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ICONARP INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ARCHITECTURE AND PLANNING

ICONARP as an e-journal considers original articles, research briefs, book reviews and viewpoints in peer-reviewed. ICONARP is an exciting new venture occurred with experiences, theoretical approaches, critical and empirical studies in the field of architecture and planning.

SCOPE and AIM

The journal aims to be a platform for the studies of design, education and application and has a goal to be a bridge in between traditional/modern, east/west, local/global in the disciplines of Architecture / Planning.

Architecture and Planning, as two interconnected fields, are strongly affected by other disciplines such as fine art, urban design, philosophy, engineering, geography, economics, politics, sociology, history, psychology, geology, information technology, ecology, law, security and management. However, there are no academic journals which specifically focus on the connections of architecture and planning with other social fields. **ICONARP** aims to fill that gap. Our scope is to provide a suitable space for theoretical, methodological and empirical papers, which use global and local perspectives together, in architectural and urban studies.



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EDITORIAL

ICONARP began its broadcast life as peer-reviewed faculty journal in the field of international architecture and planning and now it is the fifth issue.

ICONARP is continuing its growing process with this new issue.

The sixth issue will be published in December and we wait for your contributions with your scientific studies until September 15th 2015



CONTENT/İÇİNDEKİLER

VOLUME 3-ISSUE 1

vii

Editorial/Yayın Kurulundan	Page/Sayfa
	I-VII
Muyiwa Lawrance AKINLUYI <i>An Evaluation of Functional, Aesthetic, Structural qualities and Satisfaction in Selected Students' Housing for the University.</i>	1-27
Emine YILDIZ KUYRUKÇU, Mine ULUSOY, Zafer KUYRUKÇU <i>The Increase of Prestige Gated Communities in Consumption Culture and The Reasons for Their Increasing Popularity</i>	28-43
Fatih CANAN, Selçuk SAYIN, Mustafa KORUMAZ <i>Cultural Identity In Contemporary Turkish Architecture Case Study In Konya</i>	44-62
Sezen TARAKÇI, Aysun Hatice ÖZKAN <i>Evaluation of Law No.6306 From Perspective of Public Spaces – Gezi Park Case</i>	63-82
Tülay KARADAYI YENİCE, Osman Nuri DÜLGERLER, Abdullah ALKAN <i>Spatial and Functional Transformation of Uctae Chamber of Architects of Turkey Aksaray Office Building (Historical İbrahim Kaya Mansion)</i>	83-94
Zeynep GÜNAY <i>Renewal Agenda in Istanbul: Urbanisation vs. Urbicide</i>	95-108



An Evaluation of Functional, Aesthetic, Structural qualities and Satisfaction in Selected Students' Housing for the University

Muyiwa LAWRENCE AKINLUYI

Abstract

The study evaluated the functional, Aesthetic, structural and satisfaction in students' housing in selected Students' Housing for the University, It examined the socio- economic characteristics of the users, evaluated functional, aesthetic, structural qualities in selected students' housing for Obafemi Awolowo University and examined residential satisfaction in the halls. This was with a view to providing policy interventions for the designers of halls of residences for the Universities. Primary data were obtained through survey method. Obafemi Awolowo University (O.A.U) was the University of Study for the research

Keywords:

Functional quality, Structural quality, Aesthetic quality, Satisfaction, Students' Housing, University

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project. Five hostels at O.A.U were purposively selected to capture variation in gender, level of study and hostel design across the University. The sampling frame showed that 5,038 students at O.A.U were found in 1,078 rooms. One out of every five (20%) were selected at O.A.U which amounted to 215 students sampled at O.A.U. Secondary data was obtained from the Physical Planning Department of O.A.U. The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results from the frequency distribution shows that the functional qualities of the hostels were perceived among the students of O.A.U to be excellent (76.2%). Similarly, both aesthetics (79%) and structural (82.3%) qualities of the hostels are perceived as very good among the students of O.A.U. Also, all respondents of the hotels were not satisfied with various services and amenities provided in the Halls of Residence generally (40.0%) and 39.1% expressed neutral satisfaction. The study concluded that, Functional, Aesthetic, Structural qualities and Satisfaction are important in the overall Students' Housing for Obafemi Awolowo University.

INTRODUCTION

The main attraction of Students' Housing is its proximity to the Campus. The distance to Campus is so important since the advantages of downtown living are not likely to attract many students. Also, from an academic viewpoint, Students' Housing is important because of its availability in or around the campus has been shown to be significant in attracting students. The overall academic quality of an institution may not be high if it fails to attract good quality students from outside the immediate catchment area with provision of suitable accommodation. The Literature also shows that Students can perform well in their studies if they have good and comfortable living conditions in their Students' Housing (Amole, 2005; Hassanain, 2008). It is agreed that poor Housing or poor living conditions make learning difficult. Most of the Students' activities are centred on studying and more than fifty per cent of the Students' study time is spent in the Student's Room. Students' Housing is important economically as housing students is a capital- intensive venture. University Students' Housing also usually constitutes the largest single capital investment and represents the largest facility asset that an institution may have. Consequently, Students' Housing needs to be properly design and managed to ensure that they do not deteriorate in value. Students' Housing as financial resources are now being handled as commercial Ventures; hence Students' Residential facilities need to be attractively designed to generate economic returns.

However, most of the previous studies on Residential Satisfaction in the context of Students' Housing have not examined the issues of Design such as functional, structural and aesthetic qualities of the design. The closest exception to this was Amole, (2009) who examined whether the morphological configurations of the halls of residence would predict Residential Satisfaction. The author refers only to the morphological configurations of the halls of residence as functional aspects of design but failed to investigate the aesthetic and the structural aspects of the design issues in the conceptual framework. It is important therefore, that current research obtain reliable and valid information in these areas on the Residents' Satisfaction with their Housing as a means to improve living accommodations. It is also useful to assess how certain aspects, characteristics, and features of the complex environment that we refer to as 'Housing' contributes to Satisfaction, (Aragones, et.al., 2002). It has been shown that evaluating Student Housing allows us to gain knowledge about specific actions that can maximize residential satisfaction and reduce dissatisfaction as much as possible. This is important for students' well-being and academic performance. However, singular perspectives of Residential Satisfaction are more common while multi-dimensional views are less common. This is inspite of the fact that multi-dimensional perspectives are more useful. Residential Satisfaction from multi-dimensional perspectives is especially important because it emphasizes that most interventions aimed at remedial actions are likely to succeed only to the extent that they address all the relevant domains, not just one, (Aragones, Francescasto & Garling, 2002). Residential Satisfaction Research, when properly set up, allows for detailed analysis of the relative contribution of specific elements, characteristics, and features of the complex system which we refer to as Housing and creating conditions congruent with its inhabitants' aspirations. It is also necessary to examine which users are satisfied with what. This study was designed to evaluate the functional, aesthetic, structural qualities and satisfaction in the selected hostels for Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun-State.

RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies of Residential Satisfaction in Students Housing

Studies on Residential Satisfaction have been actively discussed under Student Residential environment and its arguments on Residential Satisfaction (RS) topics have vibrantly become an eminent discussion among the built environment researchers and scholars since years ago. Li et al. (2007) examined the relationship between students' overall satisfaction



with their hall residences experience in terms of university hostel facilities and students' satisfaction with various custodial, maintenance, and services. The study finds out that, there is a relationship between overall Students' Satisfaction and the student's hostel facilities. Foubert et al. (1998) and Najib and Yusof (2010) specified that Residential Satisfaction among students stems from high-quality facilities, positive roommate relationships, and quiet study environments in their living accommodations. However, Kaya and Erkip (2001) contend that Student Satisfaction is based on having wider and brighter rooms with less noise and stress in the living areas, whereas Amole (2005) claims that students assess Residential Satisfaction based upon levels of crowding and privacy in their rooms. In other words, Resident Satisfaction stems from the perceived quality of Housing Facilities and Services, (Nurul, et.al., 2011). Most authors also argue that students can perform well in their studies if they have good, comfortable living conditions in their Student Housing, (Amole, 2005; Hassanain, 2008). Melnikas (1998) stresses that, evaluation and renovation of students' Housing is crucial to increase students' standards of living as well as rectify any defects in the Students' housing facilities, thus, Residents' Satisfaction must be ascertained regularly to address Students' Housing needs.

Residential satisfaction has also been managed in Students' Housing but from various perspectives: For example looking at Residential Satisfaction from the Students' perspectives, Amole (2009a) points out that Satisfaction with Students' Housing is an important indicator in evaluating the quality of students living environments. Similarly, Salleh (2008) and Mohitet et. al. (2010) explained that Residential Satisfaction from a Student's perspective is the positive experience expressed by occupants when their home meets their expectations.

Most scholars have examined the characteristics of the users' in the studies of satisfaction, but few studies have organized these variables in a model in an effort to facilitate analysis of the relationships among these characteristics, (Parkes, et. al. 2002). Ame'rigo and Aragone's (1997), Ame'rigo (2002) stated that once the residential environment objective attributes have been evaluated, they become subjective. At this junction, these attributes give rise to a certain degree of satisfaction. Naturally, subjective attributes are influenced by 'Personal Characteristics', which include one's Socio-demographic profile. But subjective attributes are also influenced by one's 'Residential Quality Pattern', (Adriaanse, 2007). Hassanain (2008) points out that student perceptions about the hostel they lived can be assessed in terms of both technical (i.e., acoustic and visual comfort) and functional (i.e.,

room finishes and room layout) requirements. The Author considers technical and functional performances as two different aspects that can be used to explain Students' Residential Satisfaction, Hassanain (2008). Thus, Resident Satisfaction must be ascertained regularly to address students' Housing needs. In order to deliver high quality services to students, the Management of the Students' Housing must manage every aspects of the Student's interaction with all of their services provided. With this background, it is important to examine design as a process and as a creative.

Nature of the Design Process

The design process was described by Markus and Arch (1973) as consisting of both theoretical and empirical patterns. The theoretical pattern consists of an individual decision making process, usually performed by a designer, concerned with the creation of alternative solutions while the empirical patterns consists of the management process, divided into phases, which develop from the general and abstract to the detailed and concrete. A complete picture of the design method requires the consideration of both patterns. Design is often referred to as a Creative Process and Management Process respectively.

Designs as a Creative Process

A number of models of design as a creative process abound in literature, for example, the model proposed by Markus and Arch (1973) is presented in Figure 1. In this model there are four main activities in design: analysis, synthesis, evaluation and dissemination. One of the main contributions of such models is the fact that individual design processes tend to be very unstructured and chaotic. This should be taken into consideration when developing a model for managing and design process. It means that the steps for producing a design solution cannot be established at a very fine level of detail (Lawson, 1980).

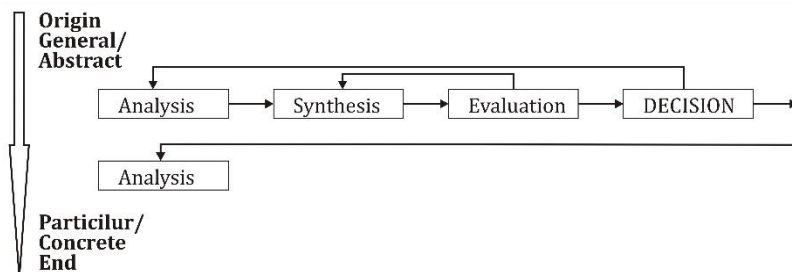


Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Design as a creative process (Markus and Arch, 1973)

Design as a Functional, Aesthetic and Structural Qualities

The Design Quality in this study covered all the physical settings of the hostel and is measured by the functional, aesthetic

and structural qualities of the hostels. *The functional qualities* are: the quality of the hostel generally, the location of the hall in the university, the access between the blocks in the hall, the location of the buttry and reading room, the location of the sanitary facilities and kitchenette, the number of persons in the hall, privacy in the room, the number of persons in the room, the size of the room, the arrangement of fixtures and fittings in the room and the arrangement of rooms on floor. *The aesthetics quality* indicators refer to the; the beauty of the hostel, the attractiveness of the hostel generally, how impressive the hostel is and how much you do like the look of the hostel. *The structural quality* indicators of the hostels refers to the; the quality of the construction, safety from slippery and indoor injury, the finishes and fitting in the bed room generally, the finishes and fittings in the hostel.

The Conceptual Framework

In this study, Conceptual Framework refers to the three important key concepts which are: Residential Satisfaction, socio-economic characteristics and the Design attributes (Functional, Aesthetics and Structural qualities). It was discovered that design qualities (Functional, Aesthetics and Structural qualities) affect the concept of residential satisfaction depending on the characteristics of the users.

Figure 2.
The Conceptual Framework for studying residential satisfaction in this study)

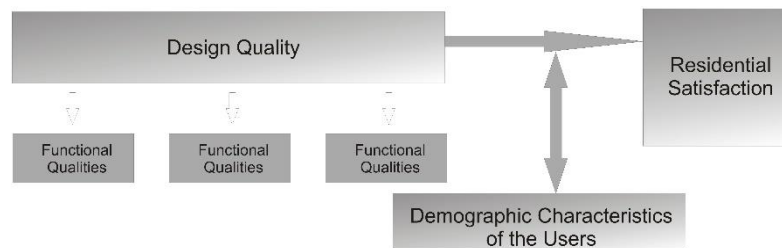


Figure 2.

Study Area

Osun-state is located in the south-western part of Nigeria. It covers an area of approximately 14,875 square kilometres, lies between latitude 7° 30' 0"N and longitude 4° 30' 0' E and is bounded by Ogun, Kwara, Oyo and Ondo-State in the south, north, and east respectively, its area covered is represented in the figure 3. One of the major towns present in Osun-State is Ile-Ife which is the study town for the study, is an ancient town established by Oduduwa regarded as the father of Yoruba race. Ile-Ife is believed to have emerged as the first highly centralized polity in Yorubaland, it is the holy city of the Yoruba people and believed to have been discovered about 500BC. Ile-Ife is located on the longitude 4.6°E and latitude 7.5° N which is within the hot humid tropical zone. It has an annual means

An Evaluation of Functional, Aesthetic, Structural qualities and Satisfaction in Selected Students' Housing for the University

temperature of 26°C. It is situated on an elevation of about 275 meters above the sea level. The king is called the Ooni or Onile (that is the one who owns the land). Its area covered is represented in the figure 4. The establishment of three Universities in Nigeria between 1961 and 1962 evolved the so called University of Ife in 1962 and in February 1988, the name of the University was changed from "University of Ife" to "Obafemi Awolowo University" (O.A.U) in honour of the Late Chief Obafemi Awolowo, one of the founding fathers of the University. O.A.U, Ile -Ife is about 80 kilometres northeast of Ibadan. It is in Osun State. Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife is located on the longitude 4.622°E and latitude 7.5182° N which is within the hot humid tropical zone. The student enrolment is about 35000 for both undergraduates and post graduate students. Map to describe O.A.U is represented in the figure 5.

7

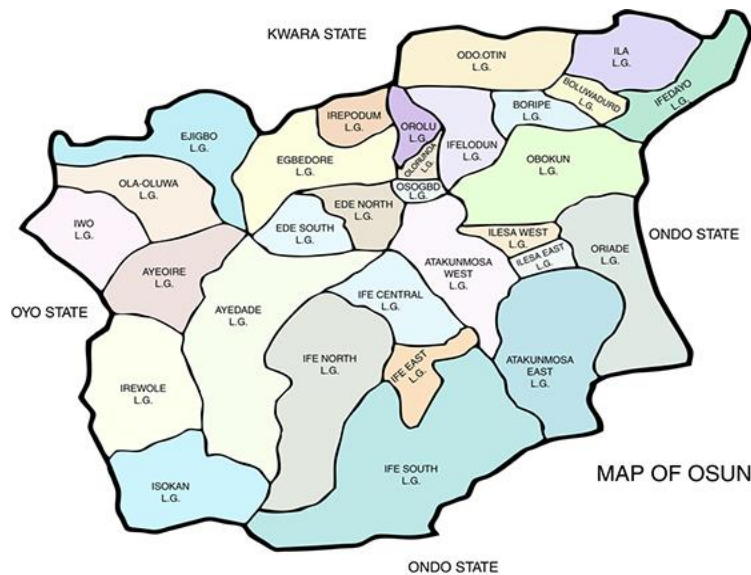


Figure 3.
Map of Osun-State, Nigeria

Source: www.osunstate.gov.ng/geography.htm (2011)

Figure 3.

Figure 4.
Map of Ile-Ife, Nigeria



Figure 4.

Description of Halls of Residence at O.A.U

The major halls of undergraduate residences for males are Fajuyi, Awolowo, Angola and E.T.F. For women, halls of residence are Moremi, Ladoke Akintola, Alumni and Mozambique. Muritala Muhammed Hall is for postgraduate students. These halls of residence had common characteristics. About 50% of the hostels are low-rise two-storey buildings such as Fajuyi, Awolowo, Muritala Muhammed, Moremi, and Ladoke Akintola halls of residence (Plates 1, 8, and 5). Twenty percent of the halls of residence are bungalow building such as Mozambique, E.T.F and Angola halls of residence (Plates 2, 3, 4). While just 10% is one story building such as Alumni Hall (Plate 7). All the halls except one (Muritala Muhammed) are single-sex halls. In all, there were four female halls, four male halls, and one mixed-sex hall. The halls of residence provide shared facilities such as bedrooms, which are the most private space and are shared by four persons (Fajuyi Annex, Awolowo Annex E.T.F, Moremi); some are six (Fajuyi, Awolowo, Alumni), some are twelve (Angola halls & Mozambique hall) (Plate 14 and Figure 5 and 6) and some are three and one person per room (Muritala Muhammed). Sometimes the halls are provided with balconies or a back terrace as additional facility, the second was the “floor” which comprised bedrooms and their accesses. The floor was less private. Facilities shared at this level included bathrooms, kitchenettes, buttry, drainage system access road, walkways waste disposal method and the corridor access (Plates 9, 10, 11, 12, 16).

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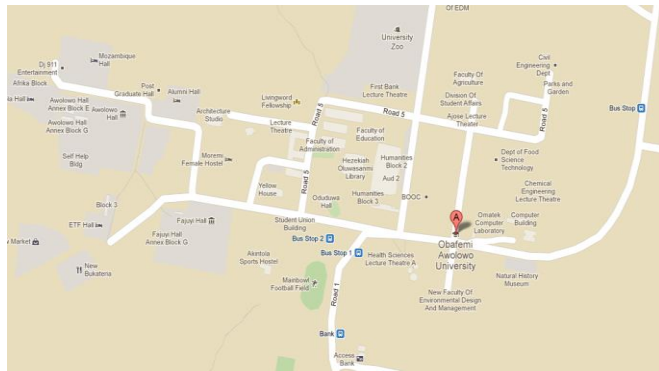


Figure 5.
Master Plan of O.A.U Ife

Figure 5.



Plate 1.



Plate 2.

Plate 1.
The typical Hall Entrance of Adekunle Fajuyi and Awolowo Hall.

Plate 2.
Master Plan of O.A.U Ife



Plate 3.



Plate 4.

Plate 3.
The Entrance of E.T.F Hall

Plate 4.
The Mozambique Hall Entrance.



Plate 5.



Plate 6.

Plate 5.
The typical Hall of Moremi, Akintola, Awolowo

Plate 6.
The typical Hall Entrance of Angola Hall and Mozambique Hall Entrance.



Plate 7.



Plate 8.

Plate 7.
The Entrance of Alumni Hall

Plate 8.
The Muritala Muhammad Hall

Plate 9.
Access between O.A.U Fajuyi hostels



Plate 9.

Plate 10.
Waste disposal at O.A.U hostel



Plate 10.

Plate 11.
Drainage system at O.A.U hostels hostels



Plate 11.

Plate 12.
Available Water at O.A.U hostel



Plate 12.

Plate 13.
Artificial Illumination at O.A.U hostel



Plate 13.

Plate 14.
Bedroom at O.A.U hostel



Plate 14.

Plate 15.
Access road between the hostels at O.A.U



Plate 15.

Plate 16.
Buttery at O.A.U hostel



Plate 16.

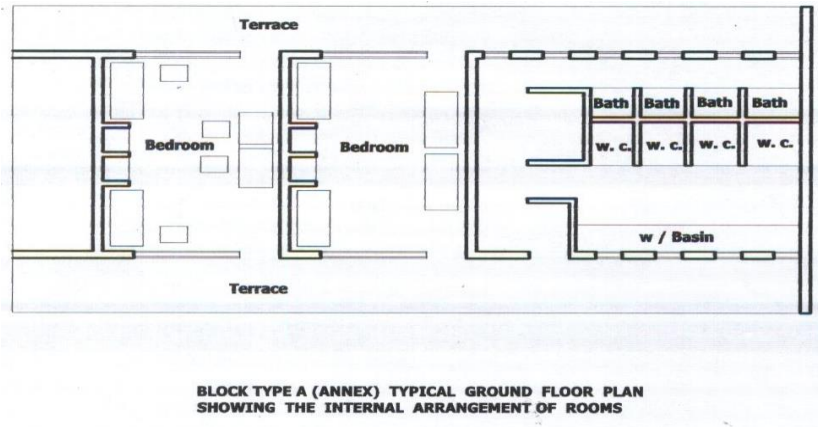


Figure 6.
The typical Floor Plan of most of the Hostels in O.A.U Ile-Ife

Figure 6.

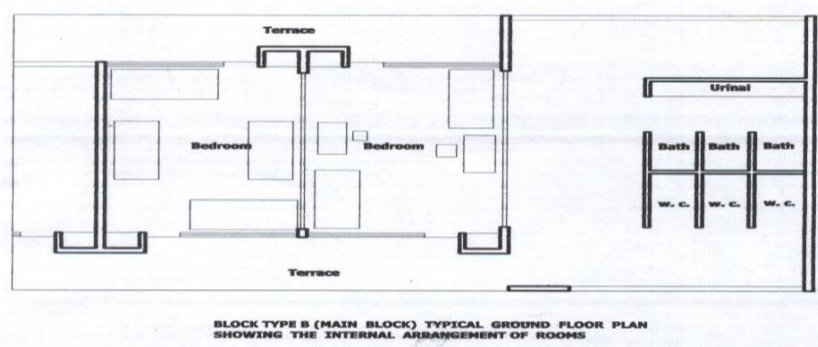


Figure 7.
The typical floor plan of most of the hostels in O.A.U Ile-Ife

Figure 7.

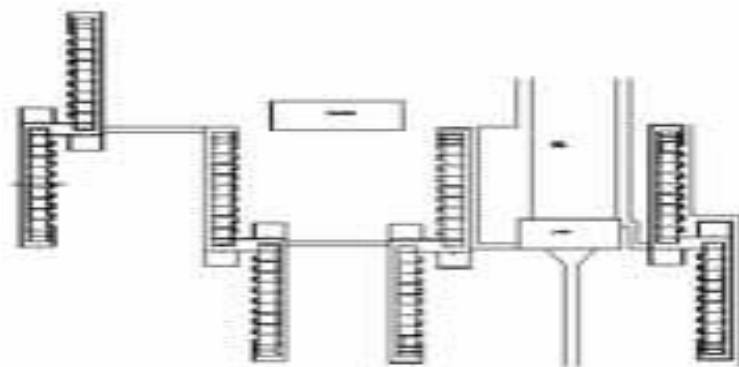


Figure 8.
The typical plan layout of most of the hostels in O.A.U Ile-Ife

Figure 8.

Figure 9.
The typical section layout of most of the Hostels in O.A.U Ile-Ife

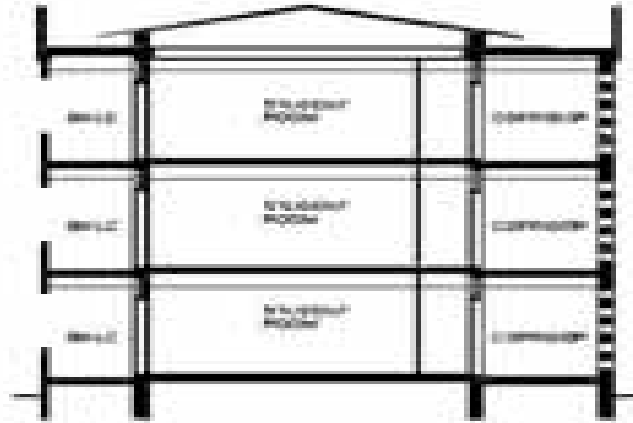


Figure 9.

Figure 10.
Layout plan of the residential areas in O.A.U Ile-Ife Master plan

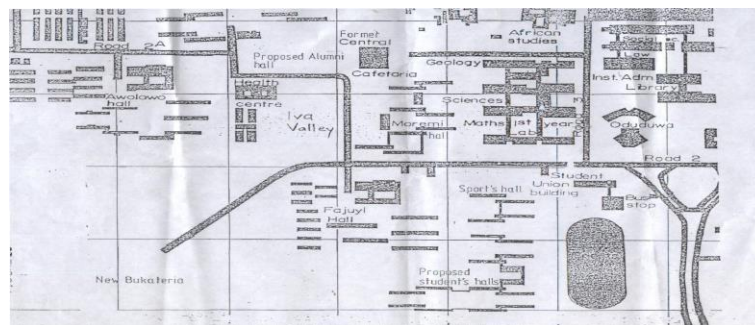


Figure 10.

Figure 11.
Layout Plan of Adekunle Fajuyi Hall of Residence in O.A.U Ife

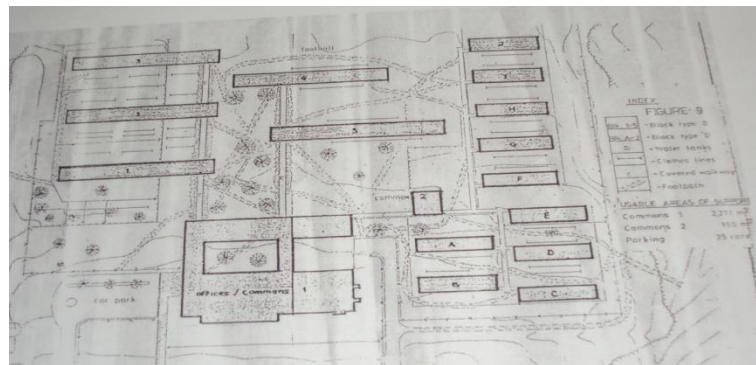


Figure 11.

Population in Hall of Residence at O.A.U Ile-Ife

Alumni Hall is a hall situated beside the Murtala Muhammed Post Graduate Hall as an undergraduate female hostel built to accommodate legal students' population of 390. It is the least populated of all halls. The hostel was built and financed with the assistance of O.A.U Alumni Association, bears the name after them. It is located at about 4,000m away from the academic areas. Angola Hall, built in 1975, is one of the furthest halls of residence from the academic environment, about 6,000m and strictly constructed for the male. It was formally known as an Emergency Hostel 1 and later given the name Angola Hall The hostel was built to accommodate legal students' population of

1,320. It is also the closest hostel to Mozambique and Awolowo hostels, due to its security; the hostel has been dedicated mainly to the first year male students. Awolowo Hall built in 1970 is remarkably the most populated hostel in Obafemi Awolowo University with a maximum capacity of 2,032 legal students. It is located at about 5,000m away from the academic activities. The Education Trust Fund Hostel (ETF hostel) is a male hostel and also an extension of the Awolowo Hostel. The hostel was built to legally accommodate a population of 560 students. Even though the hostel is an extension of the Awolowo hostel there is a distance of more than 300m between the ETF hostel and the Awolowo hostel through the school main access road. Ladoke Akintola Hall, popularly called Sport's Hall due to its proximity to the School's Sports Facilities situated close to the academic areas where faculties and various departments are situated. The hostel was built to legally accommodate a population of 640 students. The hostel is strictly assigned to the female students. Moremi Hall is a female hostel located just a few meters away from the Faculty of Science Building is named after an ancient heroine, Princess Moremi. This hall was built between the years 1973 and 1974 to legally accommodate student population of 1,228 students. Mozambique hostel is also an emergency hostel like the Angola hostel; it was built in the same year with Angola and was formally known as an Emergency Hostel 2. The hostel was built in 1975 to legally accommodate a population of 1,722 students. Its location is more than 6,000m away from the academic environment. The hostel is almost equidistant from Angola hostel and the Post Graduate students' hostel. It is directly facing the back entrance of the Awolowo Hostel. Due to its security, the hostel has been dedicated to the First year female students. Muritala Mohammed Postgraduate Hostel, which is also known as PG hostel, is a unisex hostel that is specially built for the male and female post graduate students. This hall was built to accommodate a students' population of 1,072 students. The hostel is very close to Alumni, Mozambique and Awolowo Hall. Adekunle Fajuyi Hostel is the second most populated hostel in Obafemi Awolowo University. This hall was built to accommodate student population of 1,788 students. Fajuyi Hall is the closest hostel to the academic environment, quiet and neat like other hostels and strictly assigned to the male students. The population distribution of the hostels are represented in the table 1.

Table 1. Population distribution of hostels at O.A.U Ile-Ife

S/N	Name of Hall	Level of Study	Gender	No of Blocks	No of Rooms	No of Students
1	AdekunleFajuyi Hall	Undergraduate	Male Hostel	15	237	1,788
2	Angola Hall	Undergraduate	Male Hostel	11	110	1,320
3	Awolowo Hall	Undergraduate	Male Hostel	16	307	2,032
4	E T F Hall	Undergraduate	Male Hostel	6	72	560
5	Moremi Hall	Undergraduate	Female Hostel	8	257	1,228
6	LadokeAkintola Hall	Undergraduate	Female Hostel	4	128	640
7	MozambiqueHall	Undergraduate	Female Hostel	14	140	1,722
8	Alumni Hall	Undergraduate	Female Hostel	4	52	390
9	Muritala Mohammed	Postgraduate	Male Hostel	10	460	1,072
Total				88	1,763	10,752

Source: O.A.U Students Affairs Unit (2012)

The Structures of O.A.U Students' Halls of Residence

The management structures of students' accommodation in O.A.U are categorized as follows: Management Strategies, Hostels and Bed Spaces, Method of Allocation, Accommodation Fees, Rules and Regulation Guiding the Use of the Hostels.

Halls of residence in O.A.U are usually managed by the Students Affairs Division of the University's Registry. Each of the halls of residence has the Hall Warden and a Hall Supervisor who are responsible for the proper management and maintenance of the hotels. Admission to the Halls of Residence is by application via internet by filling the relevant application forms available on the special site designed by the Students Affairs Division. Allocation of hostels and bed spaces to students are usually done based on; Qualification as a Student, Gender, for example: Men Undergraduate students in all Faculties and Departments will be evenly distributed in the four Halls for men i.e (Fajuyi and Awolowo, ETF and Angola) while Women Undergraduate students will be accommodated into Moremi, Alumni, Akintola and Mozambique Halls. Other categories are: Freshmen, Finalists (decided by matriculation year), and Students Union Leaders.

Sports men and women recommended by the Chairman of the Sports Council, Students with disabilities certified by Director of Medical services, Foreign Students and Medical (clinical) students. Murtala Muhammed Hall is exclusively for Postgraduate students and physically challenged male and female students. Accommodation allocation in the post graduate hall is done per Semester while that of undergraduates are done

per session. Male Clinical students are usually allocated into the two-bedded rooms in Fajuyi Hall while accommodations are usually provided for their female counterparts in Moremi Hall. Also the University rented accommodation for medical students in town. Three bedroom apartments are usually allocated to the post graduate students in the first session of the MA/M.Sc. degree programmes. Also students in second session of the programmes, the MA/M.Sc programmes and Students on Ph.D degree programmes are allocated single room apartment where available.

Accommodation fees in O.A.U are categorized on class such as Undergraduate and Post-Graduate students. For the undergraduate spaces, students are required to pay a flat rate of N90 per session while Postgraduate students are required to pay a total sum of N10,000.00 per session (Single room) and a total sum of N7,500.0 per session for the shared room. Also, a miscellaneous fee of N2, 500 is charged per student per session for utilities and maintenance in the Halls.

Rules and regulations are other aspects of hostel management in O.A.U. All students officially allocated bed spaces in the halls of residence are made to sign an undertaking to be of good behaviour and to abide by University rules and regulations as stated below:

- University authority is under no obligation to provide all students with hostel accommodation. Allocation of bed space in halls of residence is therefore a privilege not a right.
- The University does not accept any responsibility for any loss or damage to student's property within or outside the halls of residence.
- Only students duly registered for the session are eligible for allocation of bed spaces.
- Any student found occupying a bed space illegally or squatting at any point in time will be ejected and made to face disciplinary actions.
- Any bed space or room allocation made cannot be altered and students must retain where they are assigned for the period or session under review.
- All university property/facilities provided in the hostels must be used judiciously. Any damage to such facilities as a result of misuse shall be fully replaced by the student(s) concerned.
- It is mandatory that students keep their rooms, corridor, toilets, kitchen and environment in general, clean and tidy. All rubbish must be properly disposed.



- It is an offence for any student to engage in illegal transfer or sale of bed spaces. Such actions would attract penalties which may include dismissal from the University.
 - Students must vacate their rooms, remove all their personal effects during the holidays and hand over keys to the Hall supervisor before departing on each vacation. Failure of which will attract payment of full rent for the period.
 - Students residing in each hall must be ready to participate in any organized sanitation exercise. Students who fail to participate will be ejected from the hostel.
- No male visitors (including male students) are allowed into the female hostel and no female visitors (including female students) are allowed into the male hostel.
- All non- hostel residents and visitors entering the hostels must check in at the reception desk in the Porter's Lodge.
 - Female students that are nursing mothers are not allowed to reside with their babies in the hostel.
 - Friends or relatives are not to be housed in the halls of residence for any period of time without written authorization by the Dean of Students.
 - Violation of any of the above conditions shall lead to students being surcharged, face ejection from the hostel or banned from hostel accommodation for the remaining part of his / her stay in the University or even suspension or dismissal from the University.
 - Students are forbidden to engage in trading or hawking within the hostel.
 - Sale or consumption of alcohol or any other intoxicants is banned on campus. Any student found violating this order shall be expelled from the University.
 - Any electrical appliances not certified alright should not be brought in or else the owner will be ejected or banned from hostel accommodation. The use of refrigerator or cooker is restricted to the kitchenette, subject to availability of space.
 - Fighting, religious preaching, noise making and misuse of musical instrument in the hostels are strictly prohibited and can lead to summary dismissal from the University.
 - Any activity that is not in the interest of the academic and welfare pursuit of the University is banned.
 - Any student found in possession of dangerous weapons such as knife, gun, offensive chemicals will face summary dismissal from the University.
 -

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Primary data were obtained through survey method. Obafemi Awolowo University (O.A.U) was the University of Study. Five (E.T.F, Fajuyi, Moremi, Alumni, and Muritala Mohammed) hostels at O.A.U were purposively selected to capture variation in gender, level of study and hostel design at O.A.U. The sampling frame showed that 5,038 students at O.A.U were found in 1,078 rooms. One out of every five (20%) were selected at O.A.U which amounted to 215 students sampled from O.A.U hostels. Secondary data was obtained from the Physical Planning Department of O.A.U. The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Table 2. Sample frame at UI & O.A.U

S/N	Obafemi Awolowo University			
	Hall selected	No of Rooms	No of students per Hall	No of Students selected
1	Fajuyi	237	1,788	45
2	ETF	72	560	15
3	Alumni	52	390	11
4	Moremi	257	1,228	52
5	Muritala Mohammed	460	1,072	92
	Total	1,078	5,038	215

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study presents the research findings obtained on the socio-economic characteristic of the students who reside in the selected halls of residence at O.A.U, Ile-Ife, Osun State. The socio-economic characteristic of the students obtained are represented in the table 3. With regards to the gender of all respondents in this study, Among OAU students, 52.6% were males while 47.4% were females. The summary is depicted in the table below. Selection was at random and everyone has equal chance of being selected for this study. This finding shows that more male students were sampled at O.A.U when compared to her female counterpart. The summary is depicted in the table 3. Meir *et al.* (2007) emphasized on the fact that male students cared much about the privacy in their rooms by less operating the shutters in promising the territory. In the other context, Foubertet *al.* (1998) discovered that higher level of student's residential satisfaction for male students was determined by those who stayed in the coeducational housing type but for female, equal satisfaction level was reported by those who stayed either in coeducational or single sex housing. Also, 23.7% were between 15 and 20 years, 46% were between 21 and 25 years, 19.5% were between 26 and 30 years while 10.7% were



above 30 years old. The mean age is 25.2 years while the median is 23.5 years. The summary is tabulated in the table 3. The majority of the students interviewed at O.A.U are between the ages of 21-25 years. Francescato et al. (1979), refers to age of respondents as the objective characteristics of the residents when defining Residential Satisfaction as a function. Therefore, age is an important social attributes of overall student's residential satisfaction. It is noteworthy that none of the respondents was divorced, separated or widowed as all were either single or married. About 93.5% of all respondents enrolled for the study were single while the remaining 6.5% were married. Numerically and statistically, there is a wide difference between the proportion of respondents who were married and the proportion that were single. These findings show that majority of the students interviewed from O.A.U are not married. Table 3 shows the summary of the marital status of respondents. Also, 9.8% of OAU respondents were in the first year, 19.1% were in the second year, 14.4% were in the third year, 10.7% were in the fourth year, 3.3% were in the fifth year and the remaining 42.8% were the postgraduate students. The postgraduate students include the MA, M.Sc, M.Ed, M.Phil and Ph.D students. The finding implies that, the majority of the students interviewed at O.A.U were postgraduate students. Table 3 shows the summary of the respondent's level of study. Amole (2009), supports the fact that student's level of study is an important factor in the study of residential satisfaction.

Table 3. Socio-economic characteristics of the users

Socio-economic characteristics	Frequency n (215)	Percentage %
Gender		
Male	113	52.6
Female	102	47.4
Age		
15-20	51	23.7
21-25	99	46.0
26-30	42	19.5
30 and above	23	10.7

Table 4. continue

Socio-economic characteristics	Frequency n (215)	Percentage %
Marital Status		
Single	201	93.5
Married	14	6.5
Level of study of Respondents		
100level	21	9.8
200level	41	19.1
300level	31	14.4
400level	23	10.7
500level	7	3.3
Postgraduate level	92	43.8
Means of sponsorship		
Parents	163	75
Self	28	13.0
Family	23	10.7
Co-operative	1	0.5
Experience of boarding house		
Yes	93	43.3
No	122	56.7
Monthly Income		
>2000	4	1.9
2000-5000	39	18.1
5000-10000	89	41.2
10000-15000	50	23.3
15000-20000	30	14.0
<20000	11	5.1
Faculty to which students belong		
Science	45	20.9
Engineering	41	19.1
Education	37	17.2
Agric	43	20.0
Health sciences	44	20.5
Social Sciences	18	8.4



Table 4. continue

Socio-economic characteristics	Frequency n (215)	Percentage %
Opinion on Accommodation Fees		
Too high	32	14.8
Good	156	72.6
Indifferent	29	13.4
Number of session spent in the hostel		
One session	134	62.3
Two sessions	33	15.3
Three sessions	26	12.1
Four sessions	11	5.1
Five sessions	16	7.4
Number of People per Room		
One	39	18.1
Two	7	3.3
Three	73	34.0
Four	33	15.3
Five	63	29.3

However, means of sponsorship is an important socio-economic question aimed to know the financial status of each of the respondents which is more likely to determine his/her taste. With regards to sponsorship or who is responsible for the respondents' schooling expenses, among OAU respondents, 75.8% of selected students were being sponsored by their parents, 13% were sponsoring themselves, 10.7% were being sponsored by their family while less than 1% was being sponsored by cooperatives. This finding is evidence that majority of the students who resides on campus purposely built hostels in O.A.U are being sponsored by their parents. The summary is depicted in the table 3. Means of sponsorship have been identified as one of the Socio-economic status of residents, which have been demonstrated to have an impact on subjective evaluation, due to differences in expectations. (Baba & Austin, 1989). When asked if respondents ever lived in the boarding house before, 56.7% responded in the negative compared to 43.3% of OAU respondents who responded in the affirmative. The result is depicted in the table 3. From the findings it was noted that, over half of the O.A.U students sampled have not lived in a boarding house before. This finding is an evidence that majority of the students who resides in the on-campus purposely

built hostels at O.A.U have lived in a boarding house before. Also, respondents of O.A.U were asked the average amount of money they have as pocket money or schooling maintenance money. This question gives an idea of the financial standing of students and determines their economic power and taste, 1.9% of selected students reportedly collected less than ₦2000, 18.1% collected between ₦2000 and ₦5000, 41.2% collected between ₦5000 and ₦10000, 23.3% collected between ₦10000 and ₦15000, 14% collected between ₦15000 and ₦20000 while 5.1% collected ₦20000 and above per month. Table 3 show the summary of the assumed financial capability of respondents. It is therefore, concluded that, the students of O.A.U are of better financial status. Monthly income level is important in determining student's residential satisfaction. Good economic background may ensure that, students can conquer everything they wish and aspire hence, they can live enjoyable lives. Parkes *et al.* (2002); Smets &Uyl (2008) stated that, individuals with higher income can afford to live in the affluent residential areas. Student's income level can be judged through their family backgrounds or other financial supports such as scholarship, study loan or part-time work. Amole (2005), posited that students with higher or good economic status (family support or scholarship) could afford to rent rooms with better qualities provided in the student housing as they desire. Curtis and Klapper (2005), explained that students who come from wealthy families usually choose to stay in rented houses or flats rather than in the university's student housing. This scenario shows that students with good economic status may have to choose what they like. Respondents were asked to state their course of study but analysis renders it a bit difficult to comprehend because they were so many. Therefore to make it more meaningful, they were categorized into faculties, 20.9% of selected OAU respondents were in the faculty of sciences, 19.1% were in the faculty of engineering, 17.2% were in the faculty of education, 20% were in the faculty of agriculture, 20.5% were in the faculty of health sciences while the remaining 8.4% were in the faculty. Table 3 shows the summary of the student's faculty, majority of O.A.U students sampled are from the faculty of health sciences, Agric and Sciences. Respondents were also asked the amount of money they paid for the spaces they were allocated in the hostels. This question was asked to see if they buy from each and at what price the market value. Among the Obafemi Awolowo University respondents, the amount paid range from ₦2090 and ₦3090 per space per session to include other maintenance fees but the postgraduates' students paid ₦7500 per 3-person room and ₦12500 for single-person room per session to include other



related fees, thereby giving an average of #5,400. See table 3. The average preferred cost of accommodation at Obafemi Awolowo University hostel is #5500, larger percentage of the students sampled expressed good opinion about their official accommodation fees for their bed spaces. Also, among OAU respondents, 62.3% were spending their first session in the hostel, 15.3% were spending their second session there, 12.1% were spending their third session, 5.1% were spending their fourth session and 7.4% were spending their fifth year in the hostel. Majority of the students sampled at O.A.U had spent between 1-2 sessions in their various hostels. See table 3 for detailed explanations. Among OAU respondents, 18.1% of respondents selected for the study were officially allocated to single person room, 3.3% were officially allocated to two-person room, 34.% of respondents room were officially allocated to three person, 15.3% were officially allocated to four persons, 29.3% of respondent room were officially allocated to six persons. The result is depicted in the table 3. This question was asked particularly to investigate if the number of the students allocated by the management stays in these hostels. Finding shows that six or more people staying in a room are more common in O.A.U. Also, one, two and three bedded rooms are more common in O.A.U, these is a reflection of the postgraduate students sampled in the university. Karlin, et al. (2010), posits that students who lived in triple sharing rooms were less satisfied and unhappier with their living conditions than students residing in double sharing rooms. However, number of people per room is one of the factors that influenced students' residential satisfaction levels (Khozaei et.al., 2010).

Evaluation of Functional, Aesthetic, Structural qualities

These objective reports the research findings obtained on functional, aesthetics and structural qualities of the selected hostels in Obafemi Awolowo University. *The functional qualities* indicators refers to the; the quality of the hostel generally, the location of the hall in the university, the access between the blocks in the hall, the location of the buttry and reading room, the location of the sanitary facilities and kitchenette, the number of persons in the hall, privacy in the room, the number of persons in the room, the size of the room, the arrangement of fixtures and fittings in the room and the arrangement of rooms on floor. *The aesthetics qualities* indicators refers to the; the beauty of the hostel generally, the attractiveness of the hostel generally, how impressive the hostel is and how much do you like the look of the hostel. *The structural qualities* indicators of the hostels refers to the; the quality of the hostel construction generally, safety from slippery and indoor injury, the finishes and fitting in the bed room, and the finishes and fittings in the hostel.

Functional quality at the Obafemi Awolowo University Hostels

The assessed functional quality of the hostel is good. About 54.8% reported fair functional quality. Also a high proportion 20.0% reported a good functional quality, only 1.4% reported very good but 20.5% reported poor functional quality and 3.3% reported very poor functional quality. Kayas' and Erkip's (2001) reveals that students' perception of privacy, feeling of crowding and control over space (functional qualities) led to an increase in students' satisfaction with their living condition and an important factors predicting students' satisfaction. In summary, 76.2% of OAU respondents gave a favourable level of functional quality. The above information is represented in the table 4.

Table 4. Functional qualities of the Hostels at O.A.U

		Obafemi Awolowo University		Total poor functional quality	Total good functional quality
Score	Qualities	Freq	%	%	%
10 – 18	Very poor	7	3.3	3.3+20.5+1.4	
19 – 26	Poor	44	20.5		
27 – 34	Fair	118	54.8	54.8+20.0+1.4	
35 – 42	Good	43	20.0		
43 – 50	Very good	3	1.4		
Total		215	100	23.8	76.2

Aesthetic quality at the Obafemi Awolowo University hostels

About 54.4% of respondents reported fair aesthetic quality, about 20.9% reported good quality and 3.7% reported very good aesthetic quality. About 14% reported a poor level of aesthetic quality while 7% reported very poor aesthetic quality of the hostel. In summary, 79% of respondents gave a favourable aesthetic quality. Therefore, the aesthetic quality of hostels in O.A.U is good. The above information is represented in the table 5.



Table 5. Aesthetics qualities of the Hostels at O.A.U

Score	Qualities	Obafemi Awolowo University		Total poor Aesthetic quality	Total good Aesthetic quality
		Freq	%	%	%
5 – 9	Very poor	15	7.0	7.0+14.0	
10 – 13	Poor	30	14.0		
14 – 17	Fair	117	54.4	54.4+20.9+3.7	
18 – 21	Good	45	20.9		
22 – 25	Very good	8	3.7		
Total		215	100	21	79

Structural quality at the Obafemi Awolowo University Hostels

47.9% of all OAU respondents reported that the structural quality of the hostel is fair, 29.3% reported well and 5.1% reported very good structural quality of the hostel. Only 13.3% and 4.3% reported poor and very poor respectively. In conclusion, 82.3% of all OAU respondents perceived the structural quality of the halls of residence to be well above average. The structural quality of hostels in O.A.U was considered very well. The above information is represented in the table 6.

Table 6. Structural qualities of the Hostels at O.A.U

Score	Qualities	Obafemi Awolowo University		Total poor Structural quality	Total good Structural quality
		Freq	%	%	%
4 – 7	Very poor	9	4.2	4.2+13.5	
8 – 10	Poor	29	13.5		
11 – 13	Fair	103	47.9	47.9+29.3+5.1	
14 – 17	Good	63	29.3		
18 – 20	Very good	11	5.1		
Total		215	100	17.7	82.3

Satisfaction with the hostels Services and Amenities at the O A U

About 7.4% of OAU respondents rated the level of satisfaction about staying in the hostel as very low i.e. very dissatisfied, 32.6% were reportedly dissatisfied, 39.1% expressed neutral satisfaction, 18.6% were reportedly satisfied while 2.3% were reportedly very satisfied. In conclusion, only 20.9 % of all OAU respondents give a favourable level of satisfaction with various amenities provided in the hall. Thus, the level of satisfaction about various amenities provided in the halls

is higher among UI respondents than OAU respondents. The above information is represented in the table 7.

Table 7. General Satisfaction with the hostels Services and Amenities at O.A.U

Score	Qualities	Obafemi Awolowo University		Total dissatisfied	Total Satisfied
		Freq	%	%	%
10 - 18	Very dissatisfied	16	7.4	7.4+32.6	18.6+2.3
19 - 26	Dissatisfied	70	32.6		
27 - 34	Neutral	84	39.1		
35 - 42	Satisfied	40	18.6		
43 - 50	Very satisfied	5	2.3		
Total		215	100	40	20.9

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has examined the socio-economic characteristics of the students in the halls of residence in the selected halls of residence in Obafemi Awolowo University; evaluated functional, aesthetic, structural and satisfaction in selected students' housing for Obafemi Awolowo University and examined residential satisfaction in the selected halls residence. The study of socio-economic characteristics is an important aspect of this research work, because it explores the behavioral characteristics of human life. The socio-economic characteristics of the students considered in this research reveals that, a total number of 215 were sampled and more male students were sampled at O.A.U. Students that resides in O.A.U ranges between the ages of 21-25years. This study has also revealed that, most of the students sampled are single students from different levels of study, course of study were also sampled and most of the students sampled are been sponsored by their parents. Also majority of these students collected money between #5,000 and #10,000 per month at home. It is therefore, concluded that, the students of O.A.U are of better financial status. It can also be concluded that, the official accommodation fees paid at O.A.U is between 3090 and 12500. However, larger percentage of the students sampled expressed good opinion about their official accommodation fees for their bed spaces. This research also found out that, most students have not even experienced staying in the boarding house before and most of them have spent between 2-3sessions in their various prospective halls of residence now. However, this study also evaluated the *functional, aesthetics and structural* aspects of design. The functional qualities of the hostels were perceived among the students of O.A.U to be excellent. Similarly, both aesthetics and structural qualities of the hostels are perceived as very good among the

students of O.A.U. It is, therefore, concluded that the design qualities of the hostels perceived at O.A.U were generally good. It was also concluded that, all respondents of the hotels were not satisfied with various services and amenities provided in the Halls of Residence generally (40.0%) and 39.1% expressed neutral satisfaction. For optimal performance of student housing, the functional, aesthetic and Structural qualities requires more attention from the university authority especially at Obafemi Awolowo University student hostels, however, all these physical attributes should be consider in the evolution of new hostels design for the universities. This will definitely improve the overall standard of student's residential satisfaction across the universities in Nigeria.

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The Increase of Prestige Gated Communities in Consumption Culture and The Reasons for Their Increasing Popularity

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Abstract

Gated communities are the new forms of residential settlements, which emerged as a response to changing urban dynamics, becoming increasingly common across the world. Fenced or walled off from the surrounding and limiting the access of the nonresidents, gated communities are in an attempt to create an alternative way of living by eliminating the disadvantages of the ordinary city life and providing secure, well-managed, well-maintained and peaceful environments. On the other hand, gated communities are open to ongoing discussions and controversies. Gating attitude is mostly criticized in many fields, especially causing corruptions on the social and physical cohesion of the cities. Turkey is also witnessing these conflicts by the growing number of private residential areas.

* This study is produced from master thesis named "A Research for User Satisfaction at Gated Communities in Konya".

Keywords:

Gated enclaves, prestige communities, user satisfaction, the post occupancy evaluation, Konya, Meram Yeniyol residential settlement

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The start of constructing gated communities for higher-income people in Konya after 1990 points out a significant transformation in terms of city planning, city management and urban class relations. These housing areas having controlled-entrances are the settlement areas that are based on automobile ownership, separated from their environment using barriers such as walls-fences etc., and differentiating from urban life in terms of physical texture and socio-economy. The basic question to be answered is why people choose to live in these prestige islands. In the this study ,the formation period and formation factors of the gated communities were evaluated with the examples in Konya and the parameters providing user satisfaction in these houses were investigated. With the findings of survey, the models for gated communities in Konya such as Meram Yeni Yol Houses were taken into consideration as the sampling area. The user profile and common characteristics of these houses, the reasons for preferring these houses, the satisfactions of their users were analyzed by the help of polls and oral interviews. In the conclusion chapter, the findings of the poll study from which various results were also derived were evaluated. The reasons for preferring gated communities and user profile were defined, and some foresights and suggestions were made on the future of these houses.

INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, the world has witnessed a series of accelerating changes on technological, scientific, economic, cultural and social areas. By the effects of those changes, new modes of living and new patterns of settlements have been developed and as a result housing forms have changed accordingly. Thus, urban spaces were pushed to be in a dynamic process to adapt those changes. Besides its immutable place in forming urban spaces and societies, home, as being the center of the world, has always been on the agenda with its importance in people's lives. Thus, besides only being physical shelters, housing environments have variety of meanings attributed to them in addition to their power of giving shape to social interactions. Therefore, the analyses of residential areas seem to be critical for the evaluation of social and cultural composition of cities for humanity. Gated communities have emerged as new forms of residential settlements due to these changing urban dynamics.

Gated communities are defined as “residential areas with restricted access such that normally public spaces have been privatized” (Blakely and Snyder, 1997). These types of settlements are the reflections of a border between public and private and they require private planning, and a micro-local government. Gooblar (2002) explains the notion of gated

communities similar to Blakely and Snyder (1997) and suggests that they are the developments, which focus on residential environments where there is restricted access and the public spaces are privatized. A number of factors have contributed to the widespread proliferation of these communities around the world. Among the most prominent factors include the need for privacy, exclusivity, conveniency, and a growing desire on the part of residents to be segregated from other sectors of society (Dillon, 1994; Low, 2001; Marcuse, 1997; Wilson-Doenges, 2000; Roitman, 2003). The most common worldwide explanation, however, for the growth of these enclaves is the increasing fear of urban crime and violence (Atkinson and Flint, 2004; Landman, 2000; Landman and Schonteich, 2002). In the past two decades they become popular and widespread residential forms in almost all metropolises around the world and there has been a remarkable growth in this number. However, gated communities differ from country to country, from city to city, and from development to development, and the reasons for their appearance are nearly the same. The types of gated communities differ from each other according to the issues and degrees of amenities, exclusivity and security. Blakely and Snyder (1997a; 1997b) classify gated communities in three basic categories that are based on the primary motivation of their residents. In this typology, there are 3 main categories, viz. lifestyle communities, prestige communities and security zone communities. For example, lifestyle communities are very much developed in South California, US, by retired communities (Blakely and Snyder, 1997b). South Africa has lots of examples of security zone communities because of high rate of crime in the country (Landman, 2000). Gated communities in Turkey are examples of prestige communities because of their target user profile that is high- income group (Arradamento, 2003). Prestige gated communities are conceptualized, represented, and envisioned as affluent fortress islands of prestige (Blakely and Snyder, 1999). Prestige communities are not only housing settlement places for people to live. They also involve sports facilities, shopping areas, swimming pools, parks, gardens, playgrounds for children, restaurants and similar areas which meet the daily needs of the residents. Thus, they make “public” needs “private” for residents; they are located disjointedly in the city center or on the city peripheries; they are separated from the city and other city residents by their security barriers (walls, doors, cameras, security staff etc.) and they are in general places where people in the same income group live (Yıldız, 2011). Those residential areas have impacts on the surroundings they are located. These impacts can be figured out as restricting access, causing some social inequalities, discrimination and segregation.



Gated communities are frequently criticized and treated as an indicator of increasing levels of social division (Calderia, 1996) and by increasing the privatism they are charged to destroy traditional community ties of neighborliness, community and cohesion.

Because of the above mentioned reasons, the issue of gated communities raises important questions about the future forms of urban development. The purpose of this study is to examine the emerging process of prestige gated communities in Turkey, and in Konya specifically, and to determine the reasons for the preference for these housing settlements. The Konya Meram Yeniyol Residences, which appeal to high-income groups, were chosen for the stated purposes of the present study.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

Production and Marketing of Prestige Communities in Turkey

The rise of prestige gated communities in Turkey can be considered as a relatively recent development. In the 1980s, especially after 1984, when neo-liberal economy policies and related urbanization policies were adopted, a new housing style and approach emerged alongside new consumption habits and life styles.

Gated communities are the fastest growing housing types in the 21st century. They; (i) represent the hope of security; (ii) appeal to consumers searching for a sense of community and identity; (iii) offer an important niche marketing strategy for developers in a competitive environment; (iv) keep out the unwelcome; (v) often come associated with attractive amenities; and (vi) increase property values (Blakely and Synder, 1997a; 1997b; 1999; Mcgoey, 2003; Townshend, 2002; Webster, 2002). Gating a housing estate is a way for developers to market a property as more exclusive. For developers, they can be a marketing angle, another way to target specific submarkets. Developers build gated communities to meet niche markets: demand for security-by-design, for prestige living and for life-style of community living (Webster, 2002). For some property owners, gating is a mechanism to protect property values from being affected by changes in the city. For many urban planners, prestige gated communities represent a physical withdrawal from civic, urban life (Gooblar, 2002). These settlements come complete with swimming pools, tennis courts, horse riding and golf facilities. The demand for living with people of the same social and economic status was also effective in the development of these kinds of gated communities (Yıldız, 2011). This “enclosed world” which contains the swimming pool, the restaurant, a sports center and a kindergarten as well as the

The Increase of Prestige Gated Communities in Consumption Culture and the Reasons for Their Increasing Popularity

homes, functions unfailingly. This is because this functioning increases the speed of capital returns in private sector investment. Such housing is an attractive investment for the private sector. These enterprises, all details about which are pre-determined, promise their users security and privilege; ownership becomes a tool for social status. As above-mentioned, it is important to quickly transform the production into benefit and use for it to be a source for new investments. In this sense, new relations emerged which accelerated the buying of houses. In other words, people who lived in the city center became dissatisfied with a crowded, polluted space dense with traffic. They came to prefer luxury housing estates far from the city center. These housing estates are preferred not only because they present a new accommodation style but also because they present a new way of life; a new fashion was created, a new social environment. The above-mentioned modern life style triggered individuals to live a consumption-oriented life (Bilgin, 2002), (Figure 1).

32



Figure 1.
The magazines of prestige gated communities



The Development Process of Prestige Communities in Konya

Konya encounters serious problems among which the need for shelter and hence urban residential land are more pronounced. The main reason for this problem is the rapid urbanization of Turkey particularly in the 1960s and 1970s, which resulted in an increase in population concentration in big cities. Tekeli (1998) defines the changes on urban development and scale beginning from the mid 1960s in Turkey. These changes can be put forward as social stratification within urban centers and the increase in the size of urban settlements. Throughout the 1980s, Turkish cities had a transformation from a homogeneous structure into a heterogeneous formation (Bilgin, 1988; Tekeli, 1991). After 1980s, gated communities housing estates which appeal to the upper-intermediate and upper classes started to rise in Konya. Overcrowded city centers created major problems such as car parking, environmental pollution, insufficient green areas and traffic problems. The dense urban fabric and problems in Konya caused high-income groups to move out of the city center. Luxuriously equipped gated communities estates (with car parking areas, green areas, kindergartens, swimming pools etc.) were built in Meram, which is near the city center. Settlements were not constructed very far from the city because of transportation problems. Over time, upper income groups began to move to areas outside of the city center because of the land shortage. These luxury housing estates were constructed by big enterprises, with designers and architects who work on their behalf, in line with the market's demand and its marketing anxiety. New speedy production techniques (tunnel mould etc.), prefabricated façade elements, the imported and domestic luxury materials (such facings as metal, marble, ceramics, granite etc., reflective glass) were used in these projects.

It is seen that secure housing estates, which have increased in number in big cities, have also increased in number in Konya. Safety, having the "neighborhood" that were nostalgic for you and having neighborhood relations are the most emphasized features of these housing settlements when they are marketed. Gated communities estates which are self-sufficient have increase rapidly in number in the Havzan region of the Meram district, the new settlement region, Real-Otogar, of the Selçuklu district and other districts of the city (Figure 2).

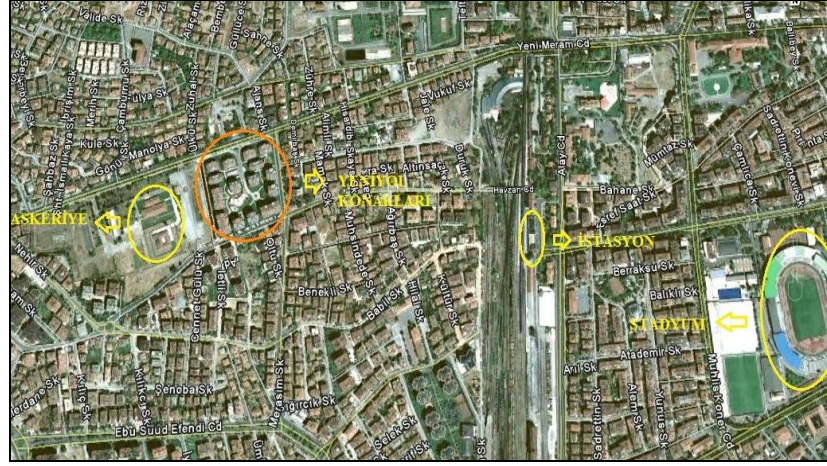


Figure 2.
Prestige gated communities in Konya

Definition of the Research Area

Gated communities estates, which have recently increased in number, do not only increase across Turkey, but also specifically in Konya. The main purpose of this study is to analyze the effects of this spatial and social situation on the users who live in these housing estates. For the purposes of the present study, the Meram Yeniyol Residences, one of the gated community estates designed for the upper-income group over the past 5-6 years, were examined; and the reasons why users prefer these housing estates were analyzed. Meram Yeniyol Residences is a housing estate which is 5 km away from the city center and located in Havzan Town of the Meram district in the Konya province (Figure 3). The construction of the housing estate was begun in 2006 by the Okyanus Group and it was terminated in 2007. The entire housing estate covers an area of 26.000 m². It consists of self-contained villas and apartment blocks. There are 156 luxury houses in the project which has a closed area of 58.000 m² (Figure 4).

Figure 3.
Location of Meram Yeniylol
Residence



There is a fitness center, sauna, Turkish bath, steam room, shock pool, massage saloon, hairdresser, cafeteria, game and rest room, a small mosque and a mini market in the social facility building of the housing estate. There is a decorative pool, walking and running tracks and bicycle tracks in the open area as well as a tea garden and a kindergarten (Figure 5).

The housing estate is monitored 24 hours a day by the security staff. The parking area has a capacity for 400 cars and is in the basement. A green space is surrounded by the buildings. There are social facilities, a tea garden and a kindergarten in this area. The living spaces have a view of the middle area which was organized with the aim of recreation. Meram Yeniylol Residences consist of 15 blocks and a total of 156 flats.

The houses in the housing estate cost nearly 350.000-450.000 TL. Their rent cost 1.500-2.000 TL. Condominium costs 450 TL. Generally doctors and tradesmen live in the housing estates. Permission of the manager of the housing estate was asked in order to conduct the questionnaire. The questionnaires were completed in 28 days by making face-to-face negotiations. Questionnaires were conducted with totally 45 houses in the Meram Yeniylol Residences, composing 29% of the sample area as the housing estate consists of 156 flats.

The Increase of Prestige Gated Communities in Consumption Culture and the Reasons for Their Increasing Popularity



Figure 4.
General view of Meram Yeni Yol Residences

36



Figure 5.
The views of sports fields and social interaction areas



Figure 5.

The Underlying Reasons Inducing People to Live in Prestige Communities

Residents of the Meram Yeniyol Residences were asked some questions in the questionnaire about the house and environment of the house in order to measure their satisfaction and to determine the factors which were effective for them in their preference for living in these housing estates.

The participants of the study were asked whether they found these residences to be “luxury” or not; and 88% answered “yes” (Table 1). When they were asked about the criteria which make these houses luxury, they first cited the security unit, the sufficient social equipment and the large garden (Table 2). They also cited the beautiful appearance, quality materials and the large and useful spaces as their criteria for that luxury.

Table 1.

The participants of the study were asked whether they found these residences to be “luxury” or not

Residences luxury or not;	Meram Yeniyol Residences	
	N	%
Yes	38	88
No	5	12
Total	43	100

Table 2.

Which make these houses luxury?

Which make these houses luxury	Meram Yenyol Residences	
	N	%
Beautiful appearance	28	9
Decoration	23	6
Furniture	12	3
Number of rooms	14	4
Size	20	6
Quality materials	33	9
Large and useful spaces	22	6
The size of the garden	26	8
Social equipments	34	11
Playground	25	8
Sports facilities	26	8
Security unit	35	11
The Site Team	32	10
Other	5	1
Total	335	100

In the Meram Yenyol Residences, the users were asked to evaluate the indoor size; and more than 80% of the participants found the living room, master bedroom, parents' bathroom, bathroom, kitchen and other spaces sufficient. Forty one percent of the participants found the parents' dressing room and storeroom smaller than they should be. The participants found the spaces mostly sufficient (Table 3).

Table 3.

The users were asked to evaluate the indoor size

Meram Yenyol Residences	AREA						TOTAL
	Small		Sufficient		Big		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Saloon	5	0,13	29	0,80	2	0,07	36
Living room	3	0,07	35	0,93	0	0	38
Parent bedroom	3	0,08	32	0,92	0	0	35
Parent dressing room	13	0,41	18	0,59	0	0	31
Parent bathroom	6	0,16	30	0,84	0	0	36
Children's bedroom	6	0,17	28	0,83	0	0	34
Bathroom	7	0,20	27	0,80	0	0	34
Kitchen	3	0,08	33	0,92	0	0	36
Pantry	13	0,41	18	0,59	0	0	31
Shoes	8	0,29	19	0,71	0	0	27
Entrance hall	14	0,14	86	0,86	0	0	100
Total	81		355		2		438

As is seen in Table 4, when the users in the Meram Yenyol Residences were asked about the criteria which were effective in them choosing these residences, 22% of the residents

showed security as the reason, 16% showed social facilities, 12% showed sports facilities, 11% stated that it was the landlord, 9% showed the garden, 8% showed the fresh air and 7% showed the increase in their incomes.

As is seen in Table 4, criteria for choosing these houses were evaluated. The most effective criteria in preferring these houses are 24-hour security, the social equipment and the recreation areas, while the criteria which are less effective are the landlord, the increase in incomes, fresh air; and the least effective criteria are not loving the previous neighborhood, the small size of the previous house, noise and traffic, the distance from school and disputes with neighbors.

Table 4.
Reasons for choosing these houses

Reasons for choosing these houses	Meram Yenyol Residences	
	N	%
Previous housing is smaller	8	6
Increase to property	9	7
Reduction to tangible	0	0
Close to school	0	0
Deplore the previous quarter	4	2
Noise and traffic	7	4
Dispute with neighbors	1	1
Own property	16	11
Garden to be	15	9
Social facilities to be	26	16
Sports facilities to be	20	12
For safety reasons	35	22
For fresh air	14	8
Other	4	2
Total	159	100

As is seen in Table 5, the participants in the Meram Yenyol Residences evaluated the features of the housing estate's environment with a 5-point scale method by grading them as very good, good, average, bad, very bad.

The features which were effective for the participants in choosing this housing estate and which they evaluate as very good are as follows: the housing estate is safe (58.5 %); it has sports facilities (55.2%); it is decent (50%); it is refreshing (50%); it is well kept (45.23%); the car parking facility is adequate (40.5); and it is well organized (40.5%). According to the questionnaire results, the criteria that the participants evaluate as very bad are as follows: quality building (7.7%); adequate car parking (7.14%); adequate green area (5.26%); little population (5.4%); and fresh air (5.12%). The percentages of features that the users evaluate as good and good enough are

similar. The percentages of features evaluated as very good are very high. In line with this result, it is seen that the participants in this survey of the Meram Yenyol Residences are generally satisfied with the features of the immediate environment of their houses.

Table 5.
The features which were effective for the participants in choosing this housing estate

Meram Yenyol Residences	The features of the housing estate's environment										
	Very bad		Bad		Average		Good		Very good		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
It is decent	0	0,0	1	2,38	3	7,14	17	40,47	21	50	42
It is well organized	0	0,0	0	0,0	14	33,4	11	26,1	17	40,5	42
It is well kept	1	2,38	3	7,14	4	9,52	15	35,71	19	45,23	42
It is refreshing	0	0,0	0	0,0	8	19,1	13	31	21	50	42
It is interesting original	1	2,63	0	0,0	13	34,2	14	36,9	10	26,3	38
The housing estate is safe	0	0,0	2	4,87	1	2,43	14	34,1	24	58,5	41
availability of sports facilities	0	0,0	0	0,0	6	15,8	11	29	21	55,2	38
having less noise	2	5	1	2,5	9	22,5	14	35	14	35	40
It is quality building	3	7,7	5	12,9	7	18	14	35,9	10	25,7	39
Comfort and Functionality of the dwellings	0	0,0	3	7,32	6	14,6	19	46,34	13	31,70	41
It has fresh air	2	5,12	0	0,0	6	15,3	18	46,15	13	33,4	39
no population problem	2	5,4	2	5,4	12	32,4	12	32,4	9	26,4	37
having adequate green areas	2	5,26	1	2,63	11	29	13	34,21	11	29	38
The car parking facility is adequate	3	7,14	3	7,14	4	9,52	14	33,4	18	42,85	42

EVALUATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

As a result of the questionnaires and interviews), it was determined that the educational and economic levels of the families living in the housing estate were high. It was observed that the residents were generally tradesmen, freelancers or high-ranking officials. It was determined that the residents also owned other houses apart from the one they lived in.

First of all, the general satisfaction level of the residents was sought concerning the features of their houses. General satisfaction levels were examined under 2 categories: indoor and outdoor. According to the questionnaire results, it was seen that the residents of Meram Yenyol Residences had positive opinions and their satisfaction levels varied between 80% and 90%. Consequently, living in these kinds of gated communities estates satisfy people. For this reason, collective housing in the form of housing estates enriched with social facilities is a valid form of production. In addition to the physical features of these housing estates, the socio-economic structures of the users, their cultural



backgrounds, their expectations from the houses, the feelings of safety, having good relations with their neighbors in a homogenous community provided them with satisfaction in relation to where they live.

CONCLUSIONS AND PROPOSITIONS

The main argument for the construction of gated communities is the safety factor; however the main reason why these housing estates have multiplied is the life style, the “elite” factor. It is possible to say that life style and the elite factor are the main triggers for their construction besides the fear of crime. The “World of Privileges”, is the key concept and there are none of the negative associations of “the real world” or “real life” in this world. Such places are designed for the idealized life of the individual. Only persons who can “pay the price for it” can enter inside and the possibility of encountering unwanted situations is eliminated. Here is a place where the demands of individuals are enhanced when compared to the rest of society. Possessing such a house means being involved in a supposed abstract world of upper-class consumption group of the world; and sharing the same life style with them (Yıldız, 2011).

No matter which reasons are given, the above-mentioned enclosures which were created have caused a social and spatial separation; they (besides being secured self-enclosed house settlements) codify urban spaces and transform them to places “which cannot be stepped out of” for elites and phobic places “which cannot be stepped into” for others. This situation creates social division.

Consequently, despite the positive and negative aspects of gated communities estates, we can say that the expectations for the spaces and environments of these houses which presently appeal to upper-income groups will also become the widespread expectations among lower-income groups; positive spatial changes will become general expectations in time and they will affect the environments designed for other income groups.

It is now well documented that gated communities can be seen as a response to the fear of crime [Atkinson and Flint, 2004] but other drivers also appear significant. In particular the desire for status, privacy and the investment potential of gated dwellings all form important aspects of the motivation to live behind gates. For many housing researchers drawn to new social problems and forms, gated communities appear a profoundly interesting and relatively new object of study in the European context.

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CULTURAL IDENTITY IN CONTEMPORARY TURKISH ARCHITECTURE CASE STUDY IN KONYA

Fatih Canan
Selçuk Sayın
Mustafa Korumaz

Abstract

Today in many countries, new solutions and trends in architecture field to express cultural identity against the pressure of internationalism appear in different qualitative values. In the example of Turkey, even today, if the problem of the identity affirmation in architecture continues, in fact, the historical origin of this problem coincides with the last period of the Ottoman Empire and early Republican period. Since the 20s to today, we can see the efforts to reflect national and modern identity in architectural designs, especially in public buildings.. In this study, firstly, the relationship between architecture and identity will be examined. Then after, buildings reflecting identity trends designed by famous architects such as Sedat Hakkı Eldem and Turgut Cansever from different periods in Turkey will be presented. The current architectural achievements in the generality of our country will be reviewed

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by a critical perspective. The city of Konya will be chosen for the special study areas. These buildings are banks, administrative and culture buildings. Trend analysis of identities in the current architectural achievements will be realized taking into account the following criteria: the metaphor, interpretation - synthesis and direct imitation. The architectural elements belonging to the Seljuk Empire that Konya was the capital between 11 th and 13 th century, will be frequently present in the selected samples. In conclusion, the defended ideas will be the following: New products of art and architecture should always be designed with an original and innovative approach. The use of direct imitation in new architectural achievements to establishing a link with the past does not always positive effect on architectural quality. The historic architectural elements used in order to create an identity in modern architecture should be interpreted with caution.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, the world has witnessed a series of accelerating changes on technological, scientific, economic, cultural and social areas. By the effects of those changes, new modes of living and new patterns of settlements have been developed and as a result housing forms have changed accordingly. Thus, urban spaces were pushed to be in a dynamic process to adapt those changes. Besides its immutable place in forming urban spaces and societies, home, as being the center of the world, has always been on the agenda with its importance in people's lives. Thus, besides only being physical shelters, housing environments have variety of meanings attributed to them in addition to their power of giving shape to social interactions. Therefore, the analyses of residential areas seem to be critical for the evaluation of social and cultural composition of cities for humanity. Gated communities have emerged as new forms of residential settlements due to these changing urban dynamics.

Gated communities are defined as "residential areas with restricted access such that normally public spaces have been privatized" (Blakely and Snyder, 1997). These types of settlements are the reflections of a border between public and private and they require private planning, and a micro-local government. Gooblar (2002) explains the notion of gated communities similar to Blakely and Snyder (1997) and suggests that they are the developments, which focus on residential environments where there is restricted access and the public spaces are privatized. A number of factors have contributed to the widespread proliferation of these communities around the world. Among the most prominent factors include the need for privacy, exclusivity, conveniency, and a growing desire on the part of residents to be segregated from other sectors of society

(Dillon, 1994; Low, 2001; Marcuse, 1997; Wilson-Doenges, 2000; Roitman, 2003). The most common worldwide explanation, however, for the growth of these enclaves is the increasing fear of urban crime and violence (Atkinson and Flint, 2004; Landman, 2000; Landman and Schonteich, 2002). In the past two decades they become popular and widespread residential forms in almost all metropolises around the world and there has been a remarkable growth in this number. However, gated communities differ from country to country, from city to city, and from development to development, and the reasons for their appearance are nearly the same. The types of gated communities differ from each other according to the issues and degrees of amenities, exclusivity and security. Blakely and Synder (1997a; 1997b) classify gated communities in three basic categories that are based on the primary motivation of their residents. In this typology, there are 3 main categories, viz. lifestyle communities, prestige communities and security zone communities. For example, lifestyle communities are very much developed in South California, US, by retired communities (Blakely and Synder, 1997b). South Africa has lots of examples of security zone communities because of high rate of crime in the country (Landman, 2000). Gated communities in Turkey are examples of prestige communities because of their target user profile that is high-income group (Arradamento, 2003). Prestige gated communities are conceptualized, represented, and envisioned as affluent fortress islands of prestige (Blakely and Synder, 1999). Prestige communities are not only housing settlement places for people to live. They also involve sports facilities, shopping areas, swimming pools, parks, gardens, playgrounds for children, restaurants and similar areas which meet the daily needs of the residents. Thus, they make “public” needs “private” for residents; they are located disjointedly in the city center or on the city peripheries; they are separated from the city and other city residents by their security barriers (walls, doors, cameras, security staff etc.) and they are in general places where people in the same income group live (Yıldız, 2011). Those residential areas have impacts on the surroundings they are located. These impacts can be figured out as restricting access, causing some social inequalities, discrimination and segregation. Gated communities are frequently criticized and treated as an indicator of increasing levels of social division (Calderia, 1996) and by increasing the privatism they are charged to destroy traditional community ties of neighborliness, community and cohesion.

Because of the above mentioned reasons, the issue of gated communities raises important questions about the future forms of urban development. The purpose of this study is to

examine the emerging process of prestige gated communities in Turkey, and in Konya specifically, and to determine the reasons for the preference for these housing settlements. The Konya Meram Yeniyol Residences, which appeal to high-income groups, were chosen for the stated purposes of the present study. The architectural styles of some buildings recently constructed in Turkey reflect “eclectic” approaches to the creation of cultural identity in the name of historical reminiscence. Although most construction projects are publicly funded, the major decision-making powers are exercised by a small number of executives. Executives of municipalities and major public institutions are especially supportive of the eclectic use of historical architectural elements in contemporary architecture and do not perceive any conflict in such approaches. Such kinds of architectural applications, which are considered nice services offered to public may have been situated in important centers of cities, on valuable lands of transforming area and even in touristic spaces. Artistic and architectural knowledge, cultural, politic opinions and worldviews of decision-making authorities can influence the emergence of such architectural practices. From our perspective, such executives play a leading role in shaping those architectural products by giving messages to inhabitants, such as, “how full of beautiful and rich architectural examples our past was, we need to revive our ancient architecture and we must be proud of these”. In a scientific sense, however, the accuracy and ethical dimensions of those messages are disputable. The matter of how the symbolic and meaning dimensions of modern buildings that are considered reminiscent of historical buildings take part in public memory must be excogitated. The boundary between real historicity, originality, synthesis-interpretation and simple replica must be determined appropriately. These kinds of practices and associated historical misrepresentation may pose ethical problems. The influences of those practices, on city memory and the generation of the artistic and architectural culture of society, must be evaluated over the long-term. The study has been tried to take place within that problem area.

The study examines a variety of historical emulations evident in the forms and façade compositions of public buildings recently constructed in Konya city, Turkey. Selected examples were designed in line with the demands of public sector executives within the Konya city administration. The buildings are analyzed based on form and façade arrangements, originality, direct imitation and innovation. Form, façade arrangement and decorative elements, which are effective on the outer perception

of buildings, were researched in detail and attempts were made to identify their similarities and differences.

2. Cultural Identity, Globalization and Architectural Identity

Identity consists of all the factors that influence an individual's unique persona, incorporating human-specific indications, qualification and features. Identity can be defined as non-cliché, rare qualifications (İnceoğlu 2004). People or societies are generally identified according to some of their distinct characteristics that are common to large groups of people, in order to answer the question, "Who are you?". It is possible to classify the identity notion as below (Dönmez 2006):

- 1- Personal Identity (Who am I?)
- 2- Psychosocial Identity (Who are we?)
- 3- National Cultural Identity (in what culture or nation we are included?)

Via identity, a social feature is desired to be emphasized, such as: religious, secular, traditional, scientific, linguistic (lingual), political, national identities etc.

2.1. Culture, Cultural Identity and Globalization

Samuel von Pufendorf, who lived in the 17th century, used the notion of culture in a manner similar to its current significance, stating that culture is a work of all people that are against nature and emerge within an apparent social context. Kant, the famous German philosopher, also identified the culture at the end of the 18th century in a close sense, stating that culture itself comprises the whole of the aims and ideals that people actualize freely owing to self-rational and logical soul. Herder, the German philosopher who is the real originator of the concept of culture developed in age of enlightenment, defined culture as "a lifestyle of a nation, a public or a community" (Özkul 2005).

Culture is the most significant and notable element that identifies a person or people. Cultural identity shows the belonging to cultural values of a person or community. Cultural identity is manifested in the desire to conserve and sustain manners, customs, morality and language. Basic elements that generate cultural identity can be inherited from family and society; New values could be incorporated into cultural identity via new experiences and knowledge via education.

Culture is a concept that is open to interaction and development, and therefore change and transformation is often seen in world history. Such interactions and changes may be regarded positively and, equally, as threatening, as in current perceptions of globalization.

Globalization has provided mutual interaction among different cultures. In order to perceive globalization in a positive way, those interactions should occur in a balanced manner, but presently often occur in a one-way manner, dominated by certain cultural themes. The “cultural codes” and “culture models” of the countries that keep the power of cultural information production especially in publishing have a significant oppressive impact on other countries. Globalization has facilitated a one-way transfer from dominant cultures, leading to monotony in life-sustaining habits, fashion, art and architecture. In such an environment, peoples all over the world have made efforts to embalm their cultural identities in very different fields and exhibit reactive behavior.

2.2. Identity Concept in Architecture

A society can reflect its values to large masses via architecture in an explicit and easy way. Architectural products can transfer an ideology or opinion that is frozen-in-time (Tay, 1995). Architectural products that are considered to have been inherited from the past, and are seen as cultural heritage, portray concrete values reflecting the national and cultural identity of a society. Nowadays, societies want also to boast about being modern and progressive.

Architectural and identity issues must be considered, not only through the values of the past, but also through desired and idealized values. Particularly when discussing the role of architecture in identity in the present, the first two concepts that spring to mind are traditionalism and modernism. It is seen today that people cannot abandon these two concepts in a rooted way; instead, they want to have both of them in their lives in a sort of way. In many cities all over the world, especially in urbanism that reflect a synergy between these two value systems (Photo 1). Architectural products that are inherited from the past and convey historical values are reflections of social identities. Conservation and preservation of these structures come true with a nostalgic emotion and reflexing.

Photo 1: *The Louvre Pyramid in the main courtyard of the Louvre Palace (Paris, 2005)*



The identity of an architectural product may be labeled with the culture of the society that generates it. Architectural act creates a thing that does not exist in the nature. It is an

original cultural product, brought into existence by humans. Historically, architectural products were shaped according to the climatic, topographic and cultural characteristics of a region.

The perception of the world varies between cultures, and therefore introduced original approaches in the interpretation of architectural space. In different regions that share the same climatic characteristics, different architectural products are seen to have been emerged despite the climatic similarity. Architectural identity comprises place and linkage in a natural way. This approach is the most naive and the most original approach to composing architectural identity and is very valuable.

2.3. Searches for Cultural Identity in the Modern Period

Prior to the modern period, the physical conditions (climate, local materials) of an area and cultural features would determine the identity of an architectural product. These two elements have been superseded in the modern period. Particularly during early periods of modernism, architectural identity began to create behaviors such as progressivism, innovative opinions, and the rejection of elements originating from the past. Along with the view that functionality and expedient design would be an ethical approach, notably classic architectural approaches that are seen on the façades of prestigious buildings, were considered non-essential and their use was even regarded as a crime (Vanlı 2007).

Leading modern architects created their theories and practices according to new living conditions (Aksu 2007). Modern architecture developed in rationalist, functionalist and purist ways in the first quarter of the 20th century and became a self-isolating situation. Subsequently, architecture around the world has developed according to modernist paradigms to the present day. The effect of this homogeneity has increased as a result of globalization. Modernism was sometimes accepted as a proud symbol of development, and sometimes an enemy threatening differences and cultural accumulations.

In the early stage of modernism, practices reflecting local features were not supported at all. Local examples incorporating local culture and climate were seen in the work of Finnish architect Alvar Aalto and Mexican Luis Barragán. On the other hand, the Egyptian architect Hassan Fathy, Iraqi Rifat Chadirji and Sedat Hakki Eldem from Turkey supported the role of local physical and cultural values in architecture.

Views and architectural practices supporting the use of features conveying the climatic and cultural identity of an area have emerged since the 1970s (Özkan 1992). Those ideas, in a



general sense, can be expressed as “Regionalism”. Regionalism in architecture criticizes the modern architecture movement in terms of internationalism and content. Regionalism is based on developing design strategies that depend on the region, and incorporate several different approaches (Özkan 1992):

-Vernacularism: conservative vernacularism and new vernacularism (neo-vernacularism)

-Modern Regionalism: concrete regionalism and abstract regionalism

Defenders of vernacularism criticized the modern architectural movement for ignoring local data. Conservative vernacularism has respect for existing traditional architecture and supports its necessity for sustainability. It considered construction techniques and utilization of materials in new architectural practices, of which the best example is the work of Hassan Fathy. Neo-vernacularism, however, takes as reference and source the traditional architecture. It tries to direct modern practices by interpreting the past. The most extensive area of application was found in tourism and cultural architecture

It is possible to classifying modern regionalism as either concrete or abstract regionalism (Özkan 1992); concrete regionalism is also referred to as post-modernism. Post-modern architecture borrows direct adaptations from architecture of the past to achieve an identity for current architectural practices.

Abstract regionalism, on the other hand, aims to ascertain historical architectural elements by making interpretations. Instead of simply imitating a window, a roof or an ornament detail applied in the past without any endeavor, regionalism found it acceptable to evaluate these architectural elements by adding new interpretations in architectural practices. This is not a simplistic approach, and required familiarity with architectural elements inherited from the past, researching their historical depths and developing new opinions and interpretations. Abstract regionalist architecture may be seen as a suitable means of ensuring continuity.

3. Searches for creation of Modern and Local Identities in the Historical Process of Architecture in Turkey

In Turkey’s social structure, there have been unstable periods, hesitations or notable disagreements about the adoption and sustention of modern-universal and local-cultural values. Appropriation of modernism, conservation and sustenance of national-religious values involves inherent dilemmas and conflicts. The geography of Turkey, its history and close relationships with Asia, the Middle East and Europe shaped its identity and were sometimes the cause of identity confusions. Modern architectural practices in Turkey have also been affected

by confusion about cultural identity (Balamir 2003). Architectural practices differentiated affecting from or become responses to certain problems and conflicts experienced throughout the history of the Turkish Republic.

The efforts to create consciously a national architecture occurred during the last periods of the Ottoman Empire. Nationalist trends, that increased from 1908, made new searches in architecture a topical issue. The new classical period in Turkish architecture began with the movement headed by the architects Kemalettin Bey and Vedat Bey, with the “Neoclassic Turkish Style” or National Renaissance in Architecture. The movement, which is generally referred to as the First National Architectural Movement, was more of an attempt to incorporate the use of wide eaves, domes, pointed arches, pillars, overhangs, triangular stalactite (muqarnas) and ceramic coatings, found mostly within old religious buildings, within the civil architecture.

Seljuk and Ottoman architectural elements and ornaments were particularly used in a selective manner. The movement attempted to originate an architectural style that would represent national Turkish identity freeing itself of the effects of other cultures. The effects of this movement were seen more in public buildings and were effective during the last periods of the Ottoman Empire and the first years of the Republic (Sözen 1984).

In the first years of the Republic, the new and young Turkish State desired modernism to be part of its social identity. A period of conflict occurred, related to the matter of being modern in architecture or the continuation of the national style. The first national architecture movement started to lose its influence at the end of the 1920s and Turkey entered a new architectural period. Along with developments in architecture all over the world as of 1927, international modernist effects started to be seen in Turkish architecture. Executives of that period approved and supported such developments, as the modernist identity reflected their own ideology. Despite the reactions of some architects, the design and construction of most public buildings in Ankara, the new capital of the Republic in this time, were given to Austrian and German architects. Those buildings thereby assumed the role of reflecting the Republic’s modern identity. The architects of the first modernist period of the Republic, which was dominant between 1930 and 1940, were Seyfi Arkan (Florya Atatürk Pavilion), Clemens Holzmeister (The Grand National Assembly of Turkey and Supreme Court Building), Paul Bonatz (Ankara Opera House) and Bruno Taut (Faculty of Languages, History and Geography at Ankara University) (Photos 2,3).

Photo 2: *Florya Atatürk Pavilion , 2011*



Photo 3 : *Ankara Opera House, 2011*



The period referred to as the Second National Architectural Movement started between 1940 and 1950. Ultra-nationalist movements, particularly in Germany and Italy, had an impact upon architecture in Europe and Turkey. The inspirer of this movement was respectively civil architecture. Ornamental elements of buildings of that period were narrowly prescribed. The most important representatives of the Second National Architectural Movement were Sedad Hakkı Eldem and Emin Onat. These architects could actualize the synthesis of tradition and modernism with their own unique ways.

The main idea of Sedad Hakkı Eldem, who played a significant role in Republic period-Turkish architecture, was to create architecture which is unique for Turkey (Tanyeli 2001). His original interpretation of traditional architecture, inherited from the past without denying the modern technology, put him in a different place among other architects of that period. He constituted basic principles of unique architecture by interpretation of traditional architecture, using methods of abstraction. He also explicated and used the traditional Turkish architecture forms in the buildings he designed. However, in due time, Sedad Hakkı Eldem found his own level in modernist and internationalist architectural design, suitable for international style. Major works by Sedad Hakkı Eldem include the Istanbul Faculty of Science and Letters (with Emin Onat, 1942–1947) (Photo 4), Ankara University Faculty of Science (1943–1945), Istanbul Courthouse (with Emin Onat, 1948–1971) Social Insurance Institution Complex (1962–1964), Atatürk Library (1973–1975) (Photo 5) and Rahmi Koç House (1975–1980). He played a partial role in the design of the Istanbul Hilton Hotel (1952–1955). The influence of this movement ended in 1950s, as it could not adapt to the requirements and new technologies of the period. Governmental domination of architecture in Turkey subsequently declined and architectural practices entered a period of pluralism.

Since the 1980s, besides, on architectural practices produced within an independent environment in Turkey, discussion began of the loss of character and identity in the built environment. The new dominant architectural character of

growing cities and features of the urban fabric were not pleased for any person. The problem of asserting identity was mentioned in relation to built environments, where complexity and ambiguity were so dominant.

Modernism was blamed for the creation of those objectionable environmental conditions. Two main concerns were discussed in debates of the period (Balamir-2- 2003): the first was based on cultural concern. New residential areas were charged with not reflecting national culture. The second, nevertheless, was that there was not an obviously created conscious identity, not to mention a national one. In both cases, the absence of difference and distinctness was discussed. During those years, post-modernism started to be considered as a denouement for the identity issue in architecture. In the polyphonic and free environment from the 1980s to the end of the 1990s, the ways in which the identity issues in architecture were handled can be seen via buildings of Merih Karaaslan. While defending the new Anatolian synthesis, Karaaslan was implementing collage architecture using adaptations from Greek, Rome, Seljuk and Ottoman arrangements.

54



Photo 4: *Istanbul University Faculty of Science and Letters, 2011*



Photo 5 : *Atatürk Library, İstanbul, 2004*

Another famous Turkish architect, who tried to synthesize historical architecture with modern architectural vision, was Turgut Cansever, who died in 2009. Cansever was one of the rare architects who could implement his unique design ideas, taking a stand against the prevailing architectural perception in Turkey's recent period architectural environment. He struggled to find solutions for the problems of modern architecture and tried to synthesize Turkish architectural traditions with modern architectural perception. To achieve this continuity in his works, he made original interpretations rather

than formal imitations. His major works include: design of Beyazit Square in Istanbul (1958), Turkish Historical Society Building (1951–1967, Ankara, with Ertur Yener) (Photo 6) and Demir Vacation Site (1992) (Photo 7).

Photo 6: Turkish Historical Society Building, Ankara, 2011

Photo 7: Demir Vacation site, Bodrum



4. Cultural Identity Problem in Current Architectural Practices in Konya Examples

Konya city, located in the Central Anatolian Region, is an ancient settlement that has hosted many civilizations since the earliest periods of human history (Figure 1). Konya region had been a settlement place since 7000 B.C. and was ruled during different periods by Hittites, Phrygians, Lydian, Persians, Pergamon, Romans, Seljuks and the Ottoman Empire. Konya had been the capital city of Anatolian Seljuks from 1097 to 1277.

The main cultural heritage of Konya belongs particularly to Seljuks and Ottomans. As in many Turkish cities, the ancient historical architectural elements belonging to these two civilizations have been used recently in Konya in new public buildings implemented by the government authorities and urban administration. Selected examples are located in the important parts of the city.

55

Figure 1: Location of Konya city in Turkey
(<http://www.answers.com/topic/turkey-1>)



4.1. Example Analysis

The New library building and various spatial arrangements in Kültür Park:

The project “Mevlana Culture Valley” initiated by Konya Metropolitan Municipality, has an important function in the transformation works throughout the city. This project was intended to reveal, protect and maintain the historical and cultural properties of Konya city. Located in Konya city center,

Kültür Park, which is one of the oldest and the most important parks of the city, has been rearranged within the scope of this project.

The new library building, the construction of which is ongoing, attracts attention by its massive size and location in the park (photo 8). The form of the building consists of the unity of rectangular prisms of various sizes. The filled parts of the building above the ground floor are white, the windows and the frames are dark color. Dark marble colonnades and wall surfaces are present on the ground floor. The entrance of the building is inside the park and the arrangements based on historical architectural elements are mainly located on that façade.



Photo 8: The new library building in Kültür Park, Konya 2011

Photo 9: The stylized portal in the new library building, 2011

56

As in other examples analyzed, the entrance of the building has been brought forward with a portal, which is one of the main elements of Anatolian Seljuk architecture. Portals, as a symbol of Anatolian Seljuk architecture, were distinctive in the entrances of mosques, madrasas, public houses and caravansaries. Arched doors, mostly with a muqarnas niche, are framed with various forms of masonry borders. Fine masonry ornaments feature the portal as a sculpture. Portals took part in fore mentioned building types as different shapes and sizes including these features. Beautiful examples of portals can be observed in Alâeddin Mosque (photo 10), Sahip Ata Mosque (Photo 11), Karatay Madrasa and Ince Minare Madrasa in Konya.



Photo 10: Portal in Alâeddin Mosque (13th century), Konya, 2001

Photo 11: Portal in Sahip Ata Mosque (13th century), Konya, 2005

The portal of the library building was stylized, taking historical portals as references (Photo 9). The use of a portal entrance on the axis of symmetry attempted to give a monumental characteristic to the building. The lancet arch of the portal and its revelation in an asymmetrical position reflect the originality seek of the architecture. The surface of the entrance gate was designed with a simple, neutral and modern view. The part with the lancet arch consisting the portal and this transparent part create an interesting balance of duty cycle. While examining the whole building, however, the consistency in one part of the portal cannot be seen in the general parts of the building. The pattern lattice system, existing in the traditional architecture on both two sides of the entrance mass, is an eclectic approach. On all façades of the mass in which a modern synthesis is attempted, the presence, below the windows and roofs, of distinctive elements (moldings) used in classical and neoclassical architecture, has a negative effect on the general character of façade composition.

The New Courthouse:

The main entrance of the courthouse once more featured a portal. With white curbs and partition walls on a dominant transparent surface, the traditional portal was isolated and gained a symbolic meaning. The entrance façade as a monumental character and generally follows simple lines. Openings consisting of blue -color glass surfaces and white fillings feature in the façade composition (Photos 12, 13). From our standpoint, parts with bows in the right and left of the façade, the cage surface reminiscent of traditional patterns and the arched parts featuring numerous moldings, are odd in terms of the general composition. Similar consoles are also located on the side façade. The building also features “Buttresses”, which are not necessary to support consoles, and which were used entirely for decorative purposes. In contrast, the rear façades have simple characteristics. On entrance façades and on one part of the side façades of the Konya courthouse building, historical architectural elements are sometimes stylized and sometimes plain. Considering other façades of the mass, about the structure conveys an inconsistency in general meaning.

Photo 12: *General view of the new courthouse, Konya, 2011*



Photo 13: *The stylized portal of the main entrance, Konya, 2011*



Martyrs Memorial:

Martyrs Memorial was built in a historical and touristic area of the city estimating to contribute to tourism and the cultural life of the city. With its location and monumental architectural features, a new symbolic value particularly for the city was tried to be redounded to it (Photo 14).

The spectacular Muqarnas portal of the memorial (Photo15) is located on a pedestrian route, and was constructed of fine stonemasonry featuring a symbolic cupola carried with columns. In order to generate a historical identity, many architectural and decorative elements were used, including: a courtyard identified with interesting columns, ceilings featuring fine woodwork and tiles, including traditional patterns. In the most significant area of the city, near Mevlana Museum, referring to the city's history using such an eclectic approach increases the risk of historical misrepresentation.



Photo 14: *Main entrance of Martyrs Memorial, Konya, 2011*

Photo 15: *Muqarnas detail, Konya, 2011*

The plan of Martyrs Memorial reminds, in a manner, the planning schema of historical madrasa buildings. As for us, the design of a high spiritual space would have been better if it had been designed with a more original rather than a formal mentality.

Municipality Buildings in Konya and Selçuk University:

Konya city center consists of 3 districts. Each district has its own municipality, subsidiary to Konya Metropolitan Municipality. There are 4 municipal buildings in total. The Konya Metropolitan Municipality building was completed at the end of the 1980s (photo 16). The building has a modern architectural language. It is possible to see that approach in the general composition of the mass and in the character of the façades. Only the main entrance door of the building incorporates historical references. In contrast to current practices, this historical reference is, however, of a more humble scale, lacking an impressive effect in mass general.

Photo 16: *Main entrance of Konya Metropolitan Municipality building*



Photo 17: *Main entrance of Meram Municipality building*



Photo 18: *Main entrance of Selçuklu Municipality building*



The main entrance doors of Meram and Selçuklu Town Halls have portals. The gate of the Meram municipal building is located on the main façade, facing the street. On this front, the disproportionate decorative columns evoke ancient Greek columns and have no structural purpose (Photo 17). The portal of the Selçuklu municipal building is smaller. The general character of the building is closer to a post-modern line (Photo 18). Towers in certain places of the mass increase this effect. In Karatay municipal building, direct historical references cannot be observed. The only remarkable architectural element is the conical skylight.

Photo 19: *Main-gate entrance of Selçuk University*



Photo 20: *Main-gate entrance of Selçuk University*

Photo 21: *Main-gate entrance of Selçuk University*



The newly built main entrance to Selçuk University includes a pedestrian overpass linking residences with the campus. An eclectic range of architectural elements was used intensely, in parallel with the wishes of the university administration. There was a desire to emphasize prestige and monumentalism in both formations.

5. Evaluation and Conclusion

Artistic and architectural products have historically taken various influences from previous styles and conventions. Benefitting from the past in the architecture can be generally described as: making the same, taking some parts and interpretation/innovating. Technical opportunities and development processes of the time can entail and legalize benefitting from the past in architecture. The assessments carried out in this study, show that some current arrangements made to create buildings “with identity” consist only of historical adaptations on the façade. The reason of realizing this purpose might be a reaction to the monotony of globalization, concern about making connection with the past, personal satisfaction, or prestige.

60

Offering original solutions by interpretation is necessary to make connection with the past, to ensure historical consistency and to have a legitimate base in architecture. A profound and meaningful evaluation is probably the most convenient approach. In investigating the principle of honesty in architecture in a simple way, it is easy to notice the inconsistencies in the buildings that use direct imitation. Providing consistency in solutions by interpreting historical architectural elements seems more possible. Originality depends entirely on the degree of interpretation. Plans, façade organizations and mass rates of ancient architectures in current original architectural practices are conformed through synthesis following detailed examination.

The pretension of new buildings to be inherited from the past causes mistakes, chaos and problems of originality. The way to benefit from past architecture should not be limited to simply creating visual and monumental effects. Traditional architecture is a source of knowledge that must be applied in order to be able to re-learn currently forgotten ecological approaches. Considering these features of the architectural heritage originated by trial and error can provide much more creative and original solutions.

Contextual consistency plays an important role in current architectural practices based on ancient historical architecture. The thing that is meant by context is to implement an

architectural product in accordance with the space and time. Accordance with space means to consider climate, the existing built environment, field conditions and socio-cultural data. The time factor can be explained as being in accordance with the facts of that era: comfort, function, technology and even artistic pleasure. Cultural identity attributed to architectural products cannot be considered as disconnected.

Obtaining new building designs, representative values of which are high and which are in significant spots of the city, without competition but on order basis, carried out by Municipal administration is an inappropriate approach. Such an approach limits artistic ideas, creativeness and innovation in architecture. Showing resistance to changes is an unacceptable mentality in architecture. Architecture, as a versatile technical and artistic activity, can develop with just courageous and innovative approaches and arouse excitement, as in all ages. We think that current formational aims and esthetic concerns in architecture must be addressed within the scope of technological, economic and ecological realities.

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Evaluation of Law no.6306 from Perspective of Public Spaces – Gezi Park Case

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Abstract

Cities in Turkey, especially Istanbul are under pressure of national and international capital flows which are assigned by free market economy and globalization processes. While the pressure results in partial urban development far from integrated approach, an alternative idea advocating public space has been seen as tilt at windmills. However, a paradigm supporting public place led planning and design and taking public space and public interest forefront in the face of social segregation has been an important issue while legal and administrative arrangements are also very crucial in terms of practicality.

Keywords:

Law no. 6306, Public Spaces, Gezi Park

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This article aims to present the transformation of urban public spaces and define the effects of legal instruments to this transformation. In that context, firstly transformation of public space during historical process is clarified. In that sense, the concept of urban transformation which has become a worldwide vital issue on renewing the city parts suffering from physical and social deterioration is examined comprehensively in Turkish context. After the former processes and legal instruments concerning urban transformation are evaluated, the last approved act called as Law No. 6306 on Transformation of Areas Under Disaster Risk is examined in detail in terms of public ownership and public space approach. In this regard, it is concluded by the study that the law no. 6306 puts the existence of public space and public ownership into risk. On the other hand, it is also seen that conducted urban transformation projects are mostly disconnected from general plans and built without considering social and economic aspects because of market oriented planning, capital flows and partial planning which cause greater problems by creating short term solutions instead of long term.

When the Gezi Park process and related questionnaires conducted for the study are evaluated, it is possible to see that public space perception of society changed drastically while the awareness has risen. However, defining public space and its ownership is still such a complicated task for citizens. On the other hand, it can be said that society can be a part of public space only when its freedom of thought and expression about urban problems and public interest are assured. Nowadays, preserving public space in our cities developing through free market conditions will be only possible if society could be a part of it and legal instruments can be revised for that purpose.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, cities have offered a place for freedom and accommodated differences. Ideological and social developments have taken place in urban spaces where differences, different cultures and ideologies gathered together. Therefore, significant attention should be paid to public-oriented planning and design of urban spaces in the face of social segregation and disintegration experienced in cities. However, cities in Turkey are mostly transformed under the pressure of international and national capital.

The most recent legal instrument governing urban redevelopment, the Law no. 6306 on Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk contains quite controversial provisions

relating to many paradigms. Its uncertainty over public property and public spaces, and the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning as the sole authority in this field leave all the public spaces at “risk”. Gezi Park, a ‘saved’ public space in the backdrop of protests, is still exposed.

This study browses through the literature on public spaces and urban redevelopment, while evaluating the Law no. 6306 on Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk. Thereafter, the perception of public space is evaluated from the perspective of different segments of society via questionnaires related to Gezi events. The study concludes how actually the aforementioned Law may itself pose risks for our public spaces in the light of experiences gained from Gezi events.

PUBLIC SPACE

Social and political spheres, in other words, private and public spaces, were first separated from each other by Aristotle who argued that citizens existed in two separate spheres: private (idion) and public (koinon). Accordingly, he drew a certain line between them (Uzun 2006:34). Jürgen Habermas, a prominent thinker, similarly describes public sphere as the sphere characterized by processes, instruments and spaces of private people who come together as a public to discuss on a common issue and engage in a rational debate, following which they create a common opinion, i.e., the public opinion (Habermas 1995:64). Public space, while accommodating a public opinion, offers a space where people can interact, communicate and socialize. Therefore, it is significant as an arena of social life, therefore, of urban space.

City as a notion is primarily associated with the production of a public sphere where social changes and interactions take place. This is why cities, throughout history, have been the space for freedoms and witnessed co-habitation of differences. Ideological and social differences have always emerged in an urban public space that harbored a diversity of cultures and thoughts. (Bilsel 2009:2).

Recently, our cities have been relentlessly dominated by globalization and free market economy, gradually resigning themselves to the control of more withdrawn, self-enclosed spaces. Contemporary urban planning processes are also challenged by such an issue which, in fact, is the indication of social and spatial segregation. Thus, urban planning, together with its processes such as design and preparation, has an important role in creating channels of re-integration, re-

development of common grounds, and re-construction of urban, spatial and social frameworks (Keskinok 2009:1).

Public spaces are owned by the public sector. Urban public places, by “being” public in essence, are basically the most critical instrument of urban redevelopment because they belong to the public who can monitor the processes of redevelopment and operation. Therefore, they can be redeveloped through the participation of citizens, the true owners of the cities. Urban redevelopment processes should be considered an opportunity for urban residents to have a say on, and to claim, today and the future. The most lucrative tool to evaluate and promote this opportunity is actually offered by the “public” qualities of public spheres. (Otaner and Keskin 2005:108)

Described as “public spaces”, social and technical infrastructure areas play a significant role in preparation of local physical plans. As per Law no 3194, Construction Regulation on Spatial Plans was enacted on 04.06.2014 after the regulation on Principles Regarding Plan Construction applicable as of 02.11.1985. According to this regulation, social infrastructure areas include medical, educational, religious, cultural and administrative facilities as well as green spaces such as parks and playgrounds, squares and recreation areas. Technical infrastructure covers transmission lines of electricity, oil and natural gas, drinking water and utility water facilities, underground and surface purification plants, sewages, waste treatment plants, transformers as well as facilities built to provide energy, transportation and communication services and parking lots or parking garages. The impact of globalization on cities has also affected this regulation which stipulated that social and technical infrastructure areas can be built by private sector as well. Therefore, we need to reevaluate the public “aspect” of public “spaces”.

An approach toward urban planning and design that urges “public sphere” may seem quixotic amid free market conditions led by globalization, planning practices way beyond a holistic approach and urban redevelopment leading segregation. However, the “public sphere” paradigm and a planning and design practice grounded on public spheres which pursue “public interests” will maintain its significance in the future. (Bilsel 2009:7).

URBAN TRANSFORMATION AND PUBLIC SPACE IN TURKEY

Having initiated in the Republican era, urbanization movements intensified in the 50’s upon mass migration rendering the current urban infrastructure ineffective to satisfy

the emerging needs, which is a primary issue among the urbanization-related problems in Turkey. Consecutive emergence of squatter settlements in urban peripheral areas also coincides with the 50's. (Kütük İnce, 2006:49). Again in the same period, public property, which in no way belonged to the "private", was allocated to the new settlers via non-market ways in order to support the market and ensure re-flourishing of labor force. Such squatter settlements are identified to have been among the first areas where the need for urban transformation arose in Turkey. Used as an instrument for market mechanisms, public space was problematically subjected to squatting, instead of being by re-arranged with the purposes of public service provision. Public spaces are well beyond meeting public needs due to minimum production of public spaces such as educational and medical facilities, recreational parks and public service buildings, which are all among the requirements of modernization, due to limited resources until the 80's (Bilgin, 2008:4).

Under the particular effect of neoliberal policies, amnesty laws enacted in the 80's for resolution of problems about squatter houses have legalized, and encouraged, squatter settlements developed in the absence of a plan and infrastructure. In the following periods, structures that were erected in Turkey, especially in Istanbul, upon such amnesty laws have shaped the current pattern of urban redevelopment (Dinçer, 2011:44). Moreover, public property and public spheres have seen a newly-emerged wave of privatization, in the backdrop of neoliberal policies, at a domestic and global level. Leading to a series of problems, privatizations of public spaces were made possible through public-private partnerships, build-operate-transfer models, selling or long-term rental of public lands to the private sector, which all resulted in significant changes in the map of urban property, and transformed the urban environment within itself. (Bilgin, 2008:6).

In the 90's, central and local administrations pursued improper urbanization policies and remained incapable of developing urban lands and dwellings. No mechanisms were established to monitor urban structures' compliance with development plans as a result of which unlawful settlements that were horizontally one-floor took on the shape of unlawful settlements vertically multi-floor, increasing the need for urban transformation (Köktürk, Köktürk, 2007:6). However, despite unfavorable political and economic conditions that pervaded the 90's and stagnated urban transformation attempts, the grave



Marmara Earthquake which hit in 1999 brought about the necessity to re-evaluate urban transformation attempts.

The urban transformation process that launched in the shape of recovering squatter settlements in Turkey proceeded with further content which covers equipping historic structures with new functions, reinforcing structures with expired lifecycles or structures in earthquake-prone regions, and re-constructing. These attempts were mostly carried out as urban transformation practices at the structure scale. Publicly-initiated urban transformation practices, which went beyond the structure scale onto spatial scale, only started as of 2004, upon the expansion of the relevant legislation. Yet, what spatial-scale and structure-scale attempts share in common is their preparation that only covers segmental physical arrangements with a lack of proper planning and consideration of social and economic aspects.

Led by free market conditions and globalization, the recent pressure of national and international capital is more prevalent and affects cities in Turkey. Re-initiated today, privatization attempts, constructions of multi-use complexes, attacks by the housing sectors and culture industry, as well as projects such as Marmaray and Yenikapı have been shaping Istanbul. Transformation projects prepared under such pressure have led to unnecessary urban sprawl, devastating historic, cultural and natural heritage, and creation of urban public spaces which do not in essence have the characteristics of the “local”, resulting in inefficient use and waste of public resources that contradict the principle of social and environmental sustainability and that escalate social inequality, exclusion and polarization (Akar, 2006: 37). Additionally, during urban transformation practices, public-private partnerships are observed to have focused on urban centers where urban redevelopment is more attractive and high income is sought for, which is criticized for turning urban transformation projects into an income-sharing model (Köktürk, Köktürk, 2007:7). As the summary of Istanbul’s history of the last 25 years, non-completed projects are resumed to create parks, transport facilities and other social areas which in the past failed to meet the needs of the population, whereas cities and public spaces are transformed through projects on large housing, shopping and business centers led by the pressure of national and international capital (Bilgin, 2008:6). Accordingly, shopping malls which are among the significant areas of the changing urban life have become social areas for leisure activities, which is worth to be analyzed from the perspective of public spaces’ role in planning (Demircioğlu, 2010:79).

**LAW NO. 6306 ON TRANSFORMATION OF AREAS UNDER
DISASTER RISK (URBAN TRANSFORMATION LAW)**

The Turkish legislation for publicly-initiated spatial, rather than structure-scale, urban transformation was introduced and gradually enhanced as of 2004. The first step for the legislation was the project-based Law no. 5104 on North Ankara Entrance Urban Renewal Project which stipulated a mere physical renewal. This was followed by a critical instrument for urban transformation practices, the Law no. 5366 on Usage of Timeworn Historical and Cultural Real Property with Restoration and Protection relating to regions announced to be natural protected areas in 2005 and renewals of such areas in those regions, after which Article 73 of the Municipal Law dated 2005 and numbered 5393, entered into force. This Law set forth the roles and responsibilities of municipalities regarding urban transformation, and considered municipalities as the local tenet for urban transformation. In 2010, the Law no. 5998 on Amending Article 73 of the Municipal Law 2010 was enacted. Lastly, in 2012 the Law No. 6306 on Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk from Perspective of Public Spaces was entered into force for urban transformation as a legal instrument to be executed in all places under the risk of disaster across our country.

The aforementioned law aims to set forth principles and procedures regarding improvement, evacuation and renewal of areas under disaster risk and of lands and plots with structures under risk. Article 2 of the Law defines risky areas and risky structures, the deriving point of the law, according to which “risk areas” could engender loss of lives and property, due to surface structures or settlements, as identified by the Ministry or Administration with the opinions of Disaster and Emergency Management Office, and as agreed on by the Council of Ministers upon the proposal of the Ministry. Structures under risk refer to buildings inside or outside the aforementioned areas, identified to have an expired economic lifecycle or to pose a risk of collapse or being severely destroyed based on scientific and technical data. Reserve development area refers to areas Ministry determines as new settlements to be deployed in implementations to be carried out as per this law.

The Law authorizes the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning for identification of “areas and structures under risk” and “improvement”, “evacuation” and “renewal” of all the country-wide structures in areas under risk. However, it is also ruled that the authority may be granted to local administrations

(municipalities and special provincial administrations) or TOKİ, housing development administration of Turkey, if and when appointed by the relevant Ministry. Moreover, property owners may have their risky buildings identified by institutions and bodies licensed by the Ministry. Nevertheless, what poses a problem in this point is that institutions and bodies of the Ministry, or the Ministry itself, are the sole players in identification of the structures under risk, the subject matter of the Law, and that there is a lack of concretely set-forth parameters to be used during identification. Similarly, while reserve areas are described in the Law, the method and criteria to identify a reserve development area are not outlined.

Moreover, it is decided that the immovable properties within risky areas and reserve development areas including Military Forbidden Zones and Safety Zones which are under the private property of Treasure are allocated to Ministry or transferred to TOKİ and Administration upon the demand of Ministry without charge. Other immovable properties under the property of public agencies are granted and allocated to the Ministry upon Ministry's proposal by asking opinions of public agencies owning properties within the frame of the objectives of this law or can be transferred to Housing Development Administration of Turkey and Administration without any charges. This regulation provides information about the course of how these immovable properties under public property in risky and reserve areas are allocated, while no explanation is provided as to the their function. The decision for immovable properties within public property is left to the discretion of Ministry.

The Ministry is also authorized by the Law to prepare, approve and monitor any plans and projects on the immovable properties with structures under risk, in addition to the power of drawing up and approving plans with "special standards". This means that the Development Law and technical and social infrastructure standards set forth by the Development Law, including special rules, may not be applied and complied with for areas with structures under risk and reserve development areas determined by the Ministry.

Finally, according to Article 9 of the Law no 6306, provisions of twelve different laws, including the Law no. 2863 on Conservation of Cultural and Natural Property, the Coastal Law no. 3621, the Law no. 5366 Usage of Timeworn Historical and Cultural Real Property with Restoration and Protection, the Bosphorus Law no. 2960, will be suspended if they prevent implementation of the Law no. 6306. In other words, in case of a

conflict between the provisions of two equally effective laws, one law will overrule the other within the framework of the hierarchy of norms. However, this article was revoked with Constitutional Court's Decree No E.: 2012/87 and K:2014/41 dated 27/2/2014.

In conclusion, an in-depth look into the legal instruments governing urban transformation demonstrates that urban problems facing earthquake-prone areas are not comprehensively addressed, and that urban transformation projects fail to achieve long-term economic, social and physical improvement of such areas. Moreover, authorities are centralized; local governments are inactivated, while property right which is a constitutional right is violated with these regulations stipulated along with law. Also, the law does not state whether the public property areas will remain public property after transfers, which leads to claims that public property areas meeting basic needs of society with a social mission are disregarded and urban transformation is projected based only on the monopoly of houses. Moreover, observations clearly show that the law focuses on demolishing risky structures in risky and reserve areas, while post-demolishment issues remain uncertain. No explanation is available especially when it comes to the features of buildings to replace risky ones, planning decisions and the harmony with structured, historical and natural environment. No architectural decisions on the area are taken in the master plans prepared pursuant to the law, while all these issues are mentioned in "Urban Design Project" in plan notes. Construction Regulation on Spatial Plans defines the concept of Urban design project as a project with a proper scale that contains mass and settlement arrangements or outdoor arrangements, builds connections for vehicle transport, parking lots, service and pedestrian circulation, outlines the relation of structures, streets, texture and outdoor green areas as well as urban furniture, handles infrastructural elements with an integral approach, expresses features of meaning and identity, includes principles and instruments of design by taking into account the natural, historical, cultural, social and economic features and land structure.

Istanbul Infrastructure and Urban Transformation Office, operating under the roof of the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning, prepared a map titled 'Distribution of Risky Reserve Development Areas in the Province of Istanbul' (Figure 1) which maps out the risky areas and reserve development areas. According to the map, the Ministry declared risky areas of a total 1106,25 ha in different spots of the city. Majority of the

risky areas are located on the European side, while Gaziosmanpaşa and Bağcılar should be highlighted regarding the size of their risky areas with potential urban transformation projects. Furthermore, the risky area in Tozkoparan Neighborhood of Güngören (14th Office of Council of State, Decree No: 2014/4480) and the risky area in Çamlıtepe (Derbent) Neighborhood of Sarıyer (13th Office of State of Council, Decree No: 2013/4163) are revoked by the State of Council as how structures pose a risk of life and property loss cannot be determined clearly, as a result of the lawsuits on areas declared risky that are brought by associations formed by inhabitants of the area. Lawsuits brought against the declaration of risky areas of Bağlarbaşı, Yenidoğan, Sarıgöl in Gaziosmanpaşa and Cumhuriyet Neighborhood in Sultangazi are stillpremdm proceeded.

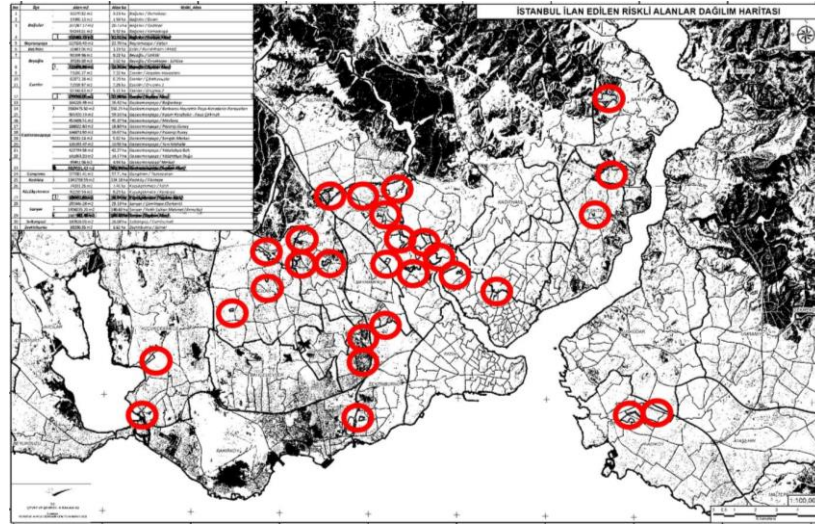


Figure 1.

The most controversial area declared as a risky area in the map is Etiler (Beşiktaş) Vocational High School for the Police Force. The process began when the school in the (32,000 m²) area was demolished and public property was transferred. Then the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning approved the master plan modifications pertaining to building residential areas, areas for shopping malls and business centers on 26.12.2012. However, trade associations brought lawsuits against the master plan rendering a public area available to structuring with the function of housing and trade. Following that, the area was declared risky on Jul 24, 2013 as per the Law No. 6306. Debates arise upon the master plan modification in the area and declaration of area as risky following the lawsuits brought later on and regard the exercise of authorities for public property granted by Law No. 6306 to the Ministry. This is exactly what makes the aforementioned law controversial. According to

the law, any public area may be declared risky or an unsettled public area may be stripped off its public nature by being declared as a reserve development area. (The law authorizes solely the Ministry in all the procedures related therewith.) Therefore, all the public spaces are under threat of this Law: the true risk for such areas is the Law no. 6306 itself.

At this point, it becomes obvious that all public areas intended to be used for a different function can be declared as “risky area”. Although public housing regulations and case laws contain provisions protecting public areas, some social responses like those experienced in Gezi Protests during May and June 2013 might arise to protect public areas.

GEZI PARK TRANSFORMATION AND PROTESTS

The greatest component of the Taksim Square redevelopment project involves taking the traffic underground and supposedly making the square pedestrian-friendly (by building giant ramps at several boulevards around the square and directing the traffic to subterranean tunnels underneath the square). However, the more controversial and arguably absurd part of the plan is the destruction of Gezi Park. Prime Minister Erdoğan intended to see the Park demolished so that the “Taksim Topçu Kışlası” (Taksim Artillery Barracks) and its courtyard could be reconstructed. The barracks, built between 1803 and 1806, was the most prominent structure in the Taksim area upon its completion. In 1920s, however, the barracks became defunct and was evacuated. The courtyard was turned home to the first football stadium in Istanbul that host important soccer games.

During the reign of İsmet İnönü, the second president of the Republic, the city, and Taksim square in particular, grew under modernist principles. An international contest was held for the land-use of the city, and the plans by Henri Proust, one of the contesters, which involved re-organization of Taksim Square in a modernist style, were put into action around 1939. One aspect of Proust’s plans was to expand the square, which meant demolishing the already partially derelict Artillery Barracks. The 26000 square meter land it occupied was later transformed into today’s Taksim Gezi Park.

For a more comprehensive and proper evaluation, let us first provide a brief summary of what was experienced throughout the Gezi Protests, a potential turning point in the future of Turkey, which reverberated across the country:

16 September 2011: Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality decided to rebuild the Artillery Barracks. Taksim Pedestrianization Project was approved.

17 January 2013: The 2nd Cultural Heritage Conservation District Board of Istanbul announced their decision to not approve the Artillery Barracks Project.

28 February 2013: The High Council of Cultural Heritage Conservation approved the Artillery Barracks Project.

27 May 2013: The construction crew equipped with heavy machinery initiated demolition of Gezi Park. 5 trees were removed. Sensitive environmentalists rushed into Gezi Park to protest the destruction.

30 May 2013: A lot of tents were set-up against which a down-raid was conducted. Heavy machinery went into the park again. A large number of people gathered in Gezi Park.

31 May 2013: The second dawn-raid was conducted, as a result of which protests in Istanbul spread across Ankara, İzmir and Eskisehir with people taking to the streets and chanting the famous slogan: 'Taksim is everywhere and everywhere is resistance'. The project was on the way for annulment by the court ruling. The police started using plastic bullets against demonstrators. Rulers of Istanbul made press statements.

02 June 2013: Thousands of people on the streets stayed awake till morning. PM called demonstrators in Gezi Park a bunch of "çapulcus" (looters). The police crackdown became harsher. The news of the first death...

04 June 2013: Stands were set up; yoga classes were organized, and books were read in Gezi. Ministers and top officials made statements. KESK organized a half-day work-stoppage. CNN Turk was heavily criticized for broadcasting a documentary on penguins as a response to Gezi protests. The news of the second death....

06 June 2013: The People's Assembly gathered the people in Taksim. PM made a statement in Tunisia: 'We will not give up reorganizing Taksim Square ... (Protesters) being manipulated by external forces ... (These are) marginal groups....' Turkey shaking with country-wide protestsThe news of the third death

14 June 2013: PM met representatives of Taksim Solidarity Movement. The Ministry launched an investigation

against doctors who provided medical aid to protesters. Friday's prayers were performed in Gezi. The news of the fourth death...

16 June 2013: PM continued his meetings and said: "I gave the instructions for evacuation of Gezi Park". The police closed the park.

08 July 2013: After 23 days, Gezi Park was re-opened to the public. Public space was recovered.

The Gezi Park Process poses an example in which the power centralizing uses legal bases on behalf of urban income and deskills spaces by making use of the transformation law. On the other hand, chain of incidents broke out, questioning public point of view on public spaces and social awareness on public spaces is raised. Until recently, almost only professionals had the knowledge of the existence and definition of public spaces, how they are acquired or lose their publicity nature. Currently, however, it has become a matter of fact about which public has an opinion as well. In this respect, Gezi protests have become a triggering power which enhances society's relation with where they live and which makes it possible for them to question implementations, while awaking society.

75

A survey study was conducted with a group consisting of 40 people with different professions, age groups and political opinion to understand the qualification, property and the protection of public spaces as well as whether the perception they create changes. The group whose ages differ between 20 and 40 is asked questions about the definition of public spaces, if they use the park before the protests and have memories about the park, if they are involved in Gezi Park protests physically and why they are involved and if their opinion about the place changed after the protests have ended.

According to the results of the survey,

Considering the age groups of those taking the survey, 47 % are between the age of 20 and 25, 31 % are between 25 and 30, and 22 percent are between 30 and 40.

While participants define public spaces differently, 34 % define them as areas open to the use of everyone. Other comments suggest them as places belonging to society rather than individual or places belonging to public under the control of government.

78 % of those taking the survey state that they visited Gezi Park before. Some part of those visited Gezi Park

before used the park only due to its location as a transitional area, while some others used it to meet, chat and have fun with friends.

The park has a general or special meaning for 47 percent of those taking the survey. However, the majority states that it is significant as it is the only open area within the center of city like Taksim, which is full of concrete structures. Gezi Park has a nostalgic meaning for those using it for meeting, recreation and event purposes.

Among the participants, those having a memory about the park and those without memories are separated as 50 % and 50 %.

40 % of taking the survey state that they are involved in the protests physically. 60 % say that emotional support was provided through the posts on social media. Those involved in the protests justify their involvement with the concern of protecting green areas and withstand against the government's implementations by defending their rights.

Those not involved in the protests present a wide range of reasons. Most of the answers given have to do with avoiding life-threatening situations and the fact that protests are sidetracked, considering why they began.

63 % taking the survey state that the meaning of park before and after the protests has changed. Many believe that before the protests, it was an ordinary park for recreational purposes in the city center, while it has now become symbol of freedom, cooperation and death.

When evaluated in terms of the process, participants state that they are glad that the wrong attitude adopted by the government for planning implementations was protested and they expected a change in the beginning. In the midst of the process, however, they were disturbed by the government's excessive force, separatist attitude against protests and loss of lives. In conclusion, people felt offended as the protests could not achieve the exact objective.

Participants that have past memories or attach a meaning on the park used sharp expressions (ghostly cemetery, symbol of cooperation, symbol of freedom, death, etc.) to state that their point of view about the park changed following the protests. On the other hand, there is no relation between their physical memories and physical involvement in the protests. In other words, those who do not have any memories about the

park or who do not attach any meaning have been also involved in the process or expressed their reaction both physically or emotionally or through social media.

Keleş points that public space as a term has the following aspects: a) public space is not a geographic or topographic concept. It is a concept of which discursive and actual functions predominate. b) “Public space” is not identified with political space. It focuses more on “community”. c) Lastly, “public space” is the process of determining the borders of living together, and the course of moral principles it is based on and lifestyle (Keleş 2012:10). The meaning participants attach on the public space matches up with the aforementioned aspects of public space. According to German sociologist Jürgen Habermas, on the other hand, citizens can be a part of the public space only when they can discuss issues and secure their freedom to organize, gather, declare and publish their opinions on the problems related to general interest (i.e. public interest, social interest) without restrictions. In this respect, it would not be true to consider government as a part of the public space, yet the environment that allows citizens to discuss public issues builds on the political power and contributes to its rationalization (Keleş 2012:10). The survey studies reveal that Gezi Park Protests broke out with the goal of becoming a part of the city and public space.

Gezi protests played a significant role in keeping the park as a park, in other words, helping it remain a public space. However, what in reality 'saved' the site was the verdict of the Administrative Court that annulled the project, which was grounded on the Law 2863 on Conservation of Cultural and Natural Property. Nevertheless, the critical point lies here. Law No. 6306 is entrusted with authorities that might prevail other important laws on determining a site as risky or reserve area.

Although Gezi Protests made it possible to save the park singularly, the course of remaining public spaces seems to be unclear. At this point, the existing laws and regulations should be duly reviewed and revised with an approach taking into account the property rights with a more realistic, participative attitude and the balance between protection and use. Another significant conclusion acquired from the surveys and interviews carried out is that the point of view as to the process has changed with the perception of public space as an area of society and government. This is because the ideology based on the idea of “public space belongs to government” accepts urban places as a property within the disposal of government. In this case, the government is put into a position where it can plan its own

property in any way that will serve for its purpose without concerns of accountability. However, the principle of “public space belongs to society” supports the idea that the public can have an effect on the urban place it resides in through various methods and have a voice in the planning implementations. Nevertheless, the recent legal reforms within the urban planning scale and ever-centralizing administrative structures lead to a planning approach causing income-oriented planning that draws society away from the participative approach by privatizing the urban places unnecessarily.

CONCLUSION AND OBSERVATIONS

Cities in Turkey, especially Istanbul, are led by the national and international capital in the backdrop of free market conditions shaped by globalization. An urban planning approach that defends the interests of public spaces may seem quixotic amid disintegrated, segmental urban redevelopment practices conducted under the aforementioned pressures. However, social segregation and disintegration witnessed in cities can be still replaced with public-oriented planning and design, which is a significant paradigm that prioritizes public spheres and public interests.

Istanbul has been recently shaped by a new wave of privatizations, constructions of multi-use complexes, and the attacks of the housing market and culture industry. Non-completed projects are resumed to create parks, transport facilities and other social areas which in the past failed to meet the needs of the population, whereas cities and public spaces are transformed through projects on large housing, shopping and business centers led by the pressure of national and international capital. As a result, cities oppressed by capital pressure renew their decaying faces to compete and are led to transformation to contribute to national capital.

An in-depth look into the legal instruments governing urban transformation demonstrates that urban problems facing earthquake-prone areas are not comprehensively addressed, and that urban transformation projects fail to achieve long-term economic, social and physical improvement of such areas. The Law No. 6306 on Transformation, which was entered into force in 2012, brought new dimensions to the implementation procedures to be carried out in transformation areas, yet remain as an extension of the insufficient implementations conducted in the past. As it can be observed for the time being, the law aims to transform structure stock found to be resistless against disaster risk; however, it remains incapable in terms of defining the works to be carried out with a focus on disaster risk, while failing

to deal with how to reduce the risk transparently. Within this scope, the Law no. 6306 appointed the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning as the sole authority to identify risky areas, risky structures and reserve development areas, while equipping the Ministry with limitless power. Furthermore, the aforementioned law is now prioritized over other special-purpose plans and laws when it comes to implementation.

The punch line of the aforementioned law is that any public space may be declared risky or an unsettled public space may be stripped off its public nature by being declared as a reserve development area. The law entrusts the Ministry with the entire authority at this point, while putting public spaces under a serious threat. In this respect, Gezi Protests that broke out in May 2013 demonstrate how it leads to chaotic and serious social incidents when transformation implementations that lack participative processes are realized and, more importantly, when public spaces are subject to transformation based on misled laws, which is also revealed by the surveys carried out within the scope of the study.

The study reflects perspectives of different groups in the society as to public spaces, while demonstrating that individuals handle the public space through two basic elements, which are property and intended use. On one hand, public space is expressed as an area that belongs to government and is controlled by government. On the other hand, it is described as an area that belongs to society rather than individual, so it is additionally defined as a common area where public / society can use and socialize freely. However, answers show that the concept of public can represent both the government and society at times, which leads to a conflict. Nevertheless, those taking the survey agree on the fact that it is a violation on public spaces and social rights to transform Gezi Park from a public space into an area for private use.

Considered thoroughly, it is observed that institutions are equipped with superior authorities as a part of the ongoing tradition of centralization and planning implementations and laws have a prevailing power between each other. Within the process, even fundamental rights including property right has become vulnerable. Within this scope, it becomes obvious that the Law No. 6306 has a negative approach both against individual and public property rights. It is unable to conceal that it fails to protect property rights comprehensively and include the participation principle within its nature. Gezi Park has become a symbol for other spaces that are under the threat of losing their public nature within the frame of la, while becoming

an indicator of rights, freedom and public's struggle for spaces allocated for its own use. The conclusion to be made in terms of the future of planning implementations and legal regulations is that "assets that do not belong to anyone yet everyone has a share on" should become subject to new ways of possession if and only decisions are taken with participative processes. Within this process, the approach to protect more public spaces within law will make it possible to enhance and bolster the understanding of possessing public spaces, which is developed in Gezi Park Protests, against new interventions.

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RESUME

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SPATIAL and FUNCTIONAL TRANSFORMATION of UCTAE CHAMBER of ARCHITECTS of TURKEY AKSARAY OFFICE BUILDING (HISTORICAL İBRAHİM KAYA MANSION)

Tülay KARADAYI YENİCE
Osman Nuri DÜLGERLER
Abdullah ALKAN

Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine İbrahim Kaya Mansion, nearby Ulurmak located in the historic urban texture of Aksaray, by means of spatial and functional renovation and to define the transformation process into Chamber of Architects of Turkey [CAT] Aksaray Office Building in details.

INTRODUCTION

Conservation is the endeavor to connect past and future of a society. Conservation of cultural heritage in its authentic condition and utilization for contemporary needs is the basic

Keywords: transformation, renovation, spatial and functional transformation, Aksaray.

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element of conservation (Tapan, 2007). Re-use of cultural heritage delivers advantages of being economic, providing cultural and historical continuity and environment friendly energy consuming (Stas, 2007; Selçuk, 2006; Langston vd., 2007). It is also known that a transformation with permanent and suitable function results even better in both re-utilization and conservation of a building (Özen ve Sert, 2006; Oral and Ahunbay, 2005).

Transformation of historical residences to CAT offices is seen as a common practice in recent years. This approach and applications engender new spatial demands those mostly cause impacts which damage the authentic character of the building.

In this research in order to utilize historical İbrahim Kaya Mansion as CAT's Aksaray Office a requirement program is build depending on applied examples and new spatial demands. New spatial arrangements are done considering avoidance of existing deformations on building and the requirement program convenient for the new functional identity of the building. Conservation of authentic floor plan and façade considerations was aimed in the process. It is believed that this study will contribute to pass on an important value in Aksaray cultural heritage to next generations and an active utilization for modern days.

Authors are fully responsible for their papers, including references and proper credit for use of the work of others. Papers are accepted with the understanding that they have not been published elsewhere. All papers are to be electronically submitted in Ms Word document format.

Material and Method

Main material of the research is İbrahim Kaya Mansion, according to existing tablet, constructed in 1928, is an example of civil architecture built in early republic period style. Preserved as a II. Degree Monumental Artifact the building is property of CAT since 2003. Written and visual media about the history of the building are the forth material for research.

A two phase method was constructed in the research. First of them is to document the elements such as floor plans, façade organization, material choice which reflect the authentic character and to take photographs to archive. The second phase is to determine the spatial demands for the new function of the building.

Research Findings

İbrahim Kaya Mansion is an example of civil architecture located in Aksaray city, Central District, Meydan Neighborhood, Nevşehir Avenue, Minare Street, No:1 . recorded on Sheet 23, ward 493 and building site 24, constructed in 1928, the mansion is an example of civil architecture which is built in early republic period style. Preserved as a II. Degree Monumental Artifact the building is purchased by CAT in 08.12.2003 (Figure 1).

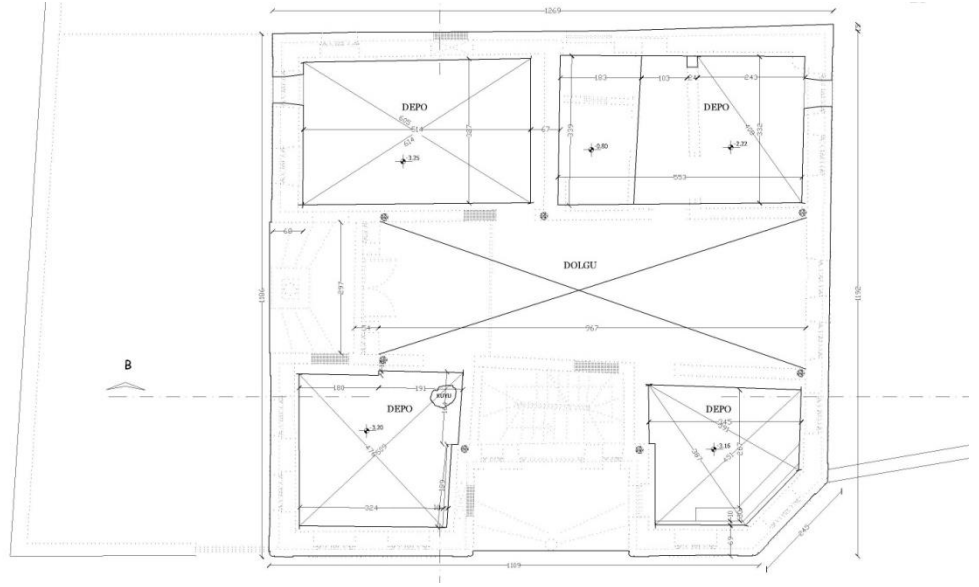


Figure 1. Kaya Mansion, beginning of 20. Century. (delivered from Aksaray Municipality Archive)

The building is constructed and have been used as a mansion until 1970 (Sezer and etc., 2009). Although the building was used as residence in following years depending on the reasons like change in user profile and hiring for more than one customers the building had significant physical changes. According to Karadayı Yenice (2012) the building is classified as an interior sofa plan type in which the street connection is directly from sofa, in traditional Aksaray houses. In this plan type sofa is directly reached from street and ends with a garden gate facing the main entrance (Karadayı Yenice, 2012). Yet there is a difference in this building. The entrance of the building is located in east. The garden gate supposed to be in west direction is located in south. That makes the sofa an “L” plan type. But like in other buildings sofa on ground floor provides passage between the garden, rooms and street.

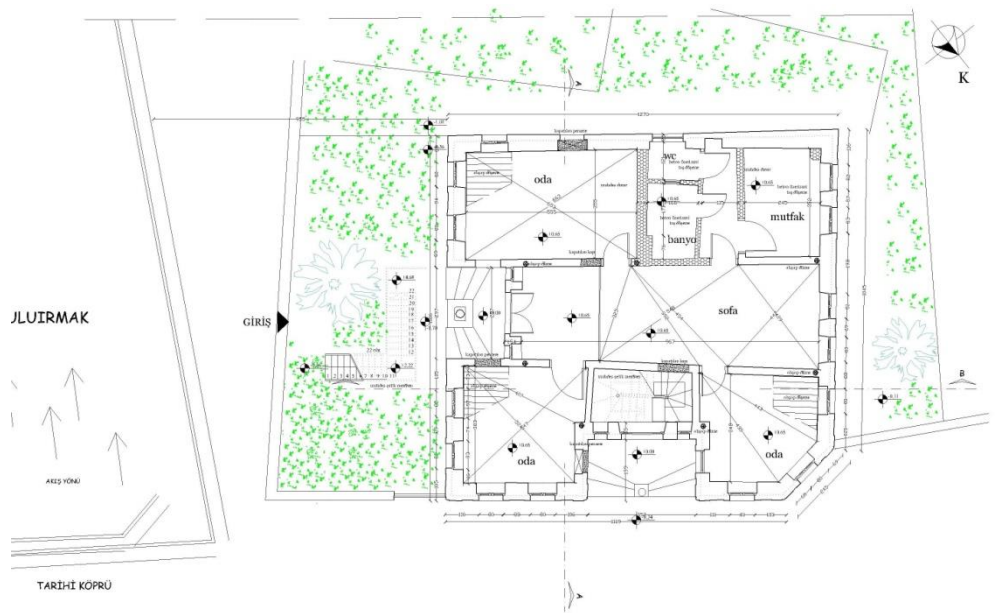
İbrahim Kaya Mansion nearby Ulurmak, is a two floor masonry construction. There is also a basement in the building. The basement floors seen in almost every traditional Aksaray houses are locally called “Zembil” and used commonly as cellars actually serve to provide air circulation in the houses located by the river (Karadayı Yenice, 2012). The basement floor walls are made up with straight cut stone work for 150 cm under ground floor level, quarry stone work with lime mortar under (through -3.20 level) and irregular stone work under levels. These stone works expands 5 to 10 cm through inferior levels. There is also a well in the southeast corner of basement (Figure 2).

Figure 2: İbrahim Kaya Mansion
Basement Floor Plan-Surveying
Project (Karadayı Yenice, T.,
Dülgerler, O.N., 2007)



On ground floor the rooms are located at four corners. During surveying process it was noticed that middle sofa' inferior was filled, reinforced concrete slabs were supplemented to the building and in this area kitchen, bathroom and toilets were supplemented. It is detected that after this renovation the southeast room was enlarged. In later period because of ownership unbundling two floors were separated and to reach upper floor metal frame stairs were added to the south façade of the building. In the interior a new staircase right in front of the east entrance was installed. It is observed that during these renovations most of the authentic elements (like window, door frames) were altered (Figure 3).

Figure 3: İbrahim Kaya Mansion
Ground Floor Plan-Surveying Project
(Karadayı Yenice, T., Dülgerler O.N.,
2007)



Early on the building was first constructed connection between two floors was provided with a wood frame staircase located in one side of the sofa. The upper floor plan is the repetition of the ground floor plan. Like in most of the traditional Aksaray houses this building also has balconies on upper floor located over street-courtyard entrance (Karadayı Yenice, 2012). But it is seen that as in ground floor reinforced concrete slabs were s

upplemented, kitchen, toilets and bathrooms were installed also in the upper floor in the northwest direction. As apprehensible in eaves details the roof is original wooden frame hipped roof altered (Figure 4).

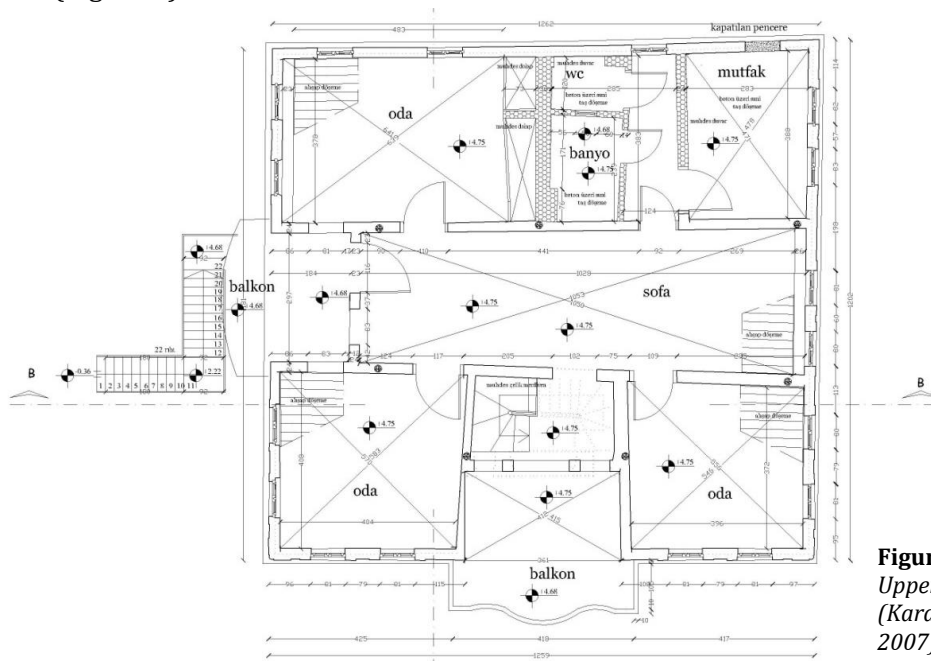


Figure 4: Ibrahim Kaya Mansion Upper Floor Plan-Surveying Project (Karadayı Yenice, T., Dülgerler O.N., 2007)

In contrary to the simple interiors there is plenty of ornamentation on the façade of : İbrahim Kaya Mansion. Straight cut stone cladding used on the façade area enriched eith the use of dense patterns. Today the basement floor became invisible or the existing windows are closed because of the fillings done on street (Figure 5). East and south facades where the entrances are located are identical. On the façade of ground floor in the entrance areas right in the middle there are arches with stone columns and stone stairs. Along with them two row room windows exist. Only on the east façade where street entrance is located, the north room window is beveled. On the upper floor arched balconies over the entrances are carried by stone buttress(Figure 6). At the sides of these balconies two row room windows are lined up from ground floor. As a result of supplementation on the east façade there has been significant changes. Most of the windows were closed or totally torn down and remodeled with masonry blocks. On the north façade the

ground floor windows are repeated on upper floor. The windows are framed with squeezing jambs. These jambs on the ground floor are ornamented with geometric forms as the ones on upper floor are kept simple. As in window frames buildings corner stones are also squeezed and ornamented with geometric forms. Like in traditional Aksaray houses in İbrahim Kaya Mansion the upper floor is disjointed from ground floor with a stone molding.



Figure 5: İbrahim Kaya Mansion basement window (Dülgerler O.N., 2007)



Figure 6: CAT Aksaray Office . right: east façade, left: west façade after restoration. (original 2011)

İbrahim Kaya Mansion has 70 cm thick walls. These walls are quarry stone work. On the façade straight cut stone cladding is applied. Ground floor walls are 55-60 cm upper floor walls are 24cm thick. These walls are all clad with 16 cm thick straight cut stone. Walls are constructed quarry stone filled with adobe and rendered in the interior. Inside these walls wood studs are inserted around door and window openings where load bearing capacity is lower (Karadayı Yenice, 2012).

Wooden joists and beams derived from poplar tree are used in building. These beams diameters differ from 15-20 cm on upper floors to 20-30 cm on the basement. The beams are arranged with 20-30 cm axis distances (Figure 7). For the joints with walls stone pillows are used. Wooden beams are exposed in basement,

in other floors they are covered with wainscot. Over these beams are straw matting, mud, mortar and upper floors slab. The finishing for floors are stone in sofa and balconies, wood for the rooms.

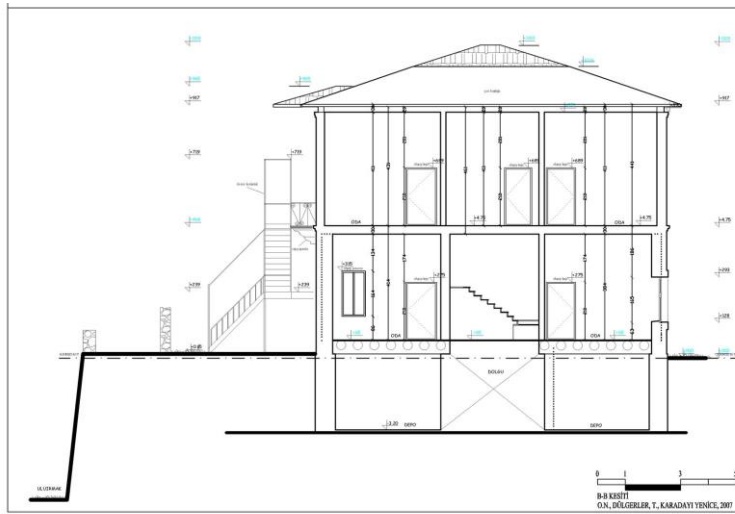


Figure 7: *İbrahim Kaya Mansion B-B Section-Surveying Project (Karadayı Yenice, T., Dülgerler O.N., 2007)*

Transformation of the Building and Function Change

Transformation and function alteration approach is a common case for sustentation and re-utilization of historical buildings. For this reason first of all a requirement program convenient for the new functional identity of the building is required. In this research a requirement program is built for İbrahim Kaya Mansion with the help of previous applications and requirement programs of historical buildings transformed to CAT offices.

In the requirement program need for nine separate spaces has been determined to begin with. These are; president's room, meeting room, secretary, countour, project supervision, archive, technical service, restrooms, kitchen and resting area. Considering the user and using time it is possible to divide CAT offices in to two which are permanent users and temporary users. Permanent users of the building are; contracted architects, technical staff, staff members, executive board members and president, and temporary users are; architects coming for membership services, architects' relatives, technical staff and visitors (Aydın and Yıldız, 2010).

A suitable space arrangement for the new function of the building has been tried to achieve considering these two user profile and common areas. Space requirements for short term users tried to be gathered on the ground floor as much as possible. Spaces those will serve for the permanent users are planned on the remaining two floors.

During surveying process it has been observed that the spaces and balconies facing south has been preserved as in their authentic dimensions where as north part of the building has lost theirs as a result of supplementations. On the basement floor all of the space under the sofa and half of the rest places has been filled therefore separation of spaces is no longer possible. There

have been new installations as stairs, doors and structural elements to the building (Figure 8). During transformation process the building has been purified from these subsequent additions. Since the original staircase has been demolished a spiral staircase has been inserted at east part of the building right in front of the entrance. The fillings in the basement have been removed and except from the space located on northwest all spaces are gathered as one large space. Because of the lack of day light this single space has been planned as archive. And the space located on northwest is planned as technical services (Figure 9). On the ground floor space required for short term users have been tried to be gathered together as much as possible. It has been thought to reutilize southwest room for secretary and southeast room for project supervision. By preserving the original chimney on the northeast this space has been planned as a kitchen separated with a counter from the rest of the space function as seating room with table arrangements (Figure 10). On the upper floor the authentic balconies have been preserved and the missing parts have been repaired. It has been tried to plan this floor mostly for permanent users. The meeting room will be used mostly by executive board, occasionally for commissions' meetings and rarely to greet of small group of visitors is located on the north side of the upper floor. Southeast room has been reserved as president's room as southwest room has been reutilized as a counter. restrooms are planned behind the staircase both in ground floor and upper floor (Figure 11).



Figure 8: *Subsequently Added Stairs And Closed Window (Dülgerler, O.N., 2007)*

Spatial And Functional Transformation Of UCTAE Chamber Of Architects Of Turkey Aksaray Office Building (Historical Ibrahim Kaya Mansion)

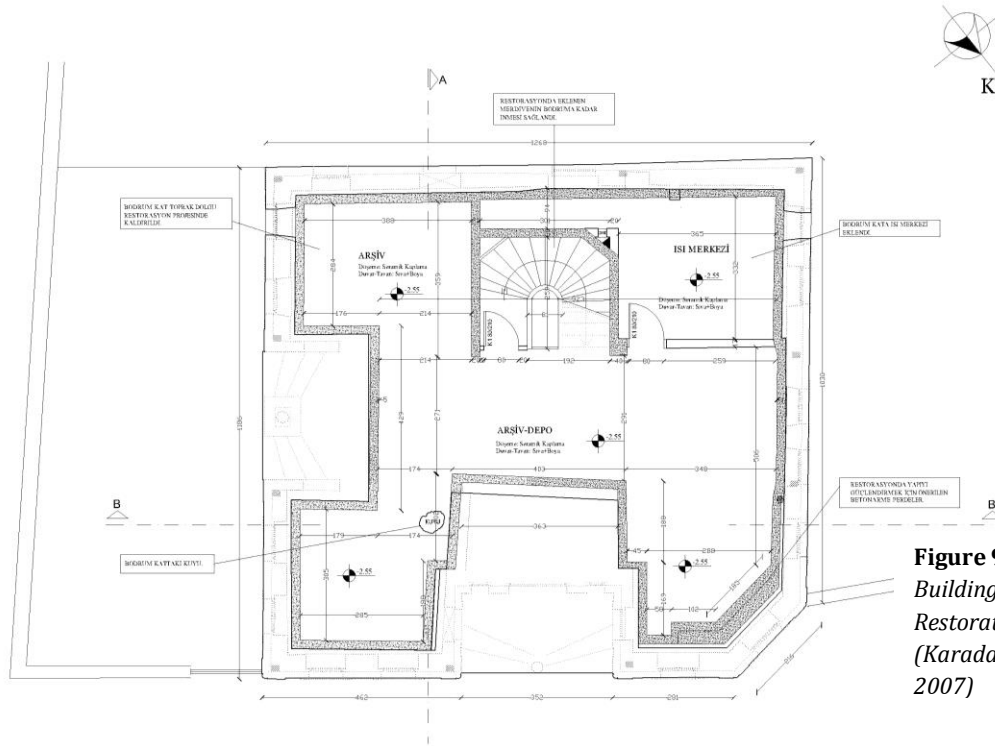


Figure 9: CAT Aksaray Office Building Basement Floor Plan-Restoration Project (Karadayı,Yenice,T., Dülgerler, O.N., 2007)

91

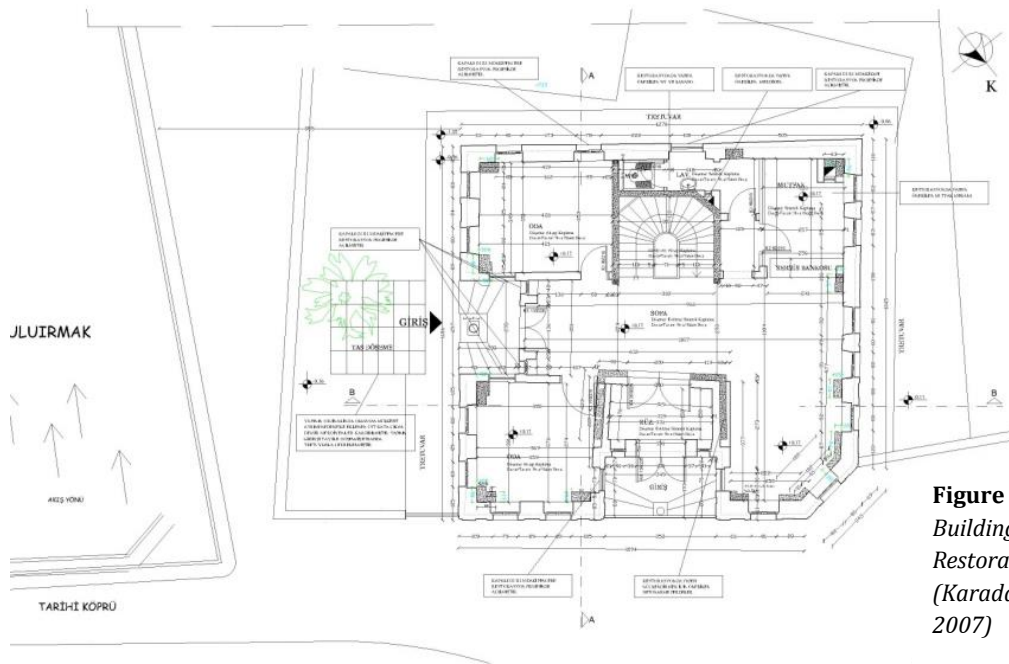


Figure 10: CAT Aksaray Office Building Ground Floor Plan-Restoration Project (Karadayı,Yenice,T., Dülgerler, O.N., 2007)

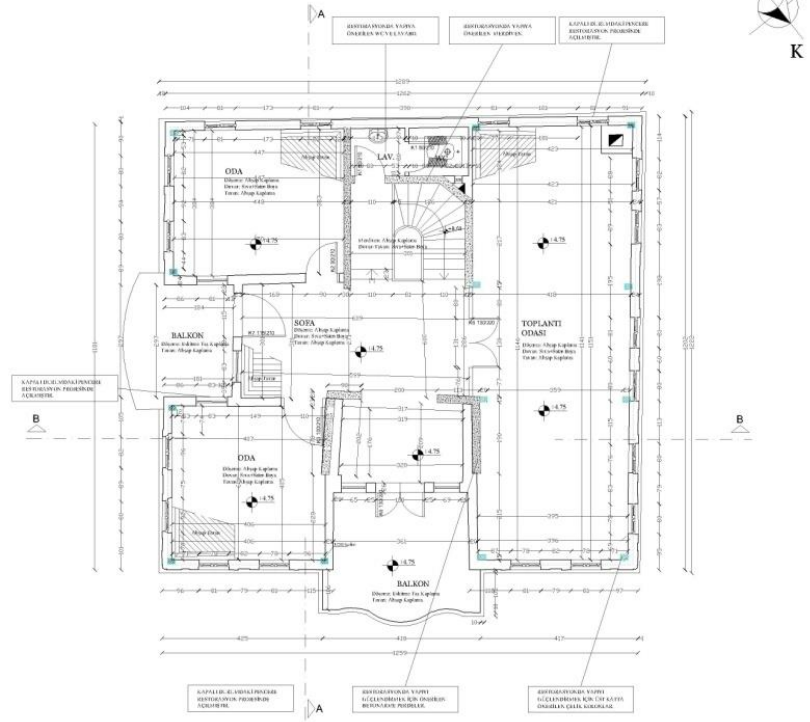


Figure 11: CAT Aksaray Office Building Upper Floor Plan-Restoration Project (Karadayı,Yenice,T., Dülgerler, O.N., 2007)



Figure 12: CAT Aksaray Office Building President's Room (2011)



Figure 13: CAT Aksaray Office Building Meeting Room (2011)



Figure 14: CAT Aksaray Office Building Restroom (2011)



Figure 7: CAT Aksaray Office Building Staircase (2011)

Conclusion

In conclusion transformation and reutilization in historical buildings have great importance for the sustainability of the building. Yet it is another significant point that the building should meet the new function. That is why right spaces should be obtained for the new users when reutilizing the buildings.

In this research spatial and functional transformation of İbrahim Ağa Mansion which is originally planned as residence has been studied. First of all in recognition of the building, plan specifications, construction technique, construction elements and materials are briefly explored. The transformation issue which is the second phase of the study includes the spatial definitions for new functions and their reasons. Afterwards how the building defined in first section has been evaluated according to new spaces has been referred.

It is thought that this study is not only a document for conservation and handing down to the next generations of historical stone houses but also it could contribute to possible conservation and restoration studies may take place in the future.

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Renewal Agenda in Istanbul: Urbanisation vs. Urbicide

Zeynep Gunay

Abstract

The paper claims that the renewal schemes, which have been employed as an evolving model in resolving the urbanisation problem, are turned into the instruments of “urbicide” in Istanbul as a political “evolving” model of urban destruction. The concerns arising out of this change of emphasis encompass conflicts between theory and practice, as well as conflicts between marketing and planning, process and action, authenticity and diversity, users and owners, opportunities and threats.

Within this scope, by constructing an urban renewal framework through the exploration of Law on the Protection and the Revitalisation of Deteriorated Historical and Cultural Immovable Assets (2005) and Law on the Transformation of Areas under

Keywords:

Urban renewal; urbicide; Istanbul

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Disaster Risk (2012), the paper intends to discuss the evolving and declining urbanisation patterns in Istanbul by relating them with up-to-date political, economic, technological and socio-economic inferences. Considerable emphasis is placed on the use of examples in Historic Peninsula to illustrate and critically analyse meanings, inputs, outputs and impacts. The paper concludes by addressing in what ways the planning as a profession can manage these evolving and declining models in resolving contradictions stemming from the dichotomy of urbanisation and urbicide in Istanbul.

INTRODUCTION

Urban renewal is among the priorities of urban agenda in Istanbul considering the large amount of squatter areas, disaster-vulnerable existing building stock, and historic building stock due to half a century long uncontrolled rapid urbanisation. Eventhough urban renewal is not a new phenomenon in Turkey, 1999 Marmara Earthquakes have played a major role in the rising awareness on the importance of quality of building stock rather than the quantity, as a way to resolve the urbanisation perception by focusing on what already exists and by legitimising urban renewal. On one hand, new laws and regulations have followed the earthquakes to determine the legal and institutional framework of urban renewal. On the other hand, the private sector has valorised this process through the large-scale property-led renewal schemes in the transformation of squatter settlements and deprived urban areas, historic inner-city neighbourhoods, as well as waterfronts, industrial areas, public spaces and natural protection zones into the giant construction zones of economic rant and land speculation. Infact, the paper claims that the large-scale property-led renewal schemes, which have been employed as an evolving model in resolving the urbanisation problem, are turned into the instruments of “urbicide” in Istanbul as a political “evolving” model of urban destruction. The same process has resulted in the declining of participatory, transparent and sustainable approaches of urban planning. The concerns arising out of this change of emphasis encompass conflicts between comprehensive planning and project-based fragmented interventions, process and action, common interests and private interests, authenticity / diversity and standardization, users and owners. Within this scope, by constructing an urban renewal framework through the exploration of Law on the Protection and the Revitalisation of Deteriorated Historical and Cultural Immovable Assets (2005) and Law on the Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk (2012), the paper intends to discuss the evolving and declining urbanisation patterns in Istanbul by relating them with up-to-

date political, economic, technological and socio-economic inferences. Considerable emphasis is placed on the use of examples to illustrate and critically analyse meanings, inputs, outputs and impacts. The paper concludes by addressing in what ways the planning as a profession can manage these evolving and declining models in resolving contradictions stemming from the dichotomy of urbanisation and urbicide in Istanbul.

RATIONALE FOR URBAN RENEWAL

Urban renewal is not a new phenomenon in Istanbul, but it is still among the priorities of urban agenda as an action to cope with the haphazard urbanization patterns and large amounts of squatters due to the uncontrolled rapid urbanization since the 1950s, large amounts of disaster-vulnerable existing building stock due to lack of administrative control over construction and building construction technology, and large amounts of historic building stock in need of careful conservation, rehabilitation and continuous maintenance. As outlined in Gunay et al (forthcoming), the building stock in Istanbul is quite young with a percentage of 66 built after 1980; but the building condition analysis based on the last building count of Turkey in 2000 (TUIK, 2000: 54) shows that most of the buildings constructed before the 2000s should either be demolished or consolidated. While nearly 60% of the total building stock can be termed unauthorized, the challenges on the urban landscape are coupled with the deterioration of physical fabric due to aging or poor maintenance; mismatch between contemporary needs and existing functions; changing perceptions and value judgements on the image of buildings or settlements. The overcrowding and gradual shift in the profile of the inhabitants caused by rural-to-urban migration is also effective in urban deprivation. In addition to the quality of building stock and profile of inhabitants, there is an immense market pressure for transformation in the most economically and culturally valuable zones including the waterfronts, old industrial areas, historic neighbourhoods, public spaces and natural protection zones. Inefficient urban management together with the official obsolescence in providing strategic, flexible, responsive and participatory planning instruments, methodologies and organization forms prevents central and local governments to deal effectively with the problems. These rationales make apparent that there is an urgent need for comprehensive and integrated vision and action to resolve the problems associated with fuzzy urbanisation in Istanbul.

RESPONDING TO THE RATIONALE: EVOLUTION OF RENEWAL AGENDA

Regarding these rationales, urban renewal has always been among the priorities of urban agenda in Turkey. A detailed conceptualisation for the evolution of urban renewal in Turkey with reference to mainstream politics can be found in Gunay et al. (2014) and Ataov and Osmay (2007). Before the 1950s, urban renewal was an intervention on its own record rather than a governmental initiative mainly because of fires. After the 1950s, urban renewal was a strategy for the clearance of deprived areas for the opening of new transportation arteries or recovering the silhouette effect of major monuments; and a strategy that helped the transformation of urban landscape by apartment blocks under the name of “modernity project”. Coming to the 1960s, it was conducted via demolition-based activities in squatter areas, which were once encouraged because of their self-help housing character for the shortage of public funds to accommodate the new inhabitants. The globalization and liberalization project of the 1980s again resulted in the increasing focus on new constructions rather than investments in the existing building stock especially through the enactment of Mass Housing Law in 1984 (Law No. 2985, 18344/02.03.1984).

In the 2000s, urban renewal has become the base of urbanisation politics and planning agenda via a growing tendency on neoliberal urbanisation politics based on project-based interventions and public-private partnerships. According to Bartu-Candan and Kulluoglu (2008: 9), neoliberalism have also paved the way for the social and spatial segregation of the emerging groups of poverty and wealth in urban spaces, or the emergence of the so-called spaces of decay, distressed areas, and privileged spaces. While the institutional and legal regulations had followed the renewal practices before the 2000s (Ataov and Osmay, 2007); one of the most important attempt in this period was the employment of urban renewal – together with large-scale property-led renewal schemes- in the legal and institutional base. According to Tekeli (2011), one of the differences between the former periods and the 2000s is the fact that urban renewal is started to be conducted by the powerful stakeholders, namely the government itself comparative to the unpowerful actors of the former periods such as contractors or squatter dwellers. 1999 Marmara Earthquakes have played a major role in the rising awareness on the importance of quality of building stock rather than the quantity, as a way to resolve the urbanisation perception by focusing on what already exists. However it has also given political “legitimacy” to urban renewal

interventions. While there has been a rise of focus on more participatory and inclusive approaches in planning and renewal through the empowerment of local governments as a result of Local Agenda 21 of the UN Habitat Conference held in Istanbul in 1996, the period starting from the election of the Justice and Development Party in 2002 has provided a return to more centralised even over-centralised institutional forms and planning practices.

Between 2002 and 2012 major attempts were being made to prepare the legal format for the employment of neoliberal urban politics including the alteration of Mass Housing Law (Law no. 5162) in 2004; the authorization of Mass Housing Authority (TOKI) to realize, prepare and alter all kinds and scales of development plans in the areas determined as mass housing settlement zones; and enactment of Municipality Law (Law no. 5393) in 2005) to give the municipalities the right of determining renewal process in their own. Considering the empowerment of greater municipalities with respect to centralised governance structures, the share of Greater Municipalities in State and local municipality tax budget has risen respectively from 2.50% to 4.4% and from 5% to 6% in 2008 – while there seen a decrease from 2.85% to 1.40% in local municipality tax shares in municipalities and from %30 to %20 in greater municipalities. On the other hand, the budget of Greater Municipality of Istanbul has risen to €3.5 billion in 2013, while €720 million was allocated to Ministry of Culture and Tourism (1.9%). In 2011, the Ministry of Environment and Urbanism was established replacing the Ministry of Public Works and Settlements. Erdogan Bayraktar, the former head of TOKI, was ironically promoted as the Minister.

Regarding the evolution of urban renewal policies and practices, it can be stated that each period had used a different package of planning tools in the utilisation of urban renewal; however all of them have focused on market conditions and spontaneous solutions of community (Ataov and Osmay, 2007). Despite different conceptualizations that are being used interchangeably with revitalization, regeneration or transformation, urban renewal has always been associated with physical interventions and destructions; and it has covered the radical transformation interventions that demolish the old for reconstruction (Tekeli, 2011). On the other hand, the socio-economic aspects of renewal interventions have always been ignored.

LARGE-SCALE AREA-BASED URBAN RENEWAL FRAMEWORK: THE SOLUTION?

There are two fundamental laws defining the legal base of large-scale property-led renewal schemes in Turkey: “Law on the Protection and the Revitalisation of Deteriorated Historical and Cultural Immovable Assets” (Law No.5366, 05.07.2005) and “Law on the Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk” (Law No.6306, 31.05.2012).

Law on the Protection and the Revitalisation of Deteriorated Historical and Cultural Immovable Assets

This law propounds renewal sites in order to consolidate and prepare the urban structure for earthquake risk mitigation, and regenerate primarily the deprived neighbourhoods of historic city centres through the utilisation of mixed-uses. Renewal zone decision is given by Municipal Assemblies in the municipal settlements and by General Assembly of Provinces in the settlements governed by Special Administration of Provinces outside municipal boundaries. The Board of Ministers approves the renewal zone decision. The scale of intervention starts from 5000 square metres. Key implementation instrument is urgent expropriation to overcome postpone, although it can only be utilised in national security/defence issues according to the Expropriation Law (Law no. 2942). There are different implementation and financing authorities and actors; however the projects are generally managed by a public-oriented implementation model. The responsibilities in planning and conservation are shared between Greater Municipalities and local municipalities at local level, and Supreme Board for the Protection of Cultural and Natural Assets under the Ministry of Culture and Tourism at national level. The Law also propounds the establishment of “Boards of Renewal” authorised to approve the renewal projects. This regularisation bypasses “Boards of Protection” which were responsible in the control of conservation status of historic neighbourhoods since the enactment of the Law on the Protection of Cultural and Natural Assets in 1983 (Law no. 2863). TOKI is contradictorily the most powerful institution in the implementation of the law along with the corporations of municipalities such as KIPTAS - housing agency, KUDEB - Control Bureau for the Conservation of Cultural Assets, and other relevant private sector architecture and construction firms. The owners of historic buildings not to be demolished are obliged to carry out their own conservation projects under the assistance of KUDEB. Otherwise, they are given dwellings in one of the mass housing zones constructed by TOKI at the periphery of the city. In the latter case, the financial model is based on monthly

installments of long-term credits. It is also possible to transfer funds from the Fund for the Protection of Immovable Cultural Assets to the municipality budgets. However, the implementation and financial models ignores tenants.

Law on the Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk

Having issued by the slogan of “making slums history”, this Law covers the areas, which could not be covered through the previously mentioned law. By focusing on demolition and reconstruction through the authority of Ministry of Environment and Urbanism, the Law is far from solving the quality problem in housing provision, but rather raises serious debates on environmental and social consequences including the transformation of conservation sites, agriculture and forest areas into reserved housing zones for construction, the demolition of even steady housing stock and the displacement of inhabitants (Gunay et al. 2014). It brings forward a definition for risk areas to be transformed as “buildings within or outside risk areas that have completed their economic life, or which are scientifically and technically proven to be at risk of demolition or high damage”. It defines all authorities that are responsible for planning, development and control under one institution, the Ministry of Environment and Urbanism. Through this newly attained responsibility, the Ministry is authorized to expropriate all the immovable properties; to transfer property and zoning rights to other defined areas; to divide and allocate property shares and to establish rights - which means “everything”. The minimum size of transformation areas is 50.000 square metres. According to Law, majority decision of shareholders (2/3) is enough for the application for renewal, disregarding the decision of all. A licensed institution by the Ministry is authorised to conduct research and to detect buildings at risk. The licensing of the institutions through the Ministry creates a threat over independency that the majority of the licensed institutions are also the construction firms who will be responsible for the renewal projects. The Law calls for temporary housing or rent benefits for shareholders. However it is not certain when and where these housing and workplaces will be given. Seen from the current practices that it is a high possibility that these places will be at the periphery of cities. It also launches the renewal fund, which will be generated from administrative fines and environmental contribution shares collected under the authorisations of the Environment Law (No. 2872, 09.08.1983), income from the properties sold under the Forestry Law (No. 6831, 31.08.1956), and a certain amount of the annual net profit of the Provincial Bank. There is interest rate support to banks, rental support, demolition credit, ministerial construction

credit and credit for detection. The regulations also provide opportunities for the transfer of development rights. One of the most important threats through the law is the definition of reserve zones for new settlement, which are not clearly defined and can be and possibly will be applied to natural protection zones and forests.

WHAT DOES RENEWAL MEANT FOR THE OPPORTUNITY SPACES OF ISTANBUL?

“Making invasion history”

The Law No. 5366 has introduced a major challenge for the historic landscapes of Istanbul. 11 historic zones in Istanbul’s Beyoglu, Fatih (in Historic Peninsula), Eyup, Zeytinburnu and Tuzla districts were declared as “renewal sites” between 2006 and 2010. These include 6 historic neighbourhoods in Beyoglu conservation site (such as Tarlabasi, Cezayir Çıkmazi, Tophane, Galata Tower, Municipality Building and environs); and 47 historic neighbourhoods in the Historic Peninsula (such as Ayvansaray, Sulukule, Süleymaniye, Yenikapi-Yalı, Sultanahmet, Kucuk Ayasofya, Grand Bazaar and environs) mostly with urgent expropriation decisions. The buffer zone for the Land Walls World Heritage Site is included in Zeytinburnu renewal area. There are a variety of interventions that are designed both to renovate and upgrade existing older housing and to build new housing through the complete demolition of obsolescent properties. The projects have been based on the theory that the conservation of cultural heritage through the elimination of “invasion” would increase the sense of belonging where different social groups live together; the prevention of decay through the eviction of social elements who do not invest in the maintenance of these; the protection of cultural dynamics and increase social integration with the rest of the city; and the establishment of a participatory process through public meetings (see Gunay, 2012a). Regarding the Law No. 5366, the large-scale renewal projects have provided serious discussions on the sustainability of historic environment. Regarding their world heritage sites status, they are threatened to be included in the World Heritage List in Danger due to the lack of effective conservation or overuse of renewal policies and practices (UNESCO/WHC, 2010). Moreover, the projects are criticised as projects of “gentrification” and recommended that a balance must be found between conservation, social needs and identity of the community (UNESCO/WHC, 2008). For instance in Süleymaniye, KIPTAŞ has bought 101 buildings, most of which were demolished to perform restoration project by 2011. Sulukule and

Ayvansaray were nearly totally demolished under the name of protecting the historical identity and improving the building stock, which are not safe for earthquake by 2012 (Gunay, 2011). Tarlabasi project consisted of the renewal of 278 buildings, 76% of which were registered (for more information, see Kuyucu and Unsal, 2010). As a results of the renewal projects in historic neighbourhoods, which are described as “source of shame or dirt bag”, nearly 50% of properties has changed ownerships after the destruction decisions and urgent expropriations. Only in Sulukule this meant the replacement of 5000 families (see Gunay, 2012a).

“Making slums history”

Squatter areas, on the other hand, have always been one of the most important priorities of renewal framework in Turkey since the 1960s. Once they were encouraged as a way of self-help housing in a country of limited financial resources at the edge of industrialisation; after the 2000s, they started to be identified as “invaders” as they provided a boundary for the utilisation of opportunity spaces of Istanbul. One of the first renewal interventions was conducted in Ayazma, a squatter neighbourhood found in the 1980s. The neighbourhood was totally demolished in 2009 because of its increasing land values through the construction of important highways, industrial areas and Olympic Stadium. While the owners were offered dwellings in TOKI’s Bezirganbahçe Mass Housing Area at the periphery, the land emptied from low-income residents and squatters were filled with high-rise upper-income gated sites (see Bartu-Candan and Kolluoğlu, 2008). Finally regularised urban renewal based on the Law on the Transformation of Areas under Disaster Risk has started in October 2012 through a live screening in the media. Based on the slogan of “making slums history”, the button of bomb was pushed through a live broadcast to start the demolition of 6.5 million building in Turkey (40% of building stock). 35 cities were selected primarily defining the largest renewal project in Turkish history. Only in Istanbul this means the demolition of approximately 1 million buildings. The neighbourhoods of Sumer, Esenler, Maltepe, Bayrampasa, Fikirtepe, and Derbent are among the first project areas to be chosen for renewal with respect to their strategic locations. The private sector has valorised this process of transforming squatter areas and inner-city neighbourhoods into the urban spaces of economic rant and land speculation under the name of “resource development and revenue-sharing projects” (see Gunay, 2012b). While these projects are being encouraged in order to raise financial resources in order to be used in housing

projects for lower and middle income groups, the practices show that a considerable portion of the newly constructed buildings by TOKI are sold in the market to upper-income groups. For instance in Derbent neighbourhood, which is along the main financial axis of Istanbul with a view of Bosphorus strait, the dwellings of gated sites are being sold for a minimum of €435.000. While the project proposes a population of 10.000 replacing the actual population of 7000, only 1000 buildings will be reserved for shareholders. On the other hand, the inhabitants of the 800 squatters will be given housing in the reserved zones for construction at the periphery.

DICHOTOMY OF URBANISATION AND URBICIDE IN THE RENEWAL AGENDA OF ISTANBUL

The large-scale property-led renewal schemes, which have been employed as an evolving model in resolving the urbanisation problem, are turned into the instruments of “urbicide” in Istanbul as a political “evolving” model of urban destruction.

The current so-called planning practices offer an economic-oriented approach, which results in the interruption of planning process via the prominence of concepts such as “revitalisation”, “transformation”, and “renewal” projects. Planning’s intervening and controlling role in entrepreneurial practices undergoes a change via neoliberal policies, thus, private sector-oriented partial projects replace comprehensive planning approaches. Within this process, planners and architects, who are the actors of the planning, become agencies led by the private sector. In addition, the basic fundamental of the profession, which is the “public interest”, is replaced by an understanding of “corporate income”. Public authority and public resources are being used not to provide affordable and high-quality urban environments to the lower-income groups, but to open up profitable investment areas either for the state or for certain private developers.

While planning, as a participatory, transparent and sustainable approach, is a declining model of practice in Turkey, there is an emergence of uncontrolled power in the governance of the built environment bypassing planning. Over-centralised structure of urban renewal interventions prevents the dynamics of local governance and limits transparency of process through the elimination of independent control mechanisms through the empowerment of new actors. Ministry of Environment and Urbanism and TOKI have been authorised as real-estate agents, and has turned it into a “dangerously powerful institution

directly at the service of the executive branch of the government” (Kuyucu and Unsal, 2010).

Urban renewal interventions, associated with physical interventions and destructions, focus on market conditions and spontaneous solutions of community, while the socio-economic aspects are being ignored. Urban renewal projects lead to the separation of community according to their socio-economic classes, ethnic backgrounds and cultural choices. Urban renewal interventions transform inner-city into opportunity spaces resulting in the exclusion and eviction of the low-income local community, while destroying the collective memories. They also result in the displacing and replacing of new forms of poverty (Bartu-Candan and Kulluoglu, 2008). UN-Habitat’s Advisory Group on Forced Evictions (AGFE, 2009) estimates that the number of people that are under the threat of involuntary eviction is approximately one million, most of whom are currently the residents of historic neighbourhoods. In addition, the focus on physical renewal provides serious environmental consequences to the transformation of conservation sites, agriculture and forest areas into reserved zones for new settlement construction.

These remarks show that urban renewal practices in Turkey were proved to be a state-driven destruction and real-estate marketing strategy, rather than being a strategy to respond to historic preservation, disaster risk or urban deprivation. Apart from the mentioned legal frameworks, there are even new schemes being drafted by the government to regularise the process of urban renewal, through a more centralised structure to prevent the participation and to limit the control mechanisms of local municipalities, independent boards of professions, non-governmental organisations and the community. Renewal projects is not limited only to historic landscapes and squatter areas; the waterfronts, old industrial areas and even public spaces are subject to large-scale urban renewal projects as the new opportunity spaces of Istanbul. Istanbul, as a city of water, has been facing the most challenging threats of its waterfronts through the projects such as Haydarpasaport, Galataport and Halicport. The public spaces including the Gezi Park that has become subject to the most powerful community action starting from May 2013, has been projected to be replaced by a mall complex together with others as Camlica Hill. While the mega projects such as 3rd Bridge, Canal Istanbul and Olympic Village are threatening the natural protection zones of the city, there seen no hesitation to destroy



Yenikapi archaeological excavations of 8000 year-old history in order to construct transfer hubs.

Thus, there is an urgent need for change of emphasis in the governmental perception and political culture to employ holistic urban renewal framework through empowering sustainable, participatory, transparent and strategic planning approaches; raising consciousness into the role of community, community organisations and local governance; encouraging reinvestment and improvement rather than demolition; and most importantly preserving and respecting the country's cultural and environmental inheritance. Within the scope of this emerging agenda, there is still a role for planning and planners in managing these evolving and declining models of practice. One of the most important factors is that the "rational" planning approach has no validity anymore; the planning has to be responsive to strategic, flexible, responsive and participatory approaches as an intermediary between all stakeholders including the public and private sector as well as the community. Planning system should be open to change, if it wants to manage change. The planning profession may and should not have the power to change the on-going political inferences on cities itself, however it may be a powerful instrument to construct the democratic management framework for cities and communities by creating the conditions of coordination, cooperation and negotiation. Because as Newman and Thornley (2002: 23) puts forward the planning lies at the interface of market and politics in the neoliberal era. This is a shift from being the agents of development control towards being the agents of strategic-thinking.

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