and the outcomes of those choices in practice and;*
- *Dealing with the hopelessness students may feel due to particular political setups (what's the point of this exercise if it's not politically viable?)*

We argue that studio pedagogy is an ideal learning and teaching environment and approach to address these issues and achieve successful environmental planning graduates that are leaders in their field.

Key words: *Studio, Environmental Planning Education, politics*

Introduction

A review of the literature on environmental planning education showed that while there is quite a bit of research on urban planning education in general there is not much on the environmental component of urban planning education or teaching environmental planning in particular. However, there are a couple of characteristics of environmental planning that makes it even more challenging to teach than urban planning. The interdisciplinary nature of planning requires basic knowledge in many different fields and requires many difficult choices in curriculum planning. Environmental planning makes this even more complicated as it requires a specialist level understanding of biophysical sciences.

As Deknatel (1984) notes designing environmental planning courses pose particular challenges in planning curricula as it requires great diversity of skills and knowledge (Niebanck 1993). In addition to the number and diversity of topics that could be covered in an environmental planning course, including the basic science behind environmental issues, Vos (2000) mentions two other problems that complicate environmental planning education. One of these problems arise from the fact that scientific information is much more important for environmental decision making than other policy arenas and the science behind

environmental issues is not only complicated but also continuously changing and quite often involves uncertainty. The third problem is related to the tension between the triple bottom line of sustainability, namely environmental quality, economic growth and social equity. The values that underlie the trade-offs between these add another layer of complexity to teaching environmental planning. There is no easy way to prepare the students to handle the conflict between environmental, economic, and equity values but they need to be able to understand all three perspectives and consequences of proposed actions on each. Another challenge is related to political viability of proposed solutions. Students feel frustrated when they realise political realities might not allow what they as planners think is the right course of action. What if you cannot communicate the consequences of actions and choices to the decision makers or the society in general effectively (e.g. what is happening with climate change at the moment)?

In this paper we argue that studio pedagogy is an ideal learning and teaching environment and approach to teach students about environmental planning. We draw upon secondary data from environmental planning and studio pedagogy literature to construct our argument. The aim of the paper is to generate discussion and debate on the importance/relevance of studio pedagogy in environmental planning education. We begin with a review of some of the literature relating to environmental planning to establish the context and illustrate the complexities of the discipline area. This then leads into a review of the Australian planning education curricula to identify the degree to which environmental planning is incorporated into it and we highlight the wicked learning and teaching issues related to environmental planning education. The paper concludes with a discussion on the beneficial links between studio pedagogy and environmental planning education.

The political landscapes of environmental planning: a review

Environmental planning has a substantial impact on social, economic and environmental welfare and getting it right is a complex challenge facing governments, the private sector and communities around Australia. Over time, the complexity of planning has grown and planners today are asked to address a wide range of pressing problems in a context of constantly changing community preferences and demands. Some of the issues confronting planners include managing and responding to significant population growth, an ageing population and demographic change, urban congestion, transportation of goods and services, ensuring adequate energy and water supplies, adapting to climate change, managing hazards, responding to disasters, preserving natural and cultural heritage and the growing expectation that residents should be consulted on changes to their neighbourhood (Productivity Commission, 2011 pXXI)

Complex environmental planning problems present significant challenges for policy, institutions and management. Environmental problems are multi-dimensional and often not well understood. They involve spatial and temporal disparities between cause and effect and the effects of planning interventions on people and environments and decision making in complex systems are difficult to predict. Environmental planners need to find ways of dealing with complex problems in multi-scalar natural and human systems (Holling, 1973, 1995).

In complex policy and institutional contexts such as this, scholars and practitioners advocate for innovative arrangements that are holistic (Berkes, Folke, & Colding, 2003; Folke, Hahn,

Olsson, & Norberg, 2005); integrated across public and private sectors and decision-making at multiple scales (Lane & Robinson, 2009); and collaborative to engage different kinds of knowledge for social learning and build mutual understandings of problems and solutions (Armitage et al., 2009; Pahl-Wostl et al., 2007). Scholars and practitioners also emphasise adaptive ecosystems-based approaches to deal with issues of uncertainty (Walters, 1986; Williams, 2011). These approaches accept that the suitability of policy and management approaches are unknown, treat interventions as hypotheses to be tested and learned from, and employ policy 'experiments' to trial, evaluate, and adapt institutional arrangements (Johnson, 1999).

Although widely advocated, adaptive approaches have had limited implementation in practice (Walters, 1986). This is because there is little information available to planners on how to actually undertake adaptive management (Eberhard et al., 2009). The quality of biophysical, social and economic benchmarks and evaluative information against which to assess the performance of planning arrangements is poor (Kenward et al., 2011). Multiple forms of knowledge (e.g. scientific, local, customary, traditional owner, policy) are often not effectively integrated into decision making at various stages of adaptive management cycles (Hill et al., 2010; Hillman, Crase, Furze, Ananda, & Maybery, 2005).

Concepts of resilience, particularly social-ecological resilience are also gaining momentum in environmental planning to better understand the social, economic and governance vulnerabilities, adaptive capacity of communities in managing and overcoming the environmental problems facing them (Marshall et al., 2010; NOAA Science Advisory Board, 2009). Resilience and related concepts however are conceptualized in a number of different ways according to the different disciplines, problem contexts, scale, and objectives (e.g. resisting change, bouncing back, or transforming in response to environmental or social perturbations).

Thus, environmental planning, which is characterised by complex problems, requires planners to integrate multiple forms of data to make decisions transparently under conditions of uncertainty. As described above, the theory about how to resolve environmental problems points to adaptive ecosystems based approaches, which build social and ecological resilience, and take a holistic, flexible, collaborative and dialogic approach to planning and decision-making. Achieving this requires considerable reorientation of current planning and decision-making systems. Current systems are not flexible or holistic across scales and issues. Planners need skills in big picture thinking and analysis to support systemic reform and critical research and evaluation skills to address current shortfalls in the evidence base. Planners need to have the capacity to build and analyse information to undertake adaptive planning and to understand and monitor the impact of planning interventions on social and ecological resilience. They require skills in managing complexity. They need to be able to evaluate planning options in the context of decisions and actions at multiple-scales of decision making to ensure that strategies help rather than hinder solutions. Planners also need to know how to work with stakeholders to negotiate reforms within and across political systems. Finally, environmental planners need coping skills to deal with personal and professional fatigue in dealing with difficult and contested problems, which can seem never-ending, and to deal with ethical dilemmas.

Planning education curricula

To ensure professional graduate outcomes the professional body, Planning Institute of Australia (PIA), implements a stringent accreditation policy. The objective of this policy (PIA 2011: 4) is 'to encourage and support students … to become planning professionals, who can think creatively, analytically and critically, undertake independent research, communicate effectively, and act ethically.' In addition the accreditation policy (PIA 2011 p.7) 'identifies core and desirable capabilities, competencies, skills and knowledge, and ethical standards, which are expected to be demonstrated in all accredited planning programs.' These include both generic and core skills as well as supporting knowledge areas:

- *generic skills* include: problem identification and the formation of creative solutions; critical thinking and spatial analysis, understanding and the application of theory to practice and written, verbal and graphic communication and team work;
- *core skills* include the knowledge of all spheres of professional practice, the ability to design and develop plans and manage projects.

Two of the 28 key performance indicators stated in the policy (PIA 2010 p.11) are the:

1. 'Capacity to apply theoretical and technical planning skills to unfamiliar or emergent circumstances, even with incomplete information.'
2. 'Capacity to prepare plans and urban designs to address and manage land use and development issues and opportunities.'

We will return to these two key performance indicators in the conclusion of this paper. All the skills and capabilities stated in the PIA policy are embedded in planning studio learning and teaching. Planning studio pedagogy provides essential benefits for the student experience, retention and professionalisation

Inclusion of environmental issues and sustainability into the planning curricula has been limited in Australia (Hurlimann 2009). Gunder and Fookes (1997) found that on average in 1995, accredited planning-school curricula in Australasia focused less than 5 percent of their total programs on environmental issues. While over a quarter of all programs had no environment-orientated courses the most any program had was only 12 percent of overall course content focused on environmental issues. Sandercock (1997) called for a paradigm shift in the role of planners to prepare them for the twenty first century and included ecological literacy among the needs of planners to work effectively in the changing environment. In contrast to Australia the percentage of accredited planning programs in North America offering environmental planning as an area of specialization increased from 48% in 1984 (Deknatel 1984) to 86% in 2000 (White & Mayo 2005) and Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning (2000) describes environmental planning as one of the five primary areas of planning practice.

A recent survey of planning professionals in Australia (Hurlimann 2009) identified perceived gaps in environmental knowledge of planners in the areas of climate change and water management and skills gaps of critical thinking and independent inquiry. This is not surprising if we consider how little environmental planning is emphasized in the Accreditation Policy of PIA (PIA 2011). The only allusion to environmental issues in core competency areas is in performance outcomes: "knowledge and theories of urban and regional planning and systems, including but not restricted to principles of land use, urban form, infrastructure,

natural systems, transport, the integration of land use and transport, heritage conservation, landscape and human settlement patterns" [emphasis added]. Environmental planning is one of the five main areas of supportive knowledge the policy identifies and elaborates on, however, it is made clear that these areas are not intended to be mandatory and individual planning programs may include all or some of these areas or substitute others if they see fit. The competency objective PIA (2011, 20) identifies in environmental planning is: "Planners take a collaborative role in the production and implementation of environmental plans, whether these are discrete plans, components of other plans, or by providing environmental planning analyses of others' plans or actions." The four performance outcomes expected include:

1. Knowledge of the main principles of sustainable development, ecological systems and key issues such as climate change.
2. Knowledge of natural hazards and planning approaches to managing those hazards.
3. Capacity to produce basic environmental plans at a level demonstrating understanding of broader principles and policy implementation.
4. Capacity to practically and critically link plans into wider frameworks of environmental action and influence at a variety of scales (PIA 2011, 20).

In 2007 the Australian Research Institute in Education for Sustainability (ARIES) published a report entitled *Shifting towards Sustainability: Education for Climate Change Adaptation in the Built Environment Sector* that focussed on planning, engineering, architecture and landscape architecture and was supported by the relevant professional organisations including PIA (Lyth, Nichols & Tilbury 2007). It suggested that graduates in the built environment area should have nine competencies that would enable them to:

1. think about problems holistically and through the 'prism' of climate change
2. understand principles of sustainable development
3. problem solve using lateral and integrated thinking
4. comprehend the significance of the climate change problem
5. interpret information about climate change from a range of sources and disciplines
6. effectively interpret information about impacts and vulnerabilities specific to the locality, region or sector they are working in to develop appropriate problem solving strategies for climate change adaptation
7. make judgements for decision making based on interpretations of degrees of uncertainty associated with scenarios for local and regional impacts
8. think beyond social and professional practice norms to develop creative climate change adaptation strategies
9. demonstrate resolve to make decisions despite uncertainties about local and regional climate change impacts (Lyth, Nichols & Tilbury 2007, 7).

With regards to the current state of climate change adaptation knowledge and skills around the country, the ARIES research found that planning graduates had an "inconsistent level of knowledge and skills" and they gained these skills in something of an ad hoc manner; there was a lack of professional development programs for existing planners; and teachers needed more training, resources and experience with climate change adaptation (Lyth, Nichols & Tilbury 2007, 26).

Wicked learning and teaching issues

Diversity of Skills and Knowledge

When there is such a variety of subjects to be covered tough decisions need to be made regarding what to include in the curricula. In environmental planning education the key question is whether environmental knowledge or general skills of implementation and analysis are more important (Hurlimann 2009). *Environmental or foundational knowledge* includes theoretical principles and provides scientific and ideological perspectives to analyse the issues. White and Mayo (2005) identify five foundational knowledge topics in environmental planning as ecological concepts, environmental economics, environmental philosophy, environmental psychology, and sustainability. They also identify areas that have *general skills or implementation methods* to apply these principles as environmental design, geographical information systems, environmental impact assessment, environmental policy and law, and site planning. Foundational topics are usually taught at the beginning of the program and applied skills are toward the end.

Which one of these is more important for an environmental planner depends on a number of factors such as what type of job a planner is likely to have. Hurlimann's (2009, 655) study found that "for a significant number of respondents, skills are more important for planners to possess than specific knowledge in order to address environmental problems... However, it could also be argued that planners must have sufficient environmental literacy to be able to adequately and accurately apply their skills to these issues. It is argued that possession of research and analytical skills, accompanied by specific knowledge in one or two environmental areas will equip planners well with the skills to address environmental challenges." White and Mayo's (2005) findings for North American planning schools are similar: For students, applied knowledge skills are more important for getting employment and succeeding initially in practice since most new planners are expected to perform as technicians. However, as they move toward management positions foundational knowledge (i.e. understanding of ecological concepts), philosophical knowledge and political skills gain importance. The changing needs of the practicing planner in time indicate that the challenge does not finish within graduate levels but continue throughout their career. Like all professionals continued education is crucial for a successful career.

The Role of Science in Environmental Decision-Making

Understanding ecological processes is a prerequisite to identifying solutions to environmental problems (White & Mayo 2004). While planners will not necessarily undertake environmental research themselves they should have enough environmental literacy to understand the technical and science-oriented members of the interdisciplinary teams they need to work in as well as understand and recognize key issues in technical reports (Vos 2000). Cardew (1999) argued for the importance of integrating environmental management into urban planning education focusing on the key questions of how much environmental science planners need, how is it to be taught, and by whom (generalists or specialists). Generally science courses are taught independently from planning courses but discussion of the role of science and uncertainty in environmental decision-making is also necessary.

The Role of Values: Balancing Environment, Economy, Equity

One of the toughest challenges planners face every day is balancing the competing claims of environment, economy and social equity. This requires knowledge in all three areas of environmental decision making (Vos 2000), environmental science, economy and the actual costs of all the decisions made, and equity, the social implications of the decisions and how they affect people. But having this knowledge does not mean value-free, scientific and objective decisions will be made, ultimately the decision is based on which one of the values weighs heaviest at the moment the decision is made.

Back in the 1970s Ian McHarg (1978) claimed that planner's most important role is to elicit the value systems of the people who are seeking to solve a problem because these values would ultimately determine the planning solutions. Planner's job in this sense is to help the community make its values explicit. McHarg further defined an ecological planner as one who identifies alternative solutions with attendant costs and benefits based on an understanding of both biophysical and social systems. Planning is not a value-neutral applied science but "an inherently social, communicative, and ethical undertaking" (Klosterman 1995, 247). A planner is not a value-neutral technician and it is important for planning students to understand the importance of values in planning decisions as well as planner's own values. Hence, one issue to discuss with students in the classroom is their own values, the roles they may take as a professional planner and their ethical responsibilities in upholding planning principles. Are there going to be some that become the advocate planner and do advocacy on behalf of certain groups or certain issues?

Political Viability

Planning students are challenged particularly by looking for realistic and politically viable yet effective solutions. We try not to stifle their creativity and expect them to stick to their principles and invariably face with questions such as what is the point of this exercise if the recommendations are not politically viable. They may feel particularly hopeless and discouraged during periods such as now when planning is not looked at all that favourably. What tools can we equip them with to deal with these situations in real life?

The political nature of planning is an important issue planning students need to come to terms with. Planners are not decision makers but they advise the decision makers. In their capacity as advisors they can influence events through their capacity to articulate viewpoints and develop consensus and coalitions (Levy 2003). Discussing the kinds of powers planners have (persuasion, logical argument, communication skills) with planning students will prepare them for the realities of the workplace.

Toolbox of the Environmental Planner

So how do we prepare future planners to deal with this complicated work environment and the challenges they will face at their work place? The scant literature on environmental planning education contains plenty of suggestions in terms of specific knowledge and skills an environmental planner should have. The literature reviewed highlights a number of *foundational knowledge topics* that are important including environmental ethics (Martin & Beatley 1993, Beatley 1995), environmental justice (Washington & Strong 1997, Gunder 2006), and sustainability (Martin & Beatley 1993). The *skills* that are identified to be

important for environmental planners include negotiation, arbitration and conflict resolution (Niebanck 1993, Susskind 2000), and critical inquiry (Gunder 2006).

Environmental Ethics

Beatley (1995) views an understanding of environmental values and ethics as an essential underpinning not only for environmental planners but all planners since "value-neutral discussions of management tools and techniques such as environmental impact assessment, growth management, or carrying capacity are simply not possible" (Martin & Beatley 1993, 123-124). As such, Beatley (1995, 321) argues that environmental ethics is "an especially important component of any environmental planning curriculum or concentration." However, Martin and Beatley's (1993) survey of planning curricula in North America found that in the early 1990s only three out of 87 responding programs offered a separate environmental ethics course, though 64 percent indicated that the subject was covered to some degree in other courses.

Beatley (1995) claims that tertiary education is one of the last opportunities for students to engage in informed moral reflection and to clarify and critically assess their personal values and moral convictions before entering the "world of professional practice, political compromise, and economic expedience" (Klosterman 1995, 248). As such, exposure to ethical literature is necessary to help students develop their own personal ethical frameworks (Beatley 1995). He further suggests that rather than relegating environmental values and ethics to a single course, consideration of ethics should be injected wherever possible.

Environmental Justice

Washington & Strong (1997) argue for an emphasis on environmental justice in the planning curriculum as the issues raised by the movement are within planners' professional responsibility, yet neither planning practice nor education has paid much attention to it. They claim that planning education should provide students with an understanding of planner's role in decision making (i.e. they are not neutral experts) and values, norms and rules of professional practice. Washington & Strong (1997) suggest that environmental justice can provide a framework for examining both planner's own personal and professional values as well as those of the stakeholders. Gunder (2006, 218) points out planning educators' additional responsibility to ensure that "social justice is not swept aside in the dualistic tension between market efficiency and environmental protection, even if economic growth always continues to seem to prevail. His suggestion is to achieve this through developing core skills of critical inquiry and ethical judgment in planning students.

Sustainability

Martin and Beatley (1993) argue that given the focus of planning on managing land use and human settlement patterns, coverage of sustainability in planning curricula in addition to environmental ethics is essential for providing normative guidance to planners. Their survey of planning programs in North America found that only two-fifths of the programs offered courses that explicitly addressed issues of sustainability at that time. In conclusion they suggested in the early 1990s that sustainability needs to be incorporated into the planning curricula more explicitly and directly. White and Mayo's (2004) research found that sustainability was considered to be one of the most important knowledge topics by the faculty in environmental specialization of North American planning programs. With

sustainability becoming a dominant concept in planning education by the new millennium concerns on its conceptualization arose and led to warnings that triple bottom-line based sustainable development is quite different than ecological sustainability (Gunder 2006). This shifted the focus of the discussion to which sustainability planning education should emphasize.

Negotiation, Arbitration and Conflict Resolution

The roles and skills an environmental planner needs have to go beyond procedural organisation to structuring and coordinating decision making processes involving many interests much like a mediator or a coordinator. An environmental planner needs to have increased substantive knowledge as well as ability for interdisciplinary teamwork (Deknatel 1984).

Niebanck (1993) suggests previously neglected skill areas of negotiation, arbitration and conflict resolution should be included in environmental planning education. He argues that one form environmental planning takes is targeted action and in addition to negotiation and communication skills this needs advocacy planning. Ethics and values underlie planning as principled action.

Critical Inquiry

The importance of balancing environment, economy and equity values in making environmental planning decisions has already been discussed. Gunder's (2006) warning of the dangers of the way sustainability is perceived and taught in planning schools has also been mentioned. His specific concern is that even though economic growth always continues to seem to prevail in particular social justice may bet swept aside in the dualistic tension between market efficiency and environmental protection. To prevent this he suggests that planning education must develop in its students core skills of critical inquiry and of ethical judgment.

Studio Pedagogy: What is it?

After establishing the importance of foundational environmental knowledge in environmental planning education; confirming its limited inclusion in planning curricula, especially in Australia; visiting the particular challenges of teaching environmental planning; and reviewing the foundational knowledge areas that are emphasized in the literature our focus turns to solutions. In designing environmental planning program curricula the tough choice between environmental knowledge and general skills/implementation methods can be overcome by striking a good balance between them. However, this is easier said than done. Experiential learning and project-based courses such as studios can deliver environmental knowledge and principles along with the practical skills that will lead to jobs.

Planning studios are student centred learning and teaching environments characterised by problem based learning and learning by inquiry pedagogies which emphasise active independent student-focused learning. Planning studios require students to draw upon personal knowledges and experiences as well as their academic learning from all their courses. Students are required to work collaboratively with input from the profession and staff where the staff: student ratio is typically high (see Zehner et al. 2009). The main value comes from shifting the role of the student from passive receiver of information to an active

and engaged learner. Studios provide the opportunity for teachers and students to explore problems and identify and reflect on solutions in a reiterative way. Students learn from their teachers' experience, from their peers, their application of concepts and they develop deep understanding by doing. Likewise, teachers gain knowledge of students and their challenges in learning, in conceptualising problems and in engaging in the theory-practice interface.

The studio curriculum is project based and provides a balance of theory and professional practice, using multiple teaching and learning approaches, with the aim to equip students with the skills, knowledge and practices that underpin their academic and professional careers. Studio learning and teaching is flexible and innovative to accommodate the studio project and diverse student needs. Properly conceptualised, designed and delivered, planning studios can provide students with confidence, self-esteem, substantive knowledge about environmental planning and a range of generic skills including communications skills, creative problem solving and critical thinking. Studio learning and teaching practices can positively impact retention, the student experience and engagement with professional practice. As identified by Tippett, Connelly and How (2011 p. 28) the challenges for studio teaching are primarily: staff and student contact time, a high level of summative and formative feedback on assignments, dealing with the complex and messy problems relating to a real site, staying up to date with rapidly changing environmental, political and urban contexts, working in a collaborative environment and a context of institutional resources scarcity.

The studio environment is characterised by more frequent, longer and more informal contact with peers and teaching staff in a dedicated classroom or studio. The planning studio becomes a space/place of transition into academia and the profession. The collaborative, project and problem/inquiry based studio curriculum encourages students to develop collegiality. The studio project aims at capturing and stimulating the enthusiasm of many first year students and channelling this energy into positive learning and teaching outcomes. Students learn from peers by working in the studio and in small groups which actively engages them in teaching and learning and university life, which develops institutional commitment. This environment encourages students to become less 'isolated learners' and to form bonds of friendships (Tinto 2003). The high degree of interaction between staff and students that characterise studio pedagogies, also goes some way to provide students with a sense of belonging and purpose because students feel that staff and peers know them. Staff student interaction is largely structured around feedback on assignment tasks which begin on day one and continue over the studio semester. Continual feedback in the form of diagnostic, formative and summative assessment act as a means of transition to higher education because they encourage and support students and heighten satisfaction.

Studios offer opportunities for excellent student experiences both social and academic. These positive experiences go some way to reduce attrition.

- The interaction between staff and student and between students in different years and across disciplines is embedded in studio learning and teaching. This increased interaction among peers and staff provides students with a sense of belonging and purpose which is essential among factors relating retention and graduate outcomes.
- Studio learning and teaching is flexible and innovative to accommodate the studio project and diverse student needs.

- Studio is project based and focuses on a real project. This means the learning is relevant to the program and to the workplace. Active learning is essential as the studio is problem and project based. Links between theory and practice are made explicit in studio pedagogy.
- Studio also prepares students for the professional workplace and makes them highly employable. Studio learning and teaching focuses on student leadership rather than staff domination. Leadership skills are embedded in the learning and teaching methods and student outcomes. There is also increasing input from profession to ensure learning outcomes are aligned with expectations of employers.

The key to studio teaching and learning is of course student engagement. This is easily achieved in the studio environment.

Studio pedagogy and environmental planning

The literature highlights negotiation, arbitration and conflict resolution (Deknatel 1984, Niebanck 1993, Susskind 2000), and critical inquiry among *generic skills* important to environmental planners. Plan making, evaluation and related tasks that are at the heart of planning studios involve creative and critical thinking and analysis (Higgins 2009, Balsas 2012). Developing critical thinking ability is among the learning outcomes of studio courses (Németh and Long 2012). Furthermore, studio pedagogy often involves team-based learning through which students learn to collaborate, understand group dynamics and develop interpersonal cooperation skills (Németh and Long 2012, Senbel 2012). Problem solving element of the studio pedagogy helps students develop skills in negotiating oppositional viewpoints and dispute resolution (Higgins 2009, Németh and Long 2012) and “dialogical experience” in the negotiation of solutions within and across teams (Senbel 2012).

Studio courses may have dealing with ethical issues as a learning outcome (Balassiano, and West 2012) and aim at teaching students to assess planning outcomes based on a set of values such as justice or sustainability (Németh and Long 2012). As such, through the selection of projects, *foundational knowledge* areas of sustainability, environmental justice and environmental ethics may be explored through a studio course. Project discussions are a valuable way of discussing role of values in decision making. Through the projects in a planning studio students are challenged to balance the competing claims of environment, economy, and equity and how science is included in the process. In this simulated planning environment they understand the various roles of the planner and develop their personal professional ethics (Németh and Long 2012).

Conclusion

The scant literature on environmental planning education highlights a number of challenges: diversity of skills and knowledge that needs to be covered, the role of science and values in environmental decision-making, and political viability of solutions.

Studio type courses relying on project-based learning where foundational knowledge and planning principles can be integrated as well as practical skills and principles are applied to a real project can provide an efficient way of teaching the two sets of knowledge and skills

necessary for an environmental planner. Recommendations on dealing with the other challenges focus on the topics and skills that should be included in the environmental planning curriculum. A review of the literature on suggested emphasis in the curriculum shows agreement on the core themes that are deemed important in environmental planning education. Social and environmental justice forms one of the three pillars of sustainability. Both environmental ethics and environmental justice emphasize the importance of values in planning. Planner's role in the process is also a recurring theme. The skills that are emphasized include critical inquiry, negotiation, arbitration, and conflict resolution.

While recommendations are aplenty in terms of what should be included in the curriculum, there are no studies that confirm or reject the importance of these topics and skills in relation to environmental planning education. This points to a need for additional studies that can not only test these suggestions but also evaluate them.

We said we would return to the two key PIA KPIs. The principal aim of the studio is then to prepare students for professional practice; to prepare students for real life planning projects where there are situations of uncertainty, where answers are not known in advance, and where there may be multiple solutions to a problem, and to equip students with the skills and knowledge to 'prepare plans and urban designs to address and manage land use and development issues and opportunities.' Higher education institutions require effective, efficient and relevant teaching methods and content to achieve well rounded, critical thinking, employable leaders in their profession. In addition many Gen Y students respond well to active and engaged pedagogies such as those characterised by studio learning and teaching. In short, and using the jargon of the institutions, planning studios:

- create an engaging, motivating and intellectually stimulating learning experience;
- encourage the spirit of critical inquiry and creative innovation informed by current research;
- enhance student engagement and learning through effective curriculum design, pedagogy and assessment strategies.

In this paper we have argued for the importance of a studio teaching and learning environment as an important and valuable component in the GU planning program. The studio, we suggest, is just as relevant today for teaching environmental planning to Gen Y students as it ever was in previous times, as a method of teaching planning to generations of Boomers and Gen X students. And it will remain core to educating environmental planners in future generations

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Developing an online module to support students understanding of government–provided information sources[4]

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Abstract: *For planners and planning students' government websites are significant sources of information. As e-government becomes more pervasive, Planning students and citizens more generally need to be able to evaluate the range of information found on government websites. Understanding the complexity of government is a key element in planning education and being able to recognise the value of information created by, for and about government is a key competency for Planning students. Previous research into students' use of information in academic assessments (Feekery, 2013) indicated that 55% of sources in reference lists came from government websites, much of which was taken directly from home pages, rather than the more authoritative sources available. Developing approaches and tools for explicitly supporting planning students' transition into information literacy is necessary due to the complexity of information on government and council websites. Information literacy can be defined as "a continuum of skills, behaviours, approaches and values that is so deeply entwined with the uses of information as to be a fundamental element of learning, scholarship and research" (Secker & Coonan, 2013, p. xxii).To support Planning students' towards an understanding of government information, we created an online module encouraging students to explore a range of New Zealand government websites (domain: .govt.nz) and to recognise and evaluate the different types of information provided. This session provides an overview of the module, the successes and challenges of its implementation, and student responses to how it impacted on their understanding of the value of government information for their learning.*

Keywords*: government websites, information literacy, e-government, digital awareness*

Introduction

For planners and planning students, government websites are significant sources of information. As e-government becomes more pervasive, planning students, and citizens more generally need to be able to evaluate the range of information found on government websites. Understanding the complexity of government is a key element in planning education, and being able to recognise the value of information created by, for and about government is a key competency for Planning students. The New Zealand Planning Institute (NZPI) 2009 Accreditation Committee recommended that first year Bachelor of Resource and Environmental Planning (BRP) students receive a broader introduction to the range of analytical methods, techniques and information skills relevant to planning.

In implementing recommendations from the 2009 accreditation review, consideration was given to the range of planning techniques and skills that were appropriate part of the first year of the undergraduate curriculum. Around the same time as this curriculum review was underway, consideration was also being given to how to strengthen students' written communication skills. The Bachelor of Arts degree had introduced a compulsory 100-level paper, 230.100 Introduction to Academic Writing and there was a similar requirement for

[4] Non-peer reviewed paper

Bachelor of Science students. Following discussions with university staff involved in teaching academic writing it was decided not to introduce a compulsory academic writing paper in the BRP but, instead, to integrate information literacy into existing teaching. This was given further momentum when co-author Angela Feekery initiated action research involving BRP students' information literacy (IL) as part of her doctoral thesis (Feekery, 2013). Staff also had a desire to enhance students' use of digital technologies for accessing planning -relevant information.

Feekery's doctoral research on students' use of information in academic assessments indicated that 55% of sources in reference lists came from government websites, much of which was taken directly from home pages rather than the more authoritative sources available, indicating a lack of information literacy (Feekery, 2013). During the course of the action research, there were a number of opportunities for staff to reflect on student feedback about how they approached identifying information for their assignments. In many courses library skills sessions were provided which were designed to familiarise students with sources of scholarly material for academic assignments and also to provide some information on acknowledgement of sources (referencing) and tools available via the library.

However, it was also clear that developing approaches and tools explicitly for supporting planning students' transition into information literacy is necessary due to the range and complexity of information available on the internet and, more specifically, through government and council websites. To support planning students towards an understanding of government information, we created an online module encouraging students to explore a range of New Zealand government websites (domain: .govt.nz) and to recognise and evaluate the different types of information provided. Following this introduction, we outline the background to the development of the government website module. In subsequent sections we provide an overview of the module and report on its implementation, highlighting positive features and also some challenges and incorporating and student feedback on how it facilitated their understanding of the value of government information for learning in the planning disciplinary context. We conclude by considering further enhancements to this area of the planning curriculum.

Background

Transition into tertiary learning presents challenges for a greater number of students, who seem particularly unprepared for IL demands at university (Brabazon, 2007; Ladbrook & Probert, 2011). Head and Eisenberg (2010) observe that "research is one of the most difficult challenges facing students in the digital age" (p.2). Recent research into the transition from high school to university in the NZ context has confirmed the lack of an explicit IL component embedded in the New Zealand Curriculum and National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) assessment standards (Kilpin, Emerson & Feekery, 2014), and students seem unaware of the importance of IL for learning. Therefore, the onus is on universities to reform the first-year experience by embedding the development of academic competencies, particularly IL, into first-year courses to enable a smoother transition into higher education (Jansen & van der Meer, 2012; Weimer, 2003). From August 2009 to June 2012, educators in the BRP degree at Massey University took up this challenge, and actively engaged in a participatory action research PhD project aimed at embedding information literacy (IL) development across the four-year programme.

IL can be defined as "a continuum of skills, behaviours, approaches and values that is so deeply entwined with the uses of information as to be a fundamental element of learning, scholarship and research" (Secker & Coonan, 2013, p. xxii). Situating IL in higher education requires an understanding of its connection to academic literacy. Taking a multiple literacies view (including information, academic, digital and media) (Bent, 2013, Secker & Coonan, 2011), the interplay of various literacies in the learning process are highlighted. Our research was informed by Secker and Coonan's (2011) 'Information Literacy Landscape' (figure 1) which places IL at the centre of learning and overlaps with numerous other competencies essential to academic learning, including academic literacies, new literacies, media literacy and digital literacy. In this representation, IL contains elements of other literacies including critical thinking, evaluation, study skills and academic writing, and high-level cognitive skills that are central to lifelong learning.

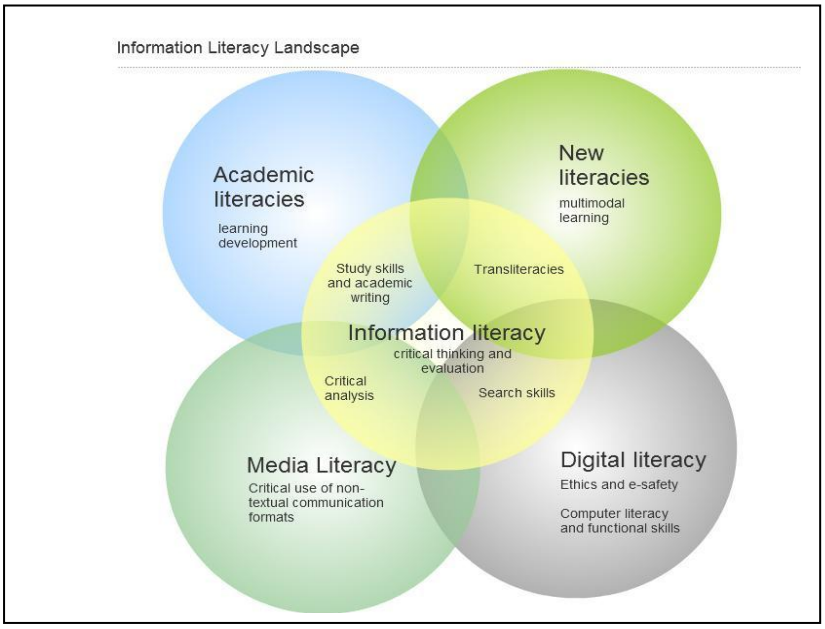

Figure 1 - The Information Literacy Landscape

Recognising IL as fundamental to learning supports embedding its development rather than keeping it on the periphery of academic learning (as a generic skills focus tends to do). Thus, it was recognised that developing students' key information literacy competencies is a key aspect of all education, including planning education. As part of the research, we needed to consider what the information landscape looks like in the planning discipline, and how students can access a range of information and evaluate its quality for both learning and as a profession. Planning students are expected to access a range of information including government, professional and academic literature. The lecturers in the participating Planning programme were keen to promote the use and value of scholarly sources to students from the outset of academic study. In understanding IL, they connected to the widely recognised aspects of finding and using information, and the significance of information to shape our everyday lives. As one lecturer noted,

> [IL is] people accessing information and knowing what to do with it and how to assess and recognise the value of it and recognise that we are a knowledge society,

an information society, so our lives are very much shaped by the availability of information and communication technology.

Planning lecturers collaborated with librarians and a doctoral student, Angela Feekery, to create space in the planning curriculum to integrate IL development across the four year programme. The key interventions in the courses were designed to support students to understand and improve their use of academic conventions and took three forms:

1) library workshops at various stages of the programme
2) new formative assessment tasks that required students to explore information literacy within the research process
3) tasks which extended existing assessments by adding formative or reflective components on IL processes.

Rather than offering a generic introduction to the library, the workshops were refocused to become more relevant to planning students, and to support them to access a range of government, media and scholarly sources. Within the library workshops, students were introduced to the 'Healthy Resources Pyramid' (Figure 2), a resource designed collaboratively with Massey University librarians Joanna Wenman and Nicola Harris, to depict the different types of sources available to students within the information landscape, drawing on the well-known 'Healthy Food Pyramid' concept widely used in health promotion. The pyramid categorises different types of information into popular, official, and scholarly/academic sources, and the vertical arrow indicates where each type of information can be accessed, with more popular and official sources easily accessible through Google, and the more scholarly sources requiring academic database access, or Google Scholar (with limitations). Students are advised to use the fruit and vegetable (academic) sources the most, and limit the easily accessible takeaways (popular) because, just like healthy eating promotes good health, healthy research promotes quality learning.

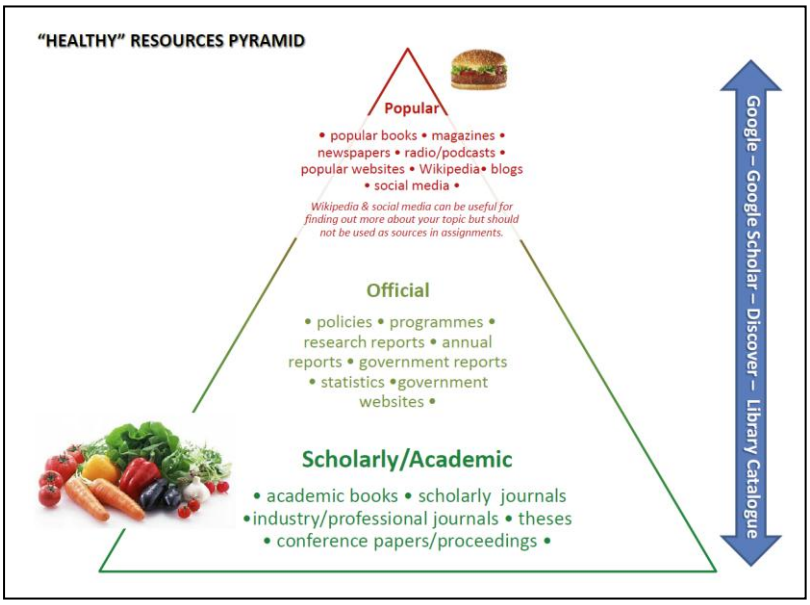

Figure 2 - The Healthy Resources Pyramid

Developing planning students' understanding of government sources

The Healthy Resources pyramid provided students with a tool for evaluating different broad categories of information source but it was also clear that *within* categories students needed to be a lot more discriminating. In particular, the category of official information was very diverse and students were generally poorly equipped to evaluate the myriad types of material found on government websites. With the increased emphasis on e-government and e-planning

An analysis of the kinds of government sources available shows that, although government sources were placed within the centre of the Healthy Resources Pyramid, a corresponding pyramid exists within the government source domain itself (Figure 3).

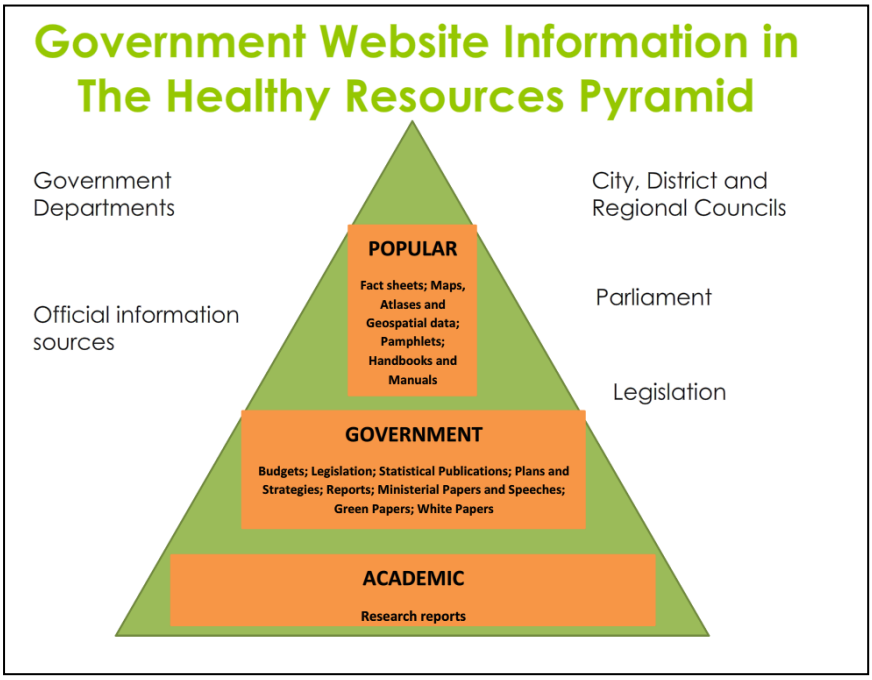

Figure 3 - 'Healthy' Government Website Information Pyramid.

When we categorised government information used in essay reference lists within this pyramid, we noticed students tended to rely on government-produced data (from websites we have for practical purposes categorised as 'popular'), rather than policy information generated by government organisations about their initiatives and performance (which we have described as 'organisation information'), much less the more *scholarly* research conducted by and for governmental organisations that is also often available. In terming this scholarly we are not suggesting that it is as fully independent as academic research but we are acknowledging that there is material that might be commissioned from external agencies as well as in-house research that conforms to a greater or lesser degree to scholarly conventions (e.g. uses research procedures).

Government information includes both central and local government and other arms-length and/or constitutionally independent government agencies. This includes Parliament and select committees (which has important information such as the text of parliamentary debates, select committee reports on draft bills, and select committee inquiry reports) and

also independent officers of Parliament. The Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment (PCE) is a significant source of information for planning students (see, for example, Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment 2001, 2002, 2012, 2013) and, until recently, the PCE website used the domain .govt (www.pce.govt.nz). However, a new 'non-government' URL is now used: www.pce.parliament.nz

It was very apparent that students lacked this more nuanced understanding of government sources. This was not unsurprising given students' generally poor understanding of political institutions and processes (another subject in the first year of the undergraduate planning curriculum).

The Module – and its implementation

The 'Exploring Government Websites' module was designed using Adobe Captivate, and was published on the course Stream (Moodle) site in Semester 1, 2014. Students were required to complete the module and an accompanying worksheet (see Appendix) prior to completing the first field-trip report assessment. Feedback was then provided to students prior to when they undertook further assessments which involved sourcing information from government and other (predominantly scholarly) sources.

The module was designed to encourage students to explore the range of information found on websites with the domain name .govt.nz. It began by explaining to students the importance of carefully evaluating government-produced information and offered strategies for evaluating the quality of information, the purpose for which it was created, and any potential bias inherent on local, district or national-level websites. Then, the range of information types in the websites was categorised into the Government Websites Healthy Resources Pyramid (Figure 3). Examples of the different types of information available, as well as some advice on what to consider when selecting and using the sources, were outlined. The module ended with a reminder to carefully consider the purpose, audience and potential bias in information produced by, for and about government.

Students were then required to complete the worksheet task as they explored four government websites (local, district, national and parliamentary). They were asked to notice the range of information available and determine its relevance and limitations for assessment purposes. The final question on the worksheet was: *From completing this learning module, what are the key considerations when using government websites and information have you identified?* Our hope for the module was that students would learn to consider potential bias in government-created information, recognise the purpose and audience the information was created for, and recognise the value of balancing information from a range of perspectives to support learning. Student reflections in the worksheet task indicated we had achieved this goal:

> *Student 1:* I have also learned to try to get an all-encompassing perspective before referencing political, governmental, or regional topics. While most of these sites aren't explicitly biased, they don't typically publish criticism on their own ideals or policies. Naturally throughout this project, my curiosity led me to plug some topics (such as One Plan, for example) into a search engine, or even consult my notes from other classes. What I found is that while criticism of these topics may not always be a

100% credible resource, references within this critique may lead the reader to legitimate information on policies that one may not be able to find on government or region-sponsored websites. Sometimes it is useful to identify the pros and the cons of a topic before trying to understand it fully. Nevertheless, these websites provide an excellent starting point when working on a relevant research topic.

Student 2:

- Read all articles in a Government website objectively and impartially.
- Consider Government websites could provide biased information.
- Carefully select what Government articles and/or data to use in assignments to support statements and ideas.
- Gather supplementary information by reading independent research or articles on a topic or issue to get a more balanced understanding of information provided on a Government website.
- Use Government information like Public discussion documents, legislations, consultations and research reports to become more informed about a topic.
- Consider who the information is being provided for, what is being provided and then read it critically, to figure out whether the information provided is offering a balanced view
- Consider my own prejudices, beliefs and opinions and try to be objective when critically reviewing or reflecting on information.

Further qualitative investigation into student responses on the module was conducted via a focus group in the second semester of 2014. The purpose of this further data collection was to identify to what extent students retained and used knowledge and skills learned early in semester 1 about how to evaluate government website information. Six students accepted an invitation to participate in a focus group that discussed the following:

- What students could remember about the government website module
- What they understood purpose of the module to be
- How it was introduced in class
- What they learned about government websites and how useful this was
- Students' feeling of confidence in evaluating different sources found on government websites
- Criteria that they used when evaluating government sources
- What improvements could be made

Overall, focus group participants indicated that the module was useful because it was directly connected with course content and future assessments (in particular, the first assignment). The module was viewed as a useful introduction for assignments in other papers they were enrolled in. The connection with the library skills training workshop and the fact that both the module and workshop had a specific planning focus was seen as particularly valuable, unlike the more generic library training that had been offered in one other non-planning course. They commented that the module helped raise awareness of what they needed to be considering when they looked at government information, but they still need to practise more. Students indicated that they can recognise different types of government information and they understand that there is a range of government information

available on the internet. They commented that the worksheet helped consolidate the information provided in the module and gave them immediate practice in exploring the websites. Focus group participants were quite confident they could evaluate and select government sources for assignments. In terms of the packaging of the information, they commented positively about the facility to be able to pause and re-listen to each section, and click to advance to the next slide when they were ready. They also said that they would not have listened to the presentation if it was not connected to the assessment. No significant changes were suggested. One international student thought the accompanying oral commentary was a little fast.

Discussion and conclusion

Our experience is that such a module is a critically important part of planning students' IL development. It was initially envisaged that such a module could be made available or adapted to students in other subjects that make heavy use of government websites (e.g. students in social policy, health policy, politics, etc.). However, it is clear that having disciplinary-specific content and having a direct link with assessment (e.g. identifying and evaluating sources to be used in a future literature review or essay assignment) is a core element in the effectiveness of the government website module.

The government website module remains a work-in-progress and input from planning educators is needed. The healthy government sources pyramid is still undergoing refinement and clearly needs to take into account the rapidly evolving Web 2.0 era in which increasing digital content is available. A further enhancement might be to link the module more directly to teaching about government agencies. For reasons largely related to timing, the module occurs very early in the course, prior to much coverage of legislation and political institutions and processes.

Criteria used for evaluating the quality of sources include rigour of research method, independence of data collection agency from governing body, transparency about purpose and assumptions, and balance. Providing examples of government sources accompanying the module (both online and in a tutorial /training session) that perform well and those that perform poorly would assist students in developing their critical thinking and political awareness, both of which are central to a robust assessment of government sources and moving students beyond a crude and simplistic understanding of bias. Clearly, becoming competent in evaluating government websites cannot be learned in just one course and needs further elaboration and reinforcement through structured learning over time.

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APPENDIX 1 - Government Website Exploration – Worksheet NAME:

Government websites are created for different purposes. Let's look at four different government websites to find out the kind of information we can access from them. Please complete all sections of this worksheet.

A) Palmerston North City Council (District) – http://www.pncc.govt.nz
B) Horizons Regional Council (Regional) – http://www.horizons.govt.nz
C) Beehive Website (Executive Government) – http://www.beehive.govt.nz
D) NZ Parliament (Government)– http://www.parliament.govt.nz

	What is the purpose of the website?	Who is the intended audience?	What is the tone and potential bias of the website?	What kind of information is provided on the website?	How can you use the information from this website in your assignments?
Palmerston North City Council District)					
Horizons Regional Council (Regional)					
Beehive Website (government)					
NZ Parliament Website (executive government)					
Reflection – From completing this learning module, what are the key considerations when using government websites and information have you identified?					

Enhancing experiential learning in planning education through an online toolkit of resources

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Email: CSlade@usc.edu.au

Abstract: *This paper reports on the development of an online toolkit of resources to support the use and assessment of experiential learning (EL) across planning programs. Planning graduates face diverse workplace demands with expectations to address the local and regional implications of global trends, integrate technological advances with existing planning processes, as well as interpret and integrate changing legislative and institutional arrangements. Planning education is about educators, practitioners and students coming together. Equipping students for increasing complexity and change requires planning educators to design programs that facilitate the learning of personal and professional skills and both broad and specialised planning knowledge. Planning practitioners, in partnership with educators, make further valuable contributions by providing a range of 'real world' learning experiences where students can directly develop new skills, knowledge and qualities. Experiential learning allows students to develop confidence within a safe environment through a series of activities and reflection that link theory to practice. However, developing EL learning outcomes, teaching activities and assessment can be demanding and time consuming for planning educators. In response, the Experiential Learning in Planning Education: Resources and Tools for Good Practice research project developed an online toolkit of case studies and associated resources to assist planning educators and practitioners in their application of EL. These case studies, developed by the partners in the project, explain the rationale of using particular EL activities based on a set of EL principles; how these activities are assessed; and reflections on how they could be improved for future use. The case studies also include numerous 'how to' resources, such as checklists and handy hints for organising activities, evaluation tools and examples of students' work. Furthermore, the toolkit website is an interactive and 'living' repository where additional case studies by other EL users can be included to enhance the diversity and richness of the resources available. The toolkit is expected to particularly benefit new planning educators but should also be of interest to planning schools and practitioners around the globe who are endeavouring to facilitate students' education in a rapidly changing world.*

Key words: *Experiential learning, planning educators, toolkit, planners, case studies*

Introduction

Planning graduates face diverse workplace demands with the expectation they will find their professional role in addressing implications of global trends, integrating technology, and the interpretation of changing legislative and institutional arrangements (Sullivan & Rosin 2008; Savage et al. 2010). Equipping students for increasing practice complexity and change requires planning educators to design programs that facilitate the learning of personal and professional skills and both broad and specialised planning knowledge (PIA 2004). A review of planning education by Gurran et al. (2008) recommends the extension of core knowledge areas to include increased practice application. Learning in this environment enables students to develop consistent practical judgement (Sullivan & Rosin 2008) and to engage more fully with their discipline, as well as foster higher order skills and enhance their employability (Barraket et al. 2009). Planning practitioners, in partnership with educators,

make further valuable contributions to a range of 'real world' learning experiences where students can directly acquire new skills, knowledge and qualities.
This paper introduces an online toolkit of resources that promotes experiential learning as a pedagogy suited to delivering the requirements of competent planning graduates. Structured around 17 different case studies, the online toolkit is designed to assist educators to design and deliver good experiential learning practice.

What is Experiential Learning?

Experiential learning is a process of actively engaging students in authentic encounters, together with purposeful reflection that consolidates personal learning relevant to future experiences (Saddington 1992; McGill & Weis 1989; Kassem 2007). How students process their experience through reflection is critical to producing learning (Boud et al.1985; Fowler 2006). As such, Love et al. (2001) in their study of the graduate readiness for work in the construction management industry conclude that there are some skills, such as time management, professional judgement and interpersonal communication that can only be learned by experiential learning. Furthermore, transition to work through EL can take place not only within work-integrated or work-based opportunities outside the university but also in the university classroom (Savage et al. 2010). Additional insights from Moon (2004: 113) suggest that:

- experiential learning takes effort;
- learning can occur from some experiences more effectively than from others; and
- experiential learning should explicitly recognize the subjective nature of experience.

Experiential learning allows students to develop confidence within a safe environment through a series of activities and reflections that link theory to practice, however, developing EL learning outcomes, teaching activities and suitable assessment tasks can be demanding and time consuming for planning educators.

Context and Methodology

A pilot study in 2009 at the University of the Sunshine Coast identified the need to improve existing use of EL activities and the development of robust resources in the following areas:

- Making the learning goals clearer;
- The need for educators to negotiate learning goals with students;
- The importance of guidance from educators to students on application of theory to practice;
- Recognition that students enjoy real-world experiences;
- Reflection is enhanced by dialogue;
- Community-university partnerships enhance student performance.

In response the *Experiential Learning in Planning Education: Resources and Tools for Good Practice* research project, funded by the Australian Office for Learning and Teaching (OLT), explored and expanded the theoretical concept of EL and its role in meeting the needs of professional practice, both in work and university settings. The project built on existing scholarly literature (see Eyler et al. 1999; Coiacetto 2008; Billett 2011) and the findings of

previous reviews of EL practice (see Jones et al. 2009; Savage et al. 2010). A baseline survey of EL activities and assessment methods used in Australian and New Zealand accredited planning programs was the project's first major undertaking (see Slade et al. 2014 for further information about this survey). Secondly, the framework of EL principles (Table 1) developed in the pilot study were tested in the larger project. Many of the principles are derived from EL pedagogical studies. For example, the principles 'purposeful', 'student-centred' and 'evaluation' are not unique to EL but aspects of good teaching and learning practice more generally. The remainder are of particular relevance to EL practice. The project team suggests these eight principles form the basis for establishing and assessing the effectiveness of individual EL activities in tertiary planning education programs.

Table 1: Summary of the EL Principles Framework

Principles	Description
Purposeful	Clear goals, purpose of EL activity explained and understood
Student-centred	Students take an active role in their learning
Theory-practice dialectic	Apply theory to practice and vice versa
The 'real world' context	Students exposed to real world situations gradually over the years of their degree
Guided practice	Ongoing guidance from educators and practitioners
Reflection	Self-reflection on learning and reflective dialogue
Evaluation	Demonstrate how students learn and meet goals
Community-university partnership	Mutually beneficial partnerships

Source: Summarised from Baldwin & Rosier (in review)

Discussion at partner workshops further refined the EL principles framework, followed by testing of its applicability in genuine experiential learning activities/courses at the five partner universities (University of the Sunshine Coast; Griffith, La Trobe, Edith Cowan universities; and University of Tasmania) during Semester 2, 2012 and Semester 1, 2013. As a result, project partners developed 17 case studies in order to demonstrate how planning educators might improve their EL practice in order to better prepare students for professional practice. In turn, these case studies formed the basis of a readily accessible online toolkit of EL activities, assessment techniques, and other professional development resources (Table 2).

The Digital Toolkit

Toolkits have been used in education for some time, while digital toolkits in particular have been discussed in scholarly literature about e-learning design, quality and evaluation (e.g. see Conole et al. 2001; Conole et al. 2004). A toolkit is often a support mechanism that allows the user/s to pick and choose from a menu of practice problem responses (Conole & Oliver 2002). The strengths of toolkits seem to be in recording current practice/actions so process and resources may be transferable and repeated by others. This is more useful than providing everyone with the research and expecting them to individually experiment (Ehrmann 1998). Rather than determining one specific definition for a toolkit, the major focus

of attention relates to the toolkit's purpose. This toolkit provides an important diagnostic tool for users to find the most appropriate EL activities to use in their course/unit/paper. The standard format for each of the foundational case studies includes an explanation of the rationale of using particularly activities based on the EL principles framework; assessment types and evaluation methods; student feedback on their experience of the learning activity; and a critical reflection by the educator/s involved on how to improve the activities for future use. Further, each case study author shared accompanying 'how to' resources, such as checklists and handy hints for organising activities, evaluation tools and examples of students' work. It is also important to provide a mixture of text, images and graphics in presenting the information. Overall, this approach allows the user to choose examples and associated resources according to their individual needs.

The toolkit is available online at www.experientiallearninginplanning.com.au/ and has a feedback form so users can comment on its utility and make suggestions to improve the site. Planning educators can also request to submit new case studies from their own practice that demonstrate new forms of experiential learning.

Toolkit Case Study Examples

The case studies provided exemplars from a range of EL categories including 'Guest Speaker'; 'Field Trip'; 'Studio'; 'Simulated Project'; 'Work-for-a-Client'; 'Role Play'; and 'Practicum/Work Experience'. This section provides brief examples from some of these case study categories demonstrated in more detail through the presentation of the toolkit at the upcoming ANZAPS conference.

Guest Speakers
Using a variety of guest speakers introduces students to case studies of complex planning decision making and enables in-depth coverage of topics that complements the lecturer's expertise. Links can be formed between theory and practice as well as between the university and the community. In order for this activity to contribute to experience-based learning, the course-coordinator needs to provide guidance to the guest lecturer/s to ensure the presentation fits with learning outcomes and to ensure students have opportunity to reflect on the topic, whether through formative assessment or the contribution of the presentation to other parts of the course.

Field Trips
The four field trips range across a continuum of field activities from short site analysis trips that contribute ideas/material used directly by students in developing responsive plans, to a socio-economic and environmental set of comparative trips between urban and rural places, and finally, a three week overseas study tour. Often field trips as an EL activity contribute as one part of a broader course, for example a studio. The overseas study tour, however, in this case embodied the whole course.

Table 2: Summary of EL Case Studies from Online Toolkit

Activity	Case Study Details	Location in Program	No.
1. Guest Speaker	Advanced Planning Practice (USC)	Final Undergraduate	1.1
	Sustainable Environmental Management (UTAS)	Postgraduate	1.2
2. Field Trip	Introduction to Planning (ECU)	Early Undergraduate	2.1
	International Study Tour (La Trobe)	Middle & Final Undergraduate	2.2
	Environmental Planning/Urban Planning for Health (ECU)	Final & Postgraduate	2.3
	Change in Urban and Rural Australia (La Trobe)	Middle Undergraduate	2.4
3. Studio	Development Processes Studio (GU)	Middle & Postgraduate	3.1
	Children in their Environments (La Trobe)	Final & Postgraduate	3.2
4. Simulated Project	Introduction to Planning and Design (La Trobe)	Early Undergraduate	4.1
	Planning & Environmental Law (USC)	Middle Undergraduate	4.2
5. Work-for-a-Client	Planning Theory, Process and Applications (UTAS)	Postgraduate	5.1
	Public Participation (USC)	Middle Undergraduate	5.2
6. Role Play	Conflict Resolution in Planning (USC)	Middle Undergraduate	6.1
	Urban Governance and Planning Law (La Trobe)	Final & Postgraduate	6.2
7. Work Placement/Practicum	The Practice of Planning (ECU)	Final Undergraduate	7.1
	Planning Practicum (USC)	Final Undergraduate	7.2
8. Other	EL Activities in Classroom with Diverse Student Cohort (USC)	Middle Undergraduate	8.1

Source: Adapted from Baldwin et al. (2014)

Studio, Simulated Project, Work-for-a-Client
This series of case studies demonstrate the ambiguity and overlap between these three EL categories. The development studio provides an example of a planning design studio model while another case study includes a '*mini studio*' as part of a larger work-for-a-client project. These, plus other case studies that simulate a real experience through guided practice in a safe university environment enable students to respond to 'real life' planning situations characterised by complexity and uncertainty, being exposed to multiple solutions to unfamiliar problems.

Role Play
This category includes two case studies in which students embrace the roles of particular stakeholders involved in scenarios that can involve highly complex problems. The first case involves conflict resolution in planning while the second case requires students to participate as planners in a mock tribunal hearing, chaired by an experienced planner. Embracing a role can be an emotional experience for students. While some students thrive in the experience, others find it intimidating. As such, students need the guidance of an educator to steer them through the whole process and time to reflect constructively on the positives and negatives of participating in a role-playing experience.

Practicum/Work Experience
Practicums and other work experience activities are pinnacle EL opportunities where students transition directly into the 'real world' for a period without direct educator guidance. The toolkit case studies provide insight into two examples of work experience. The first example is a short self-organised '*Day in the Life of a Planner*' placement under the mentorship of a practitioner. The second example is a four-week practicum. Before this placement, students complete a 2-day block preparatory course, and then later reconsider issues in a post-placement debriefing session. A key EL outcome from both these work placements is that students generally find this type of activity very rewarding. Yet, even at fourth year, students still need assistance in being reflective mainly using guided tools, such as a reflective journal or diary.

Toolkit Usage

Google Analytics provides statistical data about use of the website. In the six months between mid-March and mid-September 2014 there have been 331 site users divided in two categories; 78.4% new users and 21.6% returning users. While there is consistent use across this period several significant peaks match times when project partners undertook wider dissemination events across Australia and overseas. Opportunity exists for other educators to add case studies to the toolkit. To date one of the project team has added another guest speaker case study and a number of planning educators across the globe expressed interest in contributing from their teaching practice.

Conclusion

This paper, in conjunction with the presentation at the ANZAPS conference, reports on the development of an online EL toolkit supported by relevant planning education resources.

Eight EL principles formed a framework, tested across partner courses/units in five Australian universities and written up as case studies. These case studies became the foundation of an online toolkit made available to assist planning educators to increasingly trial, adopt and increase EL techniques. Furthermore, the toolkit website is an interactive and 'living' repository where additional case studies by other EL users can be included to enhance the diversity and richness of the resources available. The project partners expect the toolkit will particularly benefit new planning educators but should also be of interest to planning schools and practitioners around the globe who are endeavouring to facilitate students' education in preparation for graduate roles in a rapidly changing and complex world.

Acknowledgement
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“Just like real-life!” Collaborative planning, experiential learning and a class consultancy

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Abstract: *Increasingly, collaborative governance models are employed in environmental planning practice as regulation is seen to fail to deliver public environmental goals. This form of engagement marks a point of difference with previous regulatory focused management practice and requires new sets of skills for planners. At the same time, learning-by-doing, or ‘authentic learning’ is widely recognised as the most effective way to learn. The real-life experience also provides opportunities for students to developing interpersonal relationships and group management skills necessary to undertake collaborative decision-making as they seek to achieve their project goals. The experience of contracting the fourth year planning class to a regional council to produce a resource management report for the council’s region is evaluated in terms of students developing understanding of environmental management, but also on interpersonal relationships and group dynamics. The research draws on reflective essays and tasks written by the students as part of their coursework over the four years this approach to teaching has been taken.*

Key words: *Authentic learning; experiential learning; collaboration; environmental management*

Introduction

Increasingly, collaborative governance models are promoted in environmental planning practice as regulation is seen to fail to deliver public environmental goals. In New Zealand it was most clearly articulated in government’s recent attempts to formulate national level water management policy through the Land and Water Forum, a group of water sector industry and NGO stakeholders (Land and Water Forum, 2012), and most recently, the still to be enacted amendments to the Resource Management Act which establish a fast-track statutory policy preparation process where a community collaborative approach is used (Ministry for the Environment, 2013). Other regional level models have also been applied, for example, the Manawatu River Leaders’ Forum and Canterbury’s Water Zones. Collaborative governance has not been without its critics, (e.g. Bäckstrand, Khan, Kronsell, & Lövbrand, 2010), where it has been seen to privilege particular interests and to be ineffective in delivering durable outcomes.

Consultation is now accepted and widely implemented as part of planning. But the toolbox of consultation techniques is not sufficient to address collaboration as the conditions, expectations and power configurations are quite different. At its simplest, consultation requires active listening and inclusion, engagement with communities and stakeholders, facilitation skills. In New Zealand, at least, regulatory mechanisms under the Resource Management Act, together with case law have established the nature, scope and effect of consultation. Although the regulatory authority is open to new ideas and information, ultimately it decides what consultation material is kept or discarded. In comparison, collaborative engagement is a voluntary process from which participants can walk away and where power is shared to achieve possibly quite different stakeholder goals simultaneously. Facilitators or sponsors of collaborative processes therefore have authority without power, very different from regulatory approach to decision-making. It follows that participants need

new skills sets including managing interpersonal politics, relationship-building, negotiations without power to lead to an outcome acceptable to all participants within a broader institutional framework. In a dynamic and uncharted context situational rather than formal leadership is particularly important. Such skills are captured in popular literature around the concept of emotional intelligence (e.g. Goleman, 1995).

The new challenge for tertiary planning teaching is therefore two-fold: how to present collaborative planning as a concept, and to equip students with some of the tools to undertake and understanding of the complexities of collaborative processes. At risk of dramatic over-simplification, regulation is easy to teach to students: lecturers can critique theory, analyse legislation, discuss case law, and analyse case studies, all in the knowledge that the coercive power of the state ensures that planners and their masters' wishes will be implemented. The planning students' world is black and white, at least on the page. Of course, the inside of von Bismarck's 'legal sausage factory'[5] is much more complicated with political trade-offs, log-rolling and pork-barrels, but these remain out of sight and largely outside the planner domain.

The failure of conventional teaching

The challenge to teach new strategies and thinking about collaborative politics and planning also chimes with dissatisfaction with conventional university lecturing. My discussions with students and colleagues underline the ennui both experience from a succession of PowerPoint® presentations that form the stock in trade of their lectures. Their linearity condemns teacher and student to a predetermined trajectory. As well, the presentations are often extremely well crafted, comprehensive in content and presentation, but sometimes the most effective learning comes when the presenter's ambiguity and vagueness forces students to have to work out what the presenter meant! At the same time, there is widespread recognition in the pedagogic literature, colleagues' anecdotes and my own experience to confirm that conventional lectures are not effective ways to learn.

Strategically, teaching built on PowerPoint shows and conventional talking-head lectures expose universities to very direct competition from the emerging online course competition: the exponential growth of MOOC (massive open online courses) availability and scope from leading universities challenge traditional approaches to education (Bradshaw, 2014). Arguably, MOOCs can encapsulate the worst of modern lecturing: disconnected lecturers streamed over the Internet to students as talking heads talking to PowerPoint stacks. The planning discipline is perhaps less exposed in this regard, having already a strong tradition of studio teaching and charrettes. Never-the-less, MOOCs challenge lecturers to consider how best they can add value to the students' pedagogical experience.

One solution that both addresses MOOCs head on and also increases student learning opportunities is 'flipped learning' (Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013) where lecturers engage more interactively with students and the class-room experience is integral to the learning experience. This interactive engagement also allows for a more student-centred learning experience. In particular, learning-by-doing, often called 'authentic' or

[5] "There are two things you don't want to see being made – sausages and legislation" attributed but unverified to Otto von Bismarck.

‘experiential’ learning, is widely recognised as a very effective way to learn. It is contrasted to ‘academic’ learning which remains cerebral in form by is very visceral way of learning with hands-on learning reinforced with sensory and emotional stimuli. At its most basic, telling small children not to play with candles is not as effective and often disregarded; the sting they receive from molten wax when they do! For authentic learning to be successful, Reeves et al (2002) suggest ten criteria that collectively challenge students that expose them to the immediacy of the real-world, where the process and outcome are uncertain, but where the experience is reflected upon to learn from(Table 1). Harvard case methods meet many of these criteria, though not reflection. However, the real-world imperatives of a live client create student uncertainty, incentives for completion, and reflection to consolidate learning based on real-life experience.

Table 1: Authentic learning success criteria

1. **Real-world relevance**: Authentic activities match the real-world tasks of professionals in practice as nearly as possible. Learning rises to the level of authenticity when it asks students to work actively with abstract concepts, facts, and formulae inside a realistic— and highly social—context mimicking “the ordinary practices of the [disciplinary] culture.”
2. **Ill-defined problem**: Challenges cannot be solved easily by the application of an existing algorithm; instead, authentic activities are relatively undefined and open to multiple interpretations, requiring students to identify for themselves the tasks and subtasks needed to complete the major task.
3. **Sustained investigation**: Problems cannot be solved in a matter of minutes or even hours. Instead, authentic activities comprise complex tasks to be investigated by students over a sustained period of time, requiring significant investment of time and intellectual resources.
4. **Multiple sources and perspectives**: Learners are not given a list of resources. Authentic activities provide the opportunity for students to examine the task from a variety of theoretical and practical perspectives, using a variety of resources, and require students to distinguish relevant from irrelevant information in the process.
5. **Collaboration**: Success is not achievable by an individual learner working alone. Authentic activities make collaboration integral to the task, both within the course and in the real world.
6. **Reflection** (metacognition): Authentic activities enable learners to make choices and reflect on their learning, both individually and as a team or community.
7. **Interdisciplinary perspective**: Relevance is not confined to a single domain or subject matter specialization. Instead, authentic activities have consequences that extend beyond a particular discipline, encouraging students to adopt diverse roles and think in interdisciplinary terms.
8. **Integrated assessment**: Assessment is not merely summative in authentic activities but is woven seamlessly into the major task in a manner that reflects real-world evaluation processes.
9. **Polished products**: Conclusions are not merely exercises or sub-steps in preparation for something else. Authentic activities culminate in the creation of a whole product, valuable in its own right.
10. **Multiple interpretations and outcomes**: Rather than yielding a single correct answer obtained by the application of rules and procedures, authentic activities allow for diverse interpretations and competing solutions.

Source: Reeves, et al (2002).

Class teaching experiment in authentic learning

Following increasing dissatisfaction in the efficacy of my own lecturing, I set out to develop a fourth year Honours planning paper in natural resource planning that would challenge the students, while both delivering content and insights into their own performance. I particularly wanted the students to both experience collaborative governance and learn strategies for managing the interpersonal challenges it throws up. These experiences and learning would complement lectures across a semester, with one hour of lectures and two of workshops and classwork each week. Critical elements identified were to facilitate students:

- Working in a collaborative environment
- Taking individual and collective responsibility for work
- Developing time management
- Developing situational leadership

Together with my late colleague and mentor, Dr Mike Bebb, Centre for Vision and Leadership, Palmerston North, I designed a new course that sought to develop these skills, while building on environmental policy knowledge introduced in the third year.

At its simplest, and as explained to the students, I contract the class as a whole as a consultancy to a New Zealand regional council, responsible for natural resource management in New Zealand, to deliver a report on a natural resource management topic that the council wants researched. The class is given in the first lecture a memorandum of understanding signed by myself and the council second tier policy director setting out the report requirements – and which absolves the university from all liability. The class is required only to provide a video presentation to the client and the final written report in the last week of semester. How the class organises itself to deliver the report is the students' responsibility. I describe myself as a facilitator, responsible for organising contact with the regional council and available to comment as requested on direction and suggesting resources they might find useful. Key to the success of the authentic learning experience is the 'real-life' client, who expects a real-life piece of work. I ask second tier policy managers to play the role and then seek to manage their expectations. I explain that the students are fourth year students so that the quality of work is not going to be of a professional consultancy standard. Without exception, they have been supportive. However, due to the distance, the students are confined to desk-top analysis, complemented by telephone or video interviews.

Importantly, the scope of the topic and the size of the work to be undertaken are far too large for any individual or even class group to complete by themselves. The work has to be divided, usually by natural resource theme. They have to divide out content among the class to cover the project scope. They also have to find a way to synthesis this work and deliver it as a single presentation and final report. Consequently, the project is a major exercise in group dynamics, requiring leadership, trust and delegation. No individual will be able to score well purely on their own academic work at the expense of the collective.

Many students across several disciplines have expressed to me their deep dissatisfaction with group work. Invariably, individuals' contributions are uneven in quality and effort, but aggregate marking methods drag excellent students' grades down and inflate poor students ones as they coat-tail on the efforts of others. A grading system based on students each allocating a fixed number of points between group members, that when aggregated is used to weight group output grades was developed to counter this central tendency effect. Feedback has been uniformly positive from the students and the aggregate weightings also reflect the timesheets and extent of activities recorded. The students are individually required to provide me monthly timesheets. They are also required to maintain a log or diary and at the end of the course provide me a 2,000 word reflective essay on the consultancy experience. The timesheets are simply to provide the basis for arbitrating should disagreements over the group grading, but also to make the students aware of their workload and time management.

Students typically split up work among the class into self-formed groups, each responsible for researching and writing an appendix addressing a particular aspect of the client's MoU. I also organise for the students to conduct telephone or video conference calls with the client some three weeks out and, where appropriate, further meeting with third-tier managers. The intention here is partly to expose the students to new ways of communicating across distance. However, the success of these calls depend partially on the client's internet facilities; most use skype or telephone calls, but there have been very effective video conferences over the KAREN high-speed Internet network.

Behind my façade of disengagement I run a series of workshops, guides and suggestions how to get through and learn from the students' experiences. The object is to provide tools for the students to succeed and a safety net for individuals' failed experiments in the group. At the end of the semester as well as grading the final report and its constituent parts, I write a summary report on the class report. As well, I draw on the individual reflective essays, largely using the students own words, but in a way to ensure anonymity, to prepare a summary report of the key student learnings. Both are distributed to the class.

Setting expectations and decision-making

I spend significant effort in the first two to three weeks encouraging the class to develop a set of class expectations, both for the class outcome, and how the class operates to achieve this outcome. This exercise is initiated simply by writing up on the white board, firstly "This project will be successful when…" and on the completion of this set of criteria, "This group will be successful when…"

This exercise is far more difficult – and relevant – than the students realise at the time, but it provides not only a way of setting class rules, but also the real-life challenge of writing measurable, achievable objectives. The students particularly struggle to address how decisions are to be made absent authority or power and where anyone could exit the process. These are skills critical for operating in a collaborative environment. Inevitably, students would first propose voting to determine all decisions about the expectations and ask me to validate this and other ideas. I refuse to agree to anything, reflecting all decision-making back to the class. However, I do ask them to consider the consequences of their decisions and elaborate on these, only helping them identify choices and consider their

consequences. I also encouraged them to consider how they would deal with student performance that subsequently did not reflect their agreed expectations. I also introduce them to 'Round-robin' formats, suggesting that they might like to sit in a circle, rather than at their desks. Some classes adopted this technique as their preferred operating mode, setting out their room automatically at the start of each workshop. Others, notably those adopting the more hierarchical role defined ones, didn't.

Communication Styles Workshop

I use a communications profiling questionnaire developed by Mike Bebb that he had developed for his consultancy. This communication styles has five important concepts:

1. The four basic communication styles are: Feeler, Intuitor, Thinker, Sensor, that reflect individuals ways of processing information and acting on it
2. Everyone uses a blend of all four styles
3. In general, people operate in one style most of the time. Each person also has a backup style, which is the next most often used style. Communicating styles are shown in behaviour. Therefore individuals can observe how others behave in order to identify their primary and backup styles
4. People are most receptive to a style that is similar to their own primary and back-up styles
5. Individuals can temporarily adopt or modify their own primary style to match that of another person.

Most human resource consultancies have their own, similar, psychological profiling questionnaires, the most widely known is the Myers-Briggs profiling. The intention of this workshop was firstly to get students to realise that not everyone else thinks, responds or is motivated the same way as them. The second is not to enable them to profile everyone they work with subsequently, but for students to realise that everyone is different and they need to treat people they work with as individuals with different world views.

Situational leadership

I want to develop the students' situational leadership skills and draw heavily on my own experiences as a participant at a senior managers' development course. Whereas most groups allocate formal roles, of chairperson, scribe and rapporteur when undertaking group work, I encourage 'creative anarchism', where no formal roles are assigned (table 1). Rather, everyone is expected to undertake the different roles on an as needs basis, increasing commitment and participation. This approach also empowers less vocal and assertive students, while demanding students have the opportunity to test themselves and seek to influence the group's direction.

Table 2: Individual responsibilities within group

Traditional formalised roles approach	Creative anarchist approach
• Roles are set, normally to individuals' strengths • Clear accountability • No understanding of the different parts of the project • No individual ownership beyond individuals' commitments • Partitioned responsibility for project	• No set roles • Clear 'a priori' rules and expectations for group's behaviour • Each member takes responsibility for the group's progress • Information sharing to achieve understanding of whole project • Shared ownership of the whole project

Source: adapted from a student's reflective practitioner essay (2012).

Most classes also have acknowledged student leaders to whom the others look to for guidance. I challenged these leaders to experiment with alternative leadership styles to their usual lead out front approach. I pointed out that leaders 'out front' are natural targets to naysayers and critics, while this leadership style discourages the rest of the group from taking individual responsibility for the group outcomes. We discussed alternative 'leading from behind' strategies that they could try and most took up the challenge.

The students were introduced to various facilitation and conflict management skills to resolve class problems and tensions as and when these seemed necessary or appropriate. As well, I introduce the students to different collaborative management approaches through examining recent resource management examples, such as the Manawatu Leaders Forum. I have also been fortunate to have a colleague who is a country representative on an IPCC working panel to give a guest lecture on his experiences negotiating final texts in this international forum, to provide examples that the students can consider their own experiences.

The class consultancy

The class consultancy has been run for the last four years and every year has been different, reflecting different competencies, attitudes and internal relationships within each class. The regional council have always been prepared to participate, though senior staff dinner in their relationships, ranging from the almost overly helpful to the uncomfortably blunt. As well, the students have learnt from their previous cohort; developing, they say, strategies to avoid the pitfalls of previous classes.

Importantly, the students were able to produce a report and present it to the client on time. Every year, the students have produced a serviceable report. In order to make their reports the students have had to investigate, learn and assimilate knowledge about a region's physical environment and management issues and the institutions responsible for managing that environment. They also critique the efficacy of these institutions. Accordingly, its contents provide an indication of the course content learnt by the students and their ability to synthesise information to present it in a coherent form.

The reflective essays at the end of the course are often very personal, frank and honest. They suggest real learning about interacting with others, and about themselves. Some are

able more to connect what they have learnt about being a planner and also their reflections on the efficacy of and barriers to collaborative planning:

> It gave me the opportunity to experience 'public meetings' so to speak, as a frustrated stakeholder who feels uncomfortable about letting their opinions known. I understand how it would feel to be a member of a community where a big project is planned… I no longer have the attitude of 'the planner is right' as… all stakeholders need to have a safe environment where their opinions can be voiced and taken seriously (2012)[6].

The shock and real bewilderment felt by the students was palpable in the first two years who were for the first time collectively cut loose to be masters of their own destinies and with a real-life client. My introduction was met with stunned silence, followed by a sudden eruption of voices as soon as I left the room, though this was attenuated subsequently as the class report entered into the planning student folklore. Early classes spent far too much time on the project to the detriment of other course work. This has been addressed by emphasising the consultancy nature of the project, that time has value, in this case in grade points.

The essays show students respond positively to uncertainty and are capable and indeed should be given more responsibility for their learning and conduct:

> It didn't follow the normal routine of the average University paper whereby the content is structured and guidance is always given. However, I believe that this change in lecture dynamics proved to be extremely thought provoking, and a more realistic insight into what a consultancy job in reality would consist of (2013).

And

> Initially students were perplexed with having complete power over the project and the first few class meetings seemed awkward with students hesitant to make any meaningful decisions. However as time progressed the class stepped into a routine there was a realization amongst students that decisions were not going to be made at a higher level (2013).

The value of experiential learning was recognised:

> Most group work [in other courses] is focussed solely on the product rather than the process. This results in issues not being learnt from, and group members being doomed to relive the same mistakes. This exercise has focussed on the process, reflecting on lessons and providing ourselves with solutions to issues (2014)

and:

> Our biggest success was not finishing the report, but learning to work together with differing individuals and meeting challenges head on rather than complaining about them (2012).

In the process, students stepped outside their comfort zones, and in various situations exceeded their own expectations – and successfully faced their own fears. One discovered that:

[6] Student statements are drawn from the Reflective Essay Reports I prepare and distribute to the students each year.

> It was through making mistakes that I developed the most skills… In terms of group dynamics, the biggest mistake I made was doing nothing at all… when I finally found the courage to suggest that there was a problem, I learnt a lot about how to work effectively in a group and how I, as an individual, work within collectives (2012).

The students also learnt the value of group as opposed to individual work, and its necessity to achieve big objectives

> The benefit of group work is that one person's idea can trigger another in someone else, developing it from a single idea, to a well-balanced argument. Class and group discussions were both very good at this. Individually we see problems from different angles, but when we voice these, connections grow between these ideas, closing any gaps. This also helped us to comprehend a wider understanding on the complexities of natural resource management. It was also a way to grow knowledge quickly, as each person has done their own research, and knows different information on a topic (2011).

One student grasped that group work is about achieving a collective goal shared by the entire group:

> It's not a competition… When the individual appendices were produced, it was clear that two groups had stronger writers. However, the project was a group project, and not a competition among the groups. Therefore if some pieces of work were lacking, it was going to reflect on the class as a whole (2011).

Much of the real learning, evidenced in their reflective essays, is retrospective. Students' common plaint is that they realised, too late, that they should have taken more chances and risks to apply situational leadership. The students were confronted first and foremost with themselves and their own sense of responsibility, though responses varied. For example, at least one student was still waiting for someone else to show initiative:

> There was no meaningful attempt made to ensure that all groups contributed to the discussion (2011).

On the other hand, many students learnt experientially, post facto, underlining the value of reflection:

> In the future I will have to make a conscious effort to make sure that I speak my opinions and not be so reserved (2011).

And:

> A common theme throughout this essay is that the majority of lessons learnt have been in hindsight, and I haven't realised how important they are until I've reflected on them (2014).

As well, they also learnt from each other's experience:

> The most prominent experience I will take away from this exercise is observing a particularly quiet member of the group presenting the final report to the Dunedin [sic] Council. I witnessed the support and understanding she received and realised how valuable it was to her confidence. I am now 'kicking myself' for not doing the same thing. In the future I will strive to jump at this sort of opportunity (2014).

Similarly, the expectations and communication styles workshops were quite often dismissed at the time by some students as a tedious waste of time, only to have their value recognised

towards the semester end. Communication came out as a dominant learning in all the reflections – the inability to communicate, who participated and who didn't, and why. The communication styles workshop was seen by everyone as a constructive way to think about how better to communicate and interact with others. Students noted that the communication styles activity was very useful, helping them understand the dynamics within the group and class, but also how they interact with others and become better team players. Many chose to apply these learnings in their class and group interactions, often quite purposefully. One student noted that:

> Admittedly, at the time I did not consider the usefulness of this activity. However, in hindsight, it was useful to help me understand my own style of communication (2012).

And:

> The lecture on discovering what type of person we are at the time seemed pointless and stupid although it was interesting to find out about my "feeler" personality characteristic, stuck with me throughout the semester. Every time a group meeting was held, my 'feeler' intuition rapidly changed to a 'sensor, do it now' intuition. Processes were taking far too long to decide upon and my stressed self became evident. I just wanted to get on with the task. This lecture made me learn a lot about myself and how I go about doing things (2013).

Classes and groups where the expectations were clearly articulated found them very useful at crisis moments, often after seemingly intractable problems arose. In particular, decision-making is always fraught, as different ideas on how things are to be done emerge and are contested. All classes did not always adopt the 'creative anarchists' approach, but it was always provocative:

> As the weeks progressed, we began to discuss the collaboration aspect of interacting and working as a class. The class meetings discussed how we could achieve consensus in small groups. Alarm bells start ringing in my head as soon as I hear the words 'vote' or 'majority'. However, for the remainder of the classes we sat in a circle and discussed things in a roundtable discussion, with a project manager to facilitate everyone having a say. I thrived in this type of environment, and was able to voice one of the burning concerns I had…
>
> [Later] some class members are becoming quite cynical about the circle process in coming to decisions. They want to replace or supplement it with a chairman and voting. However alarm bells are still ringing, and I was glad to hear that it was not just me that felt this way, and the collaborative circle prevailed as our class meeting format (2013).

Another noted:

> We soon realised that a voting systems to finalise ideas was not working as the quieter people in the class did not have to courage to stand up to the stronger opinionated members. From this realisation, a circle deciding system was adopted where everyone got to express their own views. I feel this process worked very well as it made the time for all voices in the class although it became very time consuming. We also adopted a one person speaks at a time policy controlled by the chairperson which stopped most of the arguments that could have escalated and people got a change to be heard (2013).

Inclusive decision-making was seen as important for gaining 'buy-in' for decisions:

> It is interesting to think that if the decisions were not decided collectively and we didn't have a choice, we may have felt very differently about the outcomes. However, coming to the decision about the report collaboratively and weighing up all potential options, it made the process felt like we were making the best possible decision, even if we had ended up with the exact same outcomes anyway. In this way, the process is just as important as the final outcome (2013)

Not everyone was happy with the circle:

> I disagreed with the circle method due to it not reflecting a real world working place situation, so I felt it was not realistic. In a real workplace I felt that to voice opinions people would make their case but people in charge of departments would have overall rulings on important decisions (2013).

Leadership was a challenge, but many rose to it and in the process came to the realisation that

> …becoming a good leader doesn't necessarily mean having strong leadership traits at all times, but rather knowing when to use these leadership skills in the right situations (2013).

The class leaders challenged to lead from behind were almost always relieved and emancipated by the experience. Several noted that their logs consisted of a few lines each day at the start of the semester, but that these were naturally expanding to fill a page of notes by semester end. They also found it effective:

> Discussing the idea with Jeff and actually implementing this new challenge proved to be two different kettles of fish. I first encountered opposition from my group who felt I was withholding my skills from them by deigning to lead from the front. But I really felt that over the course of semester, my stepping back from being an obvious figurehead achieved results to a better quality than had I dictated the direction of the group… I am also proud of the way I influenced and empowered others to step up to the plate (student essay, 2013).

Some lessons were very much of the 'hard knocks' variety that concerned me at the time, but which subsequently proved valuable. Almost every year students assured me and each other that the project was progressing well, only to blow up around week seven, as reality became too hard to ignore. This 'moment of honesty' appears every time to have been a liberating point, as students realistically faced the reality of their situation. The least impressive final report produced was by the one class in which the students made a pact to 'remain friends, whatever', while their reflective essays indicate underlying and unresolved tensions.

One class had included an unsubstantiated (though possibly accurate) recommendation that was somewhat critical of the client's council, which it revealed in the video presentation. The somewhat prickly client immediately counter-attacked, seeking justification for this recommendation. The students' inability to do so concerned me, but subsequently I found that this incident proved a powerful lesson indelibly imprinted on each student on the need to substantiate everything! A second occurred in another video presentation, where the shyest class member, as a result of drawing lots, was appointed her group's presenter. I wondered

whether this was appropriate, as did several students in their essays. However, the student herself found it immensely empowering, and other students wrote that her courage made them regret they did not risk more and inspired them to also try more in the future. One student, at least, complained about my performance to the programme coordinator half way through a semester. Fortunately, the coordinator supported me, and following a class 'melt-down' the next day that resolved all relationship matters roiling around in the class, the student came to me the next day and simply said 'I get it now!'

The value of collaborative planning

Students made varying connections between their own experiences collaborating to deliver a final report and the concept of collaborative planning. One student didn't, writing that this paper aimed to create an environment that was *like* a real world situation (2012). Their views on collaborative planning were given in class rather than in their essays. They reflect that collaboration is challenging and time consuming. Many, while remaining supportive of the concept, were sceptical of the ability for planners to help facilitate collaborative processes that delivered durable outcomes. They noted that the class, at least, was reasonably homogenous and the individuals all had the same agreed objective, to pass the course. They noted that typically environmental issues are 'wicked' and the different stakeholders often hold divergent understanding of problems and solutions.

Discussion

The value of authentic learning appears to be validated through the quality and content of students' reflective essays and informal feedback. The reflective essays may be biased in their reporting: I am marking them and the possibility exists that they will write what I want to read, rather than the truth. This may occur, and some students adopt narrative rather than reflective approaches. However, I am mostly struck by the unvarnished observations that most students do make, suggesting that there is little holding back. It is also a process where students largely find it hard to 'fake' and individuals and the class are sometimes confronted with raw truth about their performance that they are mostly able to paper over in other classes. They have to take responsibility for their actions. I find the sometimes raw emotions somewhat unsettling. However, feedback from former students and in the reflective essays overwhelmingly indicates that these events are the ones that the students learn and grow the most from.

Informally, students tell me in the following semester that they found the EQ elements they learnt from the collaborative work as very beneficial, while graduands regularly ask me at graduation ceremonies whether I am continuing the consultancy and which region the class is consulting to. They tell me that they found the experience valuable in their subsequent careers as they are confronted with similar issues to those they faced in class, but without the safety net. As well, they are able to draw on their experiences and use the final report in job interviews to show their ability to work in teams and to learn from mistakes. This is an aspect of teaching value that would benefit from further research, perhaps through a survey of former students. Importantly, the feedback from all sources indicates students learn firstly about themselves and the capabilities, group dynamics and about collaborative governance

as a concept and tools to work collaboratively. The key is the ability to learn from hard lessons with a safety net.

At its simplest, the authentic learning teaching I undertake meets all the requirements set by Reeves et al (2002) set out in Table 1. It has real-world relevance, with a real-life client, the students face an ill-defined problem (in some cases it becomes apparent the clients are not sure quite what they want in parts of the MoU) requiring sustained investigation. The students need to find different sources of material and are often struggling with their own values and those of the client. Critically, they have to collaborate with each other to deliver an otherwise undeliverable product while they know they are expected to deliver a professional project report and presentation. The sentiments shared by many were captured by one student as 'this paper aimed to create an environment that was *like* a real world situation' [emphasis added]. However, the class *was* put in a real world situation – there was no pretend or simulation! The class had a real client, deadlines and resource limits and was populated with people who were required to deliver a collective result, but had personal ambitions, different personalities, and ways of working and different circumstances. The group assessment process is acknowledged as fair and has the very real and understood differential effect on individual grades reflecting effort. Finally, and possibly most important, the reflective essay requires ongoing reflection, or metacognition, during the semester and again at the end.

In practice, experiential learning is not for the faint-hearted! The lecturer has to be prepared to 'let go' and let the experiment play out over the semester, full of uncertainty and anxiety as to how the group dynamics develop, determining whether intervening is necessary, and if so, to what extent. The uncertainties of the client-university video technology interface only add to the stress. At the start, my tendency was to provide very little guidance, but I have now accumulated experience to know where critical junctures lie. The dilemma now is whether to intervene to help avoid the 'wrong' choice, or to let the experiential learning run its course, so that the students learn very clearly not to make the decision the same way in the future. I try to seek a middle road, only suggesting choices and their outcomes, leaving the final decision to the students. I draw extensively on my previous management training courses and professional mentoring experiences before entering academia, and as a manager of a planning and policy department where I faced the politics of the personal on a daily basis. Consequently, this approach may well be difficult to replicate, especially by instructors without managerial experience to draw on to guide them through.

Whether this approach is any better to use than conventional lecturing can be debated. Lecturing focuses on 'academic learning' that by necessity delivers factual and theoretical material at an abstract level. The 'experiential learning' context, and the necessity for students to listen to each other to ensure that each subgroup picks up on the important concepts of the other groups provides both content learning and social learning. For a university, the primary learning outcomes have always focused on discipline content; of theory, expository material to flesh these out and analytic skills. Experiential learning widens the learning objectives to include developing group and personal relationship skills within the context of learning these primary learning outcomes. Arguably, these learnings are at least as important for graduates: theories are developed, modified and discarded, but social interactions are a fundamental part of the human condition.

It is also debatable whether some techniques should be introduced earlier in the degree course. The fourth year students tell me that they wish that they were given the communication styles workshop earlier in their studies as they found it helped group work dynamics. I am less certain; I had run a simplified version in my third year class earlier in my career, but found little uptake. Indeed, some fourth year students consider the workshop pointless when I introduce it. Its value is only appreciated when it is applied where interpersonal relations cannot be avoided. Rather, the contrast between third and fourth year group work is a meta-level experiential learning event for the students who are able to compare the two different experiences.

The success of the consultancy depends on willingness in the first instance of the regional council staff to participate. So far, they have all been happy to participate, seeing engagement as a means for advancing regional council credibility, the possibility of gaining some work for little effort, and sometimes awareness of the graduate planner market. Without council participation, the vital 'real-world' element is removed from the experience that I think would devalue it considerably. Success also depends on the interaction between the students, as they experiment in engaging with each other collaboratively. Accordingly, it is hard to see how this approach could be translated to distance teaching; rather it emphasises classroom over MOOC. Indeed, my own recent experience with a professional institute telephone conference call where apparently 20 people were connected, of which about six contributed, provided a 'real-life' example of the need for personal engagement.

Conclusion

The authentic learning experience provided has proven to be valued, often in retrospect, judging by feedback from former students. Its value is that it provides students with new skill sets and first-hand experience of collaborative interaction that is now being promoted by regulators, while also delivering conventional academic subject content. At the meta-level there are clear indications that the students have absorbed through practice many of the perquisites for successful collaborative management, critically the difficulty in achieving agreement in the absence of coercive power in order to obtain a mutually satisfactory outcome. At the least, any naïve acceptance of such approaches is disabused.

While authentic places new stresses and experiences on the students, it also stresses the instructor as unlike favoured PowerPoint presentation lecture courses, there is little certainty and new and unscripted interventions make each semester very different. Its success requires considerable confidence on the part of the lecturer, and the ability to draw on a wide range of interpersonal and management techniques that are not necessarily gained from a conventional academic career. For these reasons, the approach outline outlined here, while valuable to students, and needs to be carefully considered before being embarked upon. Nevertheless, authentic learning, as described here, or otherwise developed may be an important step in developing relevant, flipped learning that provides valuable pedagogical experiences not available via mass-disseminated distance education methods.

The teaching approach appears to provide a very effective and visceral way to introduce and learn about collaborative governance and planning as means to set and implement environmental policy. The students' appreciation is possibly pessimistic, but, this may be an

accurate assessment, given the limited outcomes resulting from New Zealand collaborative planning approaches to date.

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Studio Teaching in Australian Planning Curriculum

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Abstract: *Planning studio pedagogy has long been a part of planning education and has recently re-emerged as a topic of investigation. Scholarship has: 1) critically examined the fluctuating popularity of studio teaching and the changing role of studio teaching in contemporary planning curricula in the USA and New Zealand; 2) challenged conceptualizations of the traditional studio and considered how emerging strategies for blended and online learning, and 'real world engagement' are producing new modes of studio delivery; 3) considered the benefits and outcomes of studio teaching; and 4) provided recommendations for teaching practice by critically analysing studio experiences in different contexts (Aitken-Rose & Dixon, 2009; Balassiano, 2011; Balassiano & West, 2012; Balsas, 2012; Dandekar, 2009; Heumann & Wetmore, 1984; Higgins, Thomas & Hollander, 2010; Lang, 1983; Long, 2012; Németh & Long, 2012; Winkler, 2013). Twenty-three universities in Australia offer accredited planning degrees, yet data about the use of studio teaching in planning programs are limited. How, when and why are studio pedagogies used? If it is not a part of the curriculum – why?, and has this had any impact on student outcomes? What are the opportunities and limitations of new models of studio teaching for student, academic, professional and institutional outcomes? This paper presents early ideas from a QUT seed grant on the use of studio teaching in Australian planning education to gain a better understanding of the different roles of studio teaching in planning curricula at a National level and opportunities and challenges for this pedagogical mode in the face of dilemmas facing planning education.*

Keywords: *Studio, Planning Education, Curriculum, Problem-Based Learning*

Introduction

The use of studio teaching in planning education dates back to at least the early 1900s in the USA (Heumann and Wetmore, 1984) and has historically developed as part of planning education in Australia and New Zealand (Higgins et al., 2009). Despite this history, the role of studio teaching in planning curricula has waxed and waned as the university pendulum has swung between different pedagogical objectives and institutional constraints (Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Bosman et al., 2011, Higgins et al., 2009). International reviews of planning education in the USA and New Zealand have sought to understand the impacts of these swings in studio use on planning practice, on student outcomes, on teachers and administration (Aitken-Rose & Dixon, 2009, Balassiano, 2011, Balassiano & West, 2012, Balsas, 2012, Dandekar, 2009, Heumann & Wetmore, 1984, Higgins, Thomas & Hollander, 2010, Lang, 1983, Long, 2012, Németh & Long, 2012, Winkler, 2013). Australian scholarship has also considered studio pedagogy and the first year experience (Bosman et al., 2012), experiential learning (Coiacetto, 2008, Rosier et al., 2012) and the changing higher education sector (Bosman et al., 2011) but there has been no research examining the extent of studio use in Australian planning curricula.

This paper presents early ideas from a project seeking to explore how 'studios' have been adapted into planning curricula in Australia. The project will investigate: 1) the different conceptualisations, uses and rationales behind studio teaching at a National level leading to a typology of planning programs based on their use of studio; and 2) an assessment of

opportunities and challenges associated with the different modes in the face of constraints and challenges confronting students, professional practice, academic staff and universities. Data will be collected from program outlines and curriculum coordinators. This will inform the typology, including whether studio use in planning curricula can indeed be typified, and it will inform a synthetic assessment about the impacts of different models of studio use based on Australian experience.

Herein, we report on the first stage of this project. This paper begins with a review of definitions of 'studio' founded on key principles from the literature. Using a case study in South East Queensland, we then describe three different planning programs including how studio teaching models in each map against the key principles from the studio definition. This is followed by a discussion of the emerging ideas for the typology. We present this as our starting point to analyse studio use in planning programs throughout Queensland and Australia.

The planning studio

In design-focussed degrees such as planning, architecture, design and art and increasingly in other fields such as education, industrial design, ergonomics, computer science and information systems, studios are considered critical to achieving good learning outcomes (Bradbeer, 2006, Brandt et al., 2013, Burroughs et al., 2009, Gestwicki and Ahmad, 2011, Hoellwarth et al., 2005, Jabi et al., 2008, Lynch et al., 2002, Moody, 2011). In planning, studios are considered a unique and valuable learning and teaching method to equip planners with important skills (e.g. project management and leadership skills) and to deal with complex wicked problems.

Historical Development

The role of studios in planning programs – whilst differing from place to place, program to program, has on the whole followed a particular trend. Studios once held a greater place in planning curricula than they do today. Originally, studios were design-focused and drew heavily on techniques used in architecture studios (Balsas, 2012) but in the 1960s and 1970s this began to change as planning increased its association with social sciences and human geography, and shifted away from architecture and design. This rejection of physical determinism and the postmodern and communicative turns in planning unsettled the rational planning model as planning's central paradigm (Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Higgins et al., 2009, Lang, 1983, Long, 2012). Because studios were seen as a tool for teaching physical design and vocational skills, it seemed a less relevant teaching mode (Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Higgins et al., 2009, Lang, 1983). More recently however, as universities started to emphasise the importance of practice-based and experiential learning, and as design regains some of its importance in planning programs, there has been a revival in the use of the studio. However, despite this renaissance, studios have by no means regained the position they once held (Long, 2012). There is some evidence to suggest that planning programs are more likely to incorporate studios if and where planning has emerged as an offshoot to, or is incorporated within, an architecture/design department, rather than if planning is situated within social sciences/geography, or environmental sciences (Bosman et al., 2012), but this is not always the case. The changes in the higher education sector and changing student characteristics appear to have also impacted on the uses of studio in planning curricula (Bosman et al., 2011, Tippett et al., 2011, Wallis et al., 2009).

Towards a definition of studio

There are a range of definitions of studios in the literature; sometimes studios are defined by teaching practices, at other times by their objectives, or the term may simply refer to the space itself. As expressed by Németh and Long (2012: 477), *"there is no common understanding of a studio as a distinct pedagogical practice in planning education, little in the way of common language to discuss or describe studio courses, and few shared experiences to aid in shaping teaching goals or orienting our students to this unique pedagogy"*. Rather than simply repeating the varying definitions here, we have instead synthesised the multiple definitions and objectives of studio in the literature into a set of studio 'principles' presented in Table 1. We note that this literature is diverse. It includes that which considers pedagogical theories behind studios, research which analyses studios themselves (e.g., their content, objectives, outcomes and methods) and that which explores the implementation and experience of studios from the perspective of staff, students, and clients and communities. Consequently by this definition we do not suggest that all principles need to be present for a unit to be considered a planning studio. We simply present Table 1 as a synthesis of definitional components from the literature and consider whether this is a suitable framework through which to assess and categorise studio teaching for the typology. The extent to which diverse studio teaching approaches in Australia meets these principles is also something that we hope to test in the later phases of this research.

Table 1: A definition of studio based on principles synthesised from the literature

PRINCIPLES	DESCRIPTION	SOURCES
Collaborative – team/group work is central	Planning studios typically consist of small groups of students working together on their project, for a good measure of the activities and assessment (architecture and design studios tend to include more individual work than planning studios). The importance of collaboration between students and between students and staff and peer-to-peer learning and support is also highlighted.	(Coiacetto, 2008, Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Moody, 2011, Németh and Long, 2012, Thomas and Hollander, 2010, Wallis et al., 2009, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000).
Project- and problem-based learning	Studio activities and assessment are usually project-based, with students working on single project, often in stages interspersed with feedback and assessment, over the course of the semester.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Burroughs et al., 2009, Coiacetto, 2008, Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Lang, 1983, Németh and Long, 2012, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000, Long, 2012).
Real-life components	The projects selected for studios are often placed in a 'real world' context, and students may work with a real world client or community. For example, the project might be a feasibility study on a lot; even if the client or brief is fabricated, the lot is a real place, and students need to explore and account for real world conditions, contexts, plans, regulations, etc. This real world experience is thought to help prepare students for the complexities and uncertainties of practice, and help them develop problem—solving skills. Furthermore, the final outputs of studio projects are often required to be akin to the products produced by professionals, adding another layer of 'reality' to the studio.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Coiacetto, 2008, Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Lynch et al., 2002, Németh and Long, 2012, Thomas and Hollander, 2010, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000, Long, 2012).
Formative and reflective learning	Formative learning is often critical in studios, and learning activities are designed with skill development and feedback in mind. Projects may be broken into stages, with each stage having an opportunity for formal assessment, and each stage feeding into the next. Architecture studios often incorporate 'juries', i.e. expert panels to give feedback on work; planning studios tend not have juries per se but often include some kind of assessed presentation to an audience. Studios, with high contact hours and much of the project work being done in class or outside class time but in the dedicated studio space (see below), also provides many opportunities for informal feedback from the teaching team and also from peers.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Burroughs et al., 2009, Gestwicki and Ahmad, 2011, Moody, 2011, Németh and Long, 2012, Long, 2012).
Synthesis	Studios can strategically relate to other courses in the program; they can give students the opportunity to integrate and synthesise materials and skills from other courses and apply them to their real world project. Studios also may be a means of	(Bosman et al., 2010, Coiacetto, 2008, Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, Lang, 1983, Lynch et al., 2002, Siddiqi, 2002, Thomas

	integrating theory and practice in planning education. The opportunity to synthesise and apply learning and skills from multiple courses is a particular feature of project-based learning and studios.	and Hollander, 2010, Tippett et al., 2011, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000).
Professional socialisation, community and identity	Studios are often cited as a means to help students begin to think of themselves as professionals, help them get accustomed to a professional working environment, and to help them develop some of the skills they'll need in professional practice (e.g. team work, leadership, project planning, management, budgeting and costing, working with real world clients/communities, responding to briefs, filling out timesheets, making mock invoices, presenting their work to clients, etc.). Studios are intense and demanding of students, and the time they spend together, in a dedicated space that may mimic professional work environments, is thought to help foster a sense of community and identity in the cohort, and in the School or Department. As such, studios can contribute to the development of, and facilitate the introduction to, departmental and professional cultures and communities. Further, a sense of community and identity is an important factor in retention, so arguably studios that achieve this may be improving the success of the whole program.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Heumann and Wetmore, 1984, McClean et al., 2013, Németh and Long, 2012, Thomas and Hollander, 2010, Tippett et al., 2011, Wallis et al., 2009).
Higher and more frequent contact hours compared to other courses	Studios typically have higher staff-contact hours than standard lecture/tutorial courses, with six to nine formal contact hours per week often being cited, sometimes up to twelve. However, students are often expected to do much of their work outside class hours in the studio itself (see below), leading to a high number of 'informal' contact hours as well. Can also involve double the credits per course compared to normal lecture/tutorial.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Balsas, 2012, Hoellwarth et al., 2005, Tamminga and De Ciantis, 2012, Cameron et al., 2010, Higgins et al., 2009).
Dedicated studio space	The literature identifies that ideally, studios should also have dedicated studio spaces, for two reasons. Firstly, the ideal studio space should have certain characteristics, including a flexible layout, flexible furniture as well as furniture suited for design and collaboration as necessary (e.g. comfortable chairs, tables that can be easily reconfigured), space to move around, no formal/raised teaching platform or lectern, so that the space is student-centred and teaching staff circulate through the room, and display walls or boards. These spatial characteristics are important for studios, but less so for other types of classes. Secondly, given the demands of the course it is important that students have access to a place where they can collaborate with their team and peers outside of formal contact hours, as well as store and display work. A dedicated space allows for this, and can facilitate inter-group collaborations, and peer	(Bosman et al., 2010, Brandt et al., 2013, Burroughs et al., 2009, Lynch et al., 2002, McClean et al., 2013, Moody, 2011, Németh and Long, 2012, Taylor, 2009, Hollander and Thomas, 2009, Schadewitz and Zamenopoulos, 2009).

	feedback and support across the entire planning student cohort. Ideally, it is thought that studios should be located proximate to staff offices, and have, or be close to, an informal space like a common room, in order to build community and identity across the program/department (see above). It has been noted that the studio space itself can encourage a more relaxed atmosphere, a more collaborative and conversational teaching style, and better communication between students and staff, even when non-studio style courses are conducted in them. Although there is increasing scholarship on the use of electronic and online platforms for studio teaching which is challenging the notion that studios need physical spaces, the issue of dedicated space (physical or other) is a consistent theme in the literature.	
Independent learning/Facilitation, rather than instruction	Given that studios are project-based and placed in a real world context, there tends to be no fixed or right answer for students to come up with. It is also impossible to comprehensively identify at the outset of the project exactly what kind of support and skill development students will need, as each project is different. Therefore teaching activities must be flexible and tailored to the needs of the student and the project itself. In studios, teachers do not deliver much formal content, although there may be a few lectures given here and there; rather, teaching staff are facilitators of a student-centred, independent learning process. Teaching staff are required to give a lot of feedback, and facilitate discussions, reflections, and independent learning. Because of this, studios can be challenging to teach but also very rewarding, and can revitalise teaching styles and build teaching skills that may be applicable in other modes.	(Bosman et al., 2010, Burroughs et al., 2009, Coiacetto, 2008, Lynch et al., 2002, Roakes and Norris-Tirrell, 2000, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000).

Methods

As mentioned above, this paper is a part of a larger seed project investigating the uses of studio teaching in Australian planning curricula. In this section we limit our description of methods to those involved in this first stage of the research. This included the following activities:

1. Review of the literature on studios to identify: a) definitions and characteristics of studios; b) existing frameworks for defining, analysing and assessing studios; and c) general trends, constraints and issues in studio teaching. The literature was primarily planning focussed but included key papers on studio pedagogy from architecture and design and papers from scholars in other disciplines who have recently incorporated or adapted studios into their programs. This gave an interesting perspective on the purported benefits of studios, as well as the difficulties of introducing them to disciplines where there is no studio tradition.
2. Identification of case studies in South East Queensland. Four programs were initially surveyed: Griffith University (GU), the University of Queensland (UQ), Queensland University of Technology (QUT) and the University of Southern Queensland (USQ). The latter was not progressed because it was not clear how the practice units related to urban planning and the Planning Institute of Australia (PIA) has not yet accredited this degree.
3. Review of studios in the three case studies. Each case was evaluated against the principles of studio leading to an emerging studio typology. This involved desktop research into the programs, knowledge from our participation in two of the three programs, and analysis of the literature on studios and planning education.
4. Discussion of factors to consider when examining benefits and constraints of studio in contemporary planning education from the literature.

Having presented some of the information to emerge from our literature review in section 1, we now describe our case studies and discuss the emerging typology.

Case Study – Planning Curricula in South East Queensland

Our case studies involve three universities in Brisbane, South East Queensland which each take a different approach to the use of studios in the planning program. The first case is the University of Queensland (UQ) - Queensland's oldest planning program and one of the oldest planning programs in Australia. UQ first introduced planning education in 1966 when the Department of Architecture offered a Diploma in Regional and Town Planning. In 1972 it commenced a Bachelor of Regional and Town Planning and a Masters of Urban and Regional Planning was introduced in the early 1980's. In this study, we have reviewed the Bachelor of Regional and Town Planning, reaccredited in 2010. The degree incorporates one or two studios depending on the course of study. According to the web site, these studios are worth 2 and 4 credit points respectively out of a maximum of 64 credit points for the degree. This means that students may do as little as 3 per cent up to a maximum of approximately 10 per cent of their degree in studio.

The second case is Queensland University of Technology (QUT) which has offered an undergraduate planning program, first labelled a Bachelor of Applied Science (Built

Environment), since 1973. The original program was the first tier of a six-year program in architecture offered by the Faculty of Built Environment before evolving into a Bachelor of Built Environment (Urban and Regional Planning) in the 1990s, and later becoming the Bachelor of Urban Development (Urban and Regional Planning). In this study, we have considered the Bachelor of Urban Development (Urban and Regional Planning) which was reaccredited in 2014 (but will be phased out by 2017) and the new AQF compliant Bachelor of Urban Development (Urban and Regional Planning) (Honours) which was also accredited in 2014. Both programs consist of eight practice units. The term studio is not used at QUT although 'practice units' meet the definition of a studio described above and thus we will call them studios. Each unit is worth 12 credit points and the bachelor's degrees comprise 384 units such that one quarter of the degree consists of studio-based teaching and learning. Practice units focus on real world problems as they apply to a specific site/location, starting with an introductory project-based unit in first year and culminating with a final urban planning practice project in fourth year.

Griffith University, as the third case, introduced its Bachelor of Urban and Environmental Planning at the Nathan (NA) Campus in 1995 and at the Gold Coast (GC) Campus in 2006. In this study we have considered the bachelor's degrees, which were re-accredited at Nathan in 2011 and accredited at the Gold Coast in 2011 but modified in 2013 to include a more extensive use of studio. Under the new program structure, effective from Semester 1 2014, students undertake eight studio courses (one each semester) on topics ranging from development processes, site planning, environmental planning and strategic planning. Each studio is focussed around a practical project. Studios at Griffith are also larger; they are worth 20 credit points which is equivalent to two standard courses of study. Because of their size and frequency, students spend half of their degree at Griffith University in studio.
Using these three cases, we present our emerging typology below.

Towards a typology of studio use in planning education

Although typologies have become increasingly popular in the scholarship of planning theory, problem contexts, and planning responses (Allmendinger, 2002, Cuthbert, 2008, Jabareen, 2006, Margerum, 2008, Talen, 1996, Yiftachel, 1989), their use in planning education is far less widespread. Typologies integrate multi-dimensional information (e.g., characteristics) with conceptual ideas to define similar 'types' of problems, situations, or entities to help with data collection and analysis (Bailey, 1994, Cuthbert). Although they can be hard to construct when many criteria are involved, drawing elements together to specify distinct groupings can help to contextualise research. Because the classifications in a typology tend to be relational, typology development is often iterative, involving conceptual development and empirical testing to formulate and reformulate the framework and rationale for the groupings (Bailey, 1994).

Our interest in developing a typology stems from an initial question about the degree of variation that exists across Australian planning programs based on the role that studio teaching plays in the curriculum. The standard elements of a studio consists of a collaborative, project- and problem-based learning, real-life components, formative and reflective learning, professional socialisation, contact hours, studio space, independent learning. How this is done of course varies. Our starting point to categorise programs are the studio principles presented earlier in Table 1.

Analyses of the case studies against the studio principles immediately highlights a number of similarities and differences in the way that studio pedagogy has been integrated into the planning curriculum at the three universities, as summarised in Table 2. The main differences in the programs relate to: the size and number of studio courses in the programs (ranging from one per semester to one every couple of years); the degree of teaching and synthesis undertaken in studio (e.g. one model includes more teaching in studio); and in the exclusivity of studio space for planning students (one program had collaboration space but this was not exclusive to planning students). Our assessment also highlighted differences in the way that problem and project based learning is applied across the programs. This reflects policy differences at the universities regarding the level of group and individual work (e.g., ranging from a maximum of 50% group work to 80% group work). Further, one program involved higher number of staff contact hours compared to the others. At Griffith each studio involves six staff-student contact hours per studio per week (twice a normal load). However as the credit point value of the Griffith model is also equivalent to two standard university courses, when the credit load is normalised, the staff contact hours equals that used in traditional units. What is interesting are the further three hours of un-supervised studio timetabled each week. It is unclear what impact the unsupervised studio has on student time-on-task or on independent learning and this requires further investigation.

Our review of the course profiles, and reflections on our own experience[7], uncovered no notable differences in collaboration, real life components, the use of formative and reflective thinking, or professionalization across programs. However, this could be better informed by empirical data as differences may be present across the different models in practice. Further while all studios appear to involve courses with elements of complexity and students independently working through problems, it is not clear whether or how they do this and this is another area to explore through empirical testing.

The other important information we found relates to the proportion of teaching and learning time spent in studio. The variation across the three universities is significant in this regard, ranging from as little as 3 per cent to as much as 50 per cent of planning education in studio. When this is considered together with some of the other characteristics of studio it starts to paint a different picture of the studio models in use. For example, when the proportionality of teaching in studio is considered, data about the extent of group based teaching and learning (or individual teaching and learning) becomes more meaningful. The proportion of studio teaching and learning across the degree is also significant for understanding the extent of the integrative and synthetic functions of studio (with studio extensive degrees presumably delivering more content in studio). All of the principles of studio we have previously identified (collaboration, project- and problem-based learning, real-life components, formative and reflective learning, professional socialisation, contact hours, studio space,

[7] As mentioned in the 'Methods' section, the authors have taught in planning programs in two of the three programs analysed here – specifically, at QUT and Griffith. Karen Vella is currently teaching a studio course at QUT, and Natalie Osborne has previously taught in first and second year studios at Griffith University and was involved in the recent review of the program structure. Severine Mayere is the Subject Area Coordinator for Urban and Regional Planning and Douglas Baker is the Property and Planning Discipline Leader at QUT. As such, we were able to base our analysis not only on publicly accessible documents but on our experiences working in these programs and as studio teachers.

independent learning) can be further analysed in the context of the different proportions of studio teaching. Of course, some courses not described as ‘studios’ in program outlines may be considered ‘studios’ by some definitions (Bosman et al., 2010) or have elements of studio teaching which complicates the picture.

Nevertheless, understanding the different patterns of studio teaching is an important part of contextualising our research. It will provide a framework to examine underlying factors which have led to studio teaching outcomes and to examine the positive and negative aspects of studio teaching at a range of levels (student, professional, teacher, university). In the following discussion we review the literature, the opportunities and limitations of studio teaching for students, and academic, professional and institutional outcomes.

Table 2 – Emerging typology assessment of the three programs against the studio principles (from Table 1)

Principles	**Criteria**	**Type 1** 50% Studio (Griffith)	**Type 2** 25% Studio (QUT)	**Type 3** <10% Studio (UQ)
Collaboration	Students work together in groups on a project	Yes (Ranges from 50/50 - 80/20 group/individual)	Yes (50/50 group/individual)	Yes (Ranges from 50/50 - 80/20 group/individual)
	Students work as individuals and collaborate with peers/teaching staff.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Problem and project based learning	Activities in the course/unit are problem based and focussed on a single project.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Real life components	The project base is based on a real world problem involving a client or community group.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Formative and reflective learning	Assessment tasks are broken up into progressive stages.	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Students work on assessment in class.	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Assessment involves multiple tasks including oral presentations.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Synthesis	Students synthesise theory and skills from other courses in the program and apply them to the real world problem in studio.	Limited synthesis (more teaching in studio) compared to other models.	Yes	Unsure
Professionalisation	Students gain experience in practical aspects of planning such as teamwork, leadership, project planning, management, budgeting and costing, working with real world clients/communities.	Yes	Yes	Yes
High contact hours	Students are in class for 6-8 contact hours per week.	Yes	No	No
	The credit value of studios is greater than lecture/tutorial courses	Yes	No	No
	A lot of work is necessary outside of class time but, in the studio.	Yes	No (Most effort is needed outside of class to complete assessment).	Unsure
Dedicated studio	Students have flexible collaboration	Yes	Yes	Yes

space	space.			
	Space is exclusive to planning students.	Yes	No	Yes
Facilitation and independent learning	Projects involve elements of complexity and there is no one right answer.	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Teaching staff facilitate students ‘working through’ problems towards solutions.	Yes	Yes	Yes

Discussion

Studio teaching is highly valued in an increasing number of disciplines and the opportunities it provides for planning is well acknowledged. Studios are a strategy for delivering experiential learning, which is thought to be very valuable, even critical for planning education (Bosman et al., 2013, Coiacetto, 2008). Because they are hands-on they encourage students to become "active and engaged", rather than passive learners (Bosman et al., 2010: 1). Studios give students experience with real world problems and with real world clients and groups (Bosman et al., 2010, Higgins et al., 2009), including 'wicked' problems (Balassiano, 2011, Long, 2012). Studios can also help build a sense of community among students (Bosman et al., 2010), and enculturate students in their professional discipline and build a professional identity (Brandt et al., 2013, Higgins et al., 2009). This approach is thought to foster confidence and resilience (Bosman et al., 2010) and be useful in developing generic skills such as problem solving, written, graphic and oral communication skills, teamwork, working with people of diverse backgrounds, time and project management, and critical thinking (Bosman et al., 2010, Coiacetto, 2008, Lynch et al., 2002, Higgins et al., 2009). They are also useful in developing discipline-specific knowledges and skills (Coiacetto, 2008, Lynch et al., 2002), may encourage 'deep learning' (Bradbeer, 2006: 123) and community-based studios in particular can offer cross-cultural learning and "learning that might embody personal responsibility, empathy, even wisdom" (Tamminga and De Ciantis, 2012: 126).

Despite this, there are a number of different studio models in use, and as our case studies demonstrate, there is a wide variation in the extent to which studio teaching is used in planning curricula. There are a range of constraints limiting the inclusion and extent of studios in planning programs. First, studios are very resource-intensive (Tippett et al., 2011, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000, Higgins et al., 2009), and they require a great deal of investment of time and effort by staff and investment in specific facilities - all in the context of rising student numbers and declining funding. Studios require a high degree of commitment from staff (Lynch et al., 2002), as they demand not only large blocks of time during semester but also have a long lead time (Henry et al., 2011, Minnery, 2000, Roakes and Norris-Tirrell, 2000, Tamminga and De Ciantis, 2012), require staff to spend quite a lot of time finding suitable projects (Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000), and often require staff to establish and maintain meaningful relationships with real-world communities and/or practitioners (Henry et al., 2011, Roakes and Norris-Tirrell, 2000, Tamminga and De Ciantis, 2012, Winkler, 2013). Studios tend to differ each time they are run, with new projects being used or the context of a previously used project changing, and with each cohort being different, which limits the extent to which staff can rely on materials and activities from previous years. However, academic staff are also facing increasing demands on their time; increasing emphasis is being placed on research productivity, and staff may well find the need to simplify their teaching practices in order to leave more time for research (Higgins et al., 2009). Heumann and Wetmore, as early as 1984, were arguing that as faculty became more research-focused rather than practitioner-focused, there would be fewer staff with the experience and the time needed to run studios (Heumann and Wetmore, 1984). Increasingly, more teaching is being done by people employed as casuals (Bosman et al., 2011), however this also presents problems for studio education, as studios can be difficult courses for casual staff to teach. Even when a permanent member of staff is coordinating and convening the course, there is rarely funding for tutors to be involved in the long planning phases of studios, and often only limited funding for staff meetings, which are essential when working on real-world projects without predetermined answers to ensure responsiveness, coherence, coordination and consistency across the teaching team. Permanency and stability of

staff is also important in establishing ongoing relationships with clients and community groups, which will be discussed in a later section.

Studios are space intensive. As outlined above, an important component of studios is a dedicated, flexible space, often with particular furnishings and facilities. A dedicated studio space for the exclusive use of studio students is something many Schools may find increasingly difficult, even impossible, to maintain given increasing pressure on space and infrastructure at universities in the wake of increased numbers and funding cuts (Mangden and Dassah, 2012, Wallis et al., 2009). Indeed, investment in infrastructure has been in decline (Bosman et al., 2011), placing more pressure on existing facilities and spaces.

Exacerbating the issue of resource intensity in studios is that in recent years class sizes across the Australian university sector have increased, however, faculty numbers have not increased at the same rate, and in many universities the staff/student ratio has increased (Bosman et al., 2011). This makes the delivery of studios more difficult because studios require that individual groups and individual students receive tailored feedback and support at frequent and regular intervals. Delivering the studio experience becomes increasingly difficult as class sizes and staff/student ratios increase, and in some institutions this has created pressure to move back to more traditional modes (Bosman et al., 2011). Whilst decreasing student/staff ratios may make studio teaching more feasible, if this occurred due to decreased enrolments in a particular planning degree it may become difficult to justify the need for a dedicated studio space, or for course convenors to access funding for tutors to adequately staff studios.

Second, studios demand a lot from students (Minnery, 2000, Bradbeer, 2006). Due to the cost of studies and the cost of living, and with fewer students receiving and/or relying solely on Youth Allowance and Austudy, more students are working in paid employment throughout their studies (Bosman et al., 2011). A study by Bosman, Coiacetto and Dredge (2011) found that “81% of first-year students working during the semester”, and on average worked about 18 hours per week (Bosman et al., 2011: 79). These work commitments can exacerbate attendance issues, as well as diminish the likelihood of students using studios outside formal contact hours. This may, in turn, threaten the viability of maintaining dedicated studio spaces (Mangden and Dassah, 2012, Wallis et al., 2009), and make it more difficult for students to devote large blocks of time to be on campus, in studio, in both formal contact hours and outside of class time (for group meetings, etc.).

Third, there is an increasing trend in higher education towards online and flexible delivery modes, partly in response to some of the aforementioned constraints, as well as other issues in higher education. There are important advantages to online and flexible delivery, including the possibility of improving the accessibility and equity of higher education. Studios as described above, with their emphasis on the physical classroom and high numbers of contact hours, run counter to this trend, which may make them difficult to implement and support in institutions where the online/flexible delivery trend has been embraced.

Virtual studios are an emerging studio type (Balsas, 2012: 478, Hollander and Thomas, 2009), however, there are some challenges to be overcome. Virtual studios have the benefit of being more flexible, however collaboration and professional socialisation can be difficult and/or limited, and the platform used may create problems (Hollander and Thomas, 2009, Malopinsky et al., 2000). For example, Hollander and Thomas discuss the use of ‘Second Life’ - an online game wherein players create a virtual world together, and interact through avatars – as a virtual studio

platform, and they encountered difficulties including vandalism and harassment from other uses of the game (Hollander and Thomas, 2009).

Fourth, there are also some important challenges and limitations of the studio model. Studios often engage with real world clients or communities, and draw from community-based learning or community-service learning principles. Valuable as community-service learning may be for students and universities, the communities themselves are not always well served (Aponte-Parés, 1998, Winkler, 2013). Challenges include a mismatch of expectations and/or values between the parties involved, students lacking the skills, time, and other resources needed to deliver usable outcomes, the timeframes of the university and the community may not align, and students may be unaware of the local community context and/or cultural protocols (Aponte-Parés, 1998, Henry et al., 2011, Winkler, 2013, Cameron et al., 2010).

There are also challenges in developing effective assessment structures (De La Harpe and Fiona Peterson, 2009, Lang, 1983, Németh and Long, 2012) and the studio style isn't to everyone's taste. Some students simply dislike the studio style, with its relative lack of structure and the absence of certainty, the emphasis on group work, and that more is often expected of them (Lynch et al., 2002, Bradbeer, 2006, Gonsalvez and Atchison, 2000). These traits are intrinsic to the studio style as they are designed to mimic, or indeed actually include, real world situations, however some students struggle with this mode of teaching. Another issue relating to the centrality of the real world in studios is that they run the risk of replicating the poor practices of the real world, and although it is important to understand the pressures, compromises, and context of real world planning practice, students should also be encouraged to think critically about good, ideal, and ethical practice, and what they look like (Minnery, 2000, Higgins et al., 2009).

Fifth, there is little obvious support of the planning studio teaching model from the planning profession itself. The PIA 2010 Accreditation Policy for Recognition of Australian Planning Qualifications identifies three components or levels in relation to skills and knowledge: generic capabilities and competencies, core curriculum competencies and supporting knowledge areas. These capabilities and competencies are meant to guide planning courses' objectives and learning outcomes, as well as course content and approaches to learning and teaching. They are used as benchmarks when planning courses are seeking accreditation or re-accreditation.

The generic capabilities and competencies of "problem identification, critical analysis and synthesis", contribute to what it is to be a planning professional. The core curriculum competencies and their associated performance outcomes cover the core knowledge areas need to be addressed in the curriculum, and the supporting knowledge areas represent areas of knowledge that would be normally expected to be covered in planning programs (PIA, 2010).
Some of the studio principles listed in Table 1 including collaborative/team work, problem-based learning, real world context, formative and reflective learning, synthesis, and professional socialisation are embedded in the PIA generic competencies and capabilities, and in the curriculum competencies. For example, the PIA Accreditation guidelines emphasise aspects such as self-reflection, communication, team work, and problem identification among others. However, the PIA Accreditation Policy does not refer to the term "studio" in conjunction with these competencies and capabilities. In essence, there is no clear indication of how these should be achieved or reached in terms of approaches to learning and teaching.

With the resource intensive nature of planning studios, the primary question to ask is: Can educational outcomes be achieved through other (non-studio) means? It also raises the question of how much studio is enough to achieve educational benefits for real world experiential learning, to build student community and professional identity, to foster confidence and resilience, develop skills and deep learning?

Conclusion

Studios are a distinctive form of teaching. Many scholars of learning and teaching emphasise their unique importance in developing certain skills and offering certain experiences for planning students that cannot be readily replicated in other classroom modes. Not all planning programs in Australia classify their courses as 'studios' though they may run courses that draw from studio principles. Our case study analysis has also shown that not all planning curricula incorporates studio teaching and learning to the same extent - in fact there is significant variation in the use of studio across programs in the three cases we reviewed. Presumably these differences are based on the constraints listed above (and undoubtedly there are others), yet it is possible that the models of studio teaching in use in Australian programs have evolved for different reasons. In this paper we have identified principles of studios and we have defined an emerging typology based on our initial analysis of three planning programs in South East Queensland. In the next stages of research this project will analyse all Australian planning programs against the principles and typology in order to inform our understanding of the role of studios and studio techniques in planning curricula and to further inform the typology (and, indeed, confirm whether or not studio use can be typified in the manner we propose). We expect that the different models of studio teaching will each have positive and negative effects on students, teaching staff, and professional outcomes;n each of the university cases it will be interesting to assess what difference the relative amount of studio use has for planning education and practice. As we move into our empirical data collection, we will seek to explore these differences and similarities in models and outcomes and the rationales underpinning them.

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Putting practice into theory: Reconciling academic discourse with experience

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Abstract: *This paper is based on our work with experienced professionals in the Practitioner in Residence (PIR) Program. The program allows an experienced urban practitioner to undertake a period of supported research in residence at the University of Sydney under the auspices of the Henry Halloran Trust. The aim is to enable professionals to impart their knowledge to other urban professionals and thereby inform their practice. The PIR writes from experience on a topic of concern, relating it to the literature in the field and arguing the case for change. Our PIRs bring experience to the project and, under guidance derive a principle/s that can speak to other practitioners in a well researched and grounded argument. Outside the institutional constraint of their office PIRs are able to bring the wisdom of experience to discussing the politics and pragmatics that contend with planning goals. The program is part of a broader Trust agenda to better connect Australian urban planning practice to the evidence base within urban planning research. Through the program we hope to produce research outputs relevant and accessible to practitioners. The paper discusses the dynamics of the PIR program, the necessary links between theory and practice and the problems of relevance and accessibility of planning research.*

Key words: *Action research; research led practice*

"In theory there is no difference between theory and practice, in practice there is." (Yogi Berra)

Introduction

This paper is based on our work with the Practitioner in Residence (PIR) Program which allows an experienced urban practitioner to undertake a period of supported research in residence at the University of Sydney under the auspices of the Henry Halloran Trust (HHT). The outcome of this research is a paper presented in a public lecture and published by the Trust.

The Trust's agenda is to enable professionals to impart their knowledge to, and thereby inform the practice of, other urban professionals. The PIR writes from personal experience on a topic of concern, relating it to the literature in the field and arguing the case for change.
Related research undertaken by Hurley and Taylor for the Trust has supported the argument for experientially based research. Hurley and Taylor's research found that planners rarely refer to or consult published planning research in the course of their work, in spite of the fact that planners are educated in a University environment and thus tutored in the use of theory, research findings, journal articles and academic discourse.

This poses evident difficulties for the ambitions of the HHT agenda. If the HHT is to undertake planning related research to change planning practice, how can it surmount the apparent hurdle of planners' reluctance to read research? How can such research be effectively communicated to planners. Perhaps in practicing planners and planning theorists we have two mutually exclusive communities of discourse.

We are not under the illusion that the tension between academia and practice is a novel situation. The fascination with communication in the education of planners over past decades built on the work of Habermas, has at its heart the notion that ever widening gap between different communities of discourse in society must be bridged. Similarly the relation between theory and practice has been a perennial topic in planning education and extensively discussed in relation to the Aristotelian idea of *phronesis* particularly in the work of Flyvberg. In the two journals *Planning Theory* and *Planning Theory and Practice* no fewer than twenty articles published between 2000 and 2014 addressed *phronesis*.

Our observation that planners do not read academic research and our attempt to harness the practical experience of our PIRs is not a rejection of the virtue of theory in preference for the recounting of practice and cases. Flyvberg makes much of learning from cases as the foundation of experience and this focus in some ways reflects the theory/ practice relation as an opposition between the particular and the general. Given that the focus on Flyvberg , *phronesis* and cases has sometimes been deployed as a justification for practice over theory we thought it useful to revisit the idea of *phronesis* and make some observations on its status in relation to theory. There is also some irony in the popularity among academics of the rather abstract concept of *phronesis* to explain practice to practitioners who are already loathe to read journal articles.

These opposing imperatives of theory and practice in the PIR program are the subject of this paper and our conclusions fall well short of reconciling this opposition. Our intention is thus not to focus on the individual PIR's or their projects here but to draw generic lessons from the process.

Do planners read research papers?

The Trust commissioned Hurley and Taylor (2014) to study practitioners' use of research papers. Hurley and Taylor's paper started from the assumption that evidence from research should be useful, if not essential, to inform good planning practice. Other research has indicated that practitioner's engagement with research is limited while 'rule of thumb' and practice examples dominate . Hurley and Taylor's research involved the study of information exchange in the planning sector, interviews with planning professionals and academics and a focus group with planning professionals.

Some of the vectors of indifference to published research that they identify are that much research is difficult to access, is poorly tailored for use by a professional audience , the format in which the research is published is focused on academic journals, it is written in ways that make it relatively impenetrable and that much practical research remains unpublished. In addition following Allmendinger and Haughton 2012,Hurley and Taylor remark that the political nature of many strategic planning policy making documents render the relevance of an evidence base unclear.

> "In exploring the relationship between urban research and planning practice in the United Kingdom, Durning (2004:435) wondered whether planning academics and planning practitioners constitute “two tribes or a community of practice”. Even a cursory assessment shows that the groups involved in potential information exchange around planning research operate within very different spaces." (2014:4-5)

Academic research, typically of a comparative nature directed to an international audience and an international publishing imperative, is difficult to apply to a specific context. Also academics find a

risk to their integrity and the scope of their work in being too closely aligned with practice and research that is purely policy advocacy.

Hurley and Taylor found that reaching practitioners demanded some guidance on the credibility of research; that it should be audience focused, responding to the perceptions of practitioners and that it should distil the essential points for those who are time poor. It should also be curated to distil what was important and new (2014:17).

Educating Planners

The pressure on planning to redefine itself is relentless and is reflected in the perennial debates about the role of planners and the role of planning educators. Plowright and Barr(2012) argue that the tendency in Bureaucracy is to managerialism, to reject specialised knowledge associated with professionalism and move toward an elite form of generalism. Organisations move toward a similarity in structure and practice. They quote Exworthy and Halford (2002)

> "... the status and power of professionals may come increasingly to depend upon their ability to cast their goals and objectives in appropriate terms [and] managerial assets are becoming of increasing importance for career enhancement within the professions. (Exworthy and Halford 2002, 100–101) in Plowright and Barr 2012:3)

This role redefinition is also reflected in contemporary debates about the culture of planning as the central problem for the planning of cities. Cultural reform of planning is the subject of one of our PIRs and is a major focus of planning legislative reform in NSW and managerial reform in the NSW Planning Department.

March, Hurlimann and Robins (2013) argue that planners are increasingly University educated professionals yet the kind of knowledge required by professionals is not declarative knowledge but competence.

> "One reason for this is because practised professional knowledge is based to a large extent on functional ability (competence), while universities tend to find it easier and more economically efficient to teach declarative knowledge (Biggs and Tang 2007)..... Both knowledge types are important as the basis for professional competency....." (March, Hurlimann and Robins 2013:235)

It is these claims to a deficit in functional ability and the theory/ practice nexus that leads to a search for more practical knowledge. But as the authors argue both kinds of knowledge are important. It is also paradoxical, given these claims of overemphasis on declarative knowledge and the academic orientation of planning education, that planners still appear to show so little interest in research and journal articles.

What we can say about the role of the planner is that it is complex and accountable to many interests. Budge in 2009 argued that planners need to be both trained and educated. He alluded to McLoughlin's (1994) argument that education and practice had widely diverged and that the role of education was to 'prepare strategic social science-based policy experts with analytical skills'.

Budge contends that while planners need a grounding in spatial political economy and geography they need also to understand and engage with the practice of development control.

> *".... what I largely advocate, is to recognize that there is a core body of knowledge about cities, regions and the environment that will serve the planner well, whatever sort of planning they do. The real idea of planning is a way of thinking, acting and operating in a political economy that produces spatial outcomes. Planning courses need to embrace a set of values, skills, and capacities to equip planners to function effectively whatever aspect of planning they choose. .....This means grounding practice in method and research, with research focusing more on the realities of practice." (Budge 2009:13)*

This brings us to the endless debate about what skills and education planners ought to have from the very pragmatic to the highly theoretical. Some fall on the side of planning as problem solving, where every step to improvement is another problem solved, some adhere to the more idealised view that an ultimate goal or reference point must inform a planning professional besides pragmatic and intuitive knowledge .

Phronesis / Practical knowledge

The term *phronesis* comes from the work of Aristotle as one of three ways of knowing *episteme*, *techne* and *phronesis*. Flyvbjerg(1998) introduced the idea of *phronesis* and the virtue of the dense data case study in relation to planning.

> " This way of knowing, for which we, significantly, have no English form, is *phronesis*, knowing what to do in particular circumstances: that blend of knowledge, reasoning and skill that forms the basis for practice. This kind of knowledge does not lend itself readily to generalization because practice involves judgement as to what is particular and context-dependent. The dense data case-study is particularly suitable for the development of *phronesis* precisely because of its shortcomings as a source of generalization. " (Peattie2001:259-60)

The key to the relationship between research and practice for Flyvbjerg can be found in the following quote in his text *Making Social Science Matter* (2001). Here he argues that a distancing from every day events obscures and oversimplifies reality.

> " Phronetic research focuses on practical activity and practical knowledge in everyday situations . ..... The description of practices as events endures and gains its strength from detecting the forces that make life work. "(Flyvbjerg 2001 pp 134-5)

Flyvbjerg is arguing for *phronesis* as the basis of a particular kind of or approach to research , but *phronesis* in Aristotle's estimation is more than an approach to research; it is a type of knowledge or understanding possessed by particular individuals . This is captured in Flyvbjerg's further statement.

> " Phronesis functions on the basis of practical rationality and judgement. As I have argued elsewhere, practical rationality and judgement evolve and operate primarily by virtue of deep going case experiences."(Flyvbjerg 2001 pp 135)

Cases

Flyvbjerg's thesis of *phronesis* is built around the notion of learning from cases and in a detailed argument he contests the notion that a case study cannot provide reliable information about the broader class. He argues for the virtue of case studies as exemplars and minimises the difficulties in both logic and practice of generalising from the particular. The important point is that understanding through practice is the foundation for Flyvbjerg of social science research. He states

> " A focus on cases does not exclude the attempts at empirical generalisations typical of much of social and political science.....
> Cases exist in context . What has been called the primacy of context follows from the empirical fact that in the history of science, human action has shown itself to be irreducible to predefined elements and rules unconnected to interpretation. Therefore it has been impossible to derive praxis from first principles and theory. Praxis has always been contingent on context dependent judgement on situational ethics ." (Flyvbjerg 2001:136)

The traditional concern of generalising or theorising from a case study is that it is a sample of one. This is the basis of the argument that it may form the ground for a testable hypothesis but not provide one in its own right. A number of cases may form the basis of a theory and indeed we in practice bring theory to cases . This is indeed what Flyvbjerg means when he uses the term interpretation: it is the deployment of a practitioner to the understanding of a particular case based on their experience. However some confusion is introduced by Flyvbjerg's liaison of cases and case studies.

A case study is a detailed documentation of a particular instance of a class of phenomena. Stake (1994) argues that a case study is both a product and a process of learning. It is the documentation of a particular instance and its emphasis is on what can be learned from that particular case. It is not defined by its methodology which may range from medical encounters to community studies and be both quantitative and qualitative. Rather it is defined by the decision to study what can be learned from a particular case. Stake distinguishes between the intrinsic case study and an instrumental case study.

> "In what we may call an instrumental case study, a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or refinement of theory. The case is of secondary interest; it plays a supportive role, facilitating our understanding of something else." (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln eds. 1994:236-7)

We would argue that it is rarely the situation in the social sciences or even the applied disciplines, such as medicine, that we are looking at a case without seeing it as one of a class of cases and bringing to bear what Flyvbjerg calls "attempts at generalisation". In the human sciences and public policy unless we are able to generalise in some way based on theory or experience, cases will be no more than a story and a not very interesting one at that.

So Flyvbjerg has created something of a straw man by liaising the notions of cases, everyday practice and experience with the research based definition of case studies. A case is only one instance and to argue from that case in relation to planning and policy one needs both theory and experience that can situate the case within a more general frame of reference.

Peattie draws on pragmatic philosophy to argue that the outcome of Flyvbjerg's approach is to see progress as solving problems rather than reaching a predetermined goal.

"This pragmatic, participatory view of progress proposes a distinctive view of the role of theory, and of the research on which theory is based. It does not eliminate theory, but it proposes that we shall require for practice another, an additional, way of knowing. .....There remains for us the task of deriving the techniques that can convey from case to case the practical meaning, at once moral, factual and skilful, that may accumulate." (Peattie 2001:261)

While lauding Flyvbjerg's focus on the lessons of practice, dense data description and action Peattie returns to the question of generalisability of *phronesis*; that is, what and how can it teach others?
Crucially she argues "The planner works in a collective, a political framework, and must stand in a world of legitimating public purpose" (Peattie 2001:262)

It is not sufficient to simply problem solve. The planner must define and situate the problem, the planner must predict and project " in a framework of commitment". Without this process the planner will not garner wider support necessary to change the problem situation, to commit to a long term cause. Without the capacity to situate problems within a broader frame of reference, the planner will neither plan nor gain popular commitment to a plan.

So while we must research practice and endeavour to understand it in a pragmatic way, we must also have a rational framework within which we can generalise the lessons of practice. If achieving *phronesis* is our goal, ultimately it is bonded to *episteme* and *techne*.

PIR papers

Underpinning our PIR program is the hope and belief that the issues which our PIRs address and the experience they bring to addressing them will strike a chord with planners in the field; that the PIRs will derive both practical and generalisable answers to some of the contemporary vexing issues of planning. There are few theoretical and practical issues that have preoccupied planning over the past decade with as much vigour as the question of communication. Communicative competency is both product and delivery. The PIR's research must be something that the audience is interested to hear and it must be delivered in a way that reaches them. To effect change we must unleash the practical wisdom of our PIRs regarding issues of interest to those in the field and communicate it to their colleagues.

Planning Culture

The author of our first PIR Report on Planning Culture in NSW (Cirillo 2013) was a former Executive Director of Urban Renewal and Major Sites at the NSW Department of Planning. The NSW White Paper on Planning Reform (2013) echoing studies in the UK identified "Planning Culture" as being a significant factor in planning reform. The focus of the White Paper recommendations in relation to planners was to develop in practitioners a more cooperative, participatory, problem solving and pragmatic attitude.

The NSW planning system has seen little comprehensive or coherent reform in forty years of massive urban development social change, densification and urban sprawl. Yet Cirillo noted the apparent emphasis on the transformation of the culture of planners as distinct from the culture of planning was viewed as a resolution to the complex conflict driven competing goals of a planning.

"The culture of planning at local government level must embrace some simple contemporary and 'corporate' principles of good customer service and efficient project management if the culture of the planning system in NSW is to improve.....this is simply a question of good and responsible management rather than the need to reinvent (with great fanfare) 'planning culture". (Cirillo p21)

He argues that

"This local development adjudication process has led to a tangibly hostile decision making culture where decisions can often be swayed on the basis of which 'side' can generate the most noise and numbers on the floor of a council meeting." (Cirillo p22)

In Cirillo's analysis planning system characteristics which frustrate the expectations of all the players are attributed to the culture of planning where it appears the culture of planning is a euphemism for the professional execution of statutory obligations.

Communities of Practice

The author of our second PIR Report on Communities of Practice (Proctor 2014) was previously an asset manager working in Housing NSW and is President of the Australasian Housing Institute.

The paper is a passionate and carefully documented assessment of the practical difficulties and possibilities of information sharing between housing asset managers to realise improvements in their professional practice.

"Given that the value of social housing assets is approximately $100 billion nationally, and the annual budget for asset portfolio maintenance and upgrading is about $1 billion, just a 1% improvement in asset utilisation would provide a $1 billion benefit to the economy."(Proctor p5)

The search for a community of practice derived from a recognition of the systemic failure of housing agencies to enable an understanding of best practice to be shared among housing asset managers. Our practitioner deployed a detailed knowledge of practice and the field together with an engagement with the literature to produce a report that speaks to an immediate and pressing issue for practitioners.

The paper draws extensively on the literature on Communities of Practice, the experience of practitioners and personal knowledge of the complex structures and institutional relationships in the provision of social housing in Australia. It concludes with a proposal to develop a Community of Practice among housing asset managers in Australia

Panelisation

The author of our third PIR Report on Panelisation (Stone 2014) was previously with the Department of Planning where she headed teams responsible for planning policy, systems and reform, environmental impact assessment (EIA) and other planning and environmental policies, particularly relating to infrastructure and industries.

The report assesses the increasing use of panels by NSW councils over the past 15 years in the development application (DA) processes – both “internal” panels and “independent” panels comprising of external experts and community representatives. The author argues the collaborative approaches have provided increased transparency, integrity and rigour in the development assessment process.

"Over the last 18 years, officers and councillors from 20 council have been “ICAC-ed” and six councils have been sacked. Though not all these incidents related to development approval processes, it does demonstrate the difficulty in minimising or avoiding corruption risks at the individual level as well as more broadly across councils’ systems. There is a range of potential risks of conflict of interest and corruption for councils in their “management”, “consent authority” and “community advocate" roles." (Stone p33)

and

"To some, the DA process is seen to be planning policy on the run. In a way, the need for panels as an independent arbitrator at the DA stage is a barometer on the weaknesses in the strategic planning process. .....The feedback from independent panels can also play an important role in improving the strategic planning framework for local councils. In this way, they can assist in the move towards more transparent, efficient and effective planning in NSW " (Stone p76)

This landmark report deploys the author's experience in planning, policy development in government and active engagement in local politics together with historical literature and ethnographic research to detail the history and politics of planning assessment panels, their current contribution to the improvement of development assessment and their potential contribution to future planning in NSW and elsewhere. The report recognises the systemic difficulties posed by a tendency to regulatory capture , local political role conflict in adjudication and representation and the discretionary erosion of strategic planning.

Theory and the PIR

The three areas of practice that our PIRs have chosen all deploy theory. Cirillo's work could not address the question of planning culture without interrogating the literature and concept of the role of the planner and considering the relation between professions and the state. To do so would be to fail to situate the problem within its historical and instrumental context; it would be to deny that planning is a social construct with a purpose and a history.

Equally, to look at the social organisation of housing managers without again looking at the purpose of these functionaries, their powers and constraints, that is to say the structural and

organisational context from which they derive their power and purpose, might fulfil some criteria of dense data but would be innocent of any intelligent insight.

Similarly studying the role of Panels in adjudication of planning decisions implies an understanding of the void which these adjudicators are intended to fill. It requires a grasp of questions of legitimacy, discretion and democracy.

Theory and practice are not the same thing but nor perhaps are they as diametrically opposed as we might like to suppose. The difference rests on a tendency to over intellectualise the nature of theory and to under theorise the nature of practice. Agents are reflexive beings and their practice involves some conceptual framework of understanding of the world; they bring insights to practice.

"..all human activity is informed by theories about the way the world works. Humans as reflexive beings are constantly considering their actions and forming theories in the light of their experience, which then influence their behaviour." (Bounds : 2002: 1)

A resort to the idea of *phronesis* and dense data depiction without reference to instrumental rationality can only be sustained by an ideal type of practical consciousness, divorced from reflexivity.

Phronesis, a logic of practice, dense data, thick description, the immediacy of experience, intuitive wisdom, all these things are real but they do not live in isolation from a strategic intention governed by instrumental rationality. This is the case in everyday life and it is even more the case in the professional life of planners. If every decision is contingent, its contingency is also part of a continuum with a coherence amenable to explanation and ordering for understanding. This is the purpose of theory or *episteme* and it is indelibly linked to organising an understanding of *phronesis*, dense data and thick description to impart its lessons to others .

Discussion

The voice of our practitioners is one of wisdom and their writing reflects the fine grained observation to which Flyvberg alludes . The constraint of the HHT paper and the University context provides a discipline that enables their observations to be situated within the research on the subject while providing a forum for presentation that has the credibility to reach a wider audience .

It is a straw man to posit substantive and instrumental rationality as antonyms, they are not. They are ideal types and in the real world instrumental and substantive rationality must exist in concert. Our actions must be justifiable in relation to a broader strategic agenda and be coherent in the context of moral, political, spatial and social realities of the moment.
It is commonplace for anyone who educates practitioners or professionals to recognise that the socialisation of the workplace, of necessity, leads to emulation, repetition and pragmatism. The educated practitioner or professional brings to the workplace a repertoire of knowledge that must be selectively applied to cases.

Only in theory can we pose a concept such as *phronesis* as existing free from a theoretical perspective on the world and the professional's function. In reality the practitioner is always guided by the broader instrumental rationality of strategic planning and the statutory limitations on their capacity to exercise intuitive or pragmatic discretion. The problems we have identified in educating

planners relate to the failure of academic research to reach planners or to affect their practice. This is in part a problem of communication, of content, of credibility, of language and of theory. It is a paradox that the strong focus on communication in planning courses has not bridged the engagement gap in planning nor the gap between planning researchers and practicing planners.

It is hoped that through the PIR program we are addressing directly the questions of content credibility and language. We are selecting experienced practitioners with credibility in their field to write on a subject of contemporary, pressing interest on which they are able to express their views in the language of planners.

As we have argued it is a misapprehension of the role of the planner to believe that their practice can be founded in experience divorced from theory. Much of the debate on educating planners has been about the theory/ practice divide and communication. *Phronesis* has been presented as a resolution to the theory/ practice divide by privileging practice but this is an illusion. A future directed profession, constrained in its statutory discretion cannot situate its understanding of its role within the narrow contingency of immediate experience.

The more ways we have to communicate the less we seem to do so. As Hurley and Taylor point out planning academics and practitioners are becoming two tribes with the communication distance between them widening. In this, planning may reflect other contemporary social and political groups able to tailor their exposure to the media to insulate themselves from influences that contradict their world view. We are working to overcome this with our public lectures and web publication but there is still a way to go.

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The role of fantasy in the evolution of planning policy formation

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Abstract: This paper will explore the role of fantasy and argue that an understanding of the role of ideological fantasy is necessary for both planning theorisation and to develop an effective theory of evolutionary governance. The paper begins with an exploration of the psychoanalytical role of fantasy, discourse, jouissance and the subject's underlying desire for a sovereign good that will solve all problems and wants, so as to create the worldly impossibility of being free of anxiety and all other insecurities. Core to this exposé is the role of ideology, which is most powerful when subjects believe that they are free of its influence. The paper will conclude with a consideration of what a deeper engagement with ideological fantasy might mean for theorisations of evolutionary governance and planning.

Keywords: Lacan, ideology, governance

Introduction

The function of ideological fantasy as a facilitator of social and political action has seldom been given adequate emphasis in public policy theory and analyse (Fotaki, 2010, p.704). Yet the emergence of new fantasies of 'what should be' is a core driver of the evolution of governance policy formulation. Further, fantasy based justifications – often grounded as obvious and implicit 'common sense' – are frequently deployed to explain why proposed governance lead change is being impeded, or even failing, yet is still worthy of continued popular support (Kenny and Scriver, 2012). Indeed, beyond mere governance, this paper will contend that fantasy plays an important and necessary role in both the individual subject's and wider society's conceptualisation of social reality. Accordingly, this paper will explore the role of fantasy and argue that an understanding of the role of ideological fantasy is necessary for an effective theory of evolutionary governance as '[g]overnance absorbs, reflects, and creates realities' (Van Assche et al, 2014, p.11).

The paper will begin with a Lacanian derived account of fantasy and its elements. This will include an exploration of the psychoanalytical conception of fantasy, discourse, *jouissance* (Lacanian enjoyment arising from the unconscious) and the subject's underlying desire for a sovereign good that will solve all problems and wants, so as to create the worldly impossibility of being free of anxiety and all other insecurities. Core to this exposé is the function of ideology, which is most powerful when subjects deem that they are free of its sway. For 'ideology exerts its hold over us by means of this very insistence that the Cause we adhere to is not "merely" ideological' (Žižek, 2008a, p.10).

Fantasy's role as a facilitator of policy problemisation and action will then be considered drawing on both Foucault's (2001) governmentality and Glynos and Howarth's (2007) three logics (social, political, fantasmatic) of public policy formation. The multiple dimensions that fantasy plays in the evolution of public policy will be explored. These include: what is assured, obfuscation or justification as to why this is not being delivered, and the varied ways that fantasy induces desire and allows a particular policy formulation to 'grip' the subject. The paper will conclude with a

consideration of what a deeper engagement with ideological fantasy might mean for evolutionary governance theory and the researcher's ability to have a more reflexive perspective in regards to the study of both governance and planning theory.

Fantasy, *Jouissance* and the Ideology of Planning Governance

Rather than contrasting fantasy and reality as opposites, this paper considers fantasy from a psychoanalytical perspective. This view attributes to fantasy the serving of an important role. Fundamentally, fantasy helps to structure, sustain, channel, and even obscure a subject's desire (Glynos, 2001; Stavrakakis, 2000). In doing so, fantasy provides the means for a subject to structure the complexity and anxiety inducing inconsistencies of social reality in a simplified and positive matter that the subject can symbolically have identification with, so that social reality appears as an understandable, comprehensive and coherently materialised entity (Gunder, 2011a). The aggregation of our shared common fantasies constitutes the ideology of a culture, lifeworld or society (Žižek, 1997, p.6).

In this perspective, 'fantasies are not designed to allow us to flee an unsatisfactory world, but rather to render the world satisfactory by reassuring us that the Other – the social environment within which we struggle to find our bearings – possesses the correct, calming, or consoling answers to our most pressing questions' (Ruti, 2010, p.2). In governance, these could be questions as to how to provide the good society, or the good life; for example, how a polity and its inhabitants can have a more comfortable, liveable, sustainable, healthy, just, globally competitive, secure or similar positive existence (Gunder and Hillier, 2009).

Fantasy's structuring of social reality has both a discursive and emotive dimension, so as by 'ordering our emotional investment within a larger narrative of reconciliation and stability… fantasy is what attempts to conceal all fissures… turning our worldly experience into something coherent and appealing' (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.163). However, by doing so, while 'fantasy formations shape the basic orientation of our existence', they also have a propensity to restrict 'our lives by causing us to proceed mechanically exactly at those moments when a degree of self-reflexivity would help us to arrive' at more productive or satisfying response, to a troubling circumstance (Gunder, 2011b; Ruti, 2010, p.1). Fantasies blur, obscure and often stop us from questioning too closely what is actually occurring within social reality, particularly when they provide the subject with a 'clear' sense of purpose, identity and an appropriate course for action.

This is because fantasies simplify the structuring of our complicated lifeworld through the use of fuzzy concepts of desirous identification and seeming worth – 'our sublime objects of ideology' (Žižek, 1989) – so as to give the symbolic order the appearance of solidity which somehow guarantees the reliability of both its meaning and that of wider society itself (Ruti, 2010, p.2). Moreover, if we lacked this simplification of understanding via the shared usage of common signifiers of ambiguous meaning and the resultant solidarity that they produce – for example, words like 'liveability' or 'democracy', which are generally considered good things by everyone (whatever they may actually mean for each of us) – our common social reality would splinter into an amorphous and unfathomable mess (Žižek, 1997, p.95). Further, fantasy functions as an ideological mechanism to pin our affect (feelings) to these signifiers, so that these signifiers and their contestable narratives 'provide the co-ordinates for our desires and, by extension, teach us how to organize and express our emotions' (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.160). Succinctly phrased: 'fantasy links a level of meaning with a level of enjoyment, or if you will, connects

narrative and affect' (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.173).

This is a process that is highly ideological. Accordingly, 'the ideological significance of fantasy can be understood in the context of its capacity to "grip" the subject, whether as part of a social practice or as part of a political practice' (Glynos, 2011, p.378). As a consequence, fantasy both 'provides the framework, or affective coordinates, for integrating emotion into narrative' and it also directly structures our 'individual experiences as eternally part of a larger affective story' (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.164). Fantasy narratives act as mechanisms of desirous coercion that entice us into being imprinted by a society's dominant ideology (or perhaps an alternative ideology) so that we tend to agree with its values and seductive stories of what reality should be. Further, crucially, in doing so, a 'constitutively blurred boundary' occurs, so that there is a lack of clarity between the materialised world created by our actual actions and the fantasies that assist in the generation of this materialisation (Glynos, 2010, p.22).

For Lacan (1998, p.32), any consideration of social reality, including the concepts and fantasies that materialise it, is dependent on the symbolic, for '[e]very reality is founded on a discourse'. In this regard, institutions of governance and planning agency, especially bureaucratic ones, such as a government ministry, have as a core characteristic 'an emphasis on writing as a foundational and principle practice': that is drafting public policies, or otherwise phased, constructing narratives of how some aspect of social reality should be governed so as to achieve some desirous aspiration (Styhre, 2008, p.644).

Further, language, discourse and the symbolic order constituting social reality is simply 'other', a foreign structure that all subjects must adapt themselves to when submitting to their society's specific cultural beliefs and values (Lacan, 2006). For the 'symbolic order includes the desires and constructions of internalized others such as parents or institutions and the conventions of language handed down through generations of others', so that '[w]hen we use language… we can only express who we are in the words of others' (Driver, 2008, p.189). Further, these adopted words are always incomplete, because when we must adapt ourselves to them, we always loose something of ourselves when we use this others' language. For these 'alien' words imposed upon us by our inherited pre-existing culture can never say specifically and exactly what we wish; for example, try and describe your complete experiences and feeling towards a family member, a friend, or even your last holiday. For the externally imposed symbolic lifeworld and its systems of governance, to use Habermas' (1987) concepts, is inherently lacking and incomplete for the subject (Hillier, 2003).

Consequently, the subject is driven by 'a gap in the order of being' where the spatial order and the subject's identification with it breaks down (Žižek, 2008b, p.327). Ultimately, this is a lack of *jouissance*, in the Lacanian glossary, a lack of enjoyment seeking the impossibility of fulfilment, but not an enjoyment that may be considered as pleasure. In this context, pleasure is created by the 'big Other' that in its totality consists of the 'comprehensive' symbolic order containing society and culture, as well as the very concept of social reality (Žižek, 1998). *Jouissance* sits apart from societally permitted pleasure; as it 'is the enjoyment a subject experiences in sustaining his or her desire' and given that 'sustaining desire ultimately involves sustaining desire as unsatisfied', *jouissance* may often be 'experienced as a suffering' (Glynos, 2001, pp.201-202). *Jouissance* arises from the unconscious, and is manifested by our avoidance of what Lacan labels the unknowable Real (Evans, 1996, p.161).

Lacan refused to specifically define the concept of the Real, for implicitly it is 'what resists regimes

of representation and what remains residual to any symbolic or linguistic system' (Styhre, 2008, p.647). Accordingly, 'Lacan (2006) helps us to comprehend how fantasy bridges our psychic life (the Imaginary) with socially constructed reality (the Symbolic) and prevents us from encountering, what Lacan calls, the Real', that 'which is outside everything that can be (legitimately) symbolized, is literally too terrifying and must be avoided at all costs' (Fotaki, 2010, p.641). The Real occupies a 'non-space of non-representation' from which 'fear and anxiety arises and causes psychic pain' (Gunder, 2008, p.194), which Laclau and Mouffe (1985) conceptualise in their political theorising as antagonism (Biglieri and Perelló, 2011). The Real is the irritating *Thing,* which can never be quite define, yet all subject's try to avoided regardless of consequence. Further, in avoiding the Real, a subject is 'eternally torn between imaginary strivings, which it mis-perceives for reality, and the symbolic social order that can never fully satisfy' (Fotaki, 2009, p.143). Accordingly, fantasy is 'the screen that conceals the anxiety of [this] nonwholeness in the symbolic order' (Leeb, 2008, p.360). Or phased more simply, 'contemplating the unknowable leads people to weave imaginary webs, or fantasies, of what they claim can be known, and to fabricate harmonies where antagonisms reign' (Freeden, 2003, p.111).

Further, *jouissance,* emerging from the unconscious, is the subject's fundamental driving motivation to achieve the impossibility of everlasting fulfilment and accordingly close the hole, or 'fundamental wound' that constitutes the lacking subject (Žižek and Daly, 2004, p.3). It is a 'quest to become whole, a mad desire for the thing that will make us whole (again)' (Cremin, 2009, p.138), so that the subject can regain the vanished primordial *jouissance* of the new-born as it becomes as one with mother (Fotaki, 2009, p.147). This is a drive to regain the primordial *jouissance* that was lost by the infant's entry into language and the subsequent assimilation of the norms of society (Glynos et al, 2012, p.299). Yet a return to Mum's nurturing breast is impossible. At best, in place of Mum is the subject's creation of a fundamental fantasy in the unconscious that this lack, or gaping wound of Mum's loss, can be somehow replaced, so that the subject can again be whole. From this ensues the belief, or fantasy, that there has to be 'some "sovereign good" that is capable of shielding us from the terror of living' – just as Mum used to do – and this underlies and provides a foundation to the symbolic and imaginary fantasies that structure our collective social reality (Ruti, 2008, p.486).

Hence the subject's *jouissance* is 'domesticated (with)in the fundamental fantasy of a harmonious world that can ultimately be constructed [for many] by means of establishing proper liberal democratic and capitalist social relations – our way of life' (De Cock and Böhm, 2007, p.826). Indeed, it is the providers of this governance policy that shape the literal dream of a desiring polity for the promised city, region or country that will fulfil *jouissance* by providing the necessary public framework for achieving the neoliberal dream of safety, individual success and prosperity (Gunder, 2010). This is via the appearances of completeness and security that these planners, other officials and politicians provide, via the 'material articulation of a logic that lies at the foundation of the city', region, country as a desired place to be (Nichols, 2008, p.471). This is always a policy assuring, or reinforcing, a collection of stabilizing fantasies that promise a future of contentment, which will allow subjects to achieve harmony and stability, be it full employment, access to educational success and outstanding health services, or a bright future in a world class city or globally successful economy (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.165).

Fantasy as a Driver of Evolutionary Planning Governance

Governance is evolutionary, not static. Crucially, one must ask the question as to what are the

drivers of this dynamic process of change. It is more than just stories, narratives and discourses. It is more than just the assertion of power. Ultimately, this author would contend, it is the manifestation and channelling of desire that drives evolutionary change, via planning or otherwise, where desire is constituted by a perceived lack (Lacan, 2006). A key tool in this process is the deployment of desirable metaphorical fantasies of identity and aspiration to resolve narratives of deficiency and lack, as and through its articulation in ideology, for 'ideologies can transform everything' (Van Assche et al, 2014, p.52). Often these ideological fantasies are first generated by a political or other leader's dream of what 'ought to be', so as to solve a perceived problem with a desirous solution. Something is identified as wrong, or lacking, in a polity, so as to be in need of resolution. Yet, this change process is not without restriction and constraint, or even the risk of failure, and fantasy also has a role to play in moderating the inconsistencies that this constraint, or failure, produces.

Following Foucault, Dean (2010, p.33) notes that in governance practice four 'axes of visibilities, knowledge, techniques and practices, and identities' restrict the process of problemisation and policy resolution, in other words, how regimes may govern. The recognition of particular problem for attention – problemisation – reflects specific ideological ways of seeing and metaphorically framing reality and its resultant problems (cf Schön and Rein, 1994) and, in illustrating particular deficiencies as being in need of resolution, by highlighting their visibility, while darkening and obscuring other often more important or, perhaps, contentious problems. Contemporary governmental epistemologies of knowledge support a regime of scientific truth with specific ways of thought and questioning via rationalities, expertise and methods that channels acceptable governance policy along specific paths towards certain issues and away from others, via construction of specific object and strategy formations (Duineveld and Van Assche, 2011; Foucault, 2007; Richardson, 1996). This results in specific discursive vocabularies, techniques and governmental practices pertaining to the biopolitics of populations that results in specific tactics and apparatuses of enumeration, measurement and computation that produce fields of data, statistical methods and resultant contemporary production of governmental neoliberal performative targets for objective achievement (Foucault, 2001, 2004; Gunder and Hillier, 2007). Finally, governing entails a wide range of means for forming citizens, subjects, residents, students, workers, patients, prisoners, applicants, pensioners, and so on to be governed, so that "to ask how governing work, then, is to ask how we are formed as various types of agents with particular capacities and possibilities of action" (Dean, 2010, p.40).

Fantasy plays an important, but generally overlooked, role in this process of planning and related governance, helping to shape a polity's subjects as agents, the objects/objectives that these agents are acting upon, and in providing a causal reason, predicated on subjective desire, for this action to attain a different vision of the future (Van Assche et al, 2014, p.36). Further, fantasy helps to paper over the contradictions, outright failures and inconsistencies produced by Dean's (2010) four axes of governmental constraint, as well as those of wider social reality. As noted above, ideological fantasies, in their very ability to 'grip' the subject, tend to cultivate a harmonious perception of social reality, which has a propensity to reduce self-reflection and critical questioning of the status quo. In this regard, 'social reality is structured by our imaginary misperceptions, as well as our unsymbolizable unconscious longings, which have been given up (repressed) into the unconscious in the socialization process' (Fotaki, 2010, p.710). Hence the construction of socially acceptable fantasy often provides a useful tool in the artful governance and guidance of populations. Again, fantasy's role of simplification and promise is central to this process, as 'the fantasy of effective policy, of purposeful organization and of harmonious society—all stemming

from an impossible desire for unity' and completeness (Fotaki, 2010, p.710).

Indeed, often this problemisation process is constituted under what is considered 'best practice' in the name of dominant public policy terms such as 'sustainability', 'liveability' or 'global competitiveness' (Davidson, 2010; Gunder, 2010). As demonstrated initially by Žižek (1989), and subsequently by many others, these Kantian transcendental ideas, whose ultimate meaning largely lie outside of current human knowledge and experience, act as sublime objects of ideology, while lacking concise signification due to their transcendent nature, leaving them open – Laclau and Mouffe's (1985) 'empty signifiers' – to diverse interpretation, metaphorical slippage and largely uncontested popular support (Gunder and Hillier, 2009). Indeed, these 'very generic concepts' are core to effective governance and its evolution through 'enabling the reproduction of governance by glossing over difference between [the diverse] world-construction' of different discourses and ideologies (Van Assche et al, 2014, p.12).

Consistent with Foucault's articulation of the governance problemisation process, Glynos et al (2012, pp.298–299—emphasis in original; derived from Glynos and Howarth, 2007) classify three logics at work in the formulation of public planning policy: a political logic, which confronts recognized problems so as to 'to pre-empt contestation or indeed to restore social logics and norms that are being challenged'; a social logic, which 'characterizes the patterning of established practices by dominant organizing principles'; and, finally, a fantasmatic logic, which 'provides both social and political logics with their force or ideological grip' by ensuring that political logics are compelling and that social logics appear natural by responding to a subject's 'desire and enjoyment (jouissance)'. As already outlined, for Lacan (2006), subjectivity is comprised of a 'fragmented and split subject defined by the impossibility of ever fulfilling its desire… to attain the state of blissful wholesomeness', this is a subject who, therefore, forever seeks and desires an unattainable 'object that was never there' (Fotaki, 2010, pp.706-707).

Accordingly, 'the fantasy of effective policy, of purposeful organization and of harmonious society' is based on this 'impossible desire' that acts as a metonymic demand for a sovereign good of faultless completeness (Fotaki, 2010, p.710). Of course, this perfection is indeed unattainable; accordingly, often policy related fantasies are vague as to their interpreted and as to the means that they will actually provide *jouissance* to the subject. This accounts for the popularity of use of transcendental ideas and similar undefinable, or even fictional, desirous terms in policy formulation, such as sustainability, liveability, or 'Green Heart', to use a European planning example (Gunder and Hillier, 2009; Van Eaten and Roe, 2000).

The Multiple Elements of Fantasy in Its Assurance of *Jouissance*

Beyond the provision of basic services, contemporary territorially focussed public policy formulation is largely engaged with 'encouraging the emergence of particular development trajectories' (Healey, 2008, p.8). If pragmatic and realistically attainable, such as maintaining Sydney as Australia's dominant global city, these trajectories are indeed suitable ambitions for governance (Searle and Bunker, 2010). If, on the other hand, they are wishful hopes unlikely to achieve resolution, such has making a third tied metropolitan area a 'world city' (perhaps, Dubai aside), or predicated on transcendental ideas whose resolution is not even knowable, such as sustainability; at best, these policy ambitions will remain as mere unfulfillable fantasies. Yet by articulating these aspirations in a policy statement, plan, or similar, these fantasies are attributed factual meaning and virtual substance as discursive constructs that actually exist (Hillier, 2007, p.100). They

become an attribute of materialised social reality. But here the potential failure of these types of desired popular policy fantasies to deliver their 'impossible' promise necessitates another element of fantasy construction for effective governance.

Accordingly, during different phases of their history, alternative narratives tend to attach and entangle themselves to public policy associated fantasies. These narratives, often implied as being simply 'common sense', are often concerned with both what the fantasy vows to achieve and then why the fantasy disappoints in the attainment of this promise (Byrnes, 2006). Implicitly implied in any fantasy is 'a narrative structure involving some reference to an idealised scenario promising an imaginary fullness or wholeness (the beatific side of fantasy) and, by implication, a disaster scenario (the horrific side of fantasy)', the consequences of its non-delivery and the continued incompleteness that will endure (Glynos, 2011, p.376). Yet, once a policy fantasy becomes non-delivering, this latter negativity also often comprises a clarifying narrative as to why the desired fulfilling fantasy has been dis-allowed, cannot be allowed, or is being stopped by some malicious influence, or villainous Other. Significantly, this de-stabilizing fantasy is also 'not benign in nature', rather it often is predisposed to 'be perpetrated by malicious forces aiming to destroy what an individual' contemplates as being most important (Bloom and Cederstrom, 2009, p.165).

Žižek (2006, p.26) attributes this to one frequently used technique in the ideological practice of political disavowal and justification: 'the theft of our enjoyment'. Here, 'the concept of scapegoat plays an important fantasy role in suggesting that our enjoyment might be regained, but only as a state of future potential, if we maintain the prevailing ideology by being resolute against this "thieving" Other' (Gunder, 2011a, p.334). Further, fantasy assists in the structuring of 'enjoyment embedded within scapegoating stories, an enjoyment which energizes a range of pre-emptive political logics… [so that scapegoats] embody an obstacle to an ideal which is [actually] preserved by the scapegoating process' (Glynos et al, 2012, p.312). Exemplars of planning policy scapegoats impeding, but also preserving desired ideals, drawing on the author's own research, include: 'an unreasonably protesting neighbourhood group, an unfairly elected government… not to mention an inequitably constituted competitor city, such as Sydney, perhaps unfairly stealing corporate head offices and skilled New Zealand graduates… and thwarting Auckland from being truly world-class' (Gunder, 2011a, p.334)!

From a Lacanian perspective, the scapegoat plays an important role in any ideological formation, for the actual and complete realisation of a subject's fantasy desire is impossible. For a 'subject (as a subject of desire) survives only insofar as its desire remains *un*satisfied' and 'the obstacle, which often comes in the form of a prohibition, or a threatening Other, transforms this impossibility into a "mere difficulty", thus creating the impression that its realization is at least potentially possible' (Glynos, 2011, p.377). Indeed, in the Lacanian context, the very 'concept of desire emphasizes the persistent *absence* of satisfaction, rather than the pursuit of attaining it' (Catlaw and Jordan, 2009, p.292 – emphasis in original). That is one reason why public policy is always being reformulated. Indeed, this reformulation is a core attribute of evolutionary governance and planning. Policy, especially those proposing developmental trajectories of betterment, are constantly revised, reconceptualised, or supplanted by new policy and accompanied by supportive fantasies of desirous resolution of identified deficiency and lack. These governmental policy fantasies are constructed to align and ideologically 'grip' the public, and 'the communication media – newspapers, radio, television, and now also the internet, including social networking – play a central role in shaping this process of both affective and symbolic identification' with, and support for, both emerging and reformulated governance planning policy and its implementation (Gunder,

2011a, p.327).

Conclusion

This paper contends that one cannot remove ideology and its dimensions of desire and fantasy from an understanding of evolutionary governance and planning theory. From a psychoanalytical perspective, ideology and fantasy are central to constituting many of the discursive elements of our social reality, always under laid by the subject's unconscious seeking for a desirous lost state of unity and security – an impossible return to our primordial relationship with Mum as a small infant – which could only existed prior to our assimilation into language and culture (Žižek, 1989, 2009). Indeed, although readily overlooked, this eternal human seeking of security and completeness is a fundamental driver of human agency and it is a seeking that is particularly relevant for the understanding and theorisation of evolutionary governance.

Further, an understanding of how fantasy in evolutionary planning governance theory shapes ideology and entangles discursive narratives with the a polity's aggregate desire, provides a powerful analytical tool for deconstructing public policy formations and their deployment in shaping our contemporary reality. Moreover, to not engage with an understanding of fantasy and ideology leaves the observer open to misdirection and a misunderstanding of how our understanding and perceptions of social reality actually function. That is not to say that the researcher may ever become free of ideological fantasy constructions, for, from a Lacanian perspective, that is impossible. But an awareness that we constantly swim in ideology and that its fantasies constantly attempt to affectively grip and shape our normative beliefs, at least allows us to reflectively question our positions and personal truths, as well as the effects that these ideological fantasies have on others and their actions.

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Community participation in the delivery of infrastructure: a cross-cultural examination of its impact on the capacity building of local communities

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Abstract: *Community infrastructure plays an important role in improving the quality of life of the urban poor. Much research has focused on the impacts of such infrastructure provision on resident wellbeing, but less attention has been focused on the potential to further improve quality of life through the use of community participation in the provision of that infrastructure. This paper reports on the approaches adopted for in-situ redevelopment housing projects in Victoria, Australia (Victoria Neighbourhood Renewal) and Pune, India (Yerwada Slum Upgrading project) to consider whether these approaches to community infrastructure provision have assisted in capacity building of the local residents. The paper draws on evidence collected through observational study, informal discussions and analysis of relevant media in both case studies, in addition to structured questionnaire/surveys of households and the organisations involved in the Pune project. The paper discusses the effectiveness of collaborative planning strategies developed through community participation, in terms of capacity building outcomes based on findings from the two case studies. The paper concludes with a discussion of the lessons learnt from the two case studies regarding the role participatory planning in built environment renewal can play in capacity building for the urban poor. It also comments on the extent to which such projects can contribute to the independence and resilience of communities after the renewal has been completed.*

Keywords: *Community participation, capacity building, empowerment, India, Australia*

Nature of Community Participation

In understanding the concept of community participation, we address, albeit briefly, the term ‘community’ associated with it. The word ‘community’ communicates a sense of connectedness between individuals. It could also be defined as a social informal space shared by heterogeneous individuals collectively for common interests and needs (Laverack, 2003; Casswell, 2001). In relation to planning, ‘community’ again has many connotations such as in referring a geographical community within a well-defined space, a neighbourhood identified as per its vicinity or a territorial community such as a rural community (Craig, 2007). Globally, however, most significantly funded and assessed community development programs reported in the literature tend to deal with geographical communities. The two examples of community development projects examined in this paper belong to this category.

The emphasis on community development is generally as a site of action, a site of interceding structures that mediate between the sphere of everyday life of individuals interlinked with socio-cultural, socio-economic and political aspects (McKnight, 1987, cited in Casswell, 2001). It is at the community level that government can enact the societal legislations to test both, the prospects and purpose of it (Casswell, 2001).Taylor (2003) has remarked that the term ‘community’ is often used to flagship a programme (in this case, a geographical area is characterised in terms of an array of indicators of deficit, such as, inadequate housing, lack of services, overcrowding, and urban

deterioration) in the criteria by which the programmes are measured, while the community is barred from any effective control over the programme because of the planned structures and top-down systems of decision-making established by the government. The standard approach adopted by the government is to respond on the basis of their perceived notions of the needs of disadvantaged communities. Such an approach might have been effective earlier, but might not be suitable for the new or upcoming challenges. Leading scholars such as Forester (1989), Healey (1992), Sandercock (1998) and others have emphasised the need for participatory, need based and socially acceptable planning instead of government's conventional top-down planning approach which more often fails to take into account the issues specific to a particular community or its context. As noted by the Puppim de Oliveira (2013), there is no "one-size-fits-all" model of governance.

Community development programmes can vary in the scale and level to which they accentuate their outreach to the marginalised and disadvantaged, and in the distinctness of actors involved in the partnership (Craig, 2007). The conception of community development programmes may also vary based on who identifies and outlines the issues facing the community as it may misrepresent or distort community priorities and preferences. In the late 1980s to early 1990s, many governments and international organisations undertook community development programs, although not always classifying them as such. The 2004 Budapest Declaration by delegates from over thirty nationals, across Europe, Asia, Africa and North America define community development thus in terms of capacity building:

> *"Community development is a way of strengthening civil society by prioritising the actions of communities, and their perspectives in the development of social, economic, and environmental policy. It seeks the empowerment of local communities, taken to mean both geographical communities, communities of interest or identity and communities organising around specific themes or policy initiatives. It strengthens the capacity of people as active citizens through their community groups, organisations and networks; and the capacity of institutions and agencies ... to work in dialogue with citizens to shape and determine change in their communities. It plays a crucial role in supporting active democratic life by promoting the autonomous voice of disadvantaged and vulnerable communities."* (Craig, 2007, p. 339-340).

For the well-being of local communities, community development programs promote individuals to participate, to have a voice and to be critical of top-down planning policies. Participation is a categorical term for citizen power (Arnstein, 1969). Community participation calls for the redistribution of control that facilitates the community in understanding the process of information dissemination, setting up of project objectives, resource allocation, management of programs, and to gain the benefits for the future. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1993), affirms that 'people's participation as its special focus ... is becoming the central issue of our time' (Craig and Mayo, 1995). World Bank (1996, cited in Waheduzzaman and Mphande, 2014, p. 41) provides a concise and useful definition of community participation as,

> *"... a process through which people influence and share control over development programmes and the decisions and resources that affect them."*

'Community participation' or 'bottom-up approach' is the new element that has steered into urban planning theory and practice for community development programmes in achieving effective

outcomes (Azmat et al., 2009). Community participation is characterised as the central feature of development programmes and is considered to be a core concept in shaping sustainable development of communities (Marfo, 2008). In urban planning, participation is theorised and practiced within the structure of the effectiveness of sustainable planning process implemented through a holistic knowledge of community requirements (Amado et al., 2010). It is evident that the main ingredients of community development programmes are local community people and their issues. Community participation is not a 'turn on' and 'turn off' event; it builds the capacity of the community through a continuous process, which goes through different stages of community development (Creighton, 2005). It ranges from just informing the people about the plan to making of plan or development projects by the people. While community participation in planning is increasingly acknowledged as the consensual system of decision-making, however, the developments in participation in planning do not propose a "revolution in practice" yet (Davis, 2001).

Despite increasing interests in community participation in planning, "there is much less understanding of, and even lesser agreement on, what community participation means and entails, and under what conditions is it necessary" (Khwaja, 2004). Moreover, pragmatic demonstrations suggests that only a small number of citizens, irrespective of different socio-economic background, have interest or are stimulated in contributing with specific skills for effectual participation (Mohammadi, 2010). Community disappointment with the planning process and outcome is becoming increasingly apparent in the form of indifference and lack of interest in planning and various forms of disagreements against the enactment of new policies and programs (Njoh, 2002).
Community participation in the planning process is increasingly influenced by several aspects, which may be essential in determining the degree of participation in an uneven context. These aspects range from socio-cultural to political and "are spread over a seemingly endless spectrum" (Botes and Van Rensburg, 2000). It supports the self-governing forms of action through which community makes decision on participation; more particularly "create their own opportunities and terms for engagement" (Cornwall, 2002). Literature review on participation reveals that the aspects affecting the degree of participation are mainly of two types: external (such as legislative framework, political will, governance structure and role of planners) and internal (such as public awareness, social capital and economic condition) (Swapan, 2014; Njoh, 2002).

The literature on participatory practice suggests that much importance has put into levelling the institutional dimension and less attention has been given to the socio-cultural consideration "which are often the primary drivers at the local level" (Tosun, 2000). This preconceived idea of professionals and planners is commonly vindicated by assuming socio-cultural issues as "ephemeral, intangible and unnecessary time-consuming in comparison to the more easily managed technical issues" (Botes and Van Rensburg, 2000).

The paradigm of 'development through participation' is not a single actor's or one-sided phenomenon; it is a pluralistic event that involves service providers and service receivers (Gaventa, 2004); wherein, a planner's role experiences a transition from expert to enabler and the community's role switches from an observer to active participant (Evans, 2010). Community participation in a normative way helps to achieve good governance (Khwaja, 2004), whereas in an actively involved way, it helps to bring about the capacity of the community, the synergies of which offer effective and sustainable development.

Conceptualising the framework, community participation is one of the most important concepts in planning and development, because it is potentially a vehicle of social transformation process where the community influences the development strategies and interventions, which are mostly dominated by professional experts in the government and private sector (Cooper et al., 2006; Brett, 2003). Participation combines the experience, contextual knowledge, skills, and understanding of the community, and hence, it is of importance. The degree of community participation (as shown in Fig. 1) may vary over the phase of the programme, location, and activities.

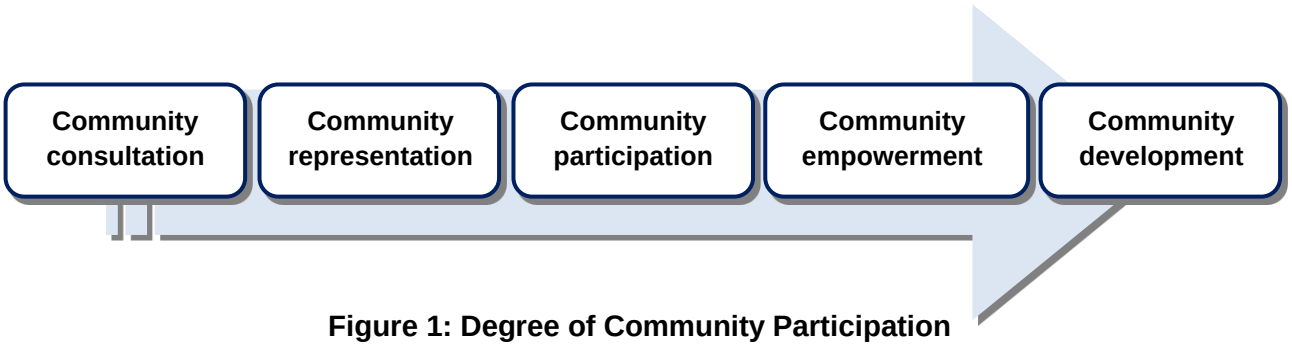

Figure 1: Degree of Community Participation
Source: Prepared by author from UN-Habitat (2006)

These five stages of community participation refer to the activities planned to give the community an opportunity to manage and contribute to decision-making on issues related to the improvement of conditions in the community in which they live. 'Consultation' denotes the provision of information to the community, to 'empowerment' and 'development', which may engage the community in creating an image and effectively contributing towards bringing it into reality (UN-Habitat, 2006; Effective Interventions Unit, 2002).

Connected to this is the proposition that solutions to problems are best developed and implemented by those closest to the problem – "local solutions to local problems". Likewise, as contended by Ife (1995, cited in Black and Hughes, 2001) and Chaskin (2001),

- Local people know their community better, have fresh perspectives and can often see the problems in new ways.
- Community participation helps to deliver programs that more precisely target local needs.
- The resulting projects are more acceptable to the local community.
- Program outputs which have been designed with input from local residents are likely to last longer because communities sense an ownership towards them.
- The constructive involvement of communities in urban renewal helps to build local organisational skills, making it easier to develop strong successor organisations.

As a result, when residents of a community are enfranchised and encouraged to participate to manage and control their decisions, and contribute to the design and execution, both the process of developing self-confidence and stimulation of social and individual wellbeing is achieved (Mansuri and Rao, 2004). Empowered community is a hallmark of the sustainability of community development. From a conceptual standpoint, community participation can be viewed as a process that serves the means of action of capacity building.

Role of Community Capacity Building

Various researchers have contended that community participation is effective only when the community capacity influences the decision-making, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation process of the government programs (Waheduzzaman and Mphande, 2014). Laverack (2001) has noted in his project in Fiji during programme evaluation that, there is a considerable overlap between the paradigms of community participation and community capacity. The difference lies in the programme outline and its objectives. Approaches to build capacity and empower the community have a specific agenda to bring about social and political changes and this is personified in their sense of freedom, efforts and political action. Such approaches require a process that builds on local strengths and promotes ownership of both the problems and the solutions. In essence, for participation to be empowering it does not only mean to improve or contribute through individual skills and abilities but also requires a socio-political will to decide and take actions.

The intersection between community participation and community capacity building therefore depends upon how individuals participate or build their capacity through a community development programme. For authors like Cavaye (1999, cited in Simpson et al., 2003) much of the basis for community development through community participation lies in community capacity. Easterling (1998, cited in Simpson et al., 2003, p. 278) defines community capacity as,

> *"... the set of assets or strengths that residents individually and collectively bring to the cause of improving local quality of life."*

To support this, Labonte (1999) has listed a series of dimensions of community capacity as 'skills, expertise, leadership, efficiency, norms of trust and reciprocity, local connections and a desire to learn and share'. These dimensions are the drivers for communities to take responsibility for their own development, instead of depending on top-down planning approaches for their well-being. If communities attempt to overcome their deficiencies, the best they can do is by building their existing capacities to help themselves. Capacity building can be seen as a development method for discovering, drawing out and applying skills that may already be there but perhaps hidden or unacknowledged (Taylor 2003). To explain this, Taylor has quoted Warburton's (1998) comment, 'what is needed is not a redressing of the inequalities of abilities, but a redressing of the inequalities of resources and opportunities to practice and develop those abilities in ways which others in society take for granted.'

In a community development programme, community participation is seen to encourage this process, by demonstrating on the assets created by self-efficacy (Diamond, 2004). Community development programmes which consider or are built around existing community capacities are more likely to be successful in accomplishing desired change than those which are adopted in a more traditional top-down manner (Littlejohns and Thompson, 2001). Community capacity then becomes one of the programme deliverables. Hence, the question arises whether community capacity should be viewed as means or as an end of community development programme.

Labonte and Laverack (2001) have explained that community capacity is not an alternative for programme aims and objectives, for which means of evaluation should be developed, but it runs on a parallel track with separate set of purposes with regard to the programme specifics. Involving community in the planning process is being incorporated around the world in response to the

failures of top-down planning methods used for community development. Community development programme initiated by government and/or international agencies, but either way they tend to involve government and non-government organisations along with the citizens for long term dialogue, mutual learning processes, and joint planning (Innes and Booher, 2003). This relatively new paradigm of planning demands a shift from the traditional top-down planning to democratic participatory planning process. Considering the importance of community participation and its relationship with community capacity building for sustainable and effective community development, this paper aims to evaluate two community development projects, one each from developed and developing country context. It applies the evaluative framework presented in the following table.

Table 1: A Brief Description of the Evaluative Framework

Items	Description
Local democracy	Bottom-up initiatives take priority over solutions imposed from outside, and the importance of local identity, leadership, knowledge, organisational skills, and management are recognised as critical components.
Joint approach	Involving co-ordination between different government departments, collaboration between local, state and central government, and lastly, involving equitable expertise and partnering between government, NGOs, private sector, practitioners', community and philanthropic sectors.
Flexible approaches	Approaches that take into account complex problems of the communities and stress upon the importance of dialogue, reflection and development.
Empowerment	Focusing on development of human resource by giving importance to education, social assets and increased connectedness.
Sustainable strategies	Strategies not limited to one-off projects, and which recognise the ongoing interdependency of social, economic and environmental connectedness.

Source: Adopted from Waheduzzaman and Mphande (2014), UN-Habitat Report (2006), and (Hounslow (2002)

Study Framework

The paper reviews approaches adopted for housing projects for disadvantaged communities by comparing two case studies. One is a developed country project – Victoria Neighbourhood Renewal (VNR), Victoria, Australia and the other is a developing country project – Yerwada Slum Upgrading Project (YSUP), Pune, India. The main criterion of selecting these cases was their key principle of incorporating democratization in planning, by involving community dwellers in the planning process. Other criteria included their scale, recorded success, and claim to have the qualities of transferability and applicability in other locations – from local to global scale. Self-enumerations, community mapping, community mobilization, sweat equity, marketing and decision-making were some of the key features common to these two projects. This paper tries to identify the key strategies adopted in the two cases that can bring about community participation and can empower the beneficiaries to help themselves in the future. It further seeks to evaluate the way these approaches work distinctly in the context of developed and developing countries. This paper reports on preliminary findings from data collected from visiting the site by visual observation, informal discussions with the residents, and semi-structured interviews with the stakeholders in both projects. This paper seeks to evaluate the two case studies in terms of how community participation builds capacity of the urban poor and the extent to which such community development programmes can contribute to the effective sustainable development of communities after the project's completion. The next section of the paper aims to outline the modus operandi in

terms of processes and tasks undertaken in each case study project. Differences and similarities in the approach to achieving stated objectives in a developed and developing country context will be highlighted.

Study Context

Tangible differences in the built environment of the rich and the poor have resulted in creating an urban divide of unequal opportunities, socio-cultural exclusion and economic instability for the disadvantaged communities (Nijman 2009). In most well-off urban areas, division of spaces for different uses are easily noticeable, with significant infrastructure, well-kept parks and playgrounds, gardens, well-serviced neighbourhoods, and high-class gated communities. In Australia, localities with high levels of disadvantage often have families crowded into one room rented apartment or vulnerable public housing blocks with deteriorated social infrastructure and environment, and inadequate basic facilities can be observed. Meanwhile, in India, there are squatters juxtaposed to the wealthy communities, characterized by inadequate housing, lack of services, overcrowding, and urban deterioration high rates of malnutrition, domestic violence, high crime rate, lack of education facilities and no capital investment in public infrastructure are some of the common features of disadvantaged communities observed in both, India and Australia. The gap in amenities and infrastructure between the rich and the poor in both contexts is a combination of economic, physical and social manifestations and an approach to tackle the three areas simultaneously becomes critical.

The paper explores the impact of community development initiatives based on such manifestations in Victoria, Australia and Pune, India. The study attempts to evaluate both the case studies from very different contexts under a common framework of analysis to highlight common tendencies.

Case 1: Victoria Neighbourhood Renewal (VNR), Victoria, Australia (Trivedi 2012)

After successful trials in 2001 in the Latrobe Valley and Wendouree West, the Victorian State Government launched the VNR project in 2002 to narrow the gap between the most disadvantaged communities and the rest of the state of Victoria (Department of Human Services, 2008). Nineteen suburbs with visible disadvantage in the shape of run-down housing and unsafe environments were identified for renewal. These suburbs were characterised by core challenges of disadvantaged communities such as high levels of unemployment, poor health status, low educational achievement, inadequate public transport and support services, excessive drug intake, high crime rates, family breakdown, and social stigma. The collective effect of these issues resulted in the isolation of disadvantaged communities from mainstream social, economic and political life (Klein 2005).

To tackle these conditions, the Housing and Community Building Division of the Department of Human Services, managed and directed NR to integrate community reinforcement, place management, and ‘joined-up government’ (Blacher 2005; Considine 2003; Fischer 2003). It was a collective investment plan to achieve the ‘Growing Victoria Together’ aim of fostering more cohesive communities, reducing inequalities, and making government more responsive to the needs of communities (Renzaho et.al. 2013; Victorian Government 2000). Unlike standard repetitive public policies, NR developed a holistic approach to the multifaceted problem of poverty and social segregation. This particular initiative has brought together the resources and ideas of

the community, central government, local government, and private sectors in a whole-of-government and inter-sectoral collaboration (Blacher 2005).

The state government's renewal program has integrated responsibility with the portfolios of individual government departments, such as health, education, and transport and housing to deal with community interdependence. Collectively with the joined-up government approach, residents were also engaged in identifying priority local issues, strategic planning and decision-making about services and social investment (Klein 2005; Nichols and Wiseman 2003). On the whole the renewal project merged diverse bodies of government, businesses, community groups, local communities and residents in a whole-of-government and inter-sectoral partnership. The idea was to combine resources and ideas to tackle disadvantage and build interconnected and cohesive communities (Wiseman 2006). Each NR project in Victoria implemented a six-point plan of action to:

- increase people's pride and participation in their community;
- lift employment and learning opportunities and expand local economies;
- enhance housing and the physical environment;
- improve personal safety and reduce crime;
- promote health and wellbeing; and
- increase access to services and improve government responsiveness (Department of Human Services 2008).

To achieve these objectives area manager, project staff, community development worker and employment and education coordinators were employed for each community. Their responsibility was to accomplish cross-cutting results for their particular neighbourhood. The NR staff collectively brought together government programs and services of different departments so as to respond to local priorities and bring significance to the community (Klein 2003). The approaches and techniques applied by NR to accomplish their aims and objectives have demonstrated the program's ability to transform the entire neighbourhood, by putting people first and by responding to community priorities.

In this paper, we evaluate the VNR Programme for its sustenance and effective community development using the evaluative framework. The data in the Table 2 below was collected through semi-structured interview conducted to get the insights of the professionals and officials involved in the project. Media scan and secondary data analysis was done to check the validity of the information. The findings of the survey are discussed in the table below:

Table 2: Evaluating Victoria Neighbourhood Renewal Programme

Items	Project outcomes
Local democracy	▪ The state government of Victoria partnered with the local residents for holistic and integrated responses to the complex problem of poverty and segregation. ▪ NR started 'new forms of organizing democracy which realign relations between government, markets and communities'. ▪ Transferring more powers to the local residents was a crucial step by the NR program to create inclusive and healthy communities through better utilisation and coordination of local resources and ideas.
Joint approach	▪ The VNR has utilised a whole-of-government approach that consists of a better coordination between different government portfolios and is monitored

	by the State Coordination and Management Council. ▪ While at a local level, partnerships formed between governments, businesses, residents, community groups and service providers to support implementation of NR Action Plans was observed by local NR governance arrangements.
Flexible approaches	▪ To make the Departments accessible to the community, the program established community offices with a place-manager and place-management teams for each community in order to scale down all community renewal work to a manageable level. ▪ Another positive aspect of VNR planning was the use of appropriate resources and skilled trained staff who understood the necessity of long term capacity building, respected and addressed the intersection of top-down and bottom-up decision-making, structures and processes of multi-level negotiations and agreements between government.
Empowerment	▪ The residents were encouraged to participate in planning and decision-making about priorities for action, to execute change with the support of government and in evaluating the success of local action. ▪ Local residents were given jobs training and skills development and were employed in the beautification and refurbishment of their communities. ▪ The residents were also coming together to assist in educational programs to help in surveys and administration, and to clean and safeguard their own communities. ▪ A crime prevention team was allocated to provide training to the unemployed local people in Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design. Neighbourhood Watch, and Anti-bullying and Violence Prevention Programs were also introduced by local community bodies. ▪ Residents were participating in large numbers in their community barbeques, arts and cultural projects, festivals, community gardening and family fun days.
Sustainable strategies	▪ The VNR program provided unemployed local residents with work skills and employment to renew their community. ▪ Local community based enterprises were created through Collingwood and Fitzroy projects in horticulture, recycling, construction, hospitality, information technology and childcare. ▪ Resident guardians were employed by the Department of Human Services to implement safety plans. ▪ While creating more local jobs this strategy also helped in the reduction of security breaches and led to improved safety. ▪ A compulsory public tenant employment clause requiring the contractors to employ one third of local residents for commercial cleaning and gardening services was initiated. ▪ A sixteen-week payment of rent subsidy was provided by the Office of Housing to public housing tenants when they were offered a job, as a further incentive for people to move into the job market.

Even though the VNR Programme outcomes fulfil all the criteria of community participation, we analyse the project for effective and sustainable development.

- **Easy provisions:** From a critical point of view, the Victorian government has been investing millions and providing the residents to fulfil their every need. In this case it is difficult to say whether the residents of a social housing estate will have the same sense of

ownership towards it and will take care of the property in the same manner, than if the residents had contributed and invested from their own pockets.

- **Multi-level negotiations:** Empowering the community to participate in the planning and decision-making process encourages them in the partnership, but the outcomes of this partnership might not be clear and conflict free. Confronting the issues experienced by the disadvantaged communities brings with it disagreement, heterogeneity and unpredictability in the decision-making process. Moreover, the multi-level negotiations among various government departments and with relevant Ministers, who must have been to the field merely once, might lead to irrelevant and irrational decisions.

- **Unbalanced social mix:** The up-grading of public housing has diminished the percentage and diversity of the population targeted. Creating socially and economically mixed communities remains a considerable challenge in the sustainability of the up-grading. Residents with diverse socio-cultural and economic backgrounds will have different sets of issues and different opinions while planning and decision-making. The attempt to create a 'balanced social mix' by the departments might not fulfil the demands and satisfy every group, thus leading to conflicts.

- **Questioning the sustainability of the program:** The community reinforcement approaches and programs put into action by the VNR is still in progress, but the question remains unanswered as to whether the joined-up government approach will continue with the same drive for community development work, maintaining sustainability and being persistent over time. It is apparent that collaboration between government and community can bring incredible advancements and improvements, but the population residing in the area in the initial stages of the programme is not the same.

NR has demonstrated that it is possible to re-engage communities that are socio-culturally and economically disadvantaged. This is possible if the government pays attention, then acts wisely, collaboratively and promptly. But, the analysis of the case study points out, that the governing authorities have concentrated more on the planning, execution, beautification, and development of built environment whereas the human development components were not entirely focused and that there are still some gaps to be fulfilled. The government authorities have also lacked the foresight of gentrification, wherein due to improvement in skills and better employment opportunities in the city, the original community has moved out, reversing the primary objective of community development. Nonetheless, the central learning feature of NR is the component of empowering the local residents as planners and decision-makers, by channelling and binding the right local and regional sources, and thus creating inclusive and sound communities. Hereon we examine an Indian case study in relation to collaborative and participatory redevelopment approaches.

Case 2: Yerwada Slum Upgrading Project (YSUP), Pune, India

YSUP in Pune was put into action through Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) under Basic Services for the Urban Poor (BSUP) funding. JNNURM is a government of India initiative launched in 2005 to meet the infrastructural needs of the cities and to deal with the growing challenges of urbanization. To minimize the challenges for the Mission, JNNURM was further sub-divided into - urban infrastructure and improved governance in municipalities, to be managed by the Ministry of Urban Development; and Basic Services for the Urban Poor (BSUP), to

be managed by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (Patel 2013). To seek funding from JNNURM, each state government had to prepare and submit detailed reports along with city development plans and timeline to undertake various listed modifications in the project, of which one set was for BSUP. The objective of BSUP was to improve and upgrade the living conditions of the slum settlements. BSUP had sought to support slum upgrading projects by providing the slum dwellers with affordable housing, basic services like water, sewage, sanitation, electricity connections, education and security of tenure. Evidently, the idea was to improve the dwellings in the same locations, as relocation has been widely proved to be unacceptable as a solution for slum upgrading.

The cities selected for BSUP funding were categorized on the basis of their population, that is, more than 4 million (7 cities), 1-4 million (28 cities) and others (JNNURM Report 2012). With a population of 3.8 million (Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation 2005-06), Pune was selected under the second population category. Additionally, to receive BSUP funding, the cities or municipal governments also had to submit detailed development reports and assurance from the state government to handle the urban governance models, which was further assessed by the central government of India. Under the BSUP, it was decided that 5 per cent of the funding would be utilized to train the personnel, capacity building, data collection and community participation. The remaining amount would be used to upgrade the houses, wherein each household would have to contribute 10-12 per cent of the cost that is Rs. 30, 000 (approximate 550 AUD). Rs. 3 lakh (approximate 5000 AUD) per house was the estimate of the government that was reported to the community (Information collected during survey, 2014).

The Central government of India sanctioned 4000 households (MASHAL records 2014) in the settlement of Yerwada to be upgraded in-situ under JNNURM – BSUP. The Yerwada project is an initiative of Pune Municipal Corporation (PMC), which was further contracted to various non-government organizations (NGOs), including MASHAL, SPARC, and Mahila Milan for project implementation, to act as a conduit between PMC and the residents.

Before the initiation of the project, surveyors were employed by the NGOs for community mapping, biometric survey and to collect project relevant documents. A standard design of the house was prepared by the project architect and was presented to the community in the meetings for their inputs. The methodology used was that the site layout of the settlement will be retained while the temporary tin structure would be rebuilt as per the standard design, with minor changes given by the resident in the meetings. The design and fund approved was for a 270 square feet house to be constructed with durable materials (Shelter Associates 2012). In case of less floor space, extra floor space was added with one, two or three-storey single and multiple family structures (MacPherson 2012).

In this paper, we evaluate the YSUP for its sustenance and effective community development on the same guidelines as VNR using the evaluative framework. The data in the Table 3 below is based on the observations, secondary data, informal discussions with community people, household surveys (100 households) and interviews conducted with the practitioners' (in all 16, consisting of local leaders, contractors, consultant, project surveyors/supervisors, project coordinator, NGO head, and project architects). Focus group discussions were conducted for triangulation and validity of the data. The findings of the survey are discussed in the table below:

Table 3: Evaluating Yerwada Slum Upgrading Programme

Items	Project outcome
Local democracy	▪ Communities were involved in design of the housing units. Residents were given the freedom to give inputs on their house designs but with minor changes. ▪ A final design approval was obtained from the beneficiary and a legal agreement was signed between the building contractor and the beneficiary.
Joint approach	▪ YSUP is a joined-up government approach, with multi-level negotiations among various government portfolios, NGOs and the community. But the main implementation and organisational power was in the hands of the local NGO and community groups.
Flexible approaches	▪ In cases where the design involved multiple adjoining houses, a joint meeting was organised by the local NGO attended by the contractor and the beneficiaries to receive a joint consent. ▪ The residents were given freedom to increase the floor space by constructing more storeys with extra capital input.
Empowerment	▪ Engaging community in planning and decision-making is empowering for the residents. ▪ Contributing in the form of money, gave the households a sense of ownership towards their house. ▪ Apart from a permanent house, each household now had a toilet in the house.
Sustainable strategies	▪ Local NGO partners helped the beneficiaries to establish housing cooperatives so that the housing received under BSUP stays in good shape without external assistance.

Even though the project is only a few years old, YSUP has already achieved international recognition and HUDCO (Housing and Urban Development Corporation Limited) Design award for the year 2013. But, the project overall does not resolve the purpose of JNNURM – BSUP. During the survey, a 51-year old woman resident stated,

> *"... our contribution was only in the form of time and money. Even though we gave our timely inputs in the community meetings, our house is 'contractor built' with the same old bureaucracy system."* (Survey, 2014)

Another private consultant during his interview said that,

> *"... the project has been implemented in extremely scattered manner, which still leaves the settlement in an organic form. The land resource has been very inefficiently used. This was a good opportunity for the government organisations to work together and resolve the issues of narrow lanes and emergency access. It appears that there has been no form of joint approach within the government portfolios to resolve the most visible and important issue of the slum."* (Survey, 2014)

Although the collected secondary documents associated with the programme discuss the significance of community participation, participation is merely viewed as providing information to communities about the project (Patel, 2014). The project reports and practitioners' acknowledge the importance of participation, but lack the organisational capacity and tools to effectively engage the community on the site. Mostly, the government does not participate in the development of slum settlements for the reasons of legality of security of tenure. But, in the case of Yerwada, a huge

investment has been made by the government, wherein the security of tenure is still in question. In essence, the standard of living of the community in terms of physical living conditions has definitely improved (for instance, each house has a toilet now), but there is no change in social cohesion or social capital. In fact the project clause is holding the community together. Therefore, here too the government authorities have missed the opportunity of effectively developing the community.

Lessons learned

Built on the study and investigation for this paper, some of the guidelines listed below could help guide redevelopment of disadvantaged localities. Practitioners and professionals should know that redevelopment projects are not strategies for 'quick fix' solutions (Trivedi 2012). Before taking up the redevelopment projects, government officials and professionals should consider the following points, not only for the implementation of the project, but also for its long-term impact:

- The redevelopment projects should be designed in a manner in which the community see themselves as a source of action and accomplishment.
- The community should experience that the project is revolving around them.
- Demonstrate recognition and understanding of their position as outsiders to the community and the potential effect of their participation in the project.
- Acknowledge the contribution of the community in the form of their indigenous skills, knowledge and capability.
- Be respectable facilitators by supporting and motivating community-based initiatives and questioning practices that obstruct community from putting forward their ideas, such that they realise their potentials.
- Encourage joint decision-making when outlining needs, setting goals and, framing policies and plans in the implementation program.
- Discuss successes and failures when facilitating meetings with the community.
- Pay more attention to the needs of marginalised groups, especially those with less voice and more need;
- Protect the programme and community decisions from any third dominating party with personal interests.
- Engage a sample of interested delegates of the community in the programme as partners and community representatives to define and design suitable methods to reach the discussed goals with the community.
- Ensure a multi-disciplinary/joint planning approach to project planning and implementation with the inclusion of planners, technical professionals, community representatives, and social scientists. This will not only respect the process and product related issues, but will also recognise and make use of appropriate skills from within the community.
- Engage the community and make use of their skills and creativity with a positive attitude and without exploitation.
- Empower the community as equal partners in the benefits and losses of the programme through active engagement processes which induce the community to take charge of the development programme rather than just receiving a share of benefits in a passive manner.

Findings and Conclusion

The findings from the study of the two projects can be summarised keeping in view the fact that the contexts of both the cases differ, but the core concepts of community development and community participation applied are the same. The stated aims of both VNR and YSUP projects focus on capacity building through community participation in in-situ redevelopment projects involving physical improvement tasks. The implementation of the two projects, however, shows different ways in which the core concepts were sought to be realised.
The contexts of the two projects are very different and are defined by different political considerations even though affordability may have been an over-riding concern. In the case of VNR, there was not much emphasis on enhancing local leadership within the communities. The focus has been on implementing sweat equity concept to lower costs of physical area improvements. Externally appointed managers technically administered the skills upgrading component, employing sweat equity. From a technical point of view, the project resulted in improving skills of the participants.

In the case of YSUP, similarly, little emphasis was placed on developing local leadership, despite the rhetoric. An NGO was put in charge of delivering the project and liaising with relevant government agencies and the community. The community, however, was not required to participate other than by attending some information sessions. The heavily subsidised area improvement program delivered significant physical improvements of living conditions that allowed a marked appreciation of the asset value of homes. From the NGO's perspective, the appearance of the settlement has improved even though any improvement to the security of tenure of the residents by participating in the program is not clear.

The study also highlights the difficulty of measuring community benefits resulting from a project. It presents the dilemma whether counting benefits to individuals can be aggregated to be counted as benefits accrued to the larger community. It is important to realise that community is not static, its composition can change during (and as a result of) project intervention. In the VNR case, there was a significant turnover as many members who acquired skills moved out of the suburbs. In the YSUP case some families rented out their properties and moved out. In both cases, therefore, the composition of the communities changed between the inception and completion of the project. In the case of VNR, those acquiring skills moved out to other suburbs. It is possible that the improved physical conditions would attract households from a higher socio-economic status than the original residents. This is based on the assumption that the current status of an area influences the type of residents attracted to it. This could be extended to suggest that improvements in living conditions would make the area more attractive to those with a relatively greater power to choose due to their socio-economic status. The turnover, however, could weaken community cohesion and erode existing social capital. In YSUP, households who let out their homes to renters rented left the community potentially eroding collective social capital built over the years. The introduction of a new category of households, the renters, could result in weakening community cohesion.

From the study of two cases in dissimilar contexts but seeking similar objectives focused on community participation and capacity building, we can conclude that community development depends on social capital building. As the two cases indicate, benefits accruing to individuals within a community do not necessarily lead to strengthening community bonds that lead to the community's capacity building. In the case of VNR, skills improvement led to individual's capacity building while in YSUP's case, the project led to an increase in the asset value of the house,

yielding individual benefits to the households. In both the cases, while individual capacity (VNR) or assets (YSUP) were built as a result of the project intervention, social bonding seems to have suffered as households benefiting most form the project tended to move out. We can conclude therefore, that in both cases, individual benefits were realised as a result of project intervention while building of community capacity was ignored.

The lack of an integrated approach that addresses both built environment and social outcomes is a long-standing weakness in much planning activity. As an antidote, projects delivering physical improvements must also focus on involving capacity building measures that are based on mutual cooperation and that require community development in the sense of generating local leadership, project management capacity and sense of community responsibility. These measures may take longer to deliver envisaged project outcomes in terms of physical improvements, but will ensure that the outcome is not limited to individual gains. It is important to remind ourselves that built environment redevelopment programs are best considered a vehicle to bring about community wide benefits.

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Fragmented landscapes: the challenge of conservation planning in a fragmented legal landscape

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Abstract: *Connectivity and integrity in the landscape are vital components of conservation biology. But in a different sense, they are also important characteristics of a regulatory regime. This paper examines the disjointed arrangements of the law which frame planning for biodiversity conservation in New Zealand. A lack of dedicated threatened species legislation means that the protection of threatened and at risk species is shored up by a range of statutes with disparate foci and function. The intersection between human activity/development and harm to species is a space where the consistent protection of threatened species is not well resolved. Although the Wildlife Act 1953 provides absolute protection for most endemic species, the protection is diluted in several important respects. In particular, protection from incidental take is compromised and protection under the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA) is commonly the default position. Conservation legislation, such as the Conservation Act 1987, the National Parks 1980 and the Reserves Act 1977, is strongly place-based and this contributes to uneven protection of wildlife. This problem is accentuated by the focus of the RMA upon protection of habitat as opposed to habitat and species. As a consequence of this fragmentation, conservation planning documents tend to lack a consistent strategic approach. This paper argues that not only does the lack of a consistent legislative focus weaken protection, it also influences the strength and effect of the regulatory community, which includes planners and educators. The law requires reform to enable more effective protection of threatened and at risk species.*

Keywords: *biodiversity protection, Wildlife Act 1953, connectivity, Resource Management Act 1991, spatial conservation plans*

Introduction

Connectivity and integrity in the landscape are vital components of conservation biology. But in a different sense, they are also important characteristics of a regulatory regime. This paper examines the disjointed arrangements of the law which frame planning for biodiversity conservation in New Zealand. A lack of a comprehensive statute directed at threatened species protection means that the protection of Threatened and At Risk species is shored up by a range of statutes with disparate foci and function. The intersection between human activity/development and harm to species is a space where the consistent protection of threatened species is not well resolved. The key point of this article is to point out the patchy delivery of species protection in New Zealand and to suggest that a more coherent and consistently protective approach is needed. This article sets the background for a more detailed analysis recently carried out by the author (Wallace 2014). It also suggests the possibility that the current fragmented approach to species protection and conservation planning may have consequences for the enthusiasm and attention of planners and planning educators in this field. It raises this point in order to provoke discussion with the audience about the relative ease or otherwise of delivering teaching programmes related to conservation planning and the extent to which this subject is comprehensively taught.

New Zealand

New Zealand lacks a strong consistent approach to biodiversity conservation, particularly as it relates to the conservation of Threatened and At Risk species. This is problematic for a country inhabited by a unique endemic biodiversity subject to intensifying anthropogenic threats. The example of avifauna demonstrates the vulnerable position of New Zealand biodiversity, with high numbers of species Extinct, Threatened or At Risk as shown in Table 1.

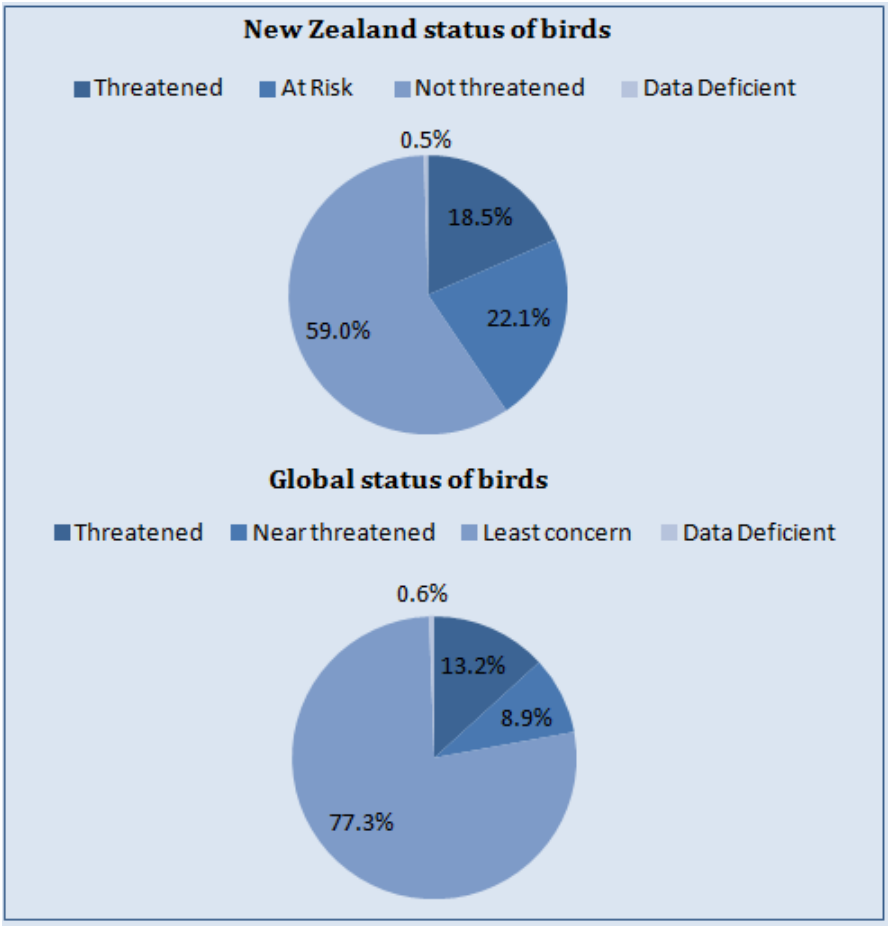
Table 1 Conservation status of New Zealand birds

Classification	Threat level	Number of species
Extinct		56
Data Deficient		2
Nationally critical	Threatened	25
Nationally endangered	Threatened	18
Nationally vulnerable	Threatened	34
Declining	At Risk	17
Recovering	At Risk	13
Relict	At Risk	17
Naturally uncommon	At Risk	45
Migrant		24
Vagrant		138
Coloniser		9
Not Threatened (native and resident)		38
Introduced and Naturalised		37
Total		**473**

Source: Information derived from Robertson, and others 2013.

At the generic level, compared with global statistics, New Zealand has a higher percentage of Threatened or At Risk bird species. Of 417 New Zealand species, 77 (18.5%) are Threatened and 92 (22.1%) are At Risk. In 2013 the global figures were 1,313 (13.2%) Threatened and 880 (8.9%) near Threatened (Figure 1).

Figure 1 Comparison of Conservation Status of New Zealand and Global Birds



Source: Information derived from Robertson and others 2013 and Birdlife International 2013 at 7.

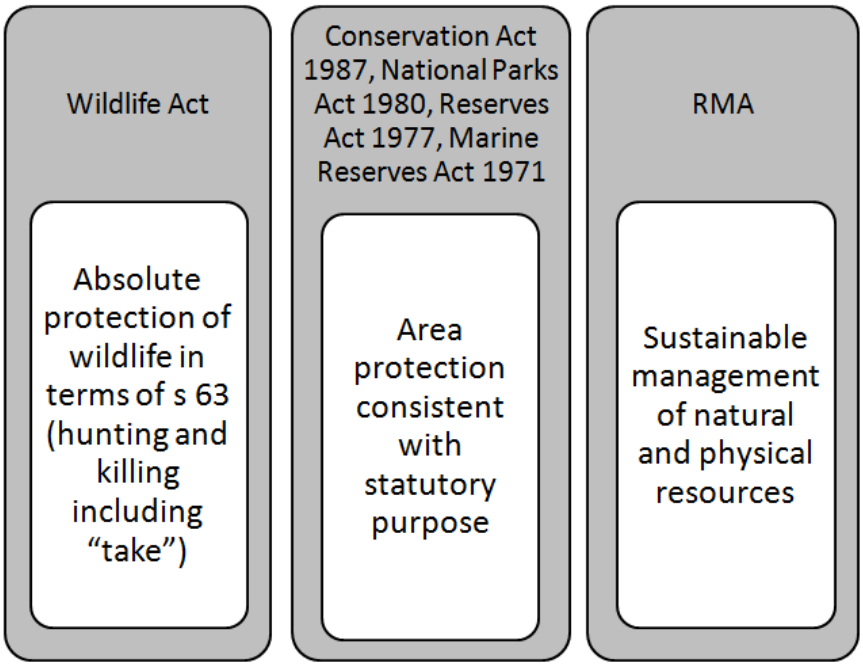
New Zealand trades on its natural resources and uses it unique flora and fauna as a means of attracting revenue through international and domestic tourism. Despite the evident value of the biodiversity resource New Zealand has not yet adopted a strong legal framework in response to agents of decline, of which invasive mammalian predators, and habitat loss and modification are identified as the most pressing (Kingsford and others 2009, 837, Wilson 2008). The regulatory framework directing biodiversity conservation and planning can be divided into four key areas (Figure 2).

Figure 2 New Zealand legislative conservation frameworks

Wildlife Protection: Wildlife Act 1953	**Resource use and protection:** Resource Management Act 1991
Protected Areas legislation: Conservation Act 1987, National Parks Act 1980, Reserves Act 1977, Marine Reserves Act 1971	**Other legislation** e.g. Biosecurity Act 1993

The frameworks have arisen over time and manage separate but related aspects of biodiversity conservation. These aspects are discussed in detail by the author elsewhere (Wallace 2014) and what follows is a brief summary to underpin the subsequent discussion. Figure 2 demonstrates the compartmentalisation which arises through incremental legislative effort. Figure 3 summarises the distinct outlook of the frameworks, excluding the wider category of “other legislation”. At the heart of this problem is the fact that a bird species (and even the same bird) may receive different levels of protection in different areas/media. Thus in New Zealand, a dotterel may be entitled to stronger protection from development effects in coastal areas than in inland terrestrial areas, both consisting of habitat where the bird naturally occurs. Or the Waikato River environs, as a consequence of co-management legislation directed at protection of the river area (e.g., Waikato-Tainui Raupatu Claims (Waikato River) Settlement Act 2010) may provide greater sanctuary than elsewhere. To a degree this can be expected, for instance, as between a public nature reserve and private land, or even a zoo and a farm. Yet when a bird has threatened status, a better outcome is for protection to be premised upon that status as opposed to place or other driver. When the legislation intended to prevent harm to wildlife (such as the Wildlife Act 1953) is insufficiently comprehensive, then unanticipated consequences tend to arise by virtue of the legal responses, which fill the vacuum, or lack thereof.

Figure 3 Legislative direction



Wildlife Act 1953

The Wildlife Act governs species protection and s 3 of the Act provides for the absolute protection of all wildlife, with exceptions outlined in Schedules 1-5 of the Act. This appears extensive, but the exceptions, statutory defences (ss 68AB, 68B), lack of clarity surrounding incidental loss such as habitat destruction, and reduced implementation limit the effect of the Act (Wallace 2014 ch 7). Regarding human activity causing loss to species, power exists to consider and authorise such activity pursuant to s 53 of the Wildlife Act 1953, however, research indicates that such authorities are infrequently applied for (Wallace 2014 ch 7).

The Wildlife Act contributes little in terms of active conservation planning for Threatened Species. Its function is largely to limit a range of actions which may result in hunting or killing of protected species and to legitimise the take of particular species for game. The Act does not require mandatory recovery plans for Threatened Species, nor provide legal status for any such plans if prepared. Furthermore the Act does not make provision for comprehensive conservation planning or for any form of emergency spot zone (or similar) to provide immediate protection for Threatened species where imminent loss may arise. Statutory mechanisms are not available under the Wildlife Act to map and protect endangered species and their habitat in a holistic and range focused manner. (Population management plans are provided for by s 14F of the Wildlife Act but these are exclusive to marine wildlife and not widely used.) Even in the limited cases where thorough and specific species recovery plans are prepared, there is no statutory mechanism to direct their consideration in respect of resource use and development plans made under other statutes. The focus of the Wildlife Act tends to reduce down to actions in respect of individual animals or particular populations rather than promoting protection at the wider landscape scale. This creates a significant problem where other legislation is fragmented or bounded and fails to comprehensively capture the vulnerabilities and needs of species across their range.

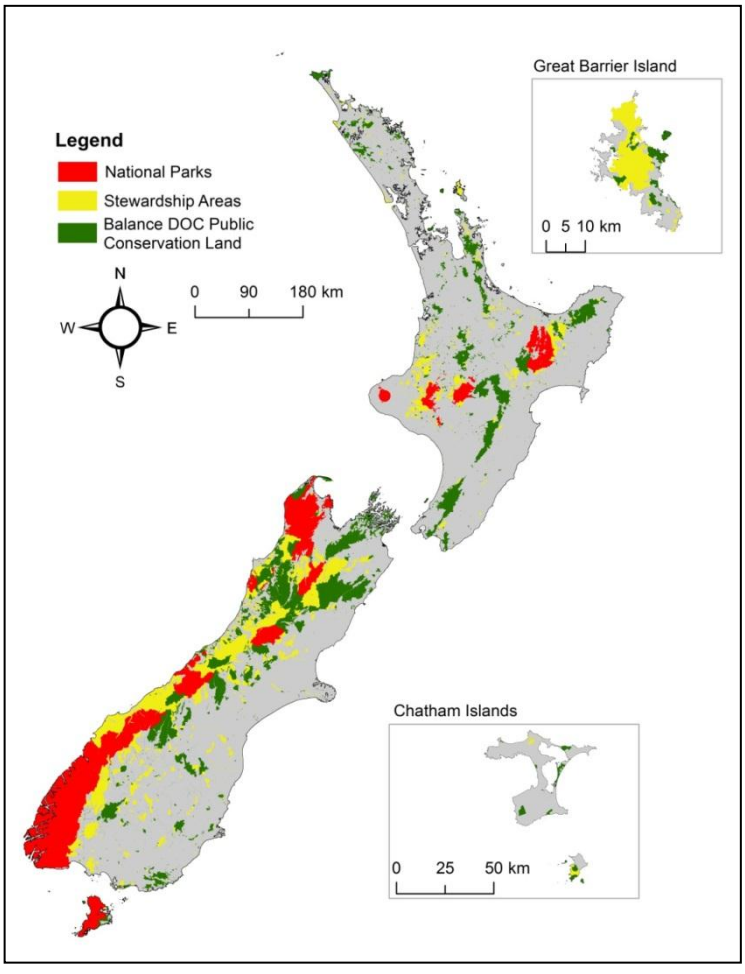
The lack of a statutory planning mechanism constrains the impact of the Wildlife Act 1953, and it presents as a reactive mechanism as opposed to active protection and conservation. Planning groups of scientists, conservation managers and non-governmental organisations may come together to chart species recovery, but this is not commonly in conjunction with the planning and management of human activity in the environment. Much of the work will be limited to the public conservation estate and will commonly focus upon the significant threat of invasive aliens. This approach works well for birds such as the kokako, whose range is now largely confined to the conservation estate as a result of anthropogenic forces. However, for birds such as the dotterel and the black petrel whose ranges extend within and beyond the public conservation estate, the approach is less successful. This is largely due to the failure to achieve conservation throughout the birds' terrestrial, coastal and oceanic habitat and adequate limitation of species-specific agents of decline such as fisheries bycatch and cumulative development effects (2014, Wallace chs 4 and 7).

Protected Area legislation

The protected area legislation shown in Figure 2 does work in conjunction with the Wildlife Act and adds a further protective layer to the legislative arrangements. However, these statutes are spatially limited to the extent of the protected area, and excepting the Reserves Act 1977, are not applied to private land. Although approximately one third of New Zealand's land area is held under protected area legislation, the areas are recognised as not representative of the full suite of New Zealand environments (Figure 3). Threatened and At Risk species occur across all New Zealand environments, with the greatest proportion of threatened avian species arising in coastal zones which are poorly represented in protected areas. Species tend to fare better in protected areas in contrast to privately held lands, and the coast is an area of particular concern due to a trend of intensifying development.

As noted, for some species such as the kokako, this is not much of a problem, as due to limiting anthropogenic forces they are now largely confined to the conservation estate. The kokako has received extensive conservation triage in these areas and has recently has its conservation status upgraded from Threatened (Vulnerable) to Not Threatened (At Risk, Recovering) (Robertson and others 2013, 13). The bird remains conservation dependent, however, due to the persistent threat of alien invasive predators throughout all environments in New Zealand.

Figure 4 Public Conservation Land



Source: Coastline is LINZ NZtopo50 Coastline
Boundaries of public conservation land sourced from Department of Conservation 2013

No clear and consistent mandate to protect and plan for endangered species across all environments in New Zealand is provided for in the legislative arrangements. Section 57(3) of the Wildlife Act provides that ownership of species vests in the Crown and s 41(1)(fa) in describing the general powers of the Minister of Conservation, provides that he or she may from time to time "protect and preserve wildlife that are absolutely protected under this Act". However, pursuant to s 6(a) of the Conservation Act, the conservation management functions of the Department of Conservation are limited to land or resources held under the Act, thus constraining activity for conservation purposes upon private land without agreement of the land owner. Furthermore the role of Department of Conservation reduces to an advocacy function as it concerns private land. Under the current statutory arrangements mechanisms to methodically carry out conservation planning and protection across both the public and private estates are lacking. Specific powers under the Wildlife Act to prepare conservation policy and plans tend to be limited to wildlife sanctuaries, refuges and management reserves (ss14B-E).

The outcome of the statutory arrangements is that biodiversity conservation planning documents prepared and administered by the Department of Conservation are largely limited to the public conservation estate. Policy to guide the management and protection of species exists, but the collective force of the instruments falls short of directing rigorous protection. For the protection of

birds, the most pertinent statutory instruments are Conservation General Policy prepared pursuant to s 17B and s 17C of the Conservation Act and Conservation Management Strategies. Conservation General Policy says little about the protection and management of Threatened or At Risk species. No clear statement of the need to avoid irreversible effects on Threatened species is made, nor is there any indication that a precautionary approach should be applied (Wallace 2014, ch 7). As well as lacking conservation plans and strategies with a clear guiding philosophy (Clout and Saunders 1995 94) species management under the Wildlife Act and Conservation Act has been criticised as being inconsistent and alarmingly under-resourced (Joseph and others 2008 155).

Restriction to the public conservation estate further reduces the protective effect of the policies and plans, particularly for mobile species or those species which are not strongly represented on public conservation lands. It is well understood that ecological processes are not well reflected through human governance boundaries drawn on maps.

Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA)

The divide between public and private estate in New Zealand creates fragmentation of protection that is further compounded by the internal workings of the RMA. As the principal statute governing resource use and protection in New Zealand, the RMA has a considerable role in regulating the effects of human resource use upon species. Protection of species is not, however, the key focus of the Act. Pursuant to s 5 the purpose of the RMA, is the sustainable management of natural and physical resources, a mandate fundamentally different to absolute protection of wildlife. In contrast to other jurisdictions such as the United States, Australia and Canada, New Zealand lacks dedicated threatened species legislation (Seabrook Davison 2010). A systematic statutory process for listing of Threatened or At Risk species is not provided under the Wildlife Act or the RMA. This gap is compounded by an absence of mandatory recovery plans for threatened species with associated recognition of critical habitat.

Outside of the public conservation estate the RMA governs resource use, development and protection. Reflecting its impact upon all New Zealand natural and physical resources, the RMA rests upon a different institutional framework to the Wildlife Act. A three tier structure comprised of central government and two levels of local government, regional and territorial, anchors the operation of the RMA, and provision is made for the sustainable management of resources, including biodiversity, principally through the creation of resource management policy and plans.

On conservation land development is constrained by both the RMA and the conservation legislation. The RMA includes conservation areas, although a limited exemption applies to the Crown for land-use activities controlled by territorial authorities where that use is consistent with a Conservation Management Strategy or plan (s 4(3)). On private land, however, the protection of species' habitat is the remit of the RMA alone, the role of Department of Conservation diminishes to advocacy except for the discretionary power of the Minister of Conservation to preserve and protect absolutely protected species. Protection of species by the Crown, by virtue of ownership and protection through the Wildlife Act, tends to be overshadowed on private land. The RMA provides for the protection of species, but unlike the mandate of absolute protection afforded under the Wildlife Act, decisions are made to a level consistent with the promotion of sustainable management. Habitat not species protection is emphasised (s 6(c)), and although habitat protection is critical, a purely habitat approach can produce inconsistencies when agency

boundaries divide populations/species. Arguments can be made for a limitation of responsibility for species protection upon individual property owners, but the consequence of this arrangement can mean loss to species, and is an obvious contributing factor to the loss of biodiversity in New Zealand.

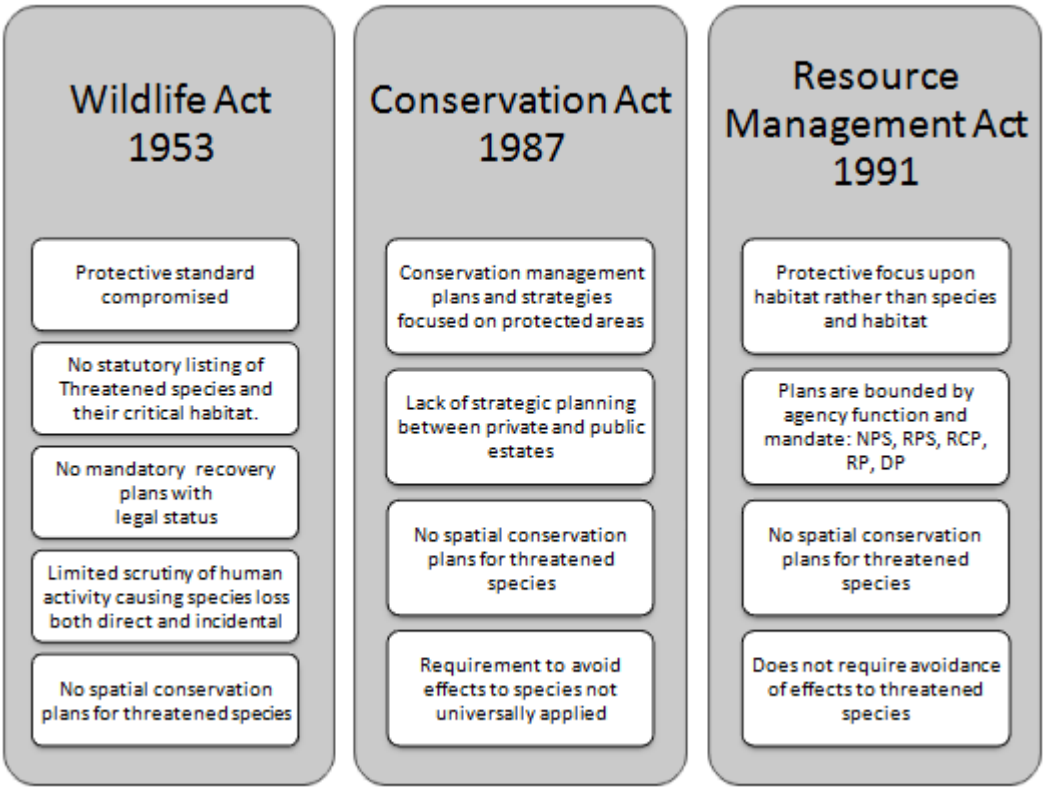
Under the RMA, biodiversity is a concern of both regional and territorial authorities (Sections 30(1)(ga) and 31(1)(b)(3)). Resource management functions are divided between regional and district councils, pursuant to ss 30 and 31 of the RMA, whilst the Regional Policy Statement is, pursuant to s 59, directed at achieving integrated management of all natural and physical resources of the entire region. These documents can be supplemented by technical standards known as National Environmental Standards (Sections 43-44A.), and must give effect to National Policy Statements, both are prepared by central government, and designed to provide nation-wide consistency and effect (Sections 45-58A). For species protection it is apparent that much of the effort under the RMA arises in a reactive manner and consequent upon an application for consent to use a resource. This is important work, but will in most cases be limited to the specific concerns of the resource consent application. In strategic terms effort is concentrated upon the protection of significant habitat in Regional Policy Statements and Regional and District Plans. The triggering of habitat significance through the presence of a Threatened or At Risk species is an essential mechanism for the delivery of protection to species under the RMA. However, this form of mechanism is not directed by statute and currently is employed where an agency and its constituents consider this to be an appropriate mechanism.

The real problem for Threatened and At Risk species is that there is no clear statutory direction elevating this class to priority, and the protection of biodiversity is just one factor of many that must be considered in achieving the sustainable management of natural and physical resources. Consistency of approach and integration is hampered by the lack of an operative National Policy Statement on biodiversity and a silo effect arises through the division of agency function arising through the RMA and conservation legislation. At a strategic landscape level conservation planning for Threatened and At Risk species across all environments is not directed by statute, and effort tends to be limited by agency function and boundary. The absence of a statutory listing process and mandatory recovery plans tied to identification of critical habitat further limits a comprehensive approach. Without legislation directed to universal protection of Threatened and At Risk species and integrated mapping and planning tools mandated to support this, the New Zealand approach is fettered.

Fragmenting agency function and responsibility limits the force of protection for the species. Ownership of species is vested in the Crown, but beyond the public conservation estate the role of the Department of Conservation is largely reduced to one of advocacy. This arrangement limits the ability of the “owner” to protect its property and enforce the requirement for absolute protection. This is combined with a lack of implementation of the standard of absolute protection and an associated failure to scrutinise private development activities under the Wildlife Act. Obligations picked up by Regional and District Councils area are couched in the less forceful language of the RMA and are diluted by requirements for sustainable management. Conservation policy and management plans stop short at the boundary of the public estate and fail to integrate and “speak” with resource management plans. Initiatives such as the species optimisation programme, designed to focus management effort are also curtailed by the boundaries of the conservation estate (Wallace 2014, ch 7). In this way the eyes of conservation planners stop short of the horizon

and their concerns are bounded. Figure 5 depicts some of the limitations of the conservation planning approach in New Zealand.

Figure 5 Limitations of conservation mechanisms



Adopting dedicated threatened species legislation in order to strengthen the current position has been argued for strongly by Seabrook Davidson and others (Seabrook-Davidson 2011). Drawing on the examples of the United States' Endangered Species Act 1973 and the Australian Environment Protection and Biodiversity Act 1999, the authors urge the uptake of statutory listing of threatened specifies and mandatory recovery plans. Furthermore the conservation and protection of species' critical habitat is recognised as important, although implementation issues are identified in both jurisdictions. There is merit in this argument, however, it has been strongly criticised by Round, due to, amongst other things the lack of financial resources available to support a programme of this scale (Round 2011 164). Round suggests that a way forward may come in the form of more private involvement in species management, and this is an approach currently being implemented by the Department of Conservation (Round 147, 183-184). Advantages and disadvantages can be perceived in both approaches, and are acknowledged by the respective authors, yet both are clear that something urgently needs to be done.

The research the author has carried out identifies an additional response, and in part, it is a response tied to attitudes towards species protection. Considerable gains for Threatened and At Risk species would be achieved through a strengthening of protective responses through adoption of a more universal requirement to avoid effects to these species (Wallace 2014 chs 5-9). Tied to the need for an increased degree of care, or standard of protection for the species, is an evident need to effect more comprehensive and determined conservation planning, particularly as it relates to human activity and development in the environment. The purpose of this paper is largely to identify the deficiencies of the law and argue that change is needed urgently to address species

declines. In addition a final short point is to reflect upon how the current state of the law may impact momentum and engagement by planners and planning educators in this field. This is not an empirical study, rather an opportunity for comment and discussion.

Can it be said that the fragmented approach of the law influences professional planning effort? In the author's view it is probable that the strength and skills of the conservation planning profession are reduced by the lack of a clear and coherent national approach to the protection of Threatened and At Risk species. Law and policy drive change and absence of this may create a vacuum. Statutory plan making underpins much of the role of a planner in New Zealand and creates a focus on particular knowledges and skill sets. A strong and thriving resource management planning profession has developed in response to the statutory requirements of the RMA. Similar development has been acknowledged in the landscape architect profession as a consequence of the protective requirements of s 6(b) of the RMA (Read, 2012, 4). In this regard conservation planning is not well supported by a focused, integrated and universal approach. The political climate partially explains the position. Neo-liberal approaches to the environment support a hands-off market led approach to natural resources. In the New Zealand example, wildlife tends to have been treated as a free good, with loss to this class being socialised (Wallace 2014 5.1). In turn, the global financial crisis culminated in a push to smaller governments, a reduced public sector and incentives to stimulate growth and lessen red tape. In New Zealand, the Department of Conservation, as the key agency responsible for species protection has been subjected to significant and sustained budget cuts, and it is widely acknowledged to be currently underfunded in terms of the scale of the conservation effort required (Controller and Auditor-General, 2012, 26). These aspects work against strong conservation law/policy and the expertise to match. The development of further statutory tools to manage and protect Threatened and At Risk species would galvanise planning effort around these measures deepening and broadening expertise.

Reduced academic focus and effort may also stem from the lack of a cohesive legislative approach to the protection of Threatened and At Risk species. A brief survey of planning programmes indicates that although conservation planning and policy are integrated into degree programmes, the effort is not particularly visible, and in some instances is very slight. Programmes tend to reflect a strong focus upon process under the RMA and the Local Government Act 2002 with the urban environment squarely in focus. Listing of threatened species is more likely to be the subject of a science paper in conservation or restoration biology and there is little apparent cross over with conservation planning. A statutory planning focus on listing of or spatial planning for threatened species would likely affect this balance to the benefit of conservation planning. Similarly developing a coherent and universal approach to the degree of care to be applied to the protection of threatened species would be an alternative means As a result of global biodiversity decline it is increasingly important that a strong interdisciplinary focus ensures that the concerns of this vulnerable class are well protected in statutory planning processes.

Conclusion

Protection and planning for threatened species in New Zealand is fragmented through legislative provision and related agency function. The Wildlife Act provides absolute protection for species, but this provision is limited in a range of respects and is not supported by comprehensive spatial planning measures designed to limit harm to species from human activity in the environment. Although conservation legislation enables conservation planning, this is largely confined to the conservation estate and therefore provides inadequate protection for species which inhabit areas

outside of these boundaries. Despite extending to both the public and private estate, the RMA fails to bridge the gap due to a range of factors. The statutory purpose of sustainable management does not necessarily give priority to the needs of Threatened species when a conflict with economic development arises. In addition the focus upon habitat protection, combined with agency function and spatial limitation works to fragment protection. The failure to link resource management planning to statutory species recovery planning processes further limits protection efforts. In turn, it is likely that this disparate approach limits the strength and effect of the planning profession engaged in conservation planning and furthermore the extent to which conservation planning is taught in New Zealand Universities. For these reasons the law requires revision.

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Introduction and evaluation of an online assessment to enhance first year Urban and Environmental Planning students' time-on-task

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Abstract: *Planning studios are taught following 'learning by doing' approach to help students with a range of practical skills highly relevant to the planning profession. The problem is that not all students spend the required hours, to work on the hands-on activities, between the weekly studio sessions. They fall behind and it becomes more and more difficult for them to catch up as the semester progresses. The paper follows the 'Community of Inquiry' framework and proposes an online assessment task to ensure that three elements of teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence are still strongly felt during the week when there is no face-to-face contact between the teaching team and students. The proposed 'Online Studio Diary' task aims to encourage students to actively engage with their learning tasks outside classroom. The paper also includes a range of evaluation techniques adopted to investigate the impact of the new assessment on learning outcomes. The proposed online assignment task could be understood as a much needed innovation in using technology for learning in studio teaching.*

Keywords *studio teaching, first-year experience, assessment, online, urban planning*

Introduction: Studio teaching in planning

A studio-based approach has traditionally been seen as invaluable pedagogy in many creative discipline areas including built environment and planning at many universities (Gore, 2004; Oschner, 2000). As a learning and teaching approach, the underpinning value is that studio shifts the role of students from passive recipients of information to active and engaged learners (Tucker and Rollo, 2005), and provides them with confidence, self-esteem, substantive knowledge about a topic and a range of generic skills including communications skills, and critical thinking (Kotval, 2003). Studio teaching is also admired as it combines a variety of teaching modes while heavily counting on regular feedback through informal critiques of student work, student presentations, and small group discussions. Hence, studio provides a venue for students to engage in conversations, dialogues and collaboration related to open ended problems.

While it is fair to say that many urban planning programs in Australia tend not to have a comprehensive studio-based educational system (Zehner, 2008), the literature indicates that when studios occur in the planning curriculum they provide an especially powerful opportunity for integrative, student-centred learning (Corkery et al., 2007; Higgins et al., 2009; Rose et al., 2007). Moreover, based on a literature review of the characteristics of current first year university students and their first year experience, Bosman et al. (2010) suggest that planning studio offers a safe place for the first year students to have a smooth transition to university environment (Upcraft et al., 2005a; Williams et al., 2006). As studio highly engages students with 'learning together' experience, and develops collegiality and resilience within the student body. The first year planning studio is therefore discussed to be a critical component of the undergraduate planning program (Bosman et al., 2010).

There is a widespread recognition of the challenges involved both in studio teaching and first year teaching (Pitkethly and Prosser, 2001; Tippett et al., 2011; Upcraft et al., 2005b). Previous research supports a clear relationship between time-on-task and student achievement (Cotton and Wikelund, 1990), and acknowledges that many first year students spend less time on their studies out of class than what is deemed necessary for successful learning (Kuh, 2003). This paper introduces an innovative online assessment task embedded in a first year 'Introductory Planning Studio' course to encourage students to more actively engage with their learning tasks outside classroom and spend the required hours to succeed. More importantly, the paper evaluates the impact of the assessment task on students' learning and experience, and also teaching quality.

The literature argues that each institution needs to develop its own creative response to the emerging educational challenges including but not limited to time-on-task in first year courses (Duggan, 2004). Yet, it is hoped that this case study inspires others to find innovative solutions to enhance time-on-task, and sustain student engagement in their specific situations.

Research Problem: Time-on-task in first year studio

'Introductory Planning Studio' is a 20 credit first year core course for Urban and Environmental Planning students, Griffith University, Australia. The studio course is taught following 'learning by doing' approach (Anzai and Simon, 1979; Thompson, 2010), and helps students with a range of practical skills while engaged in a problem solving process. It includes weekly full-day sessions (9am-4pm, 6 hours with an hour lunch break) in which the teaching team starts a range of hands-on exercises with students. Although the student number varies year to year there is always one full-time academic as the course convener, plus one student-teacher studio assistant for every 17 students. The enrolment for 2014 was 35. The course convener also schedules weekly 3 hour sessions of self-directed learning in which students continue their work mostly based on peer learning. These weekly sessions are well-attended and students have access to the course convener to ask further questions if needed. As part of Griffith University policy, students are expected to spend an average of 20 hours for a 20 credit course. Therefore, students are supposed to continue their work spending an average of 11 hours per week in their own time to finalize the exercises. The problem is that not all students necessarily spend the required hours, nor do they use their time in the most effective way. As a result the ones who do not spend the time required or waste their time fall behind and it will be more and more difficult for them to catch up as the semester progresses.

Introduction of a new assessment: Online Studio Diary

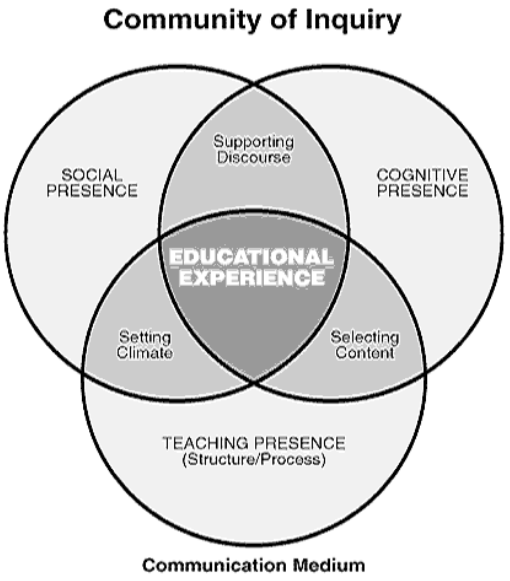

Figure1. Community of Inquiry (Garrison *et al*., 2010)

The new online assessment is based on the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework (Garrison et al., 2010) as a theoretical foundation, and attempts to address the problem described above through a student-centred approach (Ramsden, 2003). The CoI framework (Figure 1) has three overlapping elements: social, cognitive and teaching presence, with educational experience at its core (Garrison et al., 2010). Whilst, these three elements are inextricably linked, teaching presence - in the form of structure and leadership - is critical for student learning (Garrison et al., 2010). CoI framework also puts a great emphasis on the importance of building a community of learners with a focus on cooperative student learning as opposed to individualistic learning which limits interactions with others (Boling et al., 2012). Here, social presence provides the interconnection between teaching and cognitive presence which reflects the learning and inquiry process (Garrison et al., 2010).

The new assessment targets the core of the educational experience and relates to all of the three elements. It offers a solution to ensure that the three elements of teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence are still strongly felt during the week when there is no face-to-face contact between the teaching team and students, and the contact between students is limited. The solution includes the introduction of an online interactive community in the form of a blog that further develops one of the popular assessment tasks in the course. Traditionally, at the end of each weekly studio session students submit an ‘In-Class Diary’ that includes a short description of their progress during the session. Here, students state the most important points/skills that they learn on the day and point out if there is anything special that they are confused or struggling with. Students’ weekly submissions are then reviewed by the teaching team and addressed either publicly at the beginning of the next weekly session or privately by approaching the students in person. The new assessment suggests a further development of the same line of dialogue with the students outside the weekly sessions, through introducing a new online assessment task, namely ‘Online Studio Diary’. The main difference is that, the online platform provides a chance for

students to see each other's inputs. Students are then asked to make comments on each other's progress and be part of an interactive online community. This will contribute to the enrichment of the social presence between the studio sessions when face-to-face contacts are minimal.

The new online assessment aims to encourage students to actively engage with their learning tasks outside classroom, enrich students' educational experience (Garrison et al., 2010), pursue them to be active learners (Grow, 1991; Kugel, 1993), and generate enthusiasm and interest (Biggs, 2003). 'Online Studio Diary' is set up as a blog for the studio course, and comprises 10% of the final mark in the course. Students are asked to make an entry every time that they spend more than two hours on studio learning tasks outside the weekly sessions. Students are asked to follow a brief, describe what they worked on, what the main challenges were and what they enjoyed about that part of the work. They can even upload images of their work in progress. All students and the teaching team follow the blog entries and can comment, ask questions and start a dialogue, as they do during the studio sessions. Certain level of students' participation in such an online dialogue is required as part of their assessed online activity. This ensures that by making comments on each other's blog entries and also responding to the comments as needed, a real online interactive community based on peer learning is created.

Evaluation of the Online Studio Diary

The studio course design, in S1 2014, incorporated a range of evaluation techniques to investigate the impact of 'Online Studio Diary' on learning outcomes. Qualitative and quantitative data has been collected to understand students' approach towards the Online Studio Diary. To identify how the first year Urban and Environmental Planning students used the 'Online Studio Diary', weekly observations of students' entries were conducted. Each entry and comment was analysed to ascertain what work students had completed between the scheduled weekly studio sessions. Behaviour patterns relating to how the students utilised the 'Online Studio Diary' were also identified. An initial list of behavioural attributes was developed. This list was expanded on over the duration of the course until a comprehensive list of behavioural attributes was formed. Reassessment of earlier entries was carried out to ensure all behaviour attributes were assessed for the complete duration of the study. The qualitative data was compiled into an excel spreadsheet which detailed how each individual student utilised the 'Online Studio Diary' over the semester.

Quantitative data was also gathered. The number of entries, number of comments on other students' entries and the number of images uploaded was recorded. The day on which students made entries was also documented. Furthermore, background statistics collected by *Blackboard*, relating to the date and frequency of students accessing the 'Online Studio Diary', was also used. Although it was intended to collect information on the hours students spent between the weekly studio sessions, it was difficult to gauge the exact hours. Students were required to make an entry every time they spent two hours working on studio activities. However, some students instead provided detailed summaries after multiple working sessions. While many students provided estimates of the hours they worked, this was not sufficient to draw solid conclusions. Despite this limitation, the students made enough diary entries to build an online community. Consequently, the analysis highlighted the behavioural patterns associated with students' use of the 'Online Studio Diary' assessment, which in turn enhanced their time-on-task. Moreover, an online reflective survey was introduced to specifically assess students' perception of how they used the 'Online Studio Diary' and their overall satisfaction of the assessment item. The survey consisted of a

multiple choice question and provided open ended responses for additional comments. The survey was completed anonymously by 97% of the cohort and provided quantitative and qualitative data. The following shows the evaluation of the 'Online Studio Diary', based on the data collected during its offering in S1, 2014:

Students' online behavioural patterns

Students' engagement with the online assignment

The 'Online Studio Diary' effectively engaged the cohort with their learning tasks outside the scheduled studio sessions. An analysis of students' participation in the online assignment indicated that the 'Online Studio Diary' actively engaged 69% of the student cohort, while an additional 20% also met the satisfactory requirement for the assignment (Figure 2). Students' engagement with the 'Online Studio Diary' fluctuated throughout the semester. The number of entries inclined in the lead up to an assessment due date, generally peaking the week before the assessment item's submission date. Entries then declined the week that an assessment item was due, before gradually increasing each week in the lead up to the next assessment due date. These trends in the quantity of diary entries highlights the correlation between the 'Online Studio Diary' and students' learning tasks, indicating that students gradually increased their work commitment for the course as assessment deadlines loomed closer. Furthermore, students' comments on their peers entries tended to follow the trend of online diary entries. Like diary entries, comments peaked the week prior to assessment deadlines. Moreover, the week before assessment due dates also saw an increase in the number of images uploaded. This highlights a correlation between the quantity of entries and images uploaded and the quality of comments. Further, the link between entries, comments, images and assessment deadlines indicates that students gradually engaged with each new learning task outside of studio sessions.

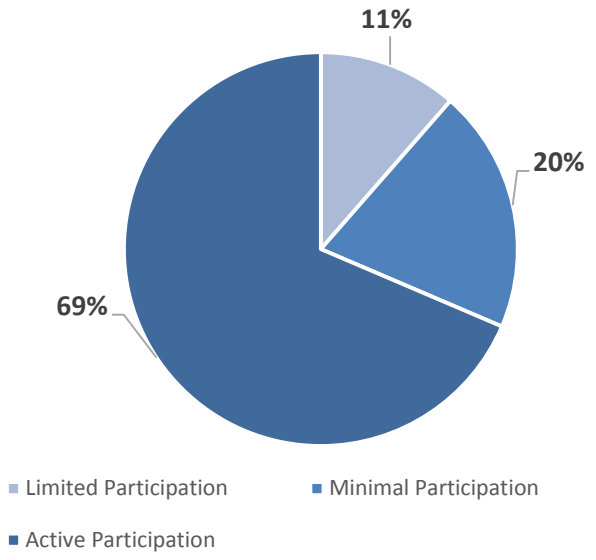

Figure 2. First year Urban and Environmental Planning students' engagement with the 'Online Studio Diary'. Classification of student engagement: #Limited participation: Students who made a maximum of five entries throughout the semester, and did not meet the requirements of the assessment item. *Minimal participation: Students who made between eight and fourteen entries, and met the satisfactory requirements of the assessment item. ^Active participation: Students who made more than fifteen entries, and exceeded the minimum requirements of the assessment item.

Students' uses of the online diary Beyond simply making diary entries to document their work progress, students used the 'Online Studio Diary' in a number of ways to engage with the learning tasks and interact with their peers. Students used the online assignment to: ask questions, provide encouragement to their peers, share tips, reflect on what they had learned, solve problems, get feedback and organise 'work dates' with other students. Figure 3 indicates that the online diary

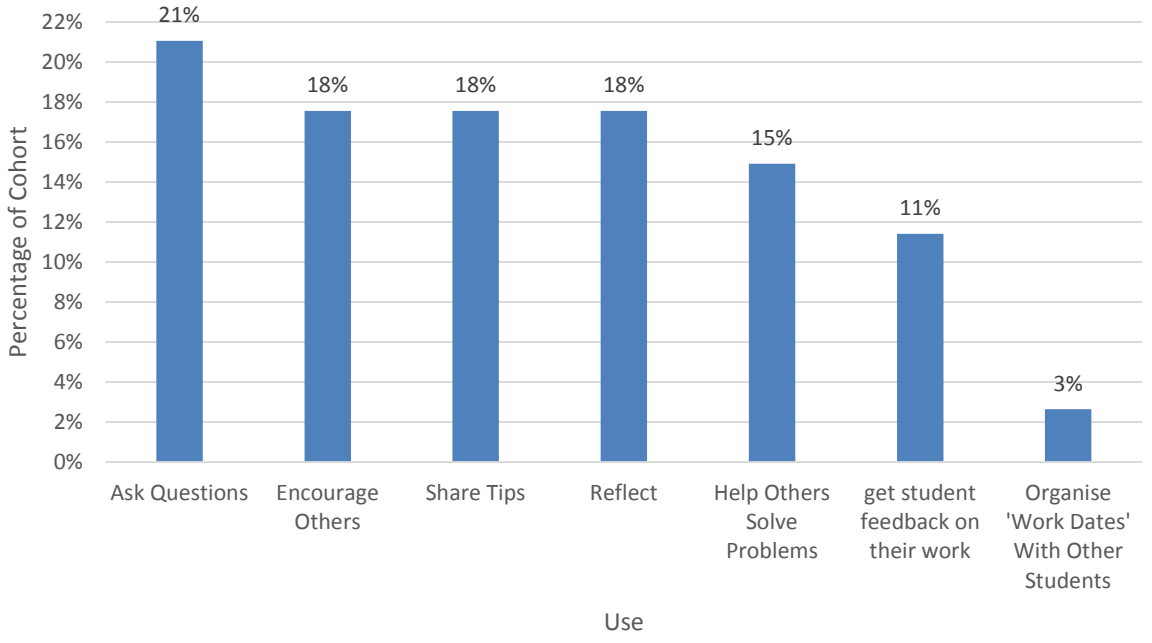

Figure 3. First year Urban and Environmental Planning students' uses of the 'Online Studio Diary'.

Reflection was classified as an expression of how a student felt about aspects of their learning journey. This was different from description, which was a statement or recollection of what work students had completed, and did not include students' emotions/feelings relative to their learning process.

was most commonly used by students to seek assistance when they required it, followed by providing encouragement and sharing their knowledge. While figure 3 does not indicate the occurrence of the online diary to compare progress, this is however reflected in the larger number of students views[8] of the online diary, with the online diary being viewed on average 137 each week (in average 4 times by each student). Further, students recognised the value of the online diary, with a student stating that they "… think this online diary is a great concept to check in with you guys [other students of the course] and [b]ounce ideas of each other." This showcases that the 'Online Studio Diary' was successful in establishing an online community for students enrolled in the studio course. Moreover, the range of students' uses of the online diary supports the effectiveness of the online assignment in achieving the CoI framework (Garrison et al., 2010). The online assignment's effectiveness in achieving a cognitive presence is evident through students' use of the online diary to give feedback on each other's work, solve problems, answer questions and provide tips to their peers. Students' use of the online diary to encourage others, organise work dates, and share their progress shows the blog's effectiveness in achieving a social presence.

Students' primary use and associated behaviour patterns

Given the range of uses students had for the 'Online Studio Diary', a number of behavioural patterns were identified. Individual students primarily used the online diary for different purposes.

[8] Views reflects the number of times students just visited/accessed the online diary, it does not indicate any active participation.

These primary uses were identified and based on individual student's online behaviour patterns. Students were classified into one of the following groups: Problem solvers (7%), Encouragers (12%), Questions askers (30%), Tip sharers (19%), Reflectors (7%) and Limited participation (9%), Minimal participation (16%)[9]. Each of these primary use categories has distinct behaviour patterns (Table 1).

'Problem solvers' were the most engaged users. The large number of comments made by 'Problem solvers' suggest that they solved problems by directly responding to other students entries. Beyond this, the numerous images uploaded and views 'Problem solvers' made suggest that these students used the online diary to compare their progress with others and gain feedback on their 'work-in-progress' maps. 'Problem solvers' also used the online diary for a number of secondary purposes including providing encouragement, sharing tips and asking questions. This is evident as 'Problem solvers', when compared to the other classification groups, averaged the second highest participants in these behaviours. Considering these behaviour patterns, 'Problem solvers' align with Honey and Mumford's (1992) activist learning style. 'Problem solvers' high level of activity in the online assignment suggests that these students learn by being involved.

Table 1. Behaviour Patterns of students based on students primary use of the Studio Online Diary

Primary Use Classification Types	**Percentage of Student Cohort**	**Total Number of**									
		Entries	*Comments*	*Tips Shared*	*Questions Asked*	*Encouragement Given*	*Problems Solved*	*Reflections*	*Images Uploaded*	*Views*	*Description of Task Undertaken*
Problem Solvers	7%	66	35	6	10	8	16	4	41	223	63
Encouragers	12%	89	30	8	12	20	4	10	51	219	71
Question Askers	30%	238	65	23	49	18	24	24	85	686	201
Tip Sharers	19%	129	34	24	11	13	12	16	46	341	120
Reflectors	7%	55	11	4	5	4	3	13	4	184	52

'Encouragers' were also highly engaged users. While students in this category made a large number of diary entries (an average of 18 per student) they also made a number of comments on their peers' entries (an average of 6 per student). This suggests that encouragement is given to individual students as well as to the general group. Analysis of the encouragement given by students of this group found that 53% of the encouragement given was to individuals on their entries, particularly to those students who uploaded 'work-in-progress' maps. In addition to this, Encouragers' secondary use of the online diary was to reflect on their learning process.

[9] Some students equally used the online diary for multiple purposes. As a result the breakdown of the cohort differs to the graph that compares students' engagement with the online diary.

‘Question askers’ were the third most active group of students. Question askers’ behaviour patterns suggest that this group of students occasionally sought feedback on their ‘work-in-progress maps’ and regularly checked the online diary to see if their questions had been answered. ‘Question askers’ also used the online diary to solve problems. The primary and secondary use of the online diary by ‘Question askers’ highlights that while ‘Question askers’ sought out assistance, they also helped others solve their questions.

‘Tip sharers’ and ‘Reflectors’ used the online diary the least (after those who were classified as Limited or Minimal participation). ‘Tip sharers’ made an average of 16 online diary entries and 4 comments indicating that these students tended to provide general tips, rather than specific tips to individual students. Additionally, reflecting on their learning process was the secondary use of the online dairy for Tip sharers.

‘Reflectors’ also made an average of 4 comments but a greater number of diary entries (an average of 18 per student). ‘Reflectors’ primarily used the blog to document and reflect on what they had learnt or experienced. ‘Reflectors’ viewed the online diary very often. This suggests that they may have used the online diary to observe the works of others before drawing their own conclusions. These behaviour patterns of ‘Reflectors’ align with Honey and Mumford’s (1992) reflector learning style.

Students’ perception of their use of the online assignment

The correlation between students’ actual usage of the online diary and their perception of their usage was identified through the reflective online surveys conducted at the end of the semester. In order to understand how students perceived the new assessment, the reflective survey asked students about their primary use of the ‘Online Studio Diary’, what they liked most about it, and what they disliked most about it. Students perceived that they foremost used ‘Online Studio Diary’ to compare their work (Figure 4). While the content of students’ entries did not directly indicate that they used the online diary to compare their work, particularly in regards to students’ uploaded ‘work-in-progress’ maps, this is inferred by the large number of weekly views (an average of 4 times per week for each student), and students’ comments such as, “[l]ooking at some other examples I feel as though I may have missed a few things.” Therefore, there is a clear link between students’ perception of their use and their actual use of the online diary in regards to comparing their work.

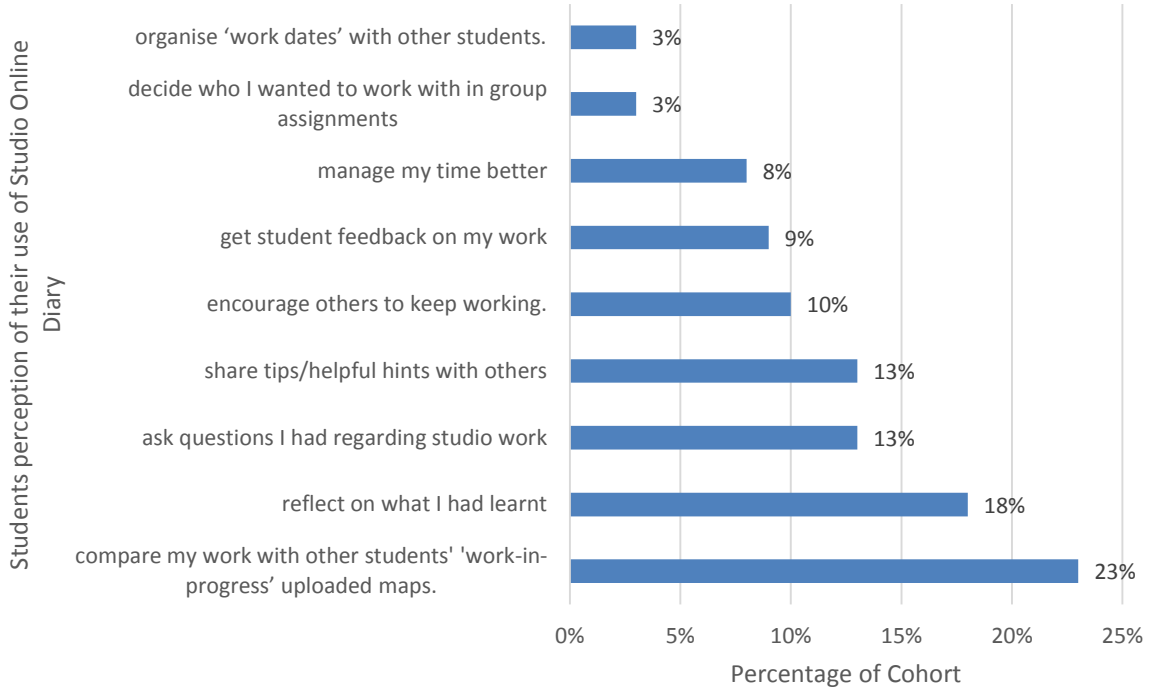

Figure 4. Students' perception of their use of the Online Studio Diary

Interestingly, students recognised the value of the online dairy as an avenue to reflect. Students' perception and actual use of the online diary as a place to reflect on what they had learned, matched (18% of the cohort). Students' perception of the online diary as a place to reflect is evident through students mentioning that "[r]eflecting on the day and just recapping what I have learnt so it was still fresh in my head" was the aspect of the online diary they liked the most. On the reverse, students underestimated their use of the online diary to ask questions (13%). Their actual use (21%) indicated that asking questions was the primary use of the online diary by the cohort.

Moreover, the aspect students liked most about the 'Online Studio Diary' was that they could compare their progress (47%), followed by asking questions (16%). This is evident through students' responses such as "[b]eing able to see the progress of other students. It is then easy to tell if you are behind or ahead of schedule", "… [y]ou (are) also able to get help with questions others have already been through", "… having the ability to ask others for help whilst at home. I found that viewing other people's work was helpful to check against my own progress" and "… I used online diary to ask questions and I would get very fast reply from classmate, which really helped me …".

The online diary therefore served as a valuable resource to students, assisting them with managing their time-on-task and seeking and receiving assistance. Furthermore, this suggests that while students may undervalue the extent to which they used the online diary to ask questions, they valued the online diary as an important avenue to get help.

The relationship between online participation and academic performance

The link between students' online participation and academic performance was evident. In the case of students overall grade for the course, 100% of students who achieved 75% or above made more

than 20entries over the 13 week semester (were all active participants). At the other end of the scale, 62% of students who received 64% or less made a maximum of 12 diary entries over the 13 weeks (were minimal requirement or limited participants). Furthermore, 67% of students who made comments achieved 75% or above, while 17% of students who made comments received below 64%. Similar observations were recorded for each assessment item. This indicates that those students who actively participated in the online diary generally achieved better academic results. Further, those who had limited online involvement tended to have poorer academic outcomes. Thus, the online diary can be used to identify and support students at risk through observations of students' online participation in an effort to enhance students' academic performance.

The value of the Studio Online Diary to the teaching team

A place to track students' progress

The 'Online Studio Diary' proved to be a valuable asset to the teaching team, helping them to better support the cohort. Foremost, the 'Online Studio Diary' was a platform to track students' progress with the learning tasks. The electronic database of each individual student's progress provided a mechanism to identify those students who were at risk and required additional support. Those at risk were identified through either their absence in the online environment or by the content of their diary entries which expressed concern, confusion or stress. The 'Online Studio Diary' provided clarity to the teaching team, allowing them to know where each student was at with the learning tasks before the commencement of the next studio session. This ensured that those who were behind the pace of the course were able to be approached and given support at the commencement of each weekly studio session. In the context of resource scarcity and increasing class sizes, the 'Online Studio Diary' therefore served as a valuable tool to assist the teaching team in effectively allocating their time and resources to support students at risk.

A place to identify cohort and individual concerns

The online assignment also proved to be resourceful in identifying cohort issues. Mid-week observations of the online diary provided an insight into students' time-on-task. In some cases, the absence of online diary entries or the content of the entries indicated that a significant proportion of the cohort had not commenced work on a key element of the learning task (i.e. conducting site visits or starting the report). Consequently, a reminder email, indicating the time commitments of these aspects of the learning task, was sent to students. Thus, the online diary allowed the teaching team to bring important time-on-task matters to the attention of the class between weekly studio sessions.

Individual students concerns and issues were also raised via the online diary. In some cases a written reply to students' online diary entries were made, providing an immediate response to individual concerns, such as confusion regarding report requirements. These matters were further followed up at the beginning of the next weekly studio session to ensure the students matter was addressed and that confusion was alleviated. Other situations saw students express that they would like clarification of specific aspects of the course content (i.e. scale) or expressed concern about the elements of an assessment (i.e. presentation). In these cases, the teaching team were able to talk with the student or group of students early on in the next studio session to provide clarification of content or discuss tactics the student(s) could employ to address their concerns and achieve their desired outcome. Thus, the online diary brought student matters to the attention of the teaching team, which may have otherwise gone unattended.

A place to examine students' written expression

The online assignment was an avenue to examine students written communication skills. The online assignment enabled the teaching team to identify several students by the second week of the course that required extra assistance with written communication. These students were approached in class by members of the teaching team and were assisted with booking an appointment with university Learning Advisors to assist with improving their written communication skills. The requirement for students to make weekly entries thus provided a place to examine students' written expression.

A place to identify individual group work commitments/examine the dynamics of group work

The online diary also provided an electronic record of each student's contribution to group work. Students provided details of the work they completed, providing the teaching team with knowledge of each student's individual contribution to group assessment. Beyond this, it also provided students' reflections on their group members' contribution. Issues such as group member contributions and difficulties organising group meetings were identified through the online diary entries. These issues were discussed with the group during the studio sessions. The online diary was therefore another source of information to identify students' contribution to group assignments for mark allocation.

The uses of the online diary by the teaching team support the effectiveness of the online assignment in achieving the CoI framework. The online assignment effectiveness in achieving a teaching presence is evident through the teaching team using the online diary to confirm students understanding, share learning expectations and identifying and supporting at risk students and individual and cohort concerns.

Conclusion

The 'Online Studio Dairy' represents an innovative approach to exploit the potentials embedded in the new technology. The new technology offers a range of creative flexible learning opportunities and enables learners to actively engage in the learning process, share and exchange ideas, receive ongoing feedback and improve their understanding and skills (Lewis et al., 2005; Yelland et al., 2008). However, the technology itself is rarely designed with teaching and learning principles in mind. As a result it is not always easy to achieve the desired educational outcomes from the perspective of learners' and teachers' needs (Harden, 2008). However, the 'Online Studio Diary' being based on a solid theoretical framework ensures that "pedagogy exploits the technology, and not vice versa" (Laurillard, 2009). In line with what has been already discussed in the literature, the learning technology design process for the 'Online Studio Diary' began from the point of view of user requirements, following a clearly identified learning issue (time-on-task). In other words, the design process was based on what is already known about what it takes to learn, and then challenged the technology to deliver the desired learning outcome (Jefferies et al., 2004). The new assessment could be understood as a much needed innovation in using technology for learning outcome. More specifically, the project focusing on a first year core course, enhances the quality of the first year experience, and provides more opportunities to identify and support students at risk. By increasing teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence (Garrison et al., 2010) outside the classroom, the 'Online Studio Diary' facilitates the enhancement of learning and teaching practices, and offers an innovative blended-learning-based assessment design that has the potential to support strategic change.

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Planning Heroes & Heroines?
Does New Zealand Planning have any?

Caroline Miller[10]
Resource and Environmental Planning programme, Massey University, New Zealand
Email: c.l.miller@massey.ac.nz

Abstract: *Planning history research often focuses on the work and ideas of individuals who over time become the heroes & heroines of the profession often celebrated in detailed biographies and lauded by the profession. The canon of New Zealand's planning history is small and often focused on events rather than people while the New Zealand planning profession generally seems unaware of its origins. Thus this address will ask if there are any individuals worthy of the title of hero or heroine in New Zealand's planning history, who they may or may not be and why they might aspire to such a title.*

[10] Keynote speaker

Balancing the requirements of professional planning programme accreditation and academia: A comparison between the USA and New Zealand

Hamish G. Rennie & Jerry Weitz
Lincoln University, New Zealand & East Carolina University, USA
Email: hamish.rennie@lincoln.ac.nz and weitzj@ecu.edu

Abstract: *The interrelationship of planning as a distinct academic discipline and planning as a professional activity would seem full of potential for fruitful mutual support. However, the needs of each may be quite different and create tension between the 'academy' and the 'profession'. Academics have research activity requirements and academic perspectives that do not necessarily fit well with maintaining professional practice credibility; while the 'guardians' of professional practice seek certainty that planning graduates are 'work-ready' and maintaining the reputation, and employability, of the professional planner. In this paper we compare and contrast the requirements in the USA – for accreditation of academic programs by the Planning Accreditation Board (PAB) – and those of the New Zealand Planning Institute (NZPI). We focus on the issues that the relationships between academics and practitioners create for the academy. We particularly draw attention to the strengths and weaknesses of the key differences between the two approaches and comment on their implications.*

Key Words*: planning accreditation, USA, New Zealand, professional*

Bounded recognition: urban planning and the textual mediation of Indigenous rights in Canada and Australia

Libby Portera and Janice Barryb
School of Geography and Environmental Science, Monash University, Clayton, Australia
Email: libby.porter@monash.edu

Abstract: *While the recognition of marginalized social groups has become widely accepted as an important consideration for contemporary planning, the particular challenge of Indigenous recognition has barely registered in urban planning contexts. In this paper, we use a discursive and interpretive analysis of urban planning texts from Victoria, Australia, and British Columbia, Canada, to illustrate how the 'contact zone' between Indigenous peoples and urban planning is produced and reproduced through texts. Discursive processes serve to bound and limit the recognition of Indigenous rights and interests, allowing only very small and shallow zones of contact in each place. Our findings from these cases show that these processes arise from quite different orders of discourse, and two social fields: Indigenous recognition and urban planning. The discourses present in both fields really matter for how the contact zone is persistently bounded to established territorial, political and administrative orders. In identifying these boundaries, our paper opens up new ways of thinking about, and engaging in, boundary-crossing work in planning.*

Keywords: *recognition; Indigenous people; text; urban planning; boundaries; critical discourse analysis*

This paper is published at:

Libby Porter & Janice Barry (2014): Bounded recognition: urban planning and the textual mediation of Indigenous rights in Canada and Australia, *Critical Policy Studies*, DOI: 10.1080/19460171.2014.912960

University City Partnerships – an effective method for experiential learning?

Trevor Budge[11]
La Trobe University, Bendigo, Australia
Email: t.budge@latrobe.edu.au

Abstract: *This presentation explores the process and outcomes of a planning practice partnership developed by the City of Greater Bendigo and the Community Planning and Development Program at La Trobe University's Bendigo campus. The partnership has been designed to provide students with experiential learning through a series of strategic planning projects. Rather than see this as simply a student learning centred activity the design has focused on providing direct inputs to the Council's planning agenda and to directly assist the Council in a series of major strategic studies. The Bendigo Council is undertaking two major strategies; Residential Development and Integrated Transport and Land Use, these have been designed to fundamentally reshape the future urban form in response to unprecedented growth rates. As part of this program the City has directly worked with over 50 undergraduate students in projects involving applied research, direct input to the strategies and important contributions to urban design outcomes. Specifically this partnership has focused on a University Campus Precinct Plan, the City's Commercial areas development and the place based integrated strategy for the city's Northern Corridor which has focused on active transport. The paper evaluates the role and capacity of students to make substantive and meaningful contributions to real life projects. The project process has been guided by the author's participation in a recent national project on the role and value of experiential learning in the planning curriculum led by the University of Sunshine Coast and involving researchers from Griffith University, University of Tasmania, Edith Cowan University and La Trobe University.*

Key Words*: Town and Gown, Planning Practice*

[11] Keynote speaker

ANZAPS
THE AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND ASSOCIATION OF PLANNING SCHOOLS

2014
CONFERENCE
3 - 5 OCT
MASSEY UNIVERSITY
NEW ZEALAND

CONFERENCE INFORMATION AND PROGRAMME

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA
UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

ANZAPS 2014 CONFERENCE

CONTENTS

Welcome—3
General Information—4,5
Campus Map—6
Information for Presenters—7
Programme—8,9,10,11
Keynote Abstracts—12
Paper Abstracts 13—20

Organising Committee

Imran Muhammad
Jo Ross
Ian Luxmoore

WELCOME

Welcome to the ANZAPS 2014 Conference at Massey University Palmerston North New Zealand

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA
UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

GENERAL INFORMATION

Registration

All attendees at the conference attending more than one session are required to be registered and will be issued a nametag. A registration desk will be at the venue but we much prefer pre-registrations.

Transport

There are several options to find your way from town out to the campus. Regular bus services run to/from the city on weekdays (for timetable visit www.horizons.govt.nz), it is a pleasant 60 minute walk from town, or a 10 minute cycle (cycles are available for hire from a couple of places in town—contact us for details). Several taxi companies operate in Palmerston North such as PN Taxis 0800 3555333 or www.pntaxis.co.nz for online bookings.

There is also a Massey car available for pickups Saturday/Sunday morning and drop offs Friday/Saturday night—please talk to the organisers for a ride.

Parking

On Friday there are limited parking options available as most parking spaces are reserved or time limited. The best option is the Orchard Road car park which costs $2 per exit. Over the weekend no parking is reserved so most parking spaces are available for free. The nearest to the venue is the library car park. See the map page for information on where to find the car parks.

Venue

The conference is being held in the Geography Lecture Block (GLB) on the main campus (see the map for an exact location).
In particular the presentations will be in the Planning Studio (GLB2.01)

GENERAL INFORMATION

Preparation Room

There is a spare room available for presentation preparation if required.

Building Access

Over the weekend the building is locked. A number of keycards will be available in at the venue which can be borrowed as required—see the organisers for more information.

Lunches, morning and afternoon tea

Lunch, morning and afternoon teas are provided for registered attendees at the conference at no additional cost. There is an opportunity to indicate any special food requirements on the registration form.

Dinner

On the Saturday night a table has been booked for dinner . This meal is at your own cost and more details will be made available on Saturday.

Wifi

Access to wifi internet can be made through the Eduroam Network. If wifi access is needed outside this network please talk to one of the organisers.

ATMs

There are multiple ATMs on campus if access to cash is needed/

Smoking

No smoking inside or within 10m of buildings on campus

CAMPUS MAP

Pay Parking
($2/exit)
Bus Stop
Library Carpark
(weekend only)
Conference venue (30)
Geography Lecture Block
(Bicycle parking outside)
Albany Drive
Collinson Road
Campus Road
Bolivia Road
Bolivia Road Car Park
Drysdale Drive
Elm Road
Chesshire Road
University Ave
Library Road
Turritea Road
Main Drive
MAIN ENTRANCE
MONRO HILL ENTRANCE
Oval
Reading Road
Reilly Road
Goodwin Road
Workshop Road
Tennis & Netball Courts
Orchard Road
Orchard
Clifton Tce
Oval Place

PRESENTER INFORMATION

Presentation Length

Presentations are to be no longer than 20 minutes plus questions and will be monitored by the session chair.

Presentation Files

Please submit presentation files to the organiser at least 30 minutes prior to the session beginning as these will be loaded onto the computer ahead of time to minimise technical issues during sessions. We should be able to accommodate most formats such as Powerpoint, pdf, video etc but contact the organisers if you're not sure.

Google Map of Palmerston North
Note Airport at top, university at bottom.

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FRIDAY AFTERNOON PROGRAMME

Rooms open—12:00pm

Welcome—1:00pm

Professor **Paul Spoonley**

Pro-Vice Chancellor—College of Humanities and Social Sciences

Associate Professor **Christine Cheyne**

Programme Coordinator—Resource and Environmental Planning Programme

Keynote—1:30pm

Caroline Miller

Planning Heroes & Heroines? Does New Zealand Planning have any?

Afternoon Tea—2:30pm

Papers Session One—3:00pm

Hamish Rennie & Jerry Weitz

Balancing the Requirements of Professional Planning Programme Accreditation and Academia: A comparison between the USA & New Zealand

Tooran Alizadeh & Samantha Colbran

Introduction and evaluation of an online assessment to enhance first year Urban and Environmental Planning students' time-on-task

Christine Cheyne & Angela Feekery

Developing an online module to support students understanding of government-provided information sources.

Nicholas Stevens, Johanna Rosier *et al*

Serious Urban Play – a digital game for teaching urban and regional planning

SATURDAY MORNING PROGRAMME

9:00am—Papers Session Two

Iain White

From rhetoric to reality: tracing the effect of resilience in planning policy and practice

Michael Gunder

The Role of Fantasy in the Evolution of Planning Policy Formation

Michael Bounds & Peter Phibbs

Putting Practice into Theory: Reconciling academic discourse with experience

10:30am—Morning Tea

Sponsored by Beca

Special Session—11:00am

Libby Porter and Michael Gunder

Publishing on the practice and theory of planning: Meet the editors of Planning Theory and Practice *and* Planning Theory.

12:00pm—Lunch

Sponsored by PNCC

NOTE—PROGRAMME SUBJECT TO CHANGE

SATURDAY AFTERNOON PROGRAMME

1:00pm—Keynote

Trevor Budge

University City Partnerships - an Effective Method for Experiential Learning?

Papers Session Three—2:00pm

Christine Slade, Johanna Rosier, Claudia Baldwin, Andrew Harwood, Eddo Coiacetto, Trevor Budge, Tim Perkins

Enhancing Experiential Learning in Planning Education through an Online Toolkit of Resources.

Angela Feekery

Reflection, Values, and Learning in a New Zealand Planning Degree

Afternoon Tea—3:00pm

Papers Session Four—3:30pm

Caryl Bosman & Aysin Dedekorkut-Howes

Environmental Planning Educating and the possibilities for studio pedagogy

Karen Vella, Natalie Osborne, Severine Mayere, Douglas Baker

Studio Teaching in Australian Planning Curriculum

Jeffrey McNeill

"Just like real-life!" Collaborative planning, experiential learning and a class consultancy

NZ Planning Schools Session with NZPI CEO—5:15pm

ANZAPS Conference Dinner—6:30pm

Indian Indulgence, 63 George Street (own cost)

SUNDAY MORNING PROGRAMME

8:00am—ANZAPS HoS Breakfast

ANZAPS heads of schools breakfast, GLB3.09

9:00am—Papers Session Five

Neeti Trivedi & Shahed Khan

Community participation in the delivery of infrastructure: a cross-cultural examination of its impact on the longer-term independence and resilience of local communities

Libby Porter

Bounded recognition: urban planning and the textual mediation of Indigenous rights in Canada and Australia

Pip Wallace

Fragmented landscapes: the challenge of conservation planning in a fragmented legal landscape.

10:45am—Morning Tea

11:00am—ANZAPS Annual General Meeting

Chaired by **Caroline Miller**

There will be a packed Lunch to take with you at the conclusion of the AGM

NOTE—PROGRAMME SUBJECT TO CHANGE

KEYNOTE ABSTRACTS

Planning Heroes & Heroines? Does New Zealand Planning have any?

Caroline Miller

Planning history research often focuses on the work and ideas of individuals who over time become the heroes & heroines of the profession often celebrated in detailed biographies and lauded by the profession. The canon of New Zealand's planning history is small and often focused on events rather than people while the New Zealand planning profession generally seems unaware of its origins. Thus this address will ask if there are any individuals worthy of the title of hero or heroine in New Zealand's planning history, who they may or may not be and why they might aspire to such a title.

University City Partnerships – an Effective Method for Experiential Learning

Trevor Budge

This presentation explores the process and outcomes of a planning practice partnership developed by the City of Greater Bendigo and the Community Planning and Development Program at La Trobe University's Bendigo campus. The partnership has been designed to provide students with experiential learning through a series of strategic planning projects. Rather than see this as simply a student learning centred activity the design has focused on providing direct inputs to the Council's planning agenda and to directly assist the Council in a series of major strategic studies. The Bendigo Council is undertaking two major strategies; Residential Development and Integrated Transport and Land Use, these have been designed to fundamentally reshape the future urban form in response to unprecedented growth rates. As part of this program the City has directly worked with over 50 undergraduate students in projects involving applied research, direct input to the strategies and important contributions to urban design outcomes. Specifically this partnership has focused on a University Campus Precinct Plan, the City's Commercial areas development and the place based integrated strategy for the city's Northern Corridor which has focused on active transport. The paper evaluates the role and capacity of students to make substantive and meaningful contributions to real life projects. The project process has been guided by the author's participation in a recent national project on the role and value of experiential learning in the planning curriculum led by the University of Sunshine Coast and involving researchers from Griffith University, University of Tasmania, Edith Cowan University and La Trobe University.

Introduction and evaluation of an online assessment to enhance first year Urban and Environmental Planning students' time-on-task—*Tooran Alizadeh, Samantha Colbran*

Planning studios are taught following 'learning by doing' approach to help students with a range of practical skills highly relevant to the planning profession. The problem is that not all students spend the required hours, to work on the hands-on activities, between the weekly studio sessions. They fall behind and it becomes more and more difficult for them to catch up as the semester progresses. The paper follows the 'Community of Inquiry' framework and proposes an online assessment task to ensure that three elements of teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence are still strongly felt during the week when there is no face-to-face contact between the teaching team and students. The proposed 'Online Studio Diary' task aims to encourage students to actively engage with their learning tasks outside classroom. The paper also includes a range of evaluation techniques adopted to investigate the impact of the new assessment on learning outcomes. The proposed online assignment task could be understood as a much needed innovation in using technology for learning in studio teaching.

Developing an online module to support students understanding of government–provided information sources—*Christine Cheyne and Angela Feekery*

For planners and planning students government websites are significant sources of information. As e-government becomes more pervasive, Planning students and citizens more generally need to be able to evaluate the range of information found on government websites.

Understanding the complexity of government is a key element in planning education and being able to recognise the value of information created by, for and about government is a key competency for Planning students. Previous research into students' use of information in academic assessments (Feekery, 2013) indicated that 55% of sources in reference lists came from government websites, much of which was taken directly from home pages, rather than the more authoritative sources available.

Developing approaches and tools for explicitly supporting planning students' transition into information literacy is necessary due to the complexity of information on government and council websites. Information literacy can be defined as "a continuum of skills, behaviours, approaches and values that is so deeply entwined with the uses of information as to be a fundamental element of learning, scholarship and research" (Secker & Coonan, 2013, p. xxii).

To support Planning students' towards an understanding of government information, we created an online module encouraging students to explore a range of New Zealand government websites (domain: .govt.nz) and to recognise and evaluate the different types of information provided. This session provides an overview of the module, the successes and challenges of its implementation, and student responses to how it impacted on their understanding of the value of government information for their learning.

Serious Urban Play – a digital game for teaching urban and regional planning

Nicholas Stevens, Johanna Rosier, Ben Rolfe, Uwe Terton, Christian Jones

Urban planning is a multi-faceted and collaborative discipline. Consequently, the articulation of the roles and complexities of spatial planning to prospective and first year higher education built environment students can be challenging for learning and teaching. This paper outlines the research and development of a 'serious' game (Prensky, 2006; Gee, 2007) which enables students to explore the relationships between and within complex urban systems. An interactive, multi-touch table PC allows teams of students to simultaneously collaborate on the spatial planning and design of an urban district.

Two major types of game have emerged which are of pedagogical interest to planning educators: simulation games and virtual worlds. While these digital games use urban planning and development as their premise, many rely on a singular user interface and the establishment of financially or environmentally successful communities. Few consider planning education as their primary purpose. Furthermore this game allows the development of multi-stakeholder collaborative and negotiated outcomes which seek to balance the social, environmental, economic, and mobility needs of a community.

Design-based research (DBR) is the principal methodology and theoretical basis for implementing and evaluating this teaching and learning intervention (Anderson and Shattuck, 2012). DBR is valuable here as an established education based research framework which seeks to ensure the transfer of research into improved practice. The development of the game advances the pedagogy of the 'studio' for the teaching and learning of urban spatial design. This is the first 'fit for purpose' teaching and learning tool for urban planning, which is a simultaneous multi player 'serious' game, played cooperatively on a horizontal plane, with planning education as its primary purpose.

From rhetoric to reality: tracing the effect of resilience in planning policy and practice

Iain White

This paper analyses contrasting academic understandings of 'equilibrium resilience' (to recover) and 'evolutionary resilience' (to adapt) and investigates how these nuances are reflected within both planning policy and practice. Using a case study of UK and European planning the paper reveals that there is a lack of clarity in policy, where these differences are not acknowledged with resilience mainly discussed as a singular, vague, but optimistic aim. This opaque political treatment of the term and the lack of guidance has affected practice by privileging an equilibrist interpretation over more transformative, evolutionary measures. In short, resilience within planning has become characterised by a simple return to normality that is more analogous with planning norms, engineered responses, dominant interests, and technomanagerial trends. The paper argues that, although presented as a possible paradigm shift for planning, resilience policy and practice serve to underpin existing behaviour and normalise risk.

Wider sociocultural concerns are unaddressed with resilience emerging as a narrow, regressive, technorational frame centred on reactive measures at the building scale. In much the same way that sustainable development captured the zeitgeist of the late-20th century; resilience may be the perfect symbol of its time—a conveniently nebulous concept incorporating shifting notions of risk and responsibility bounded within a reconstituted governance framework—all of which can engender confidence and potentially facilitate the transfer of costs away from the state to the private sector and communities.

The role of fantasy in the evolution of planning policy formation

Michael Gunder

This paper will explore the role of fantasy and argue that an understanding of the role of ideological fantasy is necessary for both planning theorisation and to develop an effective theory of evolutionary governance. The paper begins with an exploration of the psychoanalytical role of fantasy, discourse, jouissance and the subject's underlying desire for a sovereign good that will solve all problems and wants, so as to create the worldly impossibility of being free of anxiety and all other insecurities. Core to this exposé is the role of ideology, which is most powerful when subjects believe that they are free of its influence. The paper will conclude with a consideration of what a deeper engagement with ideological fantasy might mean for theorisations of evolutionary governance and planning.

Putting Practice into Theory: Reconciling academic discourse with experience

Michael Bounds and Peter Phibbs

This paper is based on our work with experienced professionals in the Practitioner in Residence (PIR) Program. The program allows an experienced urban practitioner to undertake a period of supported research in residence at the University of Sydney under the auspices of the Henry Halloran Trust.

The aim is to enable professionals to impart their knowledge to other urban professionals and thereby inform their practice. The PIR writes from experience on a topic of concern, relating it to the literature in the field and arguing the case for change. Our PIRs bring experience to the project and, under guidance derive a principle/s that can speak to other practitioners in a well researched and grounded argument.

Outside the institutional constraint of their office PIRs are able to bring the wisdom of experience to discussing the politics and pragmatics that contend with planning goals. The program is part of a broader Trust agenda to better connect Australian urban planning practice to the evidence base within urban planning research. Through the program we hope to produce research outputs relevant and accessible to practitioners. The paper discusses the dynamics of the PIR program, the necessary links between theory and practice and the problems of relevance and accessibility of planning research.

Enhancing Experiential Learning in Planning Education through an Online Toolkit of Resources

Christine Slade, Johanna Rosier, Claudia Baldwin, Andrew Harwood, Eddo Coiacetto, Trevor Budge, Tim Perkins

This paper reports on the development of an online toolkit of resources to support the use and assessment of experiential learning (EL) across planning programs. Planning graduates face diverse workplace demands with expectations to address the local and regional implications of global trends, integrate technological advances with existing planning processes, as well as interpret and integrate changing legislative and institutional arrangements. Planning education is about educators, practitioners and students coming together. Equipping students for increasing complexity and change requires planning educators to design programs that facilitate the learning of personal and professional skills and both broad and specialised planning knowledge. Planning practitioners, in partnership with educators, make further valuable contributions by providing a range of 'real world' learning experiences where students can directly develop new skills, knowledge and qualities. Experiential learning allows students to develop confidence within a safe environment through a series of activities and reflection that link theory to practice. However, developing EL learning outcomes, teaching activities and assessment can be demanding and time consuming for planning educators. In response, the Experiential Learning in Planning Education: Resources and Tools for Good Practice research project developed an online toolkit of case studies and associated resources to assist planning educators and practitioners in their application of EL. These case studies, developed by the partners in the project, explain the rationale of using particular EL activities based on a set of EL principles; how these activities are assessed; and reflections on how they could be improved for future use. The case studies also include numerous 'how to' resources, such as checklists and handy hints for organising activities, evaluation tools and examples of students' work. Furthermore, the toolkit website is an interactive and 'living' repository where additional case studies by other EL users can be included to enhance the diversity and richness of the resources available. The toolkit is expected to particularly benefit new planning educators but should also be of interest to planning schools and practitioners around the globe who are endeavouring to facilitate students' education in a rapidly changing world.

Reflection, Values, and Learning in a New Zealand Planning Degree

Angela Feekery

Part of becoming a successful Regional Planner involves learning to reflect on action and learning as an aspect of decision-making and professional practice. For any Planning programme, therefore, learning to be reflective is both an essential aspect of the curriculum and central to learning in terms of developing professional skills, supporting learning and improving communication in the discipline. However, creating space for sustained, purposeful reflection remains a challenging concept to apply in practice (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Hedberg, 2009; Moon, 2001). To be reflective learners, Planning students require repeated opportunities for engaging in purposeful reflection throughout their degree, and need to be supported towards becoming reflective learners from the beginning of their experience.

This paper reports on two interventions designed as part of an action research study aimed at enhancing information literacy and writing development within a Regional Planning degree in a New Zealand university. New assessment tasks were designed to encourage reflection on learning related to Planning. The first assessment, a 'Reflection on Values' task, is a low-stakes personal narrative assessment designed to encourage first-year students to reflect on their personal values and how these would impact on their responses to environmental issues within their discipline and profession. The assessment provided an opportunity to support students to engage in reflective thinking and promoted a focus on clear, concise writing early in the degree. The second assessment, a senior "Reflective Practitioner' task, encouraged students to engage in regular personal and professional reflective writing connected to an experiential learning class project. This paper outlines key considerations in developing the reflective assessments, and key modifications made based on student feedback, and the instructors' and researcher's reflections. It explores the value of encouraging reflection through assessment, the impact of the reflective exercises on students' writing, critical thinking and professional development, and the challenges and implications for faculty when integrating reflective assessment into the curriculum.

Environmental Planning Education and the possibilities for studio pedagogy

Caryl Bosman and Aysin Dedekorkut-Howes*

Environmental planning has a substantial impact on social, economic and environmental welfare and getting it right is a complex challenge. Teaching environmental planning is challenging at the best of times but periods of rapid political change can present additional difficulties. Planning studio pedagogy (a student-centred, collaborative, inquiry-based/problem-based pedagogy based on a 'real world' project) is a unique and valuable learning and teaching method used to educate environmental planners. Planning studio pedagogy teaches students how to successfully work, in a collaborative way, with 'wicked', complex issues. This paper will focus on the role of studio pedagogy in teaching students about the political landscapes of environmental planning. Students are required to be up to date with the current political contexts of planning during their studies and also develop an understanding of the challenges they will face in the workplace. A number of wicked learning and teaching issues arise in environmental planning education, these include:

- Developing student awareness of ethical responsibilities and personal values and dealing with potential conflicts driven by political contexts;
- Developing student awareness of the impact of choices made (neutral or advocate) in the workplace and the outcomes of those choices in practice and;
- Dealing with the hopelessness students may feel due to particular political setups

We argue that studio pedagogy is an ideal learning and teaching environment and approach to address these issues and achieve successful planning graduates that are leaders in their field.

PAPER ABSTRACTS

Studio Teaching in Australian Planning Curriculum

Karen Vella, Natalie Osborne,
Severine Mayere, Douglas Baker

Planning studio pedagogy has long been a part of planning education and has recently re-emerged as a topic of investigation. Scholarship has: 1) critically examined the fluctuating popularity of studio teaching and the changing role of studio teaching in contemporary planning curricula in the USA and New Zealand; 2) challenged conceptualizations of the traditional studio and considered how emerging strategies for blended and online learning, and 'real world engagement' are producing new modes of studio delivery; 3) considered the benefits and outcomes of studio teaching; and 4) provided recommendations for teaching practice by critically analysing studio experiences in different contexts (Aitken-Rose & Dixon, 2009; Balassiano, 2011; Balassiano & West, 2012; Balsas, 2012; Dandekar, 2009; Heumann & Wetmore, 1984; Higgins, Thomas & Hollander, 2010; Lang, 1983; Long, 2012; Németh & Long, 2012; Winkler, 2013).

Twenty-three universities in Australia offer accredited planning degrees, yet data about the use of studio teaching in planning programs are limited. How, when and why are studio pedagogies used? If it is not a part of the curriculum – why?, and has this had any impact on student outcomes? What are the opportunities and limitations of new models of studio teaching for student, academic, professional and institutional outcomes? This paper presents early ideas from a QUT seed grant on the use of studio teaching in Australian planning education to gain a better understanding of the different roles of studio teaching in planning curricula at a National level and opportunities and challenges for this pedagogical mode in the face of dilemmas facing planning education.

"Just like real-life!" Collaborative planning, experiential learning and a class consultancy

Jeff McNeill

Increasingly, collaborative governance models are employed in environmental planning practice as regulation is seen to fail to deliver public environmental goals. This form of engagement marks a point of difference with previous regulatory focused management practice and requires new sets of skills for planners. At the same time, learning-by-doing, or 'authentic learning' is widely recognised as the most effective way to learn. The real-life experience also provides opportunities for students to developing interpersonal relationships and group management skills necessary to undertake collaborative decision-making as they seek to achieve their project goals. The experience of contracting the fourth year planning class to a regional council to produce a resource management report for the council's region is evaluated in terms of students developing understanding of environmental management, but also on interpersonal relationships and group dynamics. The research draws on reflective essays and tasks written by the students as part of their coursework over the four years this approach to teaching has been taken.

Community participation in the delivery of infrastructure: a cross-cultural examination of its impact on the capacity building of local communities

Neeti Trivedi and Shahed Kahn

Community infrastructure plays an important role in improving the quality of life of the urban poor. Much research has focused on the impacts of such infrastructure provision on resident wellbeing, but less attention has been focused on the potential to further improve quality of life through the use of community participation in the provision of that infrastructure.

This paper reports on the approaches adopted for in-situ redevelopment housing projects in Victoria, Australia (Victoria Neighbourhood Renewal) and Pune, India (Yerwada Slum Upgrading project) to consider whether these approaches to community infrastructure provision have assisted in capacity building of the local residents.

The paper draws on evidence collected through observational study, informal discussions and analysis of relevant media in both case studies, in addition to structured questionnaire/surveys of households and the organisations involved in the Pune project.

The paper discusses the effectiveness of collaborative planning strategies developed through community participation, in terms of capacity building outcomes based on findings from the two case studies.

The paper concludes with a discussion of the lessons learnt from the two case studies regarding the role participatory planning in built environment renewal can play in capacity building for the urban poor. It also comments on the extent to which such projects can contribute to the independence and resilience of communities after the renewal has been completed.

Bounded recognition: urban planning and the textual mediation of Indigenous rights in Canada and Australia

Libby Porter and Janice Barry

While the recognition of marginalized social groups has become widely accepted as an important consideration for contemporary planning, the particular challenge of Indigenous recognition has barely registered in urban planning contexts. In this paper, we use a discursive and interpretive analysis of urban planning texts from Victoria, Australia, and British Columbia, Canada, to illustrate how the 'contact zone' between Indigenous peoples and urban planning is produced and reproduced through texts. Discursive processes serve to bound and limit the recognition of Indigenous rights and interests, allowing only very small and shallow zones of contact in each place. Our findings from these cases show that these processes arise from quite different orders of discourse, and two social fields: Indigenous recognition and urban planning. The discourses present in both fields really matter for how the contact zone is persistently bounded to established territorial, political and administrative orders. In identifying these boundaries, our paper opens up new ways of thinking about, and engaging in, boundary-crossing work in planning.

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PAPER ABSTRACTS

Fragmented landscapes: the challenge of conservation planning in a fragmented legal landscape.

Pip Wallace

Connectivity and integrity in the landscape are vital components of conservation biology. But in a different sense, they are also important characteristics of a regulatory regime. This paper examines the disjointed arrangements of the law which frame planning for biodiversity conservation in New Zealand. A lack of dedicated threatened species legislation means that the protection of threatened and at risk species is shored up by a range of statutes with disparate foci and function. The intersection between human activity/development and harm to species is a space where the consistent protection of threatened species is not well resolved.

Although the Wildlife Act 1953 provides absolute protection for most endemic species, the protection is diluted in several important respects. In particular, protection from incidental take is compromised and protection under the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA) is commonly the default position. Conservation legislation, such as the Conservation Act 1987, the National Parks 1980 and the Reserves Act 1977, is strongly place-based and this contributes to uneven protection of wildlife. This problem is accentuated by the focus of the RMA upon protection of habitat as opposed to habitat and species. As a consequence of this fragmentation, conservation planning documents tend to lack a consistent strategic approach.

This paper argues that not only does the lack of a consistent legislative focus weaken protection, it also influences the strength and effect of the regulatory community, which includes planners and educators. The law requires reform to enable more effective protection of threatened and at risk species.

Balancing the Requirements of Professional Planning Programme Accreditation and Academia: A comparison between the USA and New Zealand

Hamish Rennie

The interrelationship of planning as a distinct academic discipline and planning as a professional activity would seem full of potential for fruitful mutual support. However, the needs of each may be quite different and create tension between the 'academy' and the 'profession'. Academics have research activity requirements and academic perspectives that do not necessarily fit well with maintaining professional practice credibility; while the 'guardians' of professional practice seek certainty that planning graduates are 'work-ready' and maintaining the reputation, and employability, of the professional planner. In this paper we compare and contrast the requirements in the USA – for accreditation of academic programs by the Planning Accreditation Board (PAB) – and those of the New Zealand Planning Institute (NZPI). We focus on the issues that the relationships between academics and practitioners create for the academy. We particularly draw attention to the strengths and weaknesses of the key differences between the two approaches and comment on their implications.