

# “EUROPEANISATION” OF PLANNING EDUCATION?

AN EXPLORATION OF THE CONCEPT,  
POTENTIAL MERIT AND ISSUES

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**RESUMO** *Há diferentes perfis da profissão de planeamento nos países europeus. Resulta daí, que comparativamente os modelos de ensino de planeamento diferem consideravelmente. E os currícula tendem a refletir e atender a necessidades nacionais. Programas e/ou certificações profissionais estão também intimamente ligados a critérios e padrões determinados nacionalmente. Entretanto, os formatos de ensino e particularmente os currícula evoluíram e, nas duas últimas décadas, muitas mudanças foram introduzidas no ensino de planeamento europeu. Além da reestruturação para adequar os programas com os ciclos de ensino superior de Bolonha, houve melhorias em relação a oportunidades de mobilidade integrada e a oferta conjunta de diplomas de mestrado por instituições, em colaboração, de diferentes países europeus. De forma crescente os educadores incorporam unidades de ensino sobre planeamento espacial europeu, políticas de coesão e instrumentos fiscais que impactam as políticas e práticas de planeamento local, regional e nacional. Este artigo trata de uma investigação inicial sobre se estas melhorias contribuíram para uma “europeização” do ensino de planeamento e dos valores e questões associados a estas mudanças.*

**PALAVRAS - CHAVE:** *ensino de planeamento; “europeização”; currículo; modelos.*

## INTRODUCTION

Planning education programmes as opposed to individual courses or modules on planning topics were first introduced at European universities at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, in particular in the UK (e.g., Batey, 1985), but also elsewhere (Frank and Mironowicz, 2009). These early degrees were post-professional awards aimed at providing engineers, architects and surveyors with additional knowledge and skills in the (new) art of planning town extensions for rapidly expanding urban areas.

From those seeds, planning gradually developed into a recognised professional field or at least specialisation as the legal and administrative practices that govern urban growth and development as well as infrastructure creation grew into sophisticated planning systems. In different countries developments followed different paths leading to planning systems and cultures that are distinct in cross-national comparison (Newman and Thornley, 1996; Alterman, 1992; Nadin and Stead, 2008). Planning education for the most part mirrors the ideologies underpinning national planning practices and consequently curricula and indeed planning education differs likewise.

In a review of the planning education provision in 12 countries, Rodriguez-Bachiller (1988) identified three basic models. The first model perceives planning

and the planning profession as a mere specialisation of an overarching (technical) field such as architecture, engineering or surveying. Education in planning therefore becomes an aspect of study programmes in these cognate or “parent” disciplines with a certain proportion of the curriculum dedicated to planning. A second model sees planning as an extension of another field including the social or management sciences. This approach leads to an education model at post-graduate or master level whereby students from different disciplines such as architecture, law, sociology, politics, geography, etc. are gaining a further, interdisciplinary education in planning (see, e.g., Schuster, 1950). A third model conceives planning as a distinct and separate discipline and field of study which warrants specially devised planning-focused curricula at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. A recent study of present day planning education provision in Europe (Frank and Mironowicz, forthcoming) shows that considerable variations in planning education formats persist, but also that the reforms associated with the Bologna agreement (1999) have introduced more similar higher education programme structures and progression. Overall, the provision seems to be diversifying and the three educational models increasingly exist in parallel in a single national context.

Compared to other fields, such as engineering, coordination beyond national boundaries in respect to curriculum content is practically non-existent; for the moment there are no internationally agreed standards or learning outcomes (Harrison, 2003; Frank et al., 2012). Research by the European Council of European Town Planners (ECTP-CEU, 2013a; 2013b) comparing the content of selected planning curricula in different European countries along eight different subjects (planning theory, planning techniques, social/economic environment, built environment, natural environment, planning products, planning instruments and thesis) revealed considerable variations in topic coverage and focus. For example, the proportion of investigated curricula dedicated to covering environmental factors in planning ranged from 3% to 17% and the proportion for planning techniques from 2% to 39%. This may be due to specialisation issues within the particular programmes or related to the particular profile of the profession in different countries.

At the same time, though, researchers have started to detect some convergence of planning approaches in Europe. Greater interaction between countries, European integration and funding programmes have changed planning practices especially in Mediterranean countries subtly away from mere urbanism to more strategic planning (e.g., Giannakoru, 2005; 2012). If nothing else an additional spatial layer which addresses transnational planning issues has become highly relevant in planning practice on a daily basis particularly in border regions. European-wide regulations such as the Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC (Hedelin, 2005) or the Public Procurement Directive 2004/18/EC (Martin, et al., 1999) have implications for local plan making and planning decisions and planners need to have a good grasp of these issues. This scale and layer of European planning needs to be included urgently in planning education curricula to provide graduates with skills necessary for future practice (Cotella and Mangels, 2012).

In light of the emergence of transnational planning and converging practices, an increasingly important European labour market and common European Higher Education Area and programme structures, this paper outlines the author’s initial reflections and thoughts on the possible contradiction involved in planning education

curricula which cater to nation-specific needs but increasingly serve European and indeed international planning practices and labour markets. Past discussions of internationalisation in and of planning education are briefly rehearsed, followed by an exploration of the meaning of “Europeanisation.” Against this context, trends over the past two decades in Europe for education in planning as observed by the author and fellow colleagues from the Association of European Schools of Planning (AESOP) are examined. A discussion on the merits and potential drawbacks of a Europeanised planning education is followed by preliminary suggestions for the future development of planning education curricula and foci in Europe.

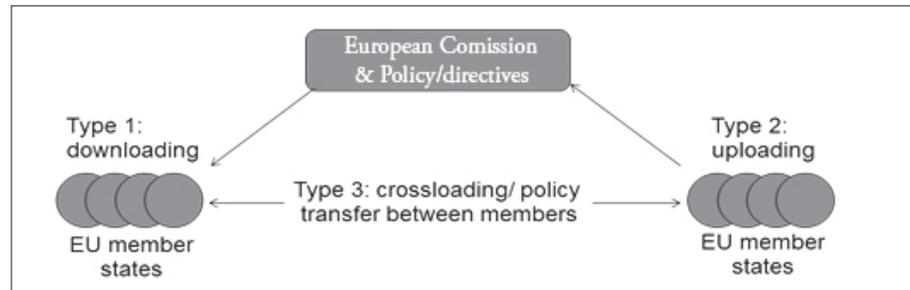
## **INTERNATIONALISATION VERSUS “EUROPEANISATION”**

Peel and Frank (2008) extensively explored the meaning of internationalisation in the context of planning education, observing that although internationalisation is heralded as important in higher education there is no universally accepted conceptualisation or definition. Instead, internationalisation is used to mean anything from a process (e.g., the internationalisation of the curriculum through content and field trips for example), to a place (the international classroom consisting of students from different nationalities) or a commodity (tuition fee income from foreign students). At an abstract level internationalisation can be conceived as a complex set of challenges deriving from globalisation and emerging demands of the knowledge society to which universities have to respond and adapt to (Peel and Frank, 2008). Opinions on the merit or drawback of locally focused planning education versus a curriculum based on general principles are divided and arguments have been presented in favour of both (e.g., Afshar, 2001; Burayidi, 1993; Zinn et al., 1993). Internationalisation may be interpreted broadly or more narrowly but it is important to remember Watson’s (2008, 119) warning that the educational internationalisation agenda and similarly an internationalised planning curriculum is perceived differently from the periphery and global south. While this debate will have some bearing in assessing the merits of “Europeanisation” as posited as the goal of this paper, it is important not to conflate internationalisation with globalisation or “Europeanisation.”

Indeed, Europeanisation, is not a geographically limited internationalisation, but is an expression coined originally in the political science discourse on European integration policies. Notwithstanding the different legacy and origin, the definition of “Europeanisation is similarly contested (e.g., Howell, 2004; Radaelli, 2004). Interpretations range from “Europeanisation as the emergence and development at the European level of distinct structures of governance” (Risse et al. 2001, 3) to relating it to processes of “diffusion and institutionalisation of rules, procedures, policy paradigms, styles, ‘ways of doing things’, shared beliefs and norms” as outlined first in EU policy and then incorporated in national-level debates, political structures and policies (Gualini 2003, p. 6). The processes underlying the diffusion and institutionalisation of shared European ideas are complex and can be initiated top down whereby member states (have to) adopt EU legislation and policy at the domestic level, or bottom-up as individual states steer and influence the formulation of EU policy typically based on domestic practices. These processes are also known

as up-loading or down-loading, respectively. In addition, member states and entities within member states such as cities or regions also learn directly from each other facilitated by for example INTERREG projects which bring together many partners from different European countries. The mutual adaptation and horizontal policy transfer without formal legislation or policy formulation at the European level is called cross-loading. All in all this leads, theoretically, to European integration and increasingly to a joint or common European identity, i.e. Europeanisation due to increasingly similar and harmonised policy approaches (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Europeanisation through Type 1-3 policy exchanges



Adapted from Howell, 2004.

Applying the concept of “Europeanisation” to planning education, then, infers the existence of processes or drivers through which higher education institutions in EU Member States amend (or would be encouraged to amend) planning education degrees and curricula such that in the longer term a recognisable European character or identity is forged – via similar structures and/or shared beliefs and so forth. Ultimately this would lead to a graduate with a European profile in respect to knowledge, skills and values in planning. If “Europeanisation” is seen as a result, then Radaelli (2004) argued, it is irrelevant if change is initiated by or linked to EU instruments or measures or in fact triggered through non-EU policies. Moreover, EU integration initiatives such as ERASMUS (Sigalas, 2010) and the Life Long Learning Programme (LLL) fostering student and staff mobility as well as inter-institutional cooperation and the Bologna agreement (1999)<sup>1</sup> enforcing a harmonisation of programme structures (3 cycles) – not an EU initiated measure – may be mutually enforcing in developing a European identity and common style of higher education. The active exchange between European planning schools through the academic networks of planning schools such as AESOP or APERAU may also contribute to the development of shared ideas and common practices.

“Europeanisation” may be easier to recognise in terms of format as compared to content. The former - format - relates to the emerging distinct structures of 3 cycles of education as well as an increasing level of inter-institutional learning experiences through dual degrees, e.g., Erasmus-Mundus masters, Intensive Programmes or individual mobility and study abroad. The latter - “Europeanisation” of content - refers to either a (partially) common core curriculum and/or a focus on European planning issues. Both aspects are explored further below.

<sup>1</sup> There are now 47 Bologna signatory countries, more than EU member states; but all EU member states are Bologna Signatory countries.

## **EVALUATING TRENDS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN EUROPEAN PLANNING EDUCATION**

Over the past two decades, the higher education sector in Europe experienced the continued transition from elite to mass higher education (e.g., Trow, 2000; 2005), the development of a common European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Bologna Declaration, 1999; Weltgruber and Csekel, 2009/10) and the wide-spread introduction of quality assurance processes (Schwarz and Westerheijden, 2004). Inevitably, planning education programmes have been affected by these. Moreover, planning education curricula have been altered to provide education in transnational planning and EU policies relevant to planning. In order to evaluate whether developments have started to shaped a recognisable and distinctly European character in planning education - manifest through similar structures, pedagogies, styles or shared believes and norms, both programme formats and content will be discussed in turn.

Considering format first, Ache and Jarenko (2010) as well as Frank and Kurth (2010) document a growing level of implementation by planning education providers of the multi-cycle system stipulated by the Bologna declaration (1999) across Europe and in Germany, respectively. While, in some countries such as Spain or Portugal, implementation has been slower than anticipated due to delays in the ratification of national framework legislation, these are minor issues, which should not distract from the overall success of the Bologna reforms (Frank and Mironowicz, forthcoming; Weltgruber and Csekel, 2009/10). In sum, the post-Bologna education cycles of Bachelor, Master and Doctorate have helped to create more transparent and comparable programme structures, and especially a procedure of credit recognition and transfer for students studying for some time at a different institution. In planning, the conversion has resulted however only in a partial structural convergence and not necessarily in a harmonisation of education models. Indeed, Bologna guidelines have been interpreted by providers to fit the educational models and professional ideologies that were previously in place.

For example, the conversion of the technical-traditional model (Rodriguez-Bachiller, 1988) whereby planning is taught as a specialisation within the programme of a parent discipline has typically resulted in a drop of planning content at undergraduate level and the continuation of the specialisation in planning at the Master level. In the best case scenario dedicated planning master degrees were established which made explicit the former specialisation (Frank and Kurth, 2010). Model two, whereby planning is seen as extension of other disciplines and qualifications are obtained at the master level, have be translated one-to-one in most cases. However, some existing postgraduate programmes fall short of the minimum guidelines of 90 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) weighting required for Bologna compliant masters. Overcoming this can be difficult, especially when national regulations contradict Bologna requirements. Occasionally, institutions have resorted to differentiate awards by labelling them as certificates and diplomas which are shorter than masters. The greater focus on theory, research and higher level skills fits well with the academic orientation of this model. The third, comprehensive-integrated model, provided

through either undergraduate and postgraduate or formerly long continuous 5-year degrees in continental Europe have been translated into so-called consecutive, or specialist masters which follow a general basic undergraduate education in planning. It is important to note that European Bologna degrees are not all of a standardised length. Depending on the country and institution, a Bachelor can be anything from 3 to 5 years in length and a Master between 1 and 2. For the most part, both Bachelor and Master add up to 5 years (with some minor exceptions in certain countries and fields) composed of 4+1, 3+2 or 3.5+1.5 years. So while there is a degree of structural harmonisation, the pathways leading to planning qualifications remain even post-Bologna rather different throughout Europe. Nevertheless, the more consistent labelling, and agreed standards in terms of skills level (not content) create a certain European identity and similarity of character in the degrees. Less relevant for professional planning, the 3<sup>rd</sup> cycle doctoral education, is developing however a quite distinct character with the stipulation of more structure support, research methods training and an international broadening horizon dimension that is increasingly being embraced by institutions as good practice (Bergen Communiqué, 2005).

Surprisingly, a number of shared characteristics can be identified at the level of the curriculum particularly in respect to planning pedagogy. For example, project, studio and workshop pedagogy, which Scholl, et al. (2012) have suggested as essential in fostering the skills and integrative knowledge development required for planning professionals is becoming increasingly prevalent in European planning programmes. Another aspect is a growing “European” study experience. This may be due to a students’ participation in an exchange programme or IP programme, or indirectly by students’ exposure to visiting European students (Williams, 1989). These experiences are growing – particularly at Bachelor level. Under the ERASMUS scheme 2.2 million students and 250.000 academic staff from 33 countries (EU plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Turkey and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) received funding for study abroad, intensive programmes, work placements and teaching exchanges between 1987-2010 (ECEA, 2011).<sup>2</sup> Statistics are insufficiently detailed to deduce the number of planning students and academics, but anecdotal evidence suggests that planning schools are active participants at all levels (individual mobility, institutional networks, and intensive programmes) (Williams, 1989). Especially collaborative inter-institutional projects (also known as “intensive programmes” or IP) are popular with planning academics. Records from 2009/10 indicate that around 4% of all IP projects (15/385) involved planning departments<sup>3</sup>. The IPs have had a direct impact on curriculum design and pedagogy as the guidelines stipulate a minimum of three partners which meant educators had to develop learning outcomes and projects to incorporate cross-national topics, multi-national group work and field research activities in novel ways to meet criteria. Other uniquely European study experiences include inter-institutional master and doctoral programmes, such as the ERASMUS Mundus scheme (EACEA, n.d.). To date, planning education providers have been successful in gaining funding for the setup of 5 (of 104) Erasmus Mundus degree programmes, which provide planning education in new, interdisciplinary niche areas and which are delivered jointly by at least three institutions in different European countries (Figure 2).

There are however also discordant curriculum aspects as outlined in the introduction and illustrated by the ECTP-CEU study (2013a, 2013b). Additionally, curriculum foci can vary dramatically. Depending on the planning education

<sup>2</sup> <http://www.goethe.de/wis/fut/uhs/en7280600.htm>

<sup>3</sup> A list of 2009/10 IP projects can be found at [http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/ip1011/comp\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/ip1011/comp_en.pdf)

model employed, urban design may be the only planning aspect that is covered in the curriculum when planning is taught as a specialisation within an architecture programme for example; alternatively, in an integrated-comprehensive undergraduate programme, urban design may be covered only fleetingly if at all.

Figure 2: Erasmus Mundus for Education in Urban and Regional Planning

Name	Length/ Language	Partners	Description/Focus
<i>MUNDUS URBANO</i> Interdisciplinary Master Course on International Cooperation and Urban Development	<b>Length:</b> 2 Years <b>Language:</b> English/ specializations in 2 <sup>nd</sup> year in the national languages	+ Technical University Darmstadt (Germany, coordinator) + International University of Catalunya (Spain) + University Pierre Mendez France (France) + University of Rome Tor Vergata (Italy).	This Master trains professionals for work in the international development context. Year 1 is delivered in Germany. In year 2, students choose a partner university to develop their specialism (Spain, France or Italy).
<i>MACLANDS:</i> MAster of Cultural LANDScapes	<b>Length:</b> 2 Years <b>Languages:</b> French/Italian/ German; students need to certify French (DALF C1), Italian (CELI 3), & German (ZD) competencies <b>Capacity:</b> 30	+ University of Saint Etienne (France, coordinator), + University of Stuttgart (Germany) + Federico II of Naples (Italy)	This Master focuses on sustainable preservation, management and development of cultural heritage. MACLANDS seeks to train students in analysis, management and preservation (preventive and curative) as well as design of sustainable solutions for planning involving cultural heritage.
<i>EURMed</i> (Etudes Urbaines en Régions Méditerranéenne)	<b>Length:</b> 2 years <b>Languages:</b> Spanish, French, Italian and Portuguese. <b>Capacity:</b> up to 60, including 19 students from non-European countries.	+ Université Paul Cézanne Aix-Marseille III (Co-ordinator, France) + Universidad De Sevilla (Spain) + Università Degli Studi Di Genova (Italy) + Universidade Técnica De Lisboa (Portugal)	This Master provides specialised education in sustainable development planning of Mediterranean coastal regions. Students are required to study in at least 2 partner institutions.
<i>Planet Europe</i>	<b>Length</b> 2 years, <b>Language</b> English <b>Capacity:</b> 30	+ Radboud University Nijmegen (NL, coordinator) + Cardiff University (UK) + Blekenige Stockholm, (Sweden)	This Master focuses on European spatial planning, environmental policies and regional development. Students start in Nijmegen and continue their studies either in Cardiff or Stockholm.

<p><i>ERASMUS MUNDUS</i> Master in Hydro-informatics and Water Management</p>	<p><b>Length</b> 2 years, <b>Language</b> English</p>	<p>+ University of Nice - Sophia Antipolis (France) + Brandenburg University of Technology at Cottbus (Germany), + Budapest University of Technology &amp; Economics (Hungary), + Polytechnic University of Catalonia (Spain), + Newcastle University (UK)</p>	<p>This Master prepares consultants for working on environmental and hydrotechnological projects for the public or private sector at local, regional, national and international scale.</p>
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The one topic that may be receiving attention throughout most European nations and programmes is some form of European-level, strategic spatial planning. The implementation of the European Spatial Development Perspective (CSD, 1999), supported through programmes and cooperation networks, provides not only economic stimuli but also platforms for knowledge creation and exchange that subtly influence approaches to regional planning and governance arrangements (Giannakourou, 2005; 2012; Faludi, 2010; Dühr et al., 2010). EU directives such as the Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC, Air Quality Directive 2008/50/EC, Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC or the Public Procurement Directive 2004/18/EC are perhaps the measures that impact on planning most directly (e.g., Hedelin, 2005). These directives outline targets for environmental and economic goals for which a coordinated European approach is deemed beneficial. Once ratified, member states have to implement the policies within their national legal frameworks (e.g., Hedelin, 2005; Martin et al., 1999). In this sense, European cooperation and coordination in planning is a professional reality and planning education providers have begun to introduce European planning issues in their curricula. A few master programmes have also been created focusing exclusively on European spatial and comparative issues. Mangels and Cotella (2012) however argued that more European planning ought to be taught and that the current provision is inadequate to prepare graduates for planning in practice environments that increasingly require them to be familiar with European planning dimensions. As there is little incentive or reason for planning education elsewhere in the world to cover European spatial planning issues, knowledge of those and how local and national planning issues fit within this layered system may indeed become one of the defining characteristics of planning education throughout Europe.

Another indication for a changing character of planning programmes in Europe from an entirely nation-specific to a broader audience is the language of instruction. Increasingly programmes at Master level are taught in English rather than in one of the many European languages. Kunzmann (2004) has criticized this development arguing that it will increase the gap between practice, academia and research with all its negative consequences in the long term. Practitioners will rarely access research results published in their non-native. Some new programmes at the master level with a European focus even seek to provide bilingual education, for example at the Université de Lille, France (Olivier-Seys, 2012). Greif (2012) suggested that skills in multiple languages are a highly desirable trait for planning graduates in the European and international labour markets.

Figure 3 provides an indicative overview of the degree of Europeanisation by education cycle. The table shows that on balance European characteristics of the

education experience are derived from different aspects. There is more time for student exchanges during a 3-4 year Bachelor and therefore this is a stronger element during the first cycle whereas IP and teaching in an internationally accepted lingua franca is more prevalent at the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle and so forth.

Figure 3. Different aspects of Europeanisation by education cycle

<b>1<sup>st</sup> cycle (Bachelor)</b>	<b>Level of Europeanisation</b>
Curriculum content	+
IP programmes	++
Individual student exchanges	+++
Staff exchanges	+++
English language provision	+
<b>2<sup>nd</sup> cycle (Master)</b>	
Curriculum content	++
IP programmes	++
Individual student exchanges/ work opportunities	-
Staff exchanges	+++
Erasmus Mundus masters	++++
Masters on European Planning	++++
English Language provision	+++
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> cycle (Doctorate)</b>	
Format (training, credits, structured)	+++
Dual degree Phd., Inter-institutional collaboration	++
International component	++
Emergent academic engagement/exchange (AESOP PhD workshop)	+

## **DISCUSSION, CONCLUDING THOUGHTS AND SUGGESTIONS**

Academics throughout Europe have noticed “Europeanisation” trends in so far as domestic practices and paradigms have been changed and adjusted (e.g., Faludi 2010) with a certain common ‘ways of doing things’, shared beliefs and norms becoming more prevalent, although “mechanisms and trajectories of domestic change have not yet been fully explored or systematized” (e.g., Giannokourou 2012). Considering the “Europeanisation” of planning practice, one could argue that a “Europeanisation” of planning curricula would be desirable, if not necessary, to ensure future planning graduates are prepared for working in an emerging institutional and policy environment where national scales are transcended and domestic and European

politics mutually influence each other. Whilst a few specialised master programmes in European planning have been established over the past years, it is unclear if this is sufficient to address market needs and Mangels and Cotella (2012) have criticised the lack of a systematic integration of European planning in planning curricula.

The decree of free professional mobility within the European Economic Area (EEA) posits interesting challenges for cross-national recognition of degrees and professional qualification in planning. At the moment, the status of the profession ranges from partially regulated via self-regulated to unregulated across the countries in Europe. Results from a review by a working group on the *Recognition of Planning Qualifications in Europe* from the European Council of Town Planning (ECTP-CEU) suggests that the basis of recognition of planners has to be the recognition of professional qualifications, which is linked to planning education, curricula and the legal framework that defines who can work as a planner (ECTP-CEU 2013a; 2013b). This indicates, that a “Europeanisation” of the planning education provision with similar education structures, models, and guidelines or learning outcomes, would pave the way at least partially toward lowering the barriers for mutual recognition of qualifications. The ECTP-EU (2013a, 2013b) recommends the “common platform approach” (rather than fixed regulation and standards used for entirely regulated professions). The common platform approach does not force all member states to elevate planning to a regulated profession – instead qualifications are recorded via a standardised document called Europass. The Europass helps potential employers, educational establishments and training providers understand which subjects an individual has studied, what training has been completed or how much experience has been gained working. It also records non-formal learning and language skills and through this transparency this helps to remove administrative barriers and facilitate cross-national recognition of professional qualification. In order to progress, common platform criteria need to be defined which are suitable to compensate for differences that currently exist in different member states in the training and education of planners. Key organisations such as AESOP (Association of European Schools of Planning) and ECTP-CEU (European Council of town planners) as well as other professional associations from different countries will have to liaise closely to establish a list of core competencies for European urban, regional and spatial planners.

The issue of context specific versus global or even European planning education has never been resolved and remains complex (Peel and Frank, 2008; Burayidi, 1993; Afshar, 2001). While bespoke and narrowly nation-specific curricula seem to be inadequate and at odds with ideas of global citizenry in an ever more connected world economy, a wholly globalised and generic approach to planning education may be equally inappropriate (Watson, 2008). A regionalised/continental approach to planning education may be a valuable compromise. As the European Spatial Development Plan (CSD, 1999) shows there are a range of commonalities and issues that deserve attention by planning students whether they are in the Mediterranean or Northern realm of Europe. Possibly, European-wide agreed criteria for planning programme accreditation leading to a qualification recognised by all member states but complemented by nationally focused assessment of competencies prior to full practice eligibility may be a way forward. This would mean also a re-orientation and greater focus in the curriculum to instil in students the ability of self-driven learning and problem-solving, something that Barnett (2000; 2004) recommended for higher

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education studies in a complex and uncertain world.

In sum, it seems that “Europeanisation” of or in planning education occurs at various levels and in respect to a number of aspects; however, at present, the process’ results are not as clearly recognisable and ubiquitous as perhaps desirable. At least two aspects require further investigation: a) *empirically* - is there a distinct, identifiable character of European planning education and if – what are its parameters in terms of format and/or content, and *normatively* b) is a Europeanisation of planning education desirable and appropriate considering the difference of planning systems, economic and development trajectories and value systems across the EU member states? Do the potential benefits in respect to professional recognition, strengthening European identity and competitiveness outweigh disadvantages of loss of local specificity, diversity and links to practice?

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**A B S T R A C T** *Different profiles of the planning profession exist across European countries. As a result, models for education in planning differ considerably in comparison and curricula tend to reflect and address national needs. Programme and/or professional accreditation is also closely linked to nationally determined criteria and standards. However, education formats and particularly curricula evolve and over the past two or so decades a host of changes in European planning education have been introduced. Aside from the restructuring to make programmes compliant with the Bologna cycles in higher education, there have been developments around of integrated mobility opportunities and the emergence of collaborative master degrees delivered jointly by host institutions from different European countries. Increasingly, educators incorporate learning units on European spatial planning, cohesion policy and fiscal instruments, which impact on national, regional and local planning policy and practice. This paper presents an initial exploration into whether these developments contribute to a “Europeanisation” of planning education and the values and issues associated with these developments.*

**K E Y W O R D S :** *planning education; “Europeanisation”; curricula; models.*