

VI.

PLANNING EDUCATION IN BRITAIN

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1. INTRODUCTION

In order to gain an understanding of the planning education system in Britain we have first to consider the arrangements for post school education before turning to the particular case of planning. The British University is still characterised by its elitist nature - there is no automatic right to post school education on the part of school leavers even though they may hold the minimum level of qualification. All University places are open to competition with the ease of access depending on the relative popularity of the course and the reputation of the University. Thus Oxford and Cambridge remain the most difficult Universities to enter.

In architecture and planning there are approximately ten applicants for every place on an undergraduate course. This figure again varies according to the prestige of the University and the desirability of its location as a living environment. This system results in most students being educated away from home and a feature of UK universities is the large number of student residences that are available. But of course there is a subsequent need for students to fund their accommodation costs and an intense debate is currently under way with respect to ways of doing this with loans to students progressively replacing a system of grants.

Tuition fees are much higher than in other European countries but any student who is granted a place on an undergraduate course is, in practice, assured of a grant to cover this cost. This is not the case with postgraduate education where there are very few grants available and where students usually have to find both their living and tuition costs. These factors have had a clear influence on the arguments about the relative merits of undergraduate and postgraduate planning which are discussed below.

2. THE TOWN PLANNING INSTITUTE AND EDUCATION

The education of planners in any country is clearly dependent on two factors, the relative importance of planning as an activity in the political economy of that country and the degree of professionalization of the practice of planning. In Britain the first factor can be clearly perceived as public policy swung from the wholehearted adoption of planning in the 40's, 50's and 60's through to a rejection of planning in the attempt to reduce the power of the state in the 1980's and 90's.

While this type of shift can be traced in most countries (below we will briefly outline the evolution in Britain) it is perhaps the relation between education and professional activity which is most remarkable in the UK context. The Town Planning Institute (TPI) was founded in 1914 and was later granted a Royal Charter and is now the Royal Town Planning Institute (RTPI). The Town Planner has been recognized as a distinct professional with a protected title since 1914. This is a situation which may be contrasted with a number of European countries (France and Germany for example) where there is no protected profession of Town Planning.

The RTPI, with more than 17,000 members, is the largest professional planning body in Europe. Cullingworth (1994) estimates that 75% of this membership works in the public sector and about 20% in the development industry or private consultancies. He also points out that only half the professional staff engaged in planning are corporate members of the RTPI and that the total planning workforce including administrative and technical support is probably in the order of 50,000.

In the earliest years of the profession entry was through a process of taking examinations held by the TPI which was responsible in its charter for "standards of knowledge and skills for persons seeking corporate membership". Educational institutions, universities and colleges, began to offer courses to prepare candidates for these examinations and then moved to a situation whereby students who successfully completed a course "recognized" by the TPI were granted exemption from the Institute's exams. In order to achieve this recognition the university had to demonstrate to the TPI that it was fulfilling the Institute's requirements. This was achieved by the setting up a system whereby all courses were inspected every five years by a visiting board nominated by the Institute. This system still exists today with the boards, consisting of a mixture of planning academics and planning practitioners spending three days at each University.

It is thus a particular characteristic of the British system that the University programme has been, and still is, controlled by a professional institute which decides on the topics to be included in the curriculum and the relative time that should be allocated to different subjects and the level of achievement expected. The amount of discretion allowed to the educational establishment has increased over the last decade as programmes have been allowed to offer specialisations (see below).

The same situation holds for Architectural Education where the controlling body is the Royal Institute of British Architects.

There are some Planning courses which choose to set their own curriculum and ignore that of the TPI but there are only one or two that make this choice - the London School of Economics is a notable example. These programmes are clearly at disadvantage in the market to attract students who will have to take separate exams in order to enter the profession.

3. THE POST WAR RECONSTRUCTION

The second factor we have to consider is the relative importance of planning as an element of government policy. In this respect Britain has fluctuated to a greater extent than in other European countries where government has been more by coalition with far greater consensus than is found in the alternating adversarial politics of Britain.

In terms of the phases of evolving public policy, the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act was a watershed in the development of British Planning. This Act saw the establishment of planning practice as an activity of government which followed from a long period of enquiry into the priorities for post war reconstruction which had resulted in the Scott and Uthwatt reports and such works as the Abercromby Plan for the County of London.

The concern was for regionally balanced development and a degree of spatial equality between different parts of the nation and, at a local scale, the improvement of the physical environment through a combination of the New Towns programme with Comprehensive Development Area projects in the metropolitan cities. With its concern for the quality of the physical environment, planning had a commonly accepted role within a wider programme for reform which was the basis of the socialist postwar government in the UK.

The means for the achievement of these planning goals were measures for regulating the use and development of land through a system which was administered by local government at the level of the county and county borough (larger towns and cities). Davies (1981) has pointed out how this system encapsulated two major components - policy planning and development planning.

The first is concerned with defining the aims and objectives of policy, the devising of appropriate instruments to achieve these ends and the survey and monitoring of results through programmes of research. The main instruments of the development planning component were the development plan which expressed the land use allocations of the policies, powers for the initiation of development by public agencies (much building development was intended to be carried out by the public sector) and the development control system which regulated the construction activity of the private sector.

This two component system was relevant at the different scales of planning - there were policy planners and development planners working at local levels as well as regional level. Although this distinction related initially to the ways that the planning departments organized their work in time it became associated with a growing divergence between the skills and knowledge of planners in the different parts of the system. These differences have had important repercussions for the planning education system which is recognizable today in its fundamentals as they were established during the great postwar expansion of planning following the 1947 Act.

Before this Act town planning work had broadly been carried out by both staff in local authorities and private consultants. The more senior of these professionals came from architecture, engineering or surveying backgrounds while the junior staff without a higher degree or diploma often studied for the examinations of the Town Planning Institute which offered a route to a professional qualification.

The establishment of a national system for land use planning produced a consequent demand for trained manpower to operate the system within the local authorities. This demanded a rapid increase in the educational provision and there were two views on how this might take place.

The first was the model advocated by a government working party on "Qualifications for Planners" published in 1950. This document, the Schuster Report, held the view that planning was in essence a multidisciplinary activity to which different professions and disciplines would contribute by working in a team. These people needed some planning training but it was argued that it was better for this to be acquired at a postgraduate level only after the individual had received a firm grounding in his or her first discipline.

This was the model of planning education that had been established in the 1930's when seven postgraduate planning courses were recognized by the Town Planning Institute. The entrants to these programmes were graduates in the development professions (architects, engineers and surveyors) and the courses were not open to graduates in other disciplines. These courses had been one year in length but Schuster recommended that in future they should be of two years duration and preferably taken after a period of practical experience so that the student had already reached a level of some professional maturity. The Schuster report was extremely influential and provided a model for planning education which is still relevant nearly fifty years after its publication.

An alternative point of view was advocated by the growing number of planners who had been admitted to the profession without previous qualification. For this group planning was a distinct discipline which required its own programmes of basic undergraduate education focusing on those skills and knowledge which were central to planning. This was the generalist model of planning education and the first course on this pattern was set up immediately after the end of the Second World War at Newcastle University.

Another factor clearly favouring the adoption of undergraduate courses was the difficulty for students to fund a second degree which we have referred to above.

The TPI clearly had an interest in promoting a distinct identity and encouraged the admission of members without loyalties to other professions - whether as architects, engineers or surveyors. It was the generalist model which provided the training for the majority of the post war planners who would staff the Local Authority Planning departments as they expanded to administer the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act. By 1984 only one quarter of the annual total of planning graduates (316) came from postgraduate courses.

Healey (1980) has pointed out how these generalist courses were in fact specialized in their focus on the design of the physical environment with the main task of planners seen as containing urban sprawl, redesigning old cities and building new towns with considerable development being undertaken by the public sector. There was little concern for policy or strategic planning or for how the private development sector operated. These omissions were to emerge as fundamental in the late 1960's.

At the conclusion of this debate three types of course emerged as granting exemption from the TPI exams, the four year undergraduate course, and two types of postgraduate training, the two year fulltime mode, and the three year part time programme.

4. THE PLANNING ADVISORY GROUP

Over the decades of the 1950's and the 1960's the role of the public sector progressively changed from one where it was expected to be the major initiator of development. Planners were increasingly having to regulate proposals for industrial estates, shopping centres and housing schemes proposed by the private sector rather than implement public sector schemes themselves. There was also an optimistic view emerging with respect to continuing economic growth and demographic forecasts were being made which would require a massive programme of urbanisation by the end of the century to accommodate the growing population.

It was argued that the planning arrangements set up by the 1947 Act could not cope with this type of growth and a major review of the system was undertaken by the Planning Advisory Group in 1965. This successfully argued for detailed land use planning and development control to be set within a wider social and economic context. These changes were implemented through the 1968 Planning Act with the adoption of a system of broad strategic Structure Plans which laid down policies for the Counties (the largest unit of local government) which were to be interpreted at town or district level by detailed Local Plans.

The reform of local government in 1974 which set up a new structure of Districts and Counties was a further agent of change which subsequently created more planning posts.

These changes were matched by a further expansion of planning education with a renewal of the debate as to whether planning is best done by generalists or specialists. Although the specialists enlisted the emerging wider concern of planning in their support by arguing that the new system needed more specialists, particularly in the social sciences, the generalists again prevailed. This was hardly surprising since it was clearly in the TPI's interest to retain a clear identity separate from other professions and the difficulty of postgraduate funding still remained an important consideration.

Eleven new planning schools were recognized in the late 1960's as full-time programmes of a higher academic standard were encouraged by the TPI to replace part time courses. In 1960 the total output of graduates from all courses was 360, by 1979 this had increased to 870.

5. THE EMERGENCE OF URBAN DESIGN

A feature of the Anglo Saxon planning world, both professionally and educationally has been the emergence of urban design as a distinct discipline from both planning and architecture. This was a response at the beginning of the 1970's to the rapid reduction in the number of planners who were architects. From a dominance of the planning profession in the pre-war era, the proportion of architects who were members of the Town Planning Institute dropped from 50 % to less than 20% between 1960 and 1970 as the new educational courses began to produce undergraduate planners and postgraduates from an increasingly wide range of backgrounds including a growing number from the social sciences.

It is currently estimated that only 3% of members of the Royal Town Planning Institute are now architects with an even smaller proportion working in local authority planning departments. This is particularly significant when it is considered that these departments have the responsibility for administering the development control system. It has to be understood that British development plans are much less prescriptive than, for example, the Plan d'Occupation des Sols in France or the Plan General in Spain which embody far more quantitative controls on building form. The British Local Plan does not have the legal authority of these plans and is only one element which has to be taken into account when making a decision on an application to erect a building or change a use. There is thus a far greater degree of discretion allowed to the planners administering the system. This has led to a long history of complaints on the part of architects that their projects are being rejected or that they are being forced to modify them by unqualified (i.e. non architect) local authority planners.

This change in the composition of the profession was matched by a shift of interest in planning schools as the staffing began to swing towards a predominance of social scientists. These, quite naturally, sought to reinforce the preeminence of their own interests among the subjects taught in the planning courses as far as the

RTPI regulations allowed. They were critical of a crude physical determinism which they saw being a characteristic of the architect planners and regarded project work in the tradition of architectural education as being somehow less serious than other modes of learning.

The development control responsibilities of planning were regarded as a lesser intellectual challenge than aspects of policy and the best graduates tended towards careers in that branch of planning. Again this was a reinforcement of the social science tendency and a reduction in the importance of issues dealing with the physical environment.

The planning expansion of the 1960's and 70's, which we have noted above was accompanied by an attempt to raise the quality of the courses. This was marked by a replacement of training in design by instruction in quantitative methods, systems theory and the social sciences, subjects which have much clearer academic and research pedigrees. Thus design was being relegated just at a time when much public criticism was being directed at the quality of the built environment resulting from the construction activity of the last two decades. Jane Jacobs had been fiercely critical of the new urban planning a quarter of a century before Prince Charles!

That a deprecatory attitude towards design still prevails can be noted from a comment of Professor Kunzmann who notes in a paper given at the Founding Congress of the Association of European Schools of Planning (AESOP) that "the retreat to urban Design" seems to be an important factor in the development of planning and he makes an implied criticism of the fact that "the improvement of the quality of the built and natural environment will be the predominant tasks of planners" (Kunzmann, 1987). Perhaps it was the fact that the brightest and most articulate planners had neglected these issues that has contributed to the low public esteem with which the planning profession is regarded today.

While there is no desire to claim that architects are "better" planners than those from other backgrounds it could be argued that planners with an architectural foundation are more interested in aspects of physical form than social scientists who will be more concerned with policy issues, management of local government and the explanation of social and economic phenomena.

This state of affairs was producing a concern among architects and possible remedies were being discussed by the early 1970's. Part of the reason for the reduction in architects entering planning was the time it took to acquire a professional qualification in both architecture, seven years, and Planning, an additional three years. A number of post graduate urban design courses of up to one year's duration were therefore established to provide a training, initially for architects but later for other disciplines including planning and landscape architecture. These were more directly linked to issues of controlling the physical form and promoting the quality of the public realm in a more detailed way than could be provided in a generalist planning course at either undergraduate or postgraduate levels.

These courses have had a mixed history with that at Oxford Polytechnic established in 1973 being the only one to maintain and evolve a continuing tradition over the two last decades. The most recent RTPI policy allows a course in Urban design to form the second half of a two part post graduate course. It is recognized as a specialist year following the foundation year that all courses are required to follow if they are to receive recognition by the Institute.

6. THE DECADE OF DEREGULATION

The demand for planners reached a peak in the early 1970's with the introduction of a new planning system and the major reorganization of Local Government. By the end of the decade the first Thatcher government had been elected and had set about a reduction in size of the local government bureaucracy to match a withdrawal of local power towards the Departments of Central Government at Westminster. It must be remembered that there is no elected regional level of government in the UK and that it is at present the most centralized state in the UE.

The motivation for this programme was a desire to release the private sector from the restraints of government. The range of planning related problems which the government identified as holding back the private sector included the large public land holdings in areas such as the docklands of London or Liverpool and the Metropolitan Councils such as the Greater London Council which were abolished as an unnecessary tier of Local Government.

A study of the future manpower requirements of the planning profession concluded that the numbers of graduates, which the programmes set up in the 1970's were going to produce, far exceeded any likely number of jobs in the profession. It was argued that the disastrous history of attempts at manpower forecasting in changing economic and social conditions made these assertions difficult to sustain. The report was published in 1982 when the government was seeking to make large scale cuts in the higher education system and it became a useful weapon which enabled planning education to be specially targeted in the subsequent cost saving exercises.

Evaluations were made about the quality of the various courses and on the basis of this exercise decisions were made to rationalise the provision of planning education by closing some courses and amalgamating a number of others. This process was bitterly contested by the RTPI which argued that the recognized courses were extremely flexible and provided trained manpower for a wide range of jobs outside the boundary of the statutory planning process and that planning graduates compared favourably with other graduates in overall unemployment rates.

The closures had only a limited effect on supply because the remaining courses often increased their intake. Surprisingly and contrary to the forecasts with the

boom of the mid to late eighties there was a surprising shortage of graduate planners. Although the government rhetoric about reducing the influence of planning in favour of a market orientation was very powerful it has been pointed out that in practice the effect was limited. It can be argued that planning has been more dispersed rather than reduced (Cullingworth 1994). Instead of being concentrated in the Local Authorities (County and District Councils) it is now being undertaken by a wide range of separate agencies - urban development corporations, enterprise zones, development agencies, town trusts, river and water authorities and national parks.

In contrast to a view put forward by McLoughlin in 1973 when it was considered that there would be little opportunity for planners in the private sector, there was a particular demand for planners from the private sector as promoters and developers sought to exploit the planning system by putting forward proposals which were often counter to adopted plans and then trying to fight them through the appeals process. Vivid examples of this phenomenon are the twenty four private sector new towns which were proposed by developers in the south east of England during the later 1980's property boom. These were usually contrary to local or structure plan policies as set out in Structure or Local Plans but, given the non binding status of these Plans, arguments could be made through the appeals system to the Department of the Environment for the reversal of policies and the adoption of developers' proposals. These attempts clearly required a great deal of planning expertise to gain acceptance generated a great deal of employment among private sector consultants even though not one of the projects was implemented.

The 1980's were marked by rapid swings in the demand for planners. In 1982, a period of recession, jobs were scarce and a series of reviews of planning education (Davies, 1982) resulted in the reduction of courses to bring the supply of qualified planners more into line with the anticipated demand. Dickens (1992) reports that, in a survey carried out in 1983, there were more than fifty applicants for each available post while in 1987 this figure had fallen to less than 25. The situation is now one where there is a considerable excess of graduates seeking employment over posts available. He reports a fall of 65% in the number of junior posts in 1991 compared with 1989-90 which was in turn already 27% lower than 1988-89.

7. THE CURRENT STRUCTURE OF PLANNING COURSES

One of the responses to the fluctuating and dispersing job market has been for University Planning Departments to further develop the specialisms that we noted were established with the Urban Design courses. In an argument which is very close to that of Schuster, Batey (1985) suggests that the need now is for specialist planners from a range of different fields who are trained to apply their basic skills in a range of planning contexts. He has doubts about the success of this policy because the students coming onto the courses are now predominantly from a background in geography and not from the wide range of disciplines which contribute to the

planning process. Furthermore, in contrast to Schuster's recommendations, these students are not very likely to have had practical experience simply because the job market does not offer the opportunities and, once a graduate does have a job, he is very unlikely to leave it for full time education.

The forms of education are, in essence, still those set up after the Second World War. The most common is the route through a generalist planning degree which takes four years. This consists of a three year undergraduate degree, at Oxford this is the BA (Hons) in Planning Studies, and a one year Diploma in Planning. The concept is that three years give the basic education while the fourth year is concerned with issues raised by current practice and is intended to extend the range of studies undertaken in the undergraduate degree to a professional level. These courses may be taken on a part time or fulltime basis.

The postgraduate route involves those with a degree in a discipline related to planning to acquire an expertise in planning. It consists of a full-time two year programme, although all or part of the course may be taken part time.

One characteristic of approved courses that has changed is the degree to which the RTPI specifies the content. There is a core curriculum laid down (see Anexo A.) which, in a typical two year postgraduate course, would take up to around one year leaving an equal amount of time for a specialization to be developed. Among typical specializations offered are subjects such as Housing, Transport Planning, Planning for Tourism, Planning in Developing Countries and Environmental Assessment and Management.

A further development has been in the field of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) which has received much attention from the RTPI. In order to retain membership of the profession planners now have to demonstrate that they are maintaining and renewing their professional competence by undertaking training activities during their working careers. These may be of many different kinds but this requirement has found a response by the schools who now provide short courses or package part of their programmes so that they are available to practitioners.

8. CONCLUSION

Kunzmann (1985) has identified four stages in the development of planning education in Europe and we can note how Britain has passed through all these stages while other countries have for various reasons found those stages which were arrived at earlier in the British context to be satisfactory for their current needs.

The first stage is one where architects and engineers (we must include surveyors in the British context where the professional scene is more complex) introduce urban planning options into their traditional educational programmes. It is suggested that the Spanish system is representative of this stage which is also found in some architecture schools in Italy.

The second stage is the establishment of specific graduate or undergraduate programmes in architecture or engineering departments which provide either a separate planning route or a route which separates after a period of joint education with the parent discipline. Many of the British planning courses started in this way. Independent departments mark the third stage with either undergraduate or graduate programmes being offered depending on the needs of the planning market.

Urban decline and economic crisis mark the fourth stage where there is an introduction of sectoral or problem orientated courses as we have noted above in Britain.

This schema is clearly a simplification of the complex reality of planning education where we may frequently have two or three stages coexisting side by side with in the same country or, indeed, within the same University. It does however offer a helpful way of summarizing the evolution of British planning education as it has responded to the changing socio-economic circumstances described above.

That it is difficult to forecast with respect to the number and education of the professionals who will be required for the practice of planning is evident from the failures we have noted above. It would therefore be foolhardy to make any attempt but it seems a safe assumption that even with economic recovery it is unlikely that the numbers of planners in the public sector will ever reach the level of the 1970's. If economic issues predominate in government policy and planning is now directed towards negotiating with the market in a partnership, so individuals are now equally likely to survey the job market before making a decision to undertake a course in planning. As the role of professions linked to state programmes is reduced in importance, a degree in planning is no longer a passport to a safe job in the public sector and consequently the demand for generalist planning courses is showing signs of decline. Planning education has begun to appreciate this and is widening its range of concern to produce graduates who will be capable of competing for a variety of jobs in the public sector (which now includes a much wider spectrum of agencies than the Local Authority Planning Office) and private sector, well beyond the range of concerns envisaged by the pioneers of fifty years ago.

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ANEXO A. THE CORE CURRICULUM FROM THE RTPi GUIDELINES FOR PLANNING SCHOOLS, 1982

A.1 PLANNING METHODOLOGY

Derivation and application of planning process, including problem definition, survey, analysis, plan formulation, evaluation, implementation, monitoring and review. Types of uncertainty and their effects. Skills of communication. Research methods and theory building. Theories of planning in the environment, their epistemology and interests. Procedures and practice of planning including plan-making, implementation and development control. Factors likely to frustrate the intentions of plans and contingency arrangements that can be made. Physical, social and economic impacts of environmental planning. Relation of environmental planning to other forms of planning. Professionalism in planning.

A.2 THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Land, buildings, space and the development process. Complementary and conflicting land uses. Infrastructure for urban and rural development. Processes of economic and technological change and their effect on the physical environment. Maintenance of environmental standards. The aesthetic, energy and social justice implications of different forms of physical development; their manifestation at different spatial scales, and characteristic response to them through the environmental planning system.

A.3 THE ADMINISTRATIVE CONTEXT

The development of the environmental planning system in the UK and elsewhere. Existing systems of central and local government in the UK, and their management processes. Legislation regulating the practice of environmental planning and related agencies. The influence of legal, procedural and political factors on plan-making, implementation and development control. Involvement of the public and elected members. Finance for development and maintenance of the environment.

ACCREDITED COURSES

The following educational institutions currently offer the undermentioned full-time, day-release or distance learning courses leading to the award of the degrees or diplomas specified. They are currently accredited for the purpose of meeting the academic requirements for corporate membership of the Institute. There are no accredited courses on a part-time evening only basis. It should also be noted that no courses outside the British Isles, except at the University of Hong Kong, are accredited.

Educational Institution	Course	Duration	Educational Institution	Course	Duration
Department of Town and Country Planning The Queen's University of Belfast 2 Lennoxvale Belfast BT9 5BY (Tel: 0232 245133)	(a) Undergraduate (BSc Degree with Honours in Environmental Planning plus Diploma) †(b) Postgraduate (MSc Degree in Town and Country Planning) (c) Postgraduate (Diploma in Town and Country Planning)	(a) 4 years full-time †(b) 2 calendar years full-time (c) 2 academic years full-time	Department of Town & Regional Planning Duncan of Jordanstone College of Art & University of Dundee Perth Road Dundee DD1 4HT (Tel: 0382 23261)	Undergraduate (BSc Degree with Honours in Town and Regional Planning) See also Joint Distance Learning Diploma	4 years full-time
School of Planning Faculty of the Built Environment University of Central England in Birmingham Perry Barr Birmingham B42 2QU (Tel: 021-331 5140)	(a) Undergraduate (BSc Degree with Honours in Environmental Planning Studies plus Diploma in Town and Country Planning/MSc) †(b) Postgraduate (MA/Diploma in Town Planning)	(a) 4 years full-time (The Diploma year is also offered on a 2 year part-time basis) †(b) 3 years part-time	Edinburgh School of Planning and Housing Heriot-Watt University: Edinburgh College of Art Lauriston Place Edinburgh EH3 9DF (Tel: 031-229 9311)	(a) Undergraduate (BSc Degree with Honours in Town Planning) (b) Postgraduate (Diploma in Town and Country Planning) (c) Postgraduate (Master's Degree in Urban and Regional Planning plus Certificate)	(a) 5 years full-time Sandwich Course. The 3rd year is spent in paid employment in an office gaining practical experience. (b) 2 years full-time or 3 years part-time (c) 2 years full-time
School of Town and Country Planning University of the West of England, Bristol Coldharbour Lane Frenchay Bristol BS16 1QY (Tel: 0272 656261)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Town and Country Planning plus BTP Degree) (b) Postgraduate (MA/Diploma in Town and Country Planning) See also Joint Distance Learning Diploma	(a) 4 years full-time (The BTP is also offered on a part-time basis) (b) 3 years part-time	Centre for Planning University of Strathclyde 50 Richmond Street Glasgow G1 1XN (Tel: 041-552 4400)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Planning) (b) Postgraduate (MSc Degree in Urban and Regional Planning) (c) Postgraduate (Diploma in Urban and Regional Planning)	4 years full-time (b) 2 years full-time or 3 years part-time (c) 2 years full-time or 3 years part-time
Department of City and Regional Planning University of Wales College of Cardiff Aberconway Building Colum Drive Cardiff CF1 3YN (Tel: 0222 874882)	(a) Undergraduate (BSc Degree with Honours in City and Regional Planning plus Diploma) (b) Postgraduate (MSc Degree in City and Regional Planning)	(a) 5 years full-time Sandwich Course. The 4th year is spent in paid employment in an office gaining practical experience. (b) 2 calendar years full-time	Centre of Urban Planning and Environmental Management University of Hong Kong Pokfulam Road Hong Kong (Tel: Hong Kong (852)-859 2721)	Postgraduate (MSc Degree in Urban Planning)	2 years full-time or 3 years part-time
Department of Regional & Urban Planning University College Dublin Richview Clonskeagh Dublin 14 (Tel: 010 3531 2693244)	Postgraduate (Master's Degree in Regional and Urban Planning) See also Joint Distance Learning Diploma	2 calendar years full-time	School of the Environment Leeds Metropolitan University Brunswick Building Leeds LS2 8BU (Tel: 0532 832600)	Postgraduate (Diploma in Town and Regional Planning) See also Joint Distance Learning Diploma	3 years part-time
			Department of Civic Design University of Liverpool PO Box 147 Abercromby Square Liverpool L69 3BX (Tel: 051-794 3109)	†(a) Postgraduate (MCD: Master's Degree in Town and Regional Planning) (b) Postgraduate (Diploma in Civic Design)	†(a) 2 calendar years full-time or 3 years part-time or 1 year full-time plus 2 years part-time (b) 2 academic years full-time or 3 years part-time

VI.1a Listado de los cursos reconocidos por el *Royal Town Planning Institute* (da *The Planner*, abril, 1993), pagina n° 1.

Educational Institution	Course	Duration
School of the Built Environment Liverpool John Moores University Mount Pleasant Building 98 Mount Pleasant Liverpool L3 5UZ (Tel: 051-231 3709)	Postgraduate (MSc/ Diploma in Environmental Planning)	3 years part-time or 2 years full-time
Bartlett School of Architecture & Planning University College London Wates House 22 Gordon Street London WC1H 0QB (Tel: 071-387 7050, ext 4875)	(a) Postgraduate (MPhil Degree in Town Planning) (b) Postgraduate (PhD in Town Planning)	(a) 2 years full-time or 1 year full time plus 2 years part-time or 3 years part-time (b) 3 years full-time
School of Urban Development and Planning University of Westminster 35 Marylebone Road London NW1 5LS (Tel: 071-911 5000 ext 3256)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Urban Planning Studies plus Diploma in Urban Planning Implemen- tation) (b) Postgraduate (Diploma in Town Planning)	(a) 4 years full-time (b) 3 years part-time
School of Land Management & Urban Policy, South Bank University Wandsworth Road London SW8 2JZ (Tel: 071-928-9899)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Town Planning plus Diploma) (b) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Town Planning Studies plus Diploma in Town Planning) (c) Postgraduate (Diploma with MA in Town Planning) See also Joint Distance Learning Diploma	(a) 4 years full-time (The Diploma is also offered on a 2 year part-time basis) (b) 6 years part-time or 4 years part-time plus 1 year full-time (c) 3 years part-time or 2 years full-time
Department of Planning and Landscape University of Manchester Manchester M13 9PL (Tel: 061-275 6904)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Town and Country Planning plus BPI Degree) (b) (i) Postgraduate (BTP Degree or MTP Degree) (ii) Postgraduate (MTP Degree)	(a) 4 years full-time (b) (i) 2 years full-time (ii) 2 years full-time for holders of the BA Degree referred to in (a) above or an equivalent 3 years full- time Honours Degree in Planning
Department of Town and Country Planning University of Newcastle upon Tyne Claremont Tower Claremont Road Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 7RU (Tel: 091-222 6000)	(a) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Town Planning plus Diploma in Town Planning) †(b) Postgraduate (MTP: Master's Degree in Town Planning or Diploma/MTP)	(a) 5 years full-time Sandwich Course. The 4th year is spent in paid employment in an office gaining practical experience. †(b) 2 calendar years full-time or 1 year full-time plus 2 years part-time

Educational Institution	Course	Duration
Institute of Planning Studies University of Nottingham Paton House University Park Nottingham NG7 2RD (Tel: 0602 514881)	†(a) Postgraduate (MA Degree in Environmental Planning) †(b) Postgraduate (MA Degree in Environmental Planning for Developing Countries)	†(a) 2 years full-time or 3 years part-time or 1 year full-time plus 2 years part-time †(b) 2 years full-time
School of Planning Oxford Brookes University Headington Oxford OX3 0BP (Tel: 0865 819400)	(a) Undergraduate (CNA A BA Degree with Honours in Planning Studies plus Diploma in Planning) (b) Postgraduate (CNA MSc Degree in Urban Planning Studies/Diploma in Urban Planning)	(a) 4 years full-time (The course is also offered on a part-time or mixed mode basis) (b) 2 years full time or various part-time and mixed mode routes (eg 3 years part-time) including a route with MA/Diploma in Urban Design
School of Planning Studies Department of Land Management and Development University of Reading Whiteknights Reading RG6 2BU (Tel: 0734 318171)	(a) Postgraduate (MPhil Degree in Environmental Planning) (b) Postgraduate (Advanced Diploma in Environmental Planning) (c) Postgraduate (MSc/ Diploma in Town and Country Planning)	(a) 2 calendar years full-time or 3 years part-time (b) 2 academic years full-time or 3 years part-time (c) 3 years part-time
Department of Town and Regional Planning University of Sheffield 6 Claremont Place Sheffield S10 2TN (Tel: 0742 768555)	†(a) Postgraduate (MA Degree in Town and Regional Planning) (b) Undergraduate (BA Degree with Honours in Urban Studies/Diploma in Town and Regional Planning) (c) Postgraduate (Diploma in Town and Regional Planning) (d) Postgraduate (Diploma in Planning Studies)	†(a) 2 calendar years full-time (b) 4 years full-time (c) 2 academic years full-time (d) 1 year full-time plus 2 years part-time at Sheffield Hallam University (see below)
School of Urban and Regional Studies Sheffield Hallam University Pond Street Sheffield S1 1WB (Tel: 0742 720911)	Postgraduate (Diploma in Urban and Regional Planning)	3 years part-time or 2 years part-time after 1 year full-time at University of Sheffield (see above)

Joint Distance Learning Diploma

A Distance Learning Diploma, the successful completion of which will meet the Institute's academic requirements for corporate membership, consists of eight courses (five provided by the Open University and three by the Distance Learning Consortium which comprises the 5 Schools indicated above). There is also a graduate entry route on to this course. Further information may be obtained direct from Mr J Allinson, UWE, Bristol, whose address and telephone number is given above.

Notes

† There is also a mode in operation enabling students in the Department of Architecture to achieve both architecture and planning qualifications in a shorter time than normal.

VI.1b Listado de los cursos reconocidos por el *Royal Town Planning Institute* (da *The Planner*, abril, 1993), pagina n° 2.

Resumen del artículo de Ivor Samuels

LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA DISCIPLINA URBANÍSTICA EN GRAN BRETAÑA

El artículo del profesor Ivor Samuels empieza con el enfoque del marco general de la enseñanza universitaria con su carácter todavía de élite, y con la gran competencia para el acceso a las plazas limitadas -un promedio de una por cada diez candidatos en arquitectura y planeamiento-, subrayando la buena disponibilidad de becas para los cursos de grado y la escasez para los de postgrado. El desarrollo del artículo evidencia además la estrecha relación entre la organización de la enseñanza del urbanismo y la estructura del mundo del trabajo, o sea, la importancia del planeamiento como instrumento de política gubernamental y el nivel de profesionalización de la práctica del planeamiento.

Los dos elementos más originales de la experiencia inglesa son el temprano reconocimiento del planeamiento como campo profesional independiente con la constitución ya en 1914 del Town Planning Institute -ahora Royal Town Planning Institute, RTPI, que cuenta con alrededor de diecisiete mil miembros, el setenta y cinco por ciento empleados en la administración pública, sobre un total estimado de cincuenta mil dedicados al sector-, y el reciente desarrollo del Urban Design como disciplina autónoma del planeamiento y del proyecto arquitectónico. El acceso al RTPI se realizaba tras superar un examen de admisión, lo que empujó a algunos centros de enseñanza a ofrecer cursos de preparación, que luego fueron el origen de las actuales licenciaturas de urbanismo. El examen sigue existiendo, pero además es posible acceder directamente al RTPI con uno de los títulos reconocidos por el mismo Instituto, que cada cinco años realiza -con el nombramiento de una comisión formada tanto por académicos que por profesionales- un control sobre las materias incluidas en el plan de estudios de estos cursos, su profundidad y duración. La puesta en marcha de las especializaciones ha matizado esta relación haciendo crecer también el margen de discreción de la parte académica para sus elecciones individuales. El control del mundo profesional se extiende sobre gran mayoría de los cursos de planeamiento, y también de arquitectura ya que el Royal Institute of British Architects, RIBA, funciona de forma parecida. Desde luego la relación entre los centros de enseñanza superiores y la organización profesional, y su desarrollo, es totalmente atípica respecto al panorama universitario europeo.

Según el profesor Ivor Samuels el nivel de profesionalización de la actividad urbanística es uno de los dos elementos determinantes del desarrollo de la educación de la disciplina en Gran Bretaña, junto con la importancia del planeamiento como instrumento de política gubernamental. Ello determina los medios a disposición de la

enseñanza y la calidad y cantidad de la oferta de trabajo. La alternancia de la guía gubernamental, típica del bipartidismo británico, marca las etapas del desarrollo reciente, con sus informes -cuya realización, difusión y efectos demuestran el interés real por el tema y la capacidad de análisis e intervención muy propias del ejemplo británico- sus reformas y contrarreformas. En este ámbito el Town Planning Act de 1947 es relevante, ya que determinó la construcción del sistema de planeamiento como instrumento de actuación de la política del gobierno en la esfera económica.

El Schuster Report, en 1950, definió como multidisciplinar la naturaleza del planeamiento, planteando la evolución del sistema educacional existente con el desarrollo de cursos de postgrado en planeamiento para un abanico más amplio de licenciaturas, especialmente las que no tienen relación con la urbanización, que había que emprender después de haber tenido acceso al mundo del trabajo. En esto consistía el desarrollo del sistema existente a que se opone el modelo generalista, fundado sobre la autonomía disciplinar del planeamiento con cursos propios de graduación y con un plan de estudios enfocado explícitamente a ello. Es el modelo que defienden los profesionales y el RTPI, y además, según el profesor Samuels, el más asequible, considerando el empeño que conlleva la formación defendida en el Schuster Report, que une una carrera de cuatro años con un título de grado, más el curso de postgrado, de dos años, si es a tiempo pleno, y de tres, si a tiempo parcial. La reforma introducida con el Planning Act en 1968 reconoció la crisis del sistema anterior, apuntando hacia la abstracción de la definición espacial y del diseño en el planeamiento, determinando un mayor papel de las ciencias políticas y sociales. La reorganización institucional de 1974 había multiplicado los puestos de trabajo en la administración para los funcionarios, pero la contrarreforma conservadora, fundada sobre la centralización y la desregulación, cambió profundamente el panorama profesional y el papel de la administración. Aumentó la oferta de empleo en el sector privado, en contra de las expectativas generales de los urbanistas y de las mismas previsiones del Gobierno, empeñado en el recorte de recursos para el sistema educacional. Las ofertas llegan de las agencias responsables de la gestión de la nueva urbanística de la deregulation y, por primera vez de forma masiva, de las empresas privadas. Es un empleo afectado por las oscilaciones coyunturales, más especializado y físicamente disperso; pero, sobre todo, esto redimensiona la retórica de la reducción de la influencia del planeamiento en favor de la mayor confianza en las leyes económicas, dirigiendo la polémica a un nivel más realista.

Es en este marco donde desde principios de los setenta se desarrolla el Urban Design como disciplina autónoma, equilibrando la progresiva pérdida de relación con la urbanística, evidenciada en la esfera profesional por la disminución de arquitectos dedicados al planeamiento -el número de arquitectos inscritos al RTPI cayó entre los años sesenta y setenta del cincuenta al veinte por ciento, llegando hasta rondar el tres por ciento en la actualidad- y respondiendo así a la reivindicación de la necesidad de mejora del espacio construido. Esto es sin duda un argumento en favor de la superación del debate, ya estéril, centrado en la interpretación de la experiencia desarrollada por la cultura arquitectónico-urbanística, tachada de determinismo espacial, frente a la incapacidad por parte de otras disciplinas, analíticas y no espaciales, de organizar modelos alternativos.

Actualmente el RTPI reconoce cursos de postgrado en Urban Design con el primer año básico, común con los de otras especialidades, y el segundo especializado.

En conclusión, la estructura actual de la formación se puede interpretar en cuatro modelos, a menudo coexistentes en la misma universidad, que son la herencia de las etapas de desarrollo de la disciplina: desde la enseñanza de la urbanística en las escuelas de arquitectura y de ingeniería, a la estructuración de cursos de graduación y postgrado autónomos, para llegar a su orientación hacia las necesidades del mercado, y por último, el desarrollo de las especializaciones y el enfoque de los cursos sobre problemas concretos. Actualmente la carrera más común es la licenciatura en planeamiento, que en Oxford ha sido estructurada en el Bachelor en Planning Studies de tres años, más el Diploma in Planning de un año. La mayoría de los estudiantes de postgrado llegan con preparación en geografía, en contraste entonces con el planteamiento multidisciplinar del modelo de referencia, y sin experiencia laboral. Sin embargo, se va estructurando una formación profesional continua, promovida por el RTPI, que vincula el mantenimiento de la inscripción a la realización de cursos de actualización de las competencias profesionales a lo largo de la carrera profesional.