

UPP500 History and Theory of Planning
Instructor Professor Charles Hoch
Monday 3:00PM-5:50PM: ADH2232

Purpose

This core course provides students with knowledge about the origins of urban planning and the ideas that justify its practice. The history will be thematic and heruistic rather than detailed and critical. Ideas about planning will be organized as narratives and arguments that students can and should use to interpret and justify planning activity.

Assignments

Students will prepare three written reports.

History report reviewing ideas about a planning event, episode or institution (25% grade)

Interview report comparing two planning practitioner interviews (25% grade)

Theory report uses planning ideas to analyze or interpret plans or planning (30% grade)

Students will demonstrate active leadership in course discussion:

Prepare article briefing and discussion for one class (10% grade)

In class or on line discussion questions and comments (10% grade)

Textbooks

Hall, Peter. 2004. *Cities of Tomorrow: An Intellectual History of Urban Planning and Design in the Twentieth Century*. Blackwell. ISBN 0-631-23252-4

Hoch, Charles 1994. *What Planners Do*. Chicago: Planners Press.

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Why planning theory matters for planning practice

Every time we stop and consider what options to take before making a choice we make a plan. We imagine what might happen and the consequences that could ensue and judge these effects in relation to our capacity to choose and act. How does this work? How do we make plans to decide what route to take, entrée to eat, car to buy, book to read and on and on?

If we agree that we each plan, then how do we make plans together to cope with more complex physical, social, economic and political problems? How do we collectively conceive and respond to these problems? We each know that our personal plans can work, but will they work as we try to solve collective problems? What ideas will help improve the chances that it will?

1. What are some of the ideas that people propose about the impossibility, infeasibility and undesirability of collective planning? These are usually more popular than planning.

2. What do people offer that we use instead of plans to guide collective judgments about complex problems? These ideas are also more popular than planning.

Learning planning theory can help you answer these two questions for yourself and others you will meet (mostly everyone) should the value and use of planning come up in the conversation.

Readings:

Forester, John. 2004. Reflections on trying to teach planning theory.

Hoch, Charles. 2010. Making Plans.

II. HISTORY

2. From History to Theory and Back Again

Planning focuses on the future in order to inform current judgment. The past includes the cumulative knowledge that we might find useful for making judgments. There is a lot of it and we do not know what will prove useful. Learning history provides us with pathways into the archives of the past that help us organize knowledge into periods and destinations we can comprehend. It also provides us with stories that can offer evidence, inspiration, testimony, warnings and other interpretive clues about how to make sense of our journey and what to select as we return to the present. So when folks ask about planning we can use this knowledge to provide stories about what planners did, what plans accomplished (or not) and the purposes that inspired specific planning episodes or projects.

Although planning may be a common place activity in our individual lives it has rarely enjoyed popularity as a resource for informing and guiding collective judgments and decisions. You will find that institutional conventions and other more popular ideas will be used to justify collective judgments and decisions. Often planning practitioners accept the popularity of these conventional ideas and adapt their practice to fit the institutional world they inhabit. This makes life easier even if it means that the plans the practitioner makes do not make sense even to oneself. This can lead to cynicism and a contorted effort to make plans using institutional and conceptual ideas antagonistic or indifferent to planning.

Surviving and prospering in such settings requires more than theory, but theory can provide one resource among others (a community of peers, political savvy & connections, charm, good luck,...). The resource requires that you learn to understand conceptual arguments and how to make these kinds of arguments on your own. Additionally, you need to learn how to communicate these arguments to others in persuasive ways and to engage in collaborative deliberations with others where you learn to listen and modify your own arguments and beliefs in light of the arguments and beliefs proposed by others.

Peter Hall writes a history of spatial planning that uses arguments to organize the structure of the book. He combines storytelling to supply evidence for the claims he makes as you take the journey of reading his book. He offers a critical anarchist inspired perspective combined with an amazingly gifted eye for events, episodes and characters.

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 1: Cities of Imagination

Hall, Chapter 2: City of Dreadful Night

Larsen, Kristin. 2007. Review Essay: Divergent Views on the Birth of City Planning, *Journal of Urban History* 33:864.

3. Beauty and Civic Improvement

The emergence of the planning movement has its roots in the collaboration of designers who cared about places: architects, landscape architects and engineers who in the Victorian Age were enthralled by the powers of industry to transform nature and subdue its wild and unpredictable ways. The physical ugliness of the emerging industrial cities represented another kind of wilderness, but one susceptible to a coordinated effort to curb unnecessary and wasteful city building practices.

The concept of a garden combines the secure and subtle articulation of order with an organic sensibility that allows for the experience of refreshment and rejuvenation. Instead of walking into the wild jungle where uncertainty and threat haunt every move; traveling through a garden edifies and nourishes. The security and order provide a framework for a conversation with the

organic composition of flowers, shrubs and plants.

City gardens can provide vegetables and a link with the agricultural way of life that dominated the American way of life until the end of the 19th century. The role of parks and open spaces emerge as important ideas for taming the political and economic pressures to squeeze more and more people into less space – supplying plenty of cheap labor for the massive enterprises.

What is the relationship between physical environment and moral character?

Does aesthetic experience shape moral outlook and social character?

How do organic and aesthetic conceptions converge in urban plans?

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 4: City in the Garden

Hall, Chapter 6: City of Monuments

Peterson, Jon A. 1979. The impact of sanitary reform upon American urban planning, 1840-1890 *Journal of Social History* 13(1):83-104.

Platt, Lorne A. 2010. Planning Ideology and Geographic Thought in the Early Twentieth Century: Charles Whitnall's Progressive Era Park Designs for Socialist Milwaukee, *Journal of Urban History*, 1-21

4. Progress and Science

The successful invention of the steam engine transformed not only the productivity of industry within manufacturing establishments, but the countryside and seaways as well. Large steam ships and trains expanded the speed and predictability of travel at an unprecedented level. The result was a huge increase in connectivity fostering trade and the migration of people across the globe. The concept of progress emerges and along with this idea the confidence and belief in the application of scientific knowledge to the technical organization and control of an expanding array of social and physical relationships. The application of engineering sciences can solve the problems of the world. We only need do the research and apply the discipline of engineering rationality.

Not only can we use scientific rationality to design trains and steam ships; we can use it to analyze and reconstruct how we make and do things, how we arrange streets and buildings, how we build and maintain infrastructure and much more. The industrial era and the rationality it put to use transforming the physical landscape also transformed the conceptual landscape. Ideas now became the product of rational schemes as people learned to identify with increasingly specialized occupational tasks, become consumers for advertized products, subject themselves to gymnastic and other organized sports, and otherwise create the modern individual whose need fulfillment was the object of all that progress.

Of course there were competing ideas about progress at the time, ideas that focused on the costs of change, the loss of community, the massive displacement of populations due to famines, war and dislocation; and the emerging social movements shaped by the visions of social justice and progress tied to the pursuit of a common good. The politics included right wing populist visions that longed for the past and left wing movements that hoped to take hold of the technical innovations of the industrial era, but transform their use for more socially and environmentally beneficial outcomes.

How does the idea of progress inform planning ideas in progressive reform?

How do scientific rationality and comprehensiveness get connected in planning?

What ideas were used to justify planning as a professional activity?

How did planning proponents connect scientific method and public reform?

Zoning, subdivision, traffic engineering and master plans

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 3: City of By-Pass

Fairfield, John. 1994. The Scientific Management of Urban Space, Professional City Planning and the Legacy of Urban Reform, *Journal of Urban History* 20:179.

Lang, Michael H. 2001. Town planning and radicalism in the progressive era: the legacy of F. L. Ackerman *Planning Perspectives*, **16** (2001) 143–167.

Kimball, Theodora. 1920. *Municipal Accomplishment in City Planning*. Boston: National Conference on City Planning.

5. Efficient Municipal Planning and Urban Regional Planning

Under the tutelage of Herbert Hoover at the Department of Commerce in the 1920s Zoning and Subdivision regulations found their way onto the national agenda. The urban housing booms that accompanied the economic expansion ending in the Great Depression generated a host of wasteful and inefficient effects on local land use. Municipal officials, especially in mid sized cities and growing suburbs, had adopted city management reforms and realized that taming rampant real estate speculation was necessary to secure local economic well being and foster an orderly and attractive physical landscape. The successful community needed to regulate future development to avoid the wrong kind of development and ensure well located and efficiently served growth.

The regionalists were planners who envisioned a planning movement that would do more than just pave the way for capitalist urban development. They argued for strong environmental and social goals at the center of plan making that would offset and balance the forces of industrialization without necessarily requiring the unsettling revolutionary changes proposed by the leftists. But there were also those who envisioned plan making for more conservative purposes; reconciling social tensions within new forms for social order and satisfaction.

The concept of planning was expanded to include moral and ideological beliefs tied to larger social movement ideals. The emerging profession of consultants stayed close to the challenges of planning for future growth; while the architects and planners of tomorrow cast ambitious plans for the transformation of both the physical and social landscape.

What is the role of government in the organization of the planning ideal?

How does legitimacy of authority connect with clarity of plan?

Regional scale infrastructure planning emerges as a tool for shaping the future of the physical and social landscape of entire metropolitan region. What are the challenges of planning for a place like the entire New York region?

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 5: City in the Region

Hall, Chapter 7: City of Towers

Heathcott, Joseph. 2005. "The Whole City Is Our Laboratory": Harland Bartholomew and the Production of Urban Knowledge *Journal of Planning History*, 4(4):322-355

6. Urban problems as National Problems: The New Deal (History Report Due)

The Great Depression put city building to a stop and efficient planning movement went into a holding pattern. Attention shifted to Washington because the federal government was the only source of available public revenue not going to basic maintenance. The economic misery and social suffering that accompanied the depression was huge. People not only lost a gainful way of life they lost hope in the future. The New Deal represented a powerful force for change. It offered hope as well as a slew of big policies and programs designed to remedy the shortcomings of modern industrial capitalism.

Some of the city and regional planners found their way into the administration adapting the planning ideas developed for cities into much more ambitious programs for job creation, public works development and natural resource conservation. The planning ideas were included as part of institutional designs that enhanced the scope and power of the federal government. Planning had long been proposed as an important part of state socialist regimes and its emergence in the politically charged atmosphere of Washington made its enemies cry out that communism was taking hold or worse.

Planning at the national level became a kind of institutional lever that could mollify or balance the influences of markets – a mediating intelligence that could anticipate and help steer the economy between overproduction and inflation. But the ideal was rarely followed and most innovations consisted of new regulatory programs and agencies dedicated to modifying the worst behavior of capitalist institutions using rules to curb speculative abuses and setting limits to prevent excessive risk taking at public expense.

Current political debates continue to echo the political arguments that emerged over the programs that the New Deal proposed and enacted. The conservatives of today still cling to the myths of market beneficence insisting that the New Deal programs hampered the resilient recovery by the entrepreneurs who would have led recovery much sooner. The liberals still imagine that government program innovations will provide regulatory remedies to offset the costs and externalities of modern capitalist enterprise. The liberals set the political groundwork for the support of local and regional planning after WWII.

The challenge that the planning intelligentsia faced was how to imagine a planning comprehensive enough to embrace the complexity of national systems. The social sciences, especially economics, offered an attractive set of methods. The planning of the designers was trumped by planning tied to rational methods and institutional methods organized to evaluate alternative social and institutional policies.

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 9: City on the Highway

Branch, Melville. 1950. Coordinative Planning and the Architect *Land Economics* 26(1):78-81.

7. Suburban Boom and Urban Renewal:

After the war it was not evident that domestic recovery would be as robust as events unfolded. The American Dream became the central planning doctrine with federal subsidies helping ease the innovative mass production of suburbs for a much wider spectrum of the population. Ironically, the suburban growth fueled the exile of families from central cities that enjoyed the spacious single family dwellings and suburban life style to raise large families. The current baby boomers were hatched in these suburbs as their parents took advantage of FHA loans, VA loans, the GI Bill and all the various subsidies to road and other infrastructure development.

Most importantly for professional planning, the federal government required that plans be done to justify and order the commitment of federal funds for infrastructure projects, public housing and urban renewal investments. The availability of generous federal funding fueled the explosion of the planning profession. At the same time, the expansion of the public university system expanded the reach of higher education encouraging support for forms of specialized public serving professional knowledge; including the planning discipline.

Trust in professional expertise grew as well as respect for rational approaches to everyday problems. Confidence in planning grew as practitioners and the new academics sought to develop a theory of planning that captured its transformative powers.

What is the relationship between expertise and government authority?

How do we justify the imposition of planning standards in a democratic society?

What forms of organized activity should we use to pursue planning objectives?

The relationship between the powers of technological change and social effects
Progress and its unexpected consequences

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 11: City of Enterprise

Hall, Chapter 12: City of Tarnished Belle Epoque

Hoch, Charles. 1994. Chapter 1: Planning and Professional Authority; Chapter 2: The Quest for Institutional Authority

Adams, Frank. 1956. Changing concepts of planning. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology* 15(3): 245-252.

Kaplan, Marshall. 1964. The planner, general planning and the city, *Land Economics* 40(3):295-302.

Fagin, Henry. 1965. Planning for future urban growth, *Law and Contemporary Urban Problems, Urban Problems and Prospects* 30(1):9-25.

III. THEORY

8. Rational Comprehensive Planning

The idea of comprehensive planning emerged with Daniel Burnham as he extended the garden city ideas up the scale to embrace a complex industrial city. He developed ideas for the spatial organization of the region that followed the organization of the transportation system and included institutional ideas for raising funds and rolling out development in phases. The rationality that engineers like Harland Bartholomew deployed built on this conception of the large scale outlook making it more abstract and substituting the logic of method for the geometry of an urban industrial landscape. Models of traffic flows and land use change could be used to forecast and anticipate waves of urban development in the decades ahead. The theories of urban growth need only be made computationally legible using the newly invented electronic computer.

Planning expertise imposes forms of social control. How do we justify control?

The complexity of cities escapes our expertise. How do we cope with the limits?

How do we pursue predictability without imposing undemocratic control?

There are multiple forms of rationality. Which do we choose? How do we choose?

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 10: City of Theory

Hoch, Charles. 1994. Chapter 3: The Rational Protocol and Political Conflict, Chapter 5 Making Plans, *What Planners Do* Chicago: Planners Press.

Dehaene, Michiel. 1992. Survey and the assimilation of a modernist narrative in urbanism *Journal of Architecture* (UK) 7(1):33-55.

Abbott, John. 2005. Understanding and Managing the Unknown: The Nature of Uncertainty in *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 24:237-251

Lowenstein, Louis K. & Dorn C. McGrath. 1973. The planning imperative in America's future, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 405:15-24.

Baer, William. 1977. Urban planners doctors or midwives, *Public Administration Review* 37(6):671-678.

9. Planning Politics: Advocacy and More

No sooner had professional planning obtained a foothold in the occupational world of public agencies than it became a target for criticism. The planning professionals had always received criticism from the right, but now left liberals found fault with the deployment of public works programs that thrust freeways through poor neighborhoods, urban renewal schemes that shunted the poor aside making way for commercial high rise or public housing projects that segregated and isolated poor minorities. All of these interventions followed plans made by the new professionals. On the periphery suburban plans, zoning and subdivision ordinances generated spatially segmented and segregated places as professional advice helped local municipalities become exclusive enclaves. The weak, vulnerable and disenfranchised were the victims of a planning that failed to serve the public interest in a fair and just manner.

Advocacy planning emerged in the early 60s inspired by the political action of civil rights activists who combined nonviolent protest with legal actions to gather public attention and dramatize racial injustice. Paul Davidoff gathered a small group of professionals to challenge the profession to shift its focus from rational planning to a planning organized to improve and support the interests and involvement of poor minorities. The more socialist minded went farther urging a conception of planning that challenged the social base of planning rationality; that it served to reproduce capitalism rather than meet the needs of people and their environment.

Planning has historical and social roots. Should knowledge flow from custom?

Do powerful and feasible plans make good plans?

When planners take sides do they betray the pursuit of larger public goods?

Does the claim for social justice trump other claims about the environment or efficiency?

Readings:

Hall, Chapter 13: City of Permanent Underclass

Hoch. 1994. Chapter 8 Organizing; Chapter 9 Racism, *What Planners Do*

Clavel, Pierre. 1994. The Evolution of Advocacy Planning, *Journal of the American Planning Association* 60(2):146-150.

Marris, Peter. 1994. Advocacy Planning as a Bridge Between the Professional and the Political, *Journal of the American Planning Association* 60(2):

Forester, John. 1994. Bridging Interests and Community: Advocacy Planning and the Challenges of Deliberate Democracy, *Journal of the American Planning Association* 60(2):
Peattie, Lisa. 1994. Communities and the Interests in Advocacy Planning, *Journal of the American Planning Association* 60(2):
Krueckeberg, Donald. 1997. Planning history's mistakes *Planning Perspectives*, 12 (1997) 269–279

10. Environmentalism and the Interpretive Turn (Planner Interview Report Due)

The profession expanded in the 1950s and 60s because government institutions legitimized and supported the practice. In part this was because planning helped pave the way for suburban growth and urban renewal, but also the programs that were introduced by the War on Poverty as cities took responsibility for the challenges of social injustice and political exclusion. The success of the civil rights movement inspired the revival of feminist social movements as well as environmental movements. All of these social efforts envisioned alternatives to a status quo that had systematically excluded minorities and women from shaping the form and direction of social institutions; and that had treated the environment as a bundle of unlimited resources ready for human exploitation and consumption.

Successful social movement activity began to change the political terrain as politicians and government institutions gradually embraced some of the ideas that protestors and reformers proposed. Environmental legislation first enacted in California was adapted for national coverage and passed in 1970 creating the Environmental Protection Agency. The environmental activity that ensued generated plenty of controversy and resistance; legal battles proliferated as developers and land owners bridled under regulations that sought to treat a 'fungible resource' as a 'complex ecosystem'. The enemies for planning grew more numerous when planners sought to envision environmental plans that increased the costs of private development by insisting that the limits of natural systems become part of the development calculus.

The legal battles that ensued proved costly and often fruitless. Innovative planning analysts like Larry Susskind, Judith Innes and John Forester paid attention to these disputes and offered new ways to conceive of planning as a kind of communication that people could use in contested meetings to resolve disputes and find agreement. The focus for planning theory shifted from figuring out how to make plans so rational that they would compel consent, to developing a planning process that enabled participants to learn together how to compose a plan they could agree to adopt and use.

How do truth and rhetoric shape our taken for granted knowledge about plans?
How can we make strong truth claims when uncertainty remains?
How does pragmatic planning differ from rational planning?

Readings:

Hoch, Charles. 1994. Chapter 6 Negotiation, *What Planners Do*

Forester, John.

Innes, Judith and David Booher. 2004. Reframing Public Participation: Strategies for the 21st Century, *Planning Theory & Practice* 5(4):419-436.

Van Driesche, Jason and Marcus Lane. 2002. Conservation through Conversation:

Collaborative Planning for Reuse of a Former Military Property in Sauk County, Wisconsin, USA *Planning Theory & Practice*, 3(2): 133-153.

11. Advice and Institutional Design (Coping with complexity)

Modern citizens and organizations plan for the future. The kinds of public planning that have evolved in response to the variety of social movements that have swept across the US and the globe represent only a small subset of all the more mundane and instrumental plans that shape the contours of our institutional landscape. The predictability of our utility systems, computational networks, physical infrastructure systems, and so much more relies upon plans and planning systems that have become institutional. Rational plans lost their grip on the imagination of theorists decades ago, but they did not lose their grip on the minds of those who prepare deep sea oil rigs, military campaigns, freight delivery logistics and all those systems that engineer predictability into our daily lives and so make our freedom useful as we put these systems to use finding information, traveling, purchasing, consuming and so on.

The social critics and the environmentalists awakened us to the often hidden social costs and externalities that these systems impose. Sometimes these costs explode into public awareness like the nuclear plant disaster following the tsunami in northern Japan; or the BP oil spill in the Gulf. Usually the costs occur in more incremental fashion producing cumulative effects whose burdens fall unevenly and that cannot be remedied. As planners face these kinds of challenges that flow from the success of rational planning; they need to adopt a kind of planning thought that does not fall back into the same rut and yet offers ideas strong enough to persuade people to modify and perhaps even stop using institutions and organizations that deliver goods and services whose long term effects are socially and environmentally destructive.

This requires that we conceive plans and plan making in ways that address how institutions work and change. We need to develop innovations that while they adopt familiar aspects of current institutional and organizational practice, introduce new forms of activity that will not only diminish social and environmental destruction; but foster innovative ways to enhance social improvement and environmental quality. One important dimension for such change is the power of social learning through participation – forms of social and political democracy that bring a wider range of human cognitive and social intelligence to bear on these problems.

What role do organizations play structuring planning knowledge and activity?

What devices, organizations, etc... do we use to put purposes into practice?
What do we mean by democracy and how might this shape our knowledge of planning?
How do we distinguish fair and efficient plans? How would we judge their power?

Hoch, Charles. 1994. Chapter 4 Research and Chapter 10 Evaluation, *What Planners Do*
Sanyal, Bish. 2005. Planning as Anticipation of Resistance, *Planning Theory* 4(3): 225–245.

12. Practical Judgment and Pragmatism

How does a professional planner decide what theory to adopt? Does it even make sense to talk about theory like this? Richard Klosterman wrote a wonderful essay summarizing in a single article many of the themes discussed earlier in the course. These arguments, debates and conversations happen among analysts, but often do not filter down to the practitioners who inhabit an occupational niche and must work within the context of their personal history and the conditions that surround and shape their professional trajectory. The immediate burdens and challenges of their practical situation inspires most of their thought and what they hope to change as they plan remains tied to their experience and the domains of practice each can access from that limited position.

Pragmatism was invented as a philosophical response to thinkers who insisted that you need first establish an intellectual foundation before you can know the world. The pragmatists were inspired to make this break because they took their intellectual lead from the ideas of Charles Darwin and the practice of scientists. Darwin's theory of evolution made manifest the inherently practical roots of all human knowledge. We did not spring from the head of Minerva or leave the Garden of Eden, but emerged as creatures of billions of years of evolution – a species that has come to consciousness through adaptive social learning built on an un-designed biological architecture. The special quality of ideas for the pragmatists consists not in their ability to evoke the origins of enlightenment (a leftover from animistic projection), but their usefulness for helping us cope with problems – including the problems of complexity and uncertainty that plans help us address. Most important, they do not believe that these ideas tell us only about what means to use to engineer ever more powerful tools to feed our desires; but they explore the relationships between goals and means in ongoing inquiry directly tied to the world.

Healey tells the overview of the pragmatic arguments developed among planning theorists who were trying to figure out how to provide a way to think about planning that would get past the dead end dilemmas that cycle through the debates that Klosterman describes so well.

How might theory, that ivory tower talk, help us improve planning judgments?
How do we use theory to give better advice?

Klosterman, Richard. 1985. Arguments for and against Planning, *Town Planning Review* 56(1): 5-20.

Healy, Patsy. 2008. The Pragmatic Tradition in Planning Thought. *JPER* 28:277-292.

Hoch, Charles. 1994. Chapter 12 Professional Authority, *What Planners Do*

Hoch, Charles. 2002. Evaluating Plans Pragmatically. *Planning Theory* 1(1):53-75.

Judith E. Innes and Judith Gruber. 2005. Planning Styles in Conflict: The Metropolitan Transportation Commission, *Journal of the American Planning Association* 71(2):177-188.

Watson, Vanessa. 2002. Do We Learn from Planning Practice? The Contribution of the Practice Movement to Planning Theory, *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 22:178-187.

13. The Dark Side of Planning: Deep Skepticism and Cynicism

Perhaps the greatest challenge to planning theory as an enterprise has nothing to do with debates about rationality, power and expertise; but the shift away from taking steps to conduct planning at all. One set of criticisms flow from provincial religious and tribal beliefs that seek to retain and expand the authority of religious doctrines tied to familiar institutions and customs using many of the technologies and systems developed through the use of rational plans. These conservative movements reject secular conceptions of morality and often the kind of social democracy that would have the voice of people provide a guide for sovereignty or consensus. These find their way into every community and offer a powerful source of cognitive and emotional support for people ignorant or fearful of secular planning and conceptions of responsibility that rely solely on human commitment and ingenuity without divine support.

Another set of criticism flows from the cosmopolitan theorists disenchanted with the imposition of a rational secular culture that would impose the authority of world views conceived through abstractions that disregard the specificity of human sentiment. These theoretical ideas subject the rich diversity of human creativity and intelligence to disciplinary constraints and techniques that impose order at the expense of the freedom they were allegedly designed to protect.

I think the conservative embrace of religious doctrine offers little practical help responding to the challenges of modernity; but offers an emotionally satisfying drama that fuels hope in the face of difficult and overwhelming challenges. Salvation and an afterlife without suffering provide powerful incentives for keeping the faith while ignoring the inconvenient and often painful consequences of current real world suffering.

The postmodern critics raise many of the same complaints that the pragmatists raised a century ago. But whereas the pragmatists like Dewey set out to devise ways to enhance democratic intelligence in the service of public improvement; the postmodern arguments tend to deconstruct rational meta-narratives, but mainly to issue warnings. The practical business of

figuring out how to respect differences while trying to run a planning meeting does not seem all that relevant. My take following Rorty is that the postmodern folks really offer a kind of cultural critique that will help individuals encased in modernity break out and find room in private to express their differences.

What might a pragmatist tell a postmodern Lacanian as each describes the homeless problem and what might be done?

Allmendinger, Phil. 2005. Applying Lacanian Insight and a Dash of Derridian Deconstruction to Planning's Dark Side, *Planning Theory* 4(1): 87–112.

Mc-Guirk, P. M. 2001. Situating communicative planning theory: context, power, and knowledge, *Environment and Planning A* 33: 195- 217.

Stanley M. Stein & Thomas L. Harper. 2003. Power, Trust, and Planning, *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 23:125-139.

Watson, Vanessa. 2003. Conflicting Rationalities: Implications for Planning Theory and Ethics, *Planning Theory & Practice* 4(4): 395-407.

14. Imagining the Future: Scenarios and Hope

How do we justify plans when folks may not focus on rational argument?

How do we create ideas that will motivate advice and foster commitments to specific actions?

What role do emotions play shaping what people describe in rational terms as values?

Bloom, Michael J. & Mary K. Menefee. 1994. Scenario Planning and Contingency Planning, *Changing Government: Pressures, Reality, Responses: Proceedings of the Sixth National Public Sector Productivity Conference* 17(3): 223-230.

Morrison, James and Ian Wilson. 1996. The Strategic Management Response to the Challenge of Global Change in H. Didsbury (Ed.), *Future Vision, Ideas, Insights, and Strategies*. Bethesda, MD: The World Future Society.

Carr Adrian, Rita Durant and Alexis Downs. 2004. Emergent strategy development, abduction, and pragmatism: New lessons for corporations, *Human Systems Management* 23: 79–91

Shearer, Allen W. 2005. Approaching scenario-based studies: three perceptions about the future and considerations for landscape planning, *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design* 32: 67-87.

UPP500 Course Schedule Fall 2011

8/22 Why Teach Planning Theory?
8/29 History to Theory
9/05 Labor Day No Class
9/12 Beauty and Civic Improvement
9/19 Progress and Science
9/26 Efficiency and Order
10/03 Urban Problems and New Deal (History Report Due 10/05)
10/10 Postwar Boom and Planning Explosion
10/17 The Rational Model & Revisions
10/24 Making Planning Political
10/31 Interpretive Planning (Interview Report Due 11/04)
11/07 Advice and Institutional Design
11/14 Practical Pragmatic Judgment
11/21 Postmodern Planning
11/28 Imagining the Future: Scenarios and Hope (Theory Report Due 12/02)
12/ 2 Presentations of Final Papers

Assignment 1: History Paper

Purpose: Learn how two different planners did planning and why. I place emphasis on learning from a comparison of the relationship between planning ideas or ideals and actual planning effort. Demonstrate that you can learn from history so as to avoid repeating mistakes.

Description: Select two planners and some specific planning activities or projects which they helped conduct. Compare the planning they did and the rationales offered to justify what they did. Do not spend too much time on recreating a narrative account, but focus your effort on framing and conducting the comparison. Use the historical texts and documents as resources for informing your comparison.

Product: A written essay of no more than 10 double spaced printed pages [minimum one inch margins and at least 12 point type]. Post the essay to the courseinfo discussion page as an attachment.

Due Date: The essay is due 11pm October 5, 2010.

Assignment #2 Interviews with Professional Planners

Purpose: Learn about the importance and meaning of planning ideas between two practitioners.

Product: A written essay of no more than 10 double spaced printed pages [minimum one inch margins and at least 12 point type]. Post the essay to the courseinfo discussion page.

Content: I want you to ask each planner to describe what they do and then ask them why they do it? You should ask them to describe actual cases or stories before you ask the why question.

Strategy? First, ask your interviewees about their professional history. Second, ask to hear a story or episode in which they did planning. Probe for enough details so you can see for yourself how events unfolded. Third, referring to some of the actions the interviewee describes ask what sort of planning ideas informed or justified a particular action.

If you ask the why question without a specific tale you get rather abstract ideological ideas. If you ask them why they took specific actions (e.g., We skipped the public hearing... I worked up a quick and dirty financial assessment... We were sure to meet with the alderman before...) you will learn a great deal more about the meaning of the reasons they give for taking that action. Sometimes when you ask why the planners will offer moral rationale=s, thinking you want to know their ethical views. That=s ok, but ask them what their planning rationale was. It may be that the person you interview will offer no planning rationale for what they do. Then ask them why we call what they do planning?

Interviewing two planners provides you with an opportunity to draw comparisons between them. Your paper should focus on the relationship between planning activity and the rationales the planners offered. I do not want to read planning biographies.

Process and Deadline: I expect you to identify and contact planners for an interview by the third week of the semester.

Assignment #3: Thinking and Writing Theory

Purpose: Learn to read, describe, compare and evaluate the ideas of two planning theorists; or theorists who write about planning.

Product: A written essay of no more than 20 double spaced printed pages [minimum one inch margins and at least 12 point type]. Post the essay to the courseinfo discussion page.

Content: I am not interested in a detailed or comprehensive review of the work you read. I want you to select and compare ideas between two thinkers. They may focus on the same topic, for instance consensus, but treat the topic differently (majority rule vs. acclamation). They might use the same idea, but in very different ways, for instance, the concept rationality (logical vs. practical). Your essay should make the comparison using benchmarks or criteria relevant to the purpose and context the respective authors set. You may use criteria other than those explicitly or implicitly anticipated by the authors. Finally, I want you to answer the following question after you draw your comparison: *Do these theories justify or otherwise contribute to practical planning activity? How well do they do so?*@

Process and Deadline: I expect you to propose two books to me no later than the second week of the semester. Simply email your choices to me with a brief rationale for your choice. Why did you pick those two?