IZMIR KATIP CELEBI UNIVERSITY ★ GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

URBAN REGENERATION STRATEGIES FOR SUPPORTING SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF ROMA COMMUNITY: IZMIR-EGE NEIGHBOURHOOD URBAN REGENERATION PROJECT

M.Sc. THESIS

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İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ ★ FEN BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

ROMANLARIN SOSYAL SÜREKLİLİKLERİ DESTEKLEYİCİ KENTSEL DÖNÜŞÜM STRATEJİLERİ: IZMİR-EGE MAHALLESİ KENTSEL DÖNÜŞÜM PROJESİ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Mehmet Melih CİN
(130201016)

Kentsel Dönüşüm Ana Bilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yakup EGERCİOĞLU

HAZİRAN 2016

Mehmet Melih Cin, a M.Sc. student of IKCU Graduate School of Science and Engineering, successfully defended the thesis entitled "URBAN REGENERATION STRATEGIES FOR SUPPORTING SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF ROMA COMMUNITY: IZMIR-EGE NEIGHBOURHOOD URBAN REGENERATION PROJECT", which he prepared after fulfilling the requirements specified in the associated legislations, before the jury whose signatures are below.

Thesis Advisor :   **Asst. Prof. Dr. Yakup EGERCİOĞLU**   ....
İzmir Katip Çelebi University

Jury Members :   **Prof. Dr. Ebru ÇUBUKÇU**   ....
Dokuz Eylül University

                      Asst. Prof. Dr. Dilek MEMİŞOĞLU   ....
İzmir Katip Çelebi University

Date of Submission : 13 May 2016
Date of Defense   : 03 June 2016

To my family,

FOREWORD

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ABBREVIATIONS

CLRAE	: Council of Europe's Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe
ECSHR	: European Charter for the Safe-guarding of Human Rights
EDUR	: The European Declaration of Urban Rights
EU	: European Union
IAP	: International Association for Public Participation
OECD	: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
TOKI	: Mass Housing Administration
UN	: United Nation
UNESCO	: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WCRC	: World Charter for the Right to the City

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URBAN REGENERATION STRATEGIES FOR SUPPORTING THE SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF ROMA COMMUNITY: IZMIR-EGE NEIGHBOURHOOD URBAN REGENERATION PROJECT

SUMMARY

Urban regeneration greatly affect marginalized groups both across the world and in Turkey and therefore it is a hot topic in the public discussions of urban context. One of those marginalized groups are Roma communities. Their neighborhoods, particularly inner urban areas, face social and physical decay due to discrimination against Roma communities. To address these social and physical problems, urban regenerations projects have been launched in Turkey in the name of improving life standards of Roma citizens. However, implementations could not go further than improving physical conditions of the neighborhood. Social, economic and environmental aspects of the regeneration projects have been ignored. Also, inhabitants could not be part of the urban regeneration projects and decision making process. These deficiencies caused gentrification of society. These widespread implementations and their outcomes bring out question of how to prevent gentrification on Roma community. Therefore, this study aims to analyze urban regeneration project in Ege neighborhood in Izmir from Henri Lefebvre's right to the city concept In doing so, the study draws its data from 102 questionnaires and 9 interviews. The study first analyses the extent Ege neighborhood urban project enables the inhabitants to use and access their right of city. Then, it proposes a participation model to prevent gentrification caused by urban regeneration models.

ROMANLARIN SOSYAL SÜREKLİLİKLERİ DESTEKLEYİCİ KENTSEL DÖNÜŞÜM STRATEJİLERİ: IZMİR-EGE MAHALLESİ KENTSEL DÖNÜŞÜM PROJESİ

ÖZET

Türkiye'de ve Dünya'da ki kentsel dönüşüm uygulamaları kentlerde bulunan marjinalleşmiş, dezavantajlı grupları hedef almaktadır. Kentsel bağlamda bu gruplara yapılan uygulamaların tartışmaları güncelliğini korumaktadır. Bu gruplar arasından en çok öne çıkanları ise Romanlara uygulanan kentsel dönüşüm uygulamalarıdır. Özellikle, romanlara yapılan ayrımcılıklar, yaşadıkları alanların sosyal ve fiziki çöküntü alanlarına dönüşmeleri neden olmuştur. Bundan dolayı, yaşadıkları mahalleler kentsel dönüşüm uygulamalarının hedefi haline gelmiştir. Kentsel dönüşüm uygulamalarında sosyal ve fiziki yıpranmaları önlemek ve geliştirmek amaçlanmıştır. Ama Sosyal, çevresel ve ekonomik boyutları göz ardı edilerek, uygulamalar sadece fiziki standartları artırmaktan öteye gidememiştir. Ayrıca uygulamalarda kentlinin ihtiyaç ve beklentileri dinlenmemiş bu da projelerin kentlinin yaşam standartlarını artırmaktan çok Romanların yaşadığı alanların soylulaştırılmasına hizmet etmiştir. Romanlar üzerine yapılan kentsel dönüşüm uygulamaları ve sonuçları, toplumun soylulaştırılmasının nasıl önlenebileceği sorusunu doğurmuştur. Bundan dolayı, bu çalışmanın amacı Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesini Lefebvre'nin kent hakkı ve uluslararası bağlamda yapılan kent hakları anlaşmalarına göre inceleyip, sosyal devamlılığı, proje aşamasında sağlayıcı stratejileri ortaya koymaktır. Bu bağlamda, Ege mahallesinde 102 kişi ile anket çalışması ve toplamda 9 kişi ile mülakat gerçekleştirilmiştir. Arazi çalışmaları kentsel dönüşüm projesindeki sorunları tespit etmemizi sağlayıp, mevcut projedeki katılım hakkını incelememize yardımcı olaraktır. Sonuç olarak, mevcutta saptanan eksiklikler üzerinden, Roman toplumun şartlarına uygun, soylulaştırılmasını önleyici, toplumun fikirlerinin kara alma mekanizmasında yer alacağı bir katılım modeli önerilmektedir.

1.   INTRODUCTION

Urban Regeneration is a vision and an action which provides permanent solutions to economic, physical, social and environment problems of urban areas. It aims to revive deteriorated and decayed urban areas.

Until 1980s, urban regeneration implementations were applied by governments. This is because governments had national economies and therefore they had a provider role in urban area. However, after 1980s, shift to liberal economies necessitated governments to adopt regulatory and practicability role. This change in the role included different actors such as local authorities, private companies, landlords, tenants and non-governmental organizations in urban regeneration projects and it is defined as community based urban regeneration process as it includes all stakeholders. However, the community based urban regeneration process is not being applied widely and the cases and projects in Izmir are not an exception. Therefore, this thesis focuses on Izmir Ege Neighborhood case and scrutinizes the participation and city rights mechanisms employed in the project.

1.1 The Scope and Aim of the Study: Thesis Statement

Restructuring of urban space appeared as an alternative way to absorb the surplus capital in the last century to overcome the global economic crisis. Thus, urban space emerged as a new sector to invest in. Therefore, emergence of capitalist movement towards cities led to rapid development of urban areas. This rapid development was accelerated by migration from rural to urban. Correspondingly, Turkey, as a lately capitalist country, has also experienced the same movement within its own circumstances. After 1950s, by rapid development in industrial sector emerged migration to cities which triggered need for housing. However policies and investment of the public sector was not sufficient to respond this need. Therefore, squatters were constructed by migrants. So urbanization experience of cities in Turkey started with construction of squatter housings. This was followed by a number policies legalizing squatter housing. However, with the adaption of neo-liberal policies in 1980s, squatters

started to be seen and accepted as "problematic" areas of urban texture as they lacked public services, infrastructure, and social facilities. In the reality, squatter areas have less space to merchandise. In other words, monetary value of the space is not as important as use value of the space. Therefore, regeneration of squatter areas can provide an opportunity for the capital to improve monetary value of space. In align with the neo-liberal policies, Turkey's urban context experience in the last decade brought intervention of urban areas by tool of urban regeneration project respectively first in Ankara and then in Istanbul These projects were mainly applied to squatter areas of the city where marginalized citizens lived. Marginalized people are who live at the city center, facing with social exclusion such as Roma community. Also, due to social exclusion, they have difficulties to find a job, therefore, people have low economic profile. Romani people are one of the main groups who faced with urban regeneration projects. Due to physical and social decay of Romani settlements, values of the lands they live in were lower than its nearby lands, so, urban regeneration projects on these settlements provided an opportunity for capital to impose the land. On the other hand, projects' aims were declared as to improve conditions of the area for the good of inhabitants of the neighborhood. However, in the world-wide known example of Sulukule, it caused gentrification of the area and loss of Roma identity and culture.

Within this context, social sustainability in urban regeneration should be handled to protect cultural and identical existence of Roma community. To analyze conditions and to establish a social sustainable urban regeneration model, this thesis focuses on Izmir Ege neighborhood as a case study.

In this respect, the research begins with the review of concepts which are related to urban regeneration and social sustainability such as; city, urbanization urban regeneration types. It continues with definition and conceptualization of notion of right to the city drawing from different scholars' thoughts and ideas and offer a definition based on from the work of David Harvey and Henry Lefebvre. Right to the city term has a vital role in preventing gentrification and achieving social sustainable regeneration. Therefore, it is the main pillar of the research.

The thesis has two dimensional analysis based on the right to the city concept. First dimension of the analysis of Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project proposal focuses on international right to the city instruments which were signed by member

countries of United Nation. These instruments are defined as advance version of human rights declaration and they emerge from Lefebvre's notion of right to the city. Instruments can be defined as a more detailed, structured and robust version of the notion. Thus, drawing from three declarations, ten criteria are defined to analyze the urban regeneration project. Second dimension of the research is to establish and propose a participation model in response to analyzed deficiencies in urban regeneration project. In so doing, the uniqueness of the case and socio-cultural structure were taken into consideration.

The main argument of the thesis is that urban regeneration projects is likely to cause gentrification and unlikely to protect community culture of marginalized groups if they are not conducted with respect to right to the city, which provides a framework of for social sustainability. Thus the thesis, by using the right to the city concept, also looks into physical, environmental and economical cases of the neighborhood. Lastly, the research aims to provide participatory model that would increase sense of belonging of inhabitants and satisfaction level from the project.

The reason of choosing Izmir Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project as a case study is due its being inner city area and settlement for Roma community. The project is in the stage of design process. Implementation of the project has not started yet. Therefore, there is still an opportunity to prevent gentrification of the community and to protect Roma identity in the neighborhood.

Additionally, examining one completed urban regeneration practices from international (Barcelona case) and national context (Sulukule case) will also and provide opportunities to draw a comparative analysis and benefit from experiences of these projects while establishing a participation model. Therefore, Barcelona- Ciutat Vella and Istanbul-Sulukule urban regeneration projects are also presented and examined in the thesis. The common point of these two projects are they were both applied on marginalized people. While Barcelona case was defined as sustainable and positively resulted urban regeneration practices, Sulukule case can be defined an as unsuccessful project due to gentrification.

This aspires to provide a better understanding of Ege neighborhood case by applying right to city notion and by drawing experiences from previous urban regeneration cases

to establish a participatory model in decision making in order to achieve a social sustainable urban regeneration.

1.2. Research Question

Urban regeneration has become an important case for Turkish urban context since the beginning of 2000s. Urban regeneration is being used as a tool to improve physical and social structure of cities and to provide adequate housing standard for citizens. On the other hand, the term was using all over the world for last century. Especially European countries implemented many urban regeneration at cities to improve life quality, to provide public services, to improve social and physical conditions of cities and to enhance economical activates to compete in a global context.

As, urban regeneration concept became popular in Turkey with the aim of improving the condition in inner cities. In last decades many project implemented in urban areas. However, main focus areas of these implementations concentrated on city center's deteriorated areas where marginalized or disadvantages groups live with low economical profile. Among these disadvantages groups, Roma community is one of the main focus groups in urban regenerations. Unfortunately, projects applied in Roma communities did not result with improvement in their life quality, on the contrary, it caused gentrification and eviction from their lands. Projects implementation on disadvantages groups show that project aims and outcomes are different. At the end of the project, urban texture of the area and cultural structure are altered totally. Considering that urban regeneration projects still continues in Roma communities, the thesis aims to answer following research questions:

1) To what extent does current Ege neighborhood project address to the inhabitants' city rights and aim social sustainability of the Roma community?

2) How gentrification of inhabitants can be prevented by citizen participation in decision making?

1.3. Methodology of the Research

This research has been accomplished by using wide range of qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques. The methodological tools used in this research are; questionnaires, interviews and observations. Methodology has stimulated a pave

to understand circumstances of citizens and structure for decision making in urban regeneration project in Ege neighborhood. In this scope, historical, socio-economical background of the neighborhood and relations between inhabitants, NGOs and local authority were analyzed.

The study is located at the intersection of urban regeneration, social sustainability, Roma community and right to the city.

I have conducted field work in the neighborhood between June 2014 to 2016 April. I visited the field at different times to conduct interviews and questionnaires take photos and make observations. Questionnaires were based on open-ended questions which were applied to randomly selected 105 citizens. However 102 of them were valid for evaluation, 3 of them was invalid due to incoherent responds. Questionnaires were applied through face-to-face communication method due to low profile of literacy. This method also helped to keep inhabitants' attention to the questions and to achieve more reliable results. To address both men and women's ideas, the questionnaire was conducted in coffeehouses where men dominated social space and in front of houses which serve as a social space for women to socialize. Also to include different groups' (in terms of gender and age) ideas in the neighborhood, questionnaires were conducted in different parts of the neighborhood.

The questionnaire also included semi-structured format questions which were asked to randomly selected citizens. I also conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews with different actors of urban regeneration process. Semi-structure questions allowed me to elaborate on the answers of respondents and direct the interview according to their answers. Before conducting the interviews and questionnaires, a pilot study was applied to ensure consistency, the clarity of the questions and reliability. It also aimed to prevent provoking questions against their identity. This test was applied on five people who live in the neighborhood. Then the questions were revised and necessary amendments were made to make sure that my questions addressed necessary points. I conducted in total 9 interviews, with a person who work at metropolitan municipality, head of Ege Neighborhood Urban issues, Culture and Beneficial Association, head of the neighborhood, a street vendor in the neighborhood, a grocery store owner in the neighborhood, a coachman who lives at Ege district, three random inhabitants from three different parts of the neighborhood and an officer from Metropolitan Municipalities' urban regeneration office. Three random inhabitants' interview was

conducted to understand macro-problems of the area. For instance, people who live next to railways have problem with train and its noise and people who live next to factory have problem with smell of bones. All interviews were recorded except for the interview with urban regeneration officer due to his disapproval of recording. To understand the case from Izmir Metropolitan Municipality's perspective, more interviews tried to be conduct, however, due to high confidentiality of the project, officers rejected to talk about the project.

As another technique, observation was used to analyze the neighborhood, Roma community, its culture and solidarity of the community. During the fieldworks, I tried to reach different groups such as employed or unemployed people. Therefore, the neighborhood were visited at different times and days such as; working hours, workdays, holidays. These experiences provide me to observe inhabitants' attitudes, their gathering places and cultural activities. Moreover, I had chances to analyze real effects of the projects in their daily lives.

1.4. The Content of the Study: Chapters

This thesis consists of seven chapters, including introduction and conclusion chapters. The introduction part of the study presents the scope and aim of the study; research question of the thesis; and the methodology.

Chapter two conceptualizes right to the city notion according to Lefebvre's expressions and scholars' definitions. Also, the notion examines two key aspects which are right to participation and right to appropriation. These conceptualizations establish basis of this research. Then, the thesis conceptualizes terms related with urban and urban regeneration. Therefore, it defines urban, urbanization, urban regeneration, and gentrification. Then, the thesis examines different forms and partnership models in urban regeneration.

Chapter three examines history of urban regeneration practices in the world under five periods which were divided with regards to the socio-economic context of period and main dynamics of urban regeneration implementation. Also, the chapter analyzes Barcelona-Ciutat Vella urban regeneration case as an example of a successful regeneration in the world context. Then, the chapter continues with Turkey context.

Historical background of urban regeneration practices, legal basis of urban regeneration, Roma community and Sulukule case are presented and analyzed.

In chapter four, the conceptual framework is provided by drawing from international rights to the city instruments. This framework sets the criteria for analyzing Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project in chapter 5.

Chapter five focuses on Ege neighborhood as a case study. Historical background of the Roma community of the neighborhood is examined. Then according to findings in the fieldwork, demographic structure and the project proposal is analyzed. This chapter shows the extent project proposal addresses citizens' rights of the city, needs and demands.

Chapter six covers concept of citizen participation and analyzes existing participation model in the neighborhood. Definition of citizen participation, frameworks, models and participation tool are conceptualized. According to this conceptualization, existing participation model is defined and analyzed. Also, findings in field work are used to examine effectiveness of existing participation model and its participation tools. Drawing from the problems in existing participation model, new participation model and participation tools are suggested for neighborhood.

Chapter seven is the conclusion. It offers an analytic review of results, states the contribution of thesis to the literature and lists the limitations. The thesis concludes with recommendations for future implementation.

2. CONCEPTUALIZATION OF URBAN AND THE CONCEPT OF RIGHT TO THE CITY

2.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a definition and conceptualization of basic concepts about urban regeneration and forms of urban renewal. Then, chapter introduces the Henri Lefebvre's right to the city concept as a theoretical framework of this study. The study also situates this concept within broader literature of urban and urban regeneration and draws from other scholars' work on right to the city to offer a robust understanding of the concept.

2.2. Urban and Urbanization

It is hard to generate a specific definition "urban" as it can differentiate from one country to another or it can be re-defined according to the criteria such as; population size, population density, space, economic and social organizations, economic function, labor supply and demand. On the other hand, there is a confusion between the terms of "city" and "urban". The term "city" refers to legal description of municipalities, namely, it is an administrative definition for urban.

William H. Fery and Zachary Zimmer (1998:10-11) define urban concept by distinguishing it from rural. Therefore, the difference between urban and rural can be defined according to three elements; ecological element, economic element and social character. Ecological factor covers population size and density. However, this can change for nations. For instance, Denmark considers a population of 250 or greater as an urban whereas India considers population of 5000 and more as an urban. Secondly, economic factor refers to non-agricultural production. Rural areas' economic activities usually concentrate on agricultural production while urban areas' economical activities are organized around nonagricultural production. Lastly, social character covers how "the way rural and urban people live, their behavioral characteristics, how they perceive the world, their values" (Frey& Zimmer, 1998:11).

Keleş defines urban as "a place where has continuous social development and change, less people dealing with agricultural production, meets requirements of people's sheltering, transportation, work, relaxation, entertain and has high population density" (Keleş, 1998:75)

According to Alkan, urban is defined for all spaces where people live and do all activities. For Tekeli (2015:20), urban can be defined as "a settlement where non-agricultural production, control on all productions, coordination of distribution and reached level of size, density, heterogeneity and integration". Indeed, urban is defined differently by all professionals according to their perspectives. For instance, economists define it according to production-consumption relations, geographers define according to population and population movements. Thus, urban covers all definitions which are defined by different professionals and it is an interdisciplinary area of study (Alkan, 1991:960-967).

To conclude, in urban context, urban is defined according to the following criteria (Tekeli, 2015:18):

Production type: it covers non-agricultural production and it can be measured with rate of non-agricultural production in all production types

Size Level: Measured with population size.

Density: Measured with population who live in certain area

Heterogeneity: functionality, and usage of land for different purposes.

Integration: availability of transportation and communication facilities and its density in urban area.

Urbanization, generally, refers to an increasing shift from agrarian to industrial services and distributive occupations (Mandal, 2000). These services and occupational opportunities as a pull factor cause many people to migrate from rural areas to urban areas. These people are stimulated by push factors such as natural disasters, economic stagnant, and poverty. Tekeli (2015:20) defines urbanization as an incensement in rate of non-agricultural production and an incensement in density of controlling and coordinating all productions in a settlement. According to Tekeli (2015:20), urbanization occurs "with incensement in level of size density, heterogeneity and integration in urban".

Keleş (2015:35) argues that urbanization occurs as result of change in social and economic structure of the society. In another words, urbanization is defined as population accumulation process which emerges with development in industrialization and economy and incensement in urban areas. Urban growth occurs with improvement in division of labor, specialization, and alters relations and attitudes in society.

After having defined urban and urbanization and its processes of formation, I now present the right to the city concept as it forms the theoretical underpinning of this thesis.

2.3. Urban Regeneration

"Urban regeneration" refers to recreating, renewing or reconstructing existing urban area. It is the reconstruction of certain areas in different manners. According Smith (2002:62) and Roberts (2000:17) urban regeneration means " comprehensive and integrated vision and action which leads to resolution of urban problems and which seeks to bring about a lasting improvement in the economic, physical, social and environmental conditions of an area that has been subject to change." They emphasized essential features of urban regeneration with economic, social and environmental conditions. In this sense, Lichfield (1992:19) made more useful definition and offers a "better understanding of the process of decline" and an "agreement on what one is trying to achieve and how". Donnison (1993:18) defines it as "new ways of tackling our problems which focus in a co-ordinated way on problems and on the area where those problems are concentrated". Lichfield (1992) and Donnison (1993) argue that urban regeneration concentrates on the problematic areas to sustain improvement. Parallel to these definitions, Sönmez (2005:16) mentions that it is a process to solve social, economic and spatial problems with intervention in the urban area. The most inclusionary urban regeneration is concerned "with the re-growth of economic activity where it has been lost; the restoration of social function where there has been dysfunction, or social inclusion where there has been exclusion; and the restoration of environmental quality or ecological balance where it has been lost" (Couch & Fraser & Perry, 2003:2). On the contrary, Hausner (1993:526) and Couch (1990:2) see it as short-term, fragmented, ad hoc and essentially physical change projects which are based on without an overall strategic view for wider city development.

Drawing from these definitions, urban regeneration is a process of intervention in urban areas with the aim of solving urban problematic. Implementations rely on problems of urban area but application of the project and its main objectives cannot be only physical or environmental or economic development. It also includes social problems, such as integration, exclusion, discrimination. It aims to find permanent, long-term solutions to problems. Roberts (2000) stated five major purposes of urban regeneration;

1. to establish link between urban physical condition and social deprivation

2. to correspond urban needs and demands

3. to obtain economic development and quality of life in urban area

4. to sustain best use of urban land and avoid urban sprawl

5. to show the importance of urban policy implementation and political forces of the day.

However in some cases, urban regeneration application could cause just physical, short-term solutions which also bring gentrification. To sustain long lasting regeneration implementation, I will now analyse meaning of sustainable urban regeneration.

2.4. Forms of Urban Renewal

In the current literature, there are only few words used to describe forms of urban transformation. These are renewal, redevelopment, regeneration, revitalization, rehabilitation, conservation. There is an overlapping between renewal, redevelopment and regeneration and these terms are often used synonymously (Dalla Longa, 2011:8). Similarly, in the first International Seminar on Urban Renewal (ISUR), only three kinds of urban renewal models were defined; redevelopment, rehabilitation and conservation (ISUR, 1958:11).

Redevelopment: It is removal of existing buildings and re-design or re-use of cleared land for the new projects. It focuses on urban upgrading and socio-economic restructuring. It is applicable to urban areas which have deteriorated conditions and where existing fabric of area cannot provide satisfactory living conditions or opportunities for economic activities (Miller, 1959:11). Gülersoy & Gürler (2011:2)

argue that form of urban transformation is applicable to squatter, devastated or deteriorated urban areas in the city. This form is choosen as a solution when rehabilitation, re-planning/restructuring is not practicable and a viable option, when area is dilapidated and requires urgent redevelopment or when dwellings lack sanitation facilities or structural condition and maintenance. However, these approaches have several cons & pros.

Advantages of this form for developers, local governments is that it allows maximum profit from the sale of new, centrally located buildings, maximum use of land, availability of higher floor, introduces the land as residential and commercial activities for higher income people, increases the population density and tax revenues from the area, which is desirable for modernizing inner-city area (Zhu Zixuan, 1989).

On the other hand, this approach has higher responsibilities and risks than other forms and it could have heavy social and environmental costs. Environmental cost is demolishing of existing viable neighbourhood which could cause sacrifice of a cultural heritage (Frieden, 1964). This approach might lead to change of social fabric of urban area even if the community don't relocate because of increasing property values and life expenses they could face with gentrification in the long-run. Frieden (1964:123) argues that it is not only demolishment of building, but also destruction of social relations in the society and irrecoverable loss of functioning social system.

Rehabilitation: It is form of preserving, repairing or restoring the existing constructions or neighbourhoods in the city (Polat, 2008). It is opposite form of redevelopment. This form is applicable to dwellings that are generally in good conditions but have been deteriorated or where they are likely to cause deterioration (Miller, 1959:12). According to UNESCO, it is understood as "a form of intervention, which aims to recover and update a lost or deteriorated function. Rehabilitation offers different scales of interventions, from the territory and urban fields (city, district or street) to the building itself" (UNESCO International Conference, 2007:73). It sees existing dwellings as a valuable resource alters it to acceptable standards with establishing facilities (Zhu Zixuan, 1989). It extends beyond repairing physical conditions, it provides facilities that are necessary or desirable for the economically and socially use of building and lands like; recreation areas, public services (police, fire protection), public buildings (schools, hospitals), street maintenance (Miller, 1959:12).

This form's success is based on citizen's participation and financial manners. Associations organize citizens to maintain technical and financial assistance to local authorities and citizens encourage each other to fix up their houses (Holcomb and Beauregard, 1981). However, rehabilitation of area is more difficult than other type of renewals due to financial manners. This is because all financial support of rehabilitations is covered by residents or by the help of local authorities. On the other hand, it has benefits in the long run as it contributes to the development of tourism industry.

According to Clay (1979), rehabilitation could impact on residents in two ways which are; gentrification and incumbent upgrading. Social change could occur in the neighbourhood because of not responding financial needs of rehabilitation. If not, through the process of incumbent upgrading, residents remain in the neighbourhood and invest their own time, money, energy to improve their houses and social conditions (Varady, 1986). This form takes time to change physical conditions when compared with other forms, however it is more respectful to social conditions of the society. Its disadvantages are taking long time for implementation, and it is difficult to apply new infrastructures to old houses.

Heritage Conservation-preservation: This form of urban renewal is applicable to urban areas which have a historical and cultural significance in the city and the main concern of conservation is to protect heritage (Gülersoy & Gürler, 2011:2). According to Miller (1959:12) it is applicable to areas in which buildings are kept in proper maintenance and have a historical and cultural importance for protection. This form is applied to urban areas by preservation and restoration, restitution, renovation and reuse of buildings, cultural or architectural interest. It needs leadership of public authorities with policy-based plans and programs.

2.5. Actors and Partnership Models in Urban Regeneration Process

The success of urban regeneration depends on strong management and partnership. There are three main partnership approaches for urban transformation projects which are: public-led leadership, public-private partnership and private-led leadership

The Public-Led leadership: It is the most authoritative model in urban transformation. This model is based on political actors and the planning professionals

in the local authorities (Gürler, 2002:95). Model need high cooperation among public agents. According to Judd and Parkinson (1990), this leadership is based on two groups: Public Leadership and Sustained Leadership. Public leadership comes from central authorities for professional planning and economic strategies whereas sustained leadership comes from local authorities to apply urban regeneration in the area.

The Public-private Partnership: Public-Private partnership is a mutual commitment and cooperation work between public bodies and partners that operate outside the public sector (Poggesi, 2007). Similarly, European Commission (2004:3) define it as "cooperation between public authorities and the world of business which aim to ensuring the funding, construction, renovation, management". In this model, public and private sector have responsibilities for producing strategies, defining objectives, design, implementation and funding of urban regeneration (Judd & Parkinson, 1990:12-13; European Commission, 2004). Therefore, this is a more balanced form of partnership. Public and private sector share both risks and funding of the project. Public sector corresponds to central and local authorities and private sector covers industry sector, real-estate firms, constructors, property owners, planning and design professionals (Gürler, 2002:97). Moreover it includes semi-public organizations and their ideas. These organizations could be labour unions, universities, non-governmental organizations.

The Private-led partnership: It could be described as opposite of public-led leadership. All parts of the project is based on private sector and its partnerships. Also responsibilities are shared between private partners and it offers a controlled partnership by authorities. Judd & Parkinson (1990) mention that this partnership has two types; supervised partnership and subsidized partnership. Supervised partnership's urban transformation strategies and programs depend on urban policies however in subsidized partnership; everything includes financial manners (Fainstein & Fainstein,1983).

2.6. Social Sustainability

Smith (2002:60) define sustainability as long-term survival of an organization, programme or geographic. As mentioned above, urban regeneration has different dimensions. Sustainable approach to urban regeneration means integration of these

different dimensions on long lasting development (URBACT II, 2015:9). In other words, it is about having social, economic and environmental sustainability. Similarly, in 2005, United Nations General Assembly (2005) defined it as an issue, which has three components. These are economic, social and environmental development. These components are interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars. So if one pillar is weak, then whole issue is unsustainable and system works collaboratively on both components. If these pillars lack in the regeneration, it can cause gentrification of the area.

Smith (2002:60) defines sustainable urban regeneration as creating a new attraction point for people; where they want to live and work, now and in the future; where they are safe and inclusive, well planned and offer equality of opportunity; "where economic development meets the needs of current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own"; where there is good services for all and where they can find affordable housing.

Hence, drawing from the definitions of sustainable urban regeneration, having social sustainability in urban regeneration includes sustainable environmental and economic development. But in this part, I will look into definition, methods and criteria of social sustainability.

There is limited literature which focuses on social sustainability. Also there is lack of consensus about it. Existing definitions are made according to focus area or professional study of people. According to Sachs (1992:27), it is a term based on basic values of equity and democracy. It is an effective appropriation of all human rights such as political, civil, economic, social and cultural. Littig & Griessler (2005:72) stress on nature-society relationship and relationships within the society mediated by work. Moreover, they highlight importance of social requirements, such as satisfaction of an extended set of human needs, preserving it over a long period and participation of people. Also Biart (2002:6) determines it as "minimal social requirements for long-term development" and "functioning of society in the long run". However, both analysis lack environmental conditions which are based on long term results of social functions. Similarly Yiftachel & Hedgcock (1993:140) define it from a similar perspective without mentioning environmental values which is "the continuing ability of a city to function as long-term, viable setting for human interaction, communication and cultural development". On the other hand, Polese & Stren (2000:15-16) clarify it

in a more practical way by including the environmental conditions which is "harmonious evolution of civil society, providing environment for compatible cohabitation of culturally and socially diverse groups while encouraging social integration, with improvements in the quality of life for all segments of the population". So, scholars have consensus for importance of economic development, social aspects (such as social integration) and environmental issues such as housing, public spaces. On the other hand, Colantonio & Dixon (2009:78) state: "societies live with each other and set out to achieve the objectives of development models which they have chosen for themselves, taking also into account the physical boundaries of their place". Their definition lacks participation features of sustainability. In this sense, social sustainability should be more inclusive. It should include basic human needs and rights like equity and health. Moreover, it should develop the society's life of quality, enable their participation and have last-longing social integration, and coalition. These developments are key aspects to prevent gentrification and to provide social sustainability for a community.

Colantonio & Dixon (2009) mentioned that to achieve social sustainability in urban transformation projects, there are 10 criteria that need to be responded by the projects. These criteria are demographic change, education and skills, employment, health and safety, housing and environmental health, sense of place, identity and culture, participation, empowerment and access, social capital, social mixing and cohesion, wellbeing happiness and quality of life (Colantonio & Dixon, 2009:4) These are important areas to be addressed by urban regeneration projects to achieve social sustainability.

2.7. Gentrification

Definition of gentrification evolved within time. In 1960s, Glass (1964) defined gentrification as a process which "starts in a district, it goes on rapidly until all ... working class occupiers are displaced".. Similarly, Hamnet (1973:252) and Cloke & Little (1990:164) emphasized class issues and called it "class-dictated population movement". This movement occurs by immigration or invasion of traditionally working class neighbourhoods by middle or upper class. Their emphasis meets with change in the social composition of the urban area but it also includes a "physical change in the housing stock" (Smith, 1987:463). This physical change continues until

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"consequent transformation of an area into a middle-class neighbourhood" (Smith &Williams, 1986:1). However, definition is expanded to include newly built neighbourhoods by Smith who has a Marxist perspective in explaining gentrification. He claims that recently changes in urban area is not based on dwelling, it deals with larger scale and it becomes a "new form of neo-liberal urban policy" (Smith, 2002). Smith frames his arguments in the context of urban regeneration and defines it as a movement of middle-class people into former working-class area for "back to the city movement of capital" (Smith, 2002). He claims that gentrification is a process of moving capital to working class settlements.

Nolan & Smith (2002:60) argue gentrification as a part of urban regeneration projects by "influx of new residents into declining area" and they define it as a "positive social economic and physical impact". Drawing from this, gentrification is a tool which helps urban regeneration project to achieve positive results. This point of view defines gentrification from gentrifyers' perspective. However, in urban regeneration projects, changes in urban area does not always happen with "migration" of upper class or agreement between upper classes and working classes. Rather it happens with forced evictions or "forced disenfranchisement of poor people" who have "legitimate social and historical claims" (Lees, Slater, & Wyly, 2010).

As seen, the term gentrification is defined in different ways from different scholars' perspective. Drawing from these definitions, the term can be defined as a process of changing social pattern and clearing of urban area by upper-class movement toward lower classes' neighbourhood. This movement can applied with different forms of urban renewal projects. Now, I specifically look into the right to the city concept, which is the main theoretical framework of this research. I argue that right to the city concept should be central to any urban regeneration project

2.8. Right to the City

Right to the city concept is based on the writings of French philosopher Henri Lefebvre. His ideas emerged during the student uprisings in Paris in May 1968. As a result of this uprising, Lefebvre conceived a movement that would reclaim both the material and the imagined spaces of everyday life. In 1968, "le droit a la ville" (right to the city) and "The Urban Revolution" were developed on these ideas. Lefebvre argued that right to city is a "radical restructuring of social, political and economic

relations" (Purcell, 2002). However, until now, it has been discussed by different people and from different perspectives (Dikeç 2002; Harvey 2003; 2012; Marcuse 2009; Mayer 2009; Crawford 2011; Zeiger 2011; Butler 2012; Purcell 2008; 2014).

For Lefebvre, industrialization is the initial force of capitalism during the last two centuries and urbanization became the second sector of it (Lefebvre, 2003: 159). According to him, real estate functions as a second sector which buffers first one (industrialization), in the case of depression, capital shifts to second sector (real estate) (Lefebvre, 2003: 160). He also argued that "real estate speculation and construction becomes the principal source for the formation of capital that is the realization of surplus value" (Lefebvre, 2003: 160). This means that industrialization and real estate sectors intersect and supplement each other.

Likewise, Kuymulu (2014:30) mentioned that "industrialization was funneled more and more into the dynamics of urbanization". So, urbanization became an important tool for industrial capitalism (Lefebvre, 1993) because urban space reproduced capitalist relations by denying citizens' rights.

Furthermore, Lefebvre saw everyday life a space as where capitalism was surviving and reproducing itself whereas for Kuymulu (2014) capitalism survives by "not only organizing the production in space also orchestrating the production of space" and this leads to denial of the right to the city of inhabitants. Without revolutionizing everyday life, capitalism will continue to survive. The notion right to the city allows all citizens to participate in the use and control over the production of urban space. This means control over urban social and spatial relations, thus the social value of urban space weighs equally with its monetary value (Purcell 2008). To overcome the struggle in cities, use value of urban spaces should be equal to or over the exchange value of space.

Right to the city's framework does not only lay on urban social space. Dikeç (2001:1790) defines it as a political space which constitutes the city as a space of politics. He sees city as a space where all inhabitants could fully participate in urban political life. Also Don Mitchell takes right to city as an argument for "not to be excluded and fully political participation in the making of the city" (Mitchell & Villanueva, 2010:668).

In David Harvey's view, right to the city is "not only right of individual or group access to the resources that the city embodies, it is a right to change and reinvent the city more after our heart's desire"(2012:4). It is "reinventing the city inevitably depends upon the exercise of a collective power over the processes of urbanization". His perspective is generally based on economic view of the concept. According to him, "capitalism is perpetually producing the surplus product that urbanization requires and capitalism needs urbanization to absorb the surplus products" (2012:5). So he claims that surplus drives the capitalist system. He analyzes this by arguing that "to claim the right to the city in the sense I mean it here is to claim some kind of shaping power over the processes of urbanization, over the ways in which our cities are made and remade and to do so in fundamental, radical way" (Harvey, 2012:5).

Don Mitchell (2003) brings another perspective to Lefebvre's notion by spatial focus. He focuses on Lefebvre's argument that the city is an ouvre- a work in which all its citizens participate. He defines city as where different groups, people live with "struggle one and another over the shape of the city, also the city as a work-as an ouvre, as a collective if not singular project-emerges, and new modes of living, new modes of inhabiting, are invented" (Mitchell, 2003:18). He mentions that this ouvre is alienated in cities of today from its inhabitants. Thus, the city is "not so much a site of participation as one of expropriation by a dominant class (and set of economic interests) that is not really interested in making the city a site for cohabitation of differences" (Mitchell, 2003:18). He notes that "the modern cities are being produced for us rather than by us" (2003:18). He argues that the cities should be structured toward meetings of inhabitants and they must appropriate urban space with a process of political mobilization to control the production of urban space. This was also mentioned by Lefebvre, who stressed that there is a need for creative activity, for the ouvre (1996:147). This forms the basis of right to the city. According to him; "the right to the city manifests itself as a superior form of rights: right to freedom, to individualization in socialization, to habitat and to habit". Lefebvre clearly mentions that "the right to the city manifests itself as a superior form of rights: right to freedom, to individualization in socialization, to habitat and to inhabit. The right to the ouvre, to participation and appropriation, are implied in the right to the city" (Lefebvre, 1996:174)

From Purcell's perspective, right to the city is "an argument for profoundly reworking both the social relations of capitalism and the current structure of liberal-democratic citizenship" (2002:101). This is his critique of Lefebvre; he emphasizes a radical stance for revolution rather than incremental change (Purcell, 2014:1-2). As Lefebvre argues right to city is for future cities. What he means is that unless current capital system changes, the concept will never be fully achieved. So, it is a notion that requires change in the relations instead of restructuring to reach utopian cities. Purcell believes that there is a need for restructuring power relations in the production of urban space. He means to take control from capital or state and to give it to inhabitants (Purcell, 2002:101). He examines right to the city as empowering urban inhabitants. Purcell's perspective is more about "holistic understanding of social life one that is always attentive to the many aspects of human experience" (Purcell, 2014:6). For him, producing space in the city requires more than physical issue such as construction of social relationships (Purcell, 2002:12)

Right to the Participation

According to Lefebvre, right to the city has two important components: right to the participation and right to appropriation, which he calls right to ouvre. Right to participation means not only participating in urban space but it is also participating in decision making process and constructing urban social space. By this kind of participation, cities will be designed by inhabitants instead of for inhabitants (Mitchell, 2003: 16). Purcell argues that in current regime, capital and state elites are eligible to participate in decision-making of the state, however, all citizens must play a central and direct role in any decision of the production of space. Also inhabitants be should involve in decision making regarding all decisions that produce or change urban space (Purcell, 2002:102-103). Johnson (2011:27). argued that Lefebvre's notion refers "not only to the right to urban services but also to the right to inhabit and transform urban space and thus to become a creator of the city" In other words, Dikeç argues that "the right to the city is not simply a participatory right but, more importantly, an enabling right, to be defined and refined through political struggle" (Dikeç, 2001: 1790).

On the other hand, Mitchell mentions that participation is dominated by dominant classes or set of economic interests (2003:18). Lefebvre likewise argued that urban life and production of urban space could not be shaped or run by administrative prescription or the intervention of specialists (Lefebvre, 1996:146). Thus right to

participation is not only about inhabitants' participation in current politic structure, it is also right to reconstruct, reshape that structure with revolutionary perspective. Lefebvre's idea entails much more than simply returning to enlarge the established liberal-democratic citizenship structures in the face of governance chance (Purcell, 2002:103). So participation should not have top to down attitudes and approach. The right to the participation "entails not a right to be distributed from above to individuals, but a way of actively and collectively relating to the political life of the city" (Dikeç, 2001: 1790).

Right to appropriation

Right to the appropriation is the second aspect of right to the city. Lefebvre did not define appropriation as clear as participation. It was also not his focus point as much as right to participation. However the concept of appropriation was argued by numerous scholars. Therefore, this part of the thesis draws meaning of right to appropriation generally from others' perspectives. Lefebvre (1996) argued that right to appropriation is right of inhabitants to access, to be physically present, to occupy and to use of urban space. Furthermore it is "full and complete usage of urban space in everyday life" (Lefebvre, 1996:179). He emphasized use value of space and improving use value of space over the exchange value.

According to Purcell (2002:103, 2003:581) appropriation is right of inhabitants' physical access to, occupation of and right to use urban space. However, appropriation is much broader and has a more structural meaning in the sense of occupation. Right to appropriation is not only based on consumption of already produced area, it is also based on right to produce new urban space which entails needs of inhabitants (Lefebvre, 1996:179). Furthermore, it is "full and complete usage" of urban space which could be reached by use value of urban space as primary consideration during the production of it (Lefebvre, 1996:179). So, Lefebvre gives importance in appropriation to the use value of urban space. However, in current structure, urban spaces' exchange value (monetary value) is over than use value and "private property or commodity to be valorized" by capitalist production process. (Purcell, 2002:103). This is specifically what the right to appropriation stand against: having clear priority for the use value of inhabitants over the exchange value interest's capitalist firms (2002:103). He clarifies right to appropriation as a direct challenge to the social

relations of capitalism and defines it as a toll for inhabitants to gain urban space with appropriating.

Kuymulu (2014:50) has a Marxist perspective with regard to use values and argues that appropriation should not only be based on appropriation in consumption; also it is appropriation in production. Appropriation in consumption means that appropriating already existing or produced space for inhabitants. On the other hand appropriation in production means that producing urban space by inhabitants. So, having control over exchange value with use value not only relays on appropriation in produced area. It actively produces urban space.

Don Mitchell argues right to appropriation of the city from right to housing, right to inhabit and use value perspectives. Mitchell argues that "the right to the city implies the right to the uses of city spaces, the right to inhabit" (Mitchell, 2003:19). Therefore, he stresses that use value is the necessary bedrock of urban life for his understanding of appropriation and right to the city. Furthermore, one form of appropriation is right to housing which emerges from right to inhabit (Mitchell, 2003:19). Right to housing and inhabit the city demands more than houses or apartments, it is redevelopment of the city in a responsive manner to the needs, desires and pleasures of its inhabitants. But also right to house is clearly dissociated from right to property (Mitchell, 2003:20).

2.9. Conclusion

This chapter has briefly expressed definition of urban, urbanization and urban regeneration, as well as forms and partnership models of urban regeneration. The chapter argues for the importance of social sustainability based on physical, social and environmental aspects for urban regeneration projects. The chapter also presented Lefebvre's right to the city notion which is the key element to develop this research and to achieve sustainability Within the context of this research, the concept is taken and understood as right to access the basic human needs for those who live in the city and who have right to decide on changes in urban space.

3. URBAN REGENERATION PROJECTS

3.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to examine the phases and examples of urban regeneration projects across the world and Turkey. First of all, a brief history of urban regeneration in the world is presented and then a Barcelona case is presented to provide a successful example of a regeneration project. Then, I contextualize the history of urban regeneration within Turkey, present the related laws and analyze Sulukule case by drawing out crucial implications that should be taken into consideration when Ege neighborhood project for a sustainable regeneration.

3.2. Urban Regeneration in the World

Urban regeneration in the world can be examined under five periods. The first examples of urban transformation projects could be seen in industrializing cities such as Paris and London (Harvey 2012: 9). In London case, regeneration emerged with social housing movement; however it resulted in clearance of slum areas. In Paris case, when 1850s crisis broke out, urbanization was used as a tool to overcome the crisis (Harvey, 2012:9). According to Harvey, with the industrialization process and capital growth, urban development reached its peak point and needed new areas to use capital. However it couldn't find new dimensions in industrialization, so it calls "unemployment" of capital which caused to crisis in Paris. Harvey (2012) examines transformations in Paris, from a Marxist perspective and aims to solve "the capitals unemployment problem" and absorption of surplus value through urban development (Harvey, 2012:7).

Hausmann redesigned Paris with the aim of creating new investment areas for capital such as vast program of infrastructural investment, or constructing railroads through Europe (Harvey 2012:7). The investment did not only focus on reconstructing the city, but also the urban life and habits of citizens. So the city became a centre point of consumption with cafes, department stores, and fashion designs which altered daily

life to a consumption based one (Harvey, 2012: 8). Also, wide boulevards were constructed to increase consumption. Construction of wide roads served to the aim of encouraged people to buy cars and thus led to an enormous increase in the consumption of oil (Harvey 2012: 9). Lefebvre (1991) explains oil consumption as;

> *Government collects a certain percentage on petrol sales, so generating vast sums of money for urban and inter-urban highway construction. The building of highways benefits both the oil companies and the automobile manufacturers: every additional mile of highway translates into increased car sales, which in turn increase petrol consumption, hence also tax revenues, and so on.* (p. 374)

On the other hand, construction of wide boulevards invaded the marginalized groups' neighbourhoods and pushed them to move out of the city centre (Harvey, 2012:16). Same experience was also seen in United States' cities like Chicago, New York. These transformations indeed altered the urban fabric with eviction and clearance of slums and served to the needs of capital (Harvey, 2012).

The first period of urban regeneration in the world covers the time between industrial revolution and World War II. During this period, urban transformation projects' main focus was urban redevelopment, heritage conservation and slum clearance.

The second period is between 1945 and 1960. Freestone (2000) argues that in this period process of urban change shifted from modern-industrial cities to post-modernist and post-industrial global cities. Urban-transformations shifted from heritage-based to redevelopment based cities (Gülersoy & Güler, 2011:13). After the Second World War II, aim of urban transformation was to recover cities and to take back the attention of residents to city centres (Li, 2003). As a result of improvements in transportation system during industrial era, cities started to be decentralized, people migrated from city centre to suburban areas because of air and noise pollution (Mutlu, 2009:21). Consequently, city centres lost its urban fabric and attraction against suburbs and physical problems in abandoned residential areas in cities became more apparent in 1960s (Hall, 2002).

During this period, projects were mainly supported by state. States took responsibility in welfare policies such as housing, education, health services to citizens (Harvey, 2012). Therefore, property-led, commerce-led and service-led transformations were applied to decrease effects of the war and to create infrastructural and social

development (Gülersoy & Güler, 2011:14). To achieve this goal, urban redevelopments and revitalizations were aimed with public-led leadership model.

Öztaş (2005:12) defines this period as a "bulldozer period" because of an incensement on demolishment of old houses and reconstruction of cities. Reconstructions and demolishment caused destruction of existing pattern and it affected people. Öner (2007) list these affects as relocating people, demolishing of cultural heritage in project areas and rise of affordable housing problem in new constructed area for residents.

Third period corresponds to the beginning of 1960s and ends in 1980. In the beginning of 60s, it became obvious that previous transformations aimed to solve the physical problems of the city but they were enough. Therefore some key terms such as sustainable development, community life, health care, social development became important in planning process (Roberts, 2000).

Post-modern city construction and liberal rational thinking produced more communicative and equity planning approaches (Alexander, 1985). Consequently, decision-making process, participation and strategic programming in urban transformations became important tools of planning (Gülersoy & Güler, 2011:15).

In 1960s, urban transformation approach focused on urban improvement and urban revitalization to increase importance of old cities. Revitalization was based on economical and physical improvement. Demolition and conservation sustained physical revitalization and development of commercial and business centres. However, dominant approaches in 70s were area based urban rehabilitations. Project focused on conservation of historical and cultural heritage (Mutlu, 2009). In terms of urban renewal, the difference between 60s and 70s was scale and social manners. In 70s, cities expanded, therefore urban transformations were held in greater scale. In 60s, projects were based on revitalization whereas in 1970s, they were based on rehabilitation which included more social improvement to increase awareness of society about heritage (Doratlı, 2005).

The fourth period starts with 1980s and continues up to 2000s. Cities were main manufacturing centres before globalization, but improvement in transportation and communication changed the structure of cities and economies to shift from liberal to neo-liberal policies (Mutlu, 2009:26). Also, industrial production places moved to the outer parts of cities. This caused change in city centres and they were redeveloped as

service sector. Therefore, urban regeneration approach started to become a dominant intervention type for inner city revitalization. (Gülersoy & Güler, 2011:17). However these approaches were based on partial planning because of financial problems in developing countries. To solve financial crisis, neo-liberal economy approach was adopted by countries which in turn led less control of government on market. Hence, it altered the partnership and planning approaches in urban transformations and triggered private-public partnership. Governments made partnerships with private sector to apply transformations (Mutlu, 2009:26). For planning approach, urban regeneration became an initial one (Robert, 2000).

Parallel to these changes in partnership model and urban transformation approach, sustainability in planning, collaborative and strategic planning aimed to sustain long-term developments in urban areas. These new concepts in planning changed urban regeneration definition Keleş (2003) defines as physical definition to a more complex set of propositions which integrate social, cultural and economic goals.

The fifth period started in 2000s and it is still in progress. In this period, cities shifted from post-industrial to global cities (Gülersoy & Gürler, 2011:18). Rapid developments in science, communication and transportation altered people's lives and cities. Moreover, ways of production and structure of employment changed while local economies weakened and global economies strengthened. Consequently, effect of globalisation and urban transformation is redefined. Urban transformations concentrated on urban regeneration approach which included strategic planning approach in planning and monitoring the process with agent-based partnerships (Hillier & Healey, 2008). On the other hand, social and economic sustainability terms became a key aspect in urban transformation. For instance, The European Parliament (2000) gave importance to social and economic aspect by calling it; "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" (Chapter-I). To achieve this goal, one of the main aims was to combat social exclusion. Also, the European Council of Town Planners in The New Athens Charter in 2003 stressed the importance of "connected city "concept (The New Charter of Athens, 2003). Concept defined connective mechanism which aims to create link between tactile and visual, diversity and urban function, infrastructure and information networks in built environment. Basically it included environmental, social and

economic connectivity with the integration of all stake holders in the process of sustainable transformation. Therefore, urban transformations focused on service-led and competitiveness-led public services in urban areas to achieve economic and social sustainable projects. Such a transformation improved people's quality of life with services and created market-oriented urban regenerations with competiveness-led projects. (Gürler&Güler, 2011:19). However, as we proceed to 2010s, the market-oriented approach is shifting to rent-oriented transformations to provide competiveness. So, urban regeneration projects became the main approach of this period with a focus on participation, social sustainability and integration.

So far, I have presented a brief history of urban regeneration starting from the industrial era and have explained how we reached the urban regeneration as of today. Below, I provide a successful example of urban regeneration from Barcelona, Spain and explain the dimensions and processes that contributed to the success of the project.

3.2.1. Barcelona- Ciutat Vella urban regeneration project

Barcelona is located in north-east part of Spain, Catalonia region. It is the second biggest city in Spain. The city has a harbor which makes it a valuable hub for commercial, touristic and financial purposes. Ciutat Vella is the historical city center of the city and it is located on a 4 km^2 of land (see figure 3.1).
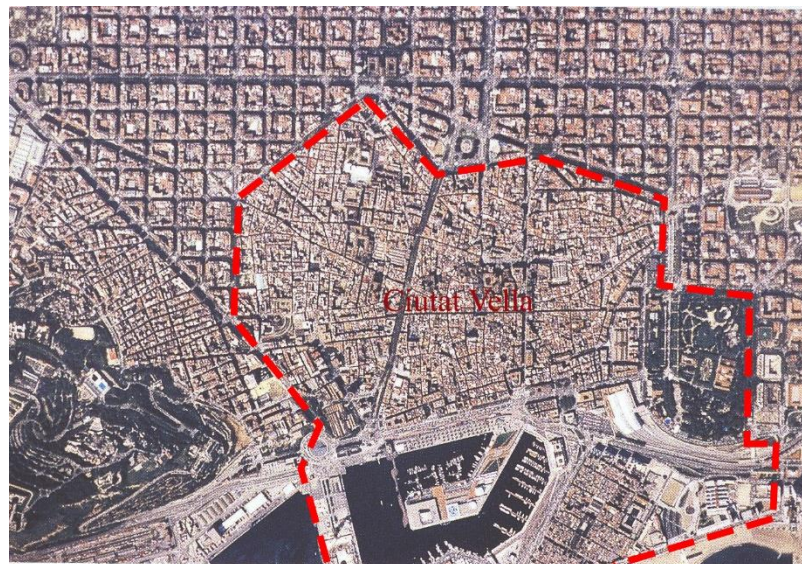
Figure 3.1: Ciutat Vella

Urbanization process of Barcelona started in 1850s. A competition was held to prepare city plan and to produce new lands for residential purposes. Cerda won the competition

and designed a new plan of Barcelona which forms the core structure of current city. According to the plan, city walls of Barcelona were demolished to expand the city (Yılmaz Atabek, 2009). Consequently, the city expanded and the population respectively reached 500.000 and a million in 1900 and 1930. Growth in population and urban improved the city's production of industrial products and increased trading activities. Acceleration in urbanization caused unemployment of inhabitants and produced marginalization and housing problems (Şahingür, 2005:70). The urban area faced physical and social decay. Marti (2004) surmise the conditions of the conditions in Ciutat Vella as of 1980s as follows: 7000 housing units did not have bathroom; 2 percent of buildings were under the risk of collapse; 70% of the buildings were constructed before 1900s; there was lack of infrastructure and sewage system; and commercial activities were low (see figure 3.2). Therefore, to enhance physical and social conditions in historical city center, urban regeneration projects were launched in the historical city center.

Figure 3.2: Raval district in 1990s (Küçük, H. A)

Ciutat Vella region is based on four neighborhoods which are; El-Raval, Bari-Gothic, Ancient Settlement area, and Barcelonetta. Among these neighborhoods only El-Raval

is a residential area (see figure 3.3). The area was a deteriorated settlement where marginalized inhabitants were living. Bari-Gothic and Antic settlement neighborhoods have historical buildings and monuments such as cathedrals, museum, churches, monumental buildings (Yılmaz Atabek, 2009:125). Barcelonetta has the antique harbor.

Figure 3.3: Ciutat Vella's Neighborhoods (Foment Ciutat)

In terms of population movement, in 1950s Ciutat Vella region was a settlement for 240.000 citizens. In 1990s population of the area decreased to 100.000; the region lost its importance; and it faced urban decay. (Şahingür, 2005:73). Depression in the area was visible from problems such as lack of security and health environment. In terms of population density, Barcelona had a population around 1.6 million and 100.000 of them were living at Ciutat Vella, which means 6 percent of the population was located in this historical city center. In other words, density of the city was 16.175 citizens per km^2, however, Ciutat Vella had 25.446 citizens per km^2. 21.8 per cent of population were immigrants and marginalized people. However, this percentage became 47.3% for Ciutat Vella (Foment Ciutat, n.d.) (See table 3.1)

Table 3.1: Population of Barcelona and Ciutat Vella (Foment Ciutat)

	Population	Percentage
Barcelona	1.603.494	100 %
Ciutat Vella	106.873	6.5 %
Raval	48.767	3 %
Gotic	18.720	1.1 %
Sant Pere	23.101	1.4 %
Barceloneta	16.261	1 %

Urban development plans aimed to address the problems of high density in the city center, lack of urbanization, inadequate sewage system and infrastructure, social-economic problems (unemployment, drug usage) and security problem for citizens. Therefore, a strategic plan was developed to establish entrepreneur European metropolis. In this sense, 3 strategic plans were decided by local authority. First one was to establish multi-purposed city in macro region by re-planning the city. Second one was to enhance life quality, re-plan green zones, improve social and education facilities and prioritize cultural infrastructure. Last strategic plan was to improve services for industry and firms by promoting technological developments and improving the infrastructure of telecommunication (Santacana, 2000).

The implementation of the project started in 1988. A private company was established to coordinate the regeneration. The company was established with public-private partnership. The company was established only for this particular urban regeneration project and the project was planned to last for 14 years. The company was closed down and winded up after the completion of the project the company was winded up (Yılmaz Atabek, 2009: 126).

The project was implemented according to strategic plans stated above. New residential buildings were constructed and necessary buildings were demolished in Ciutat Vella. Psychically deteriorated buildings were replaced with new houses, which were given to inhabitants. New squares and public space were constructed by

demolishment of some houses to address the problem of high density and lack of public spaces. Community center, library, health facilities, dormitories, gathering areas and senior centers were constructed in order to promote social facilities and cultural infrastructure (see figure 3.4). Infrastructure was totally renovated due to problems of sewage and electricity. Community rehabilitation center was established to protect marginalized people and prevent gentrification of them by selling their lands. This support was based on financial and social assistance. The project was financed by public and private sector and it was made sure that inhabitants experienced a minimum level of financial problem.
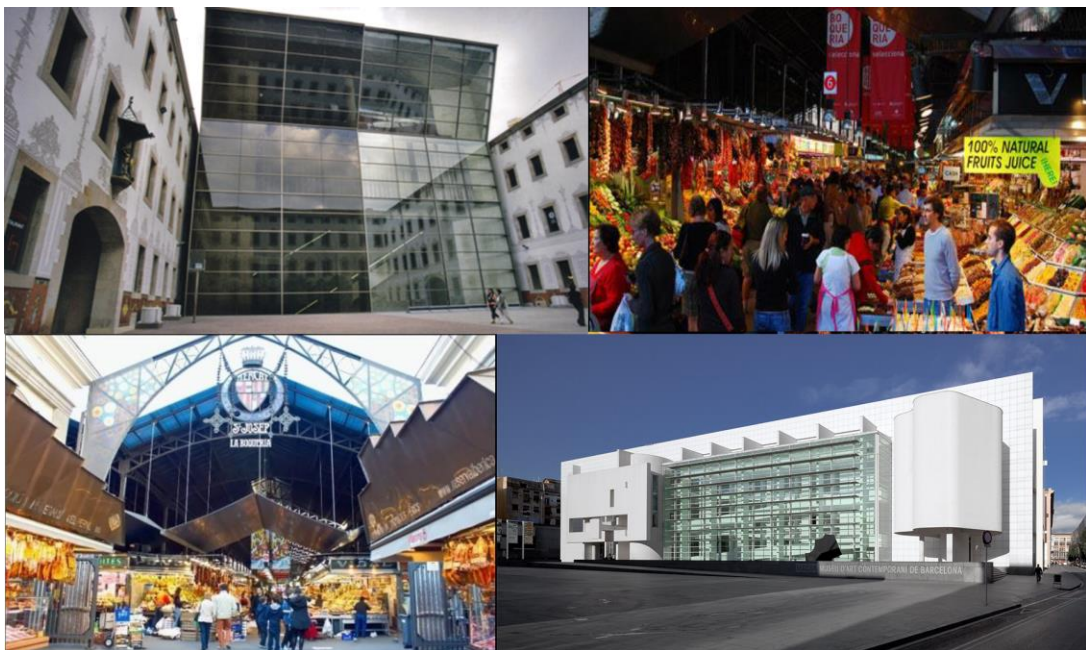
Figure 3.4: MACBA Museum, CCCB Culture Center and Sant Josep Boqueria Market (Foment Ciutat)

The project was completed in 14 years. Result of the project was important for urban regeneration literature and the city. Throughout the project, old city center's importance was restored and a better quality of life for inhabitants was provided. Ciutat Vella soon started to catch the interest of other citizens as a residential area. This integrated marginalized people living in the area with city. This integration success of the project was achieved to large extent a participatory design (Santacana, 2000). The inhabitants were encouraged to participate in the design process; planners and local authorities adopted shared leadership and thus a consensus on decisions was reached.

Santacana (2000) expresses some key outcomes of the project. First of all, rather than imposing authorities' decision to inhabitants and designing the project based on technical analysis, a consensus design was preferred. All parties of the project-planners, stakeholders, local authorities and inhabitants actively participated in the process, which produced positive outcomes for the project (Santacana, 2000). Moreover, planning without excluding any entities or inhabitants provided a sustainable and long-lasting project (Santacana, 2000). Another key aspect was sustaining reliable and continuous communication process among participants by including every participant in the project. All these aspects made the Ciutat Vella a successful urban regeneration project and it is accepted as a successful exemplary case of urban regeneration both for the literature and the future projects.

So far, I have focused on the history of urban development in the world and presented a case from Barcelona. Now, I specifically focus on context of Turkey. First, I present history and related laws of urban transformation in Turkey, then briefly provide the history of Roma people as they are the main subjects of urban regeneration in Turkey and this research. Lastly, I discuss an exemplary case from Turkey: Sulukule urban regeneration project.

3.3. Urban Regeneration in Turkey

It should be noted that cities' urban transformation in Turkey differs from the examples across the world. These differences arise from Turkey's unique economic, political, historical and cultural circumstances (Akkar, 2006:35). In Turkey, urban transformation mainly concentrated on squatter housings, slum areas, conservation of old historical districts and disaster prone areas that are under the risk of natural disasters (Keleş, 2004). However, when looked in the history of urban regeneration of Turkey, it could be seen how the priorities of concentrated issues changed within time and how urban regeneration evolved to be the current agenda of the urban development. According to Tekeli, history of urban regeneration can be analysed under four periods: the first period (1923-1950), the second period (1950-1980), the third period (1980-1999) and the fourth period (1999 – up to now). These periods are determined according to Turkey's economic and political change as well as changing approaches to urban areas.

The First Period: 1923-1950

This period is also called Early Republican Period. It starts from the establishment of Turkey in 1923 until the end of the single-party regime. The aim during this period was to spread Republican ideology across the country, to recover from demolishment of the war and to establish national economy. Initial economic power for urban interventions depended on public investments. Planning approach focused on conservation of historical areas and applying master plans, which aimed to transform the traditional Turkish society into modern Turkish society (See table 3.2).

This period could be better understood from a socio-economical perspective. During this time, the state's main purpose was to create national capital, spread reforms and republican ideology with modern city planning and construct national economy. However, only 20% of the population were living in the cities (Çavuşoğlu, 2014:83). Majority of the population were living in rural areas and were engaged with agricultural production. So, main income of people was based on agricultural production. Therefore, state invested in encouraging agricultural production so that capital earned from agricultural production could create national fund for growth in industrial sector. State also invested in education, health, culture and infrastructure to create a modern society, to eradicate the effects of war and transform Ottoman cities to modern cities.

Planning approach focused on three important issues. The first one was to select a capital city. In selecting the capital city, the aim was to emphasize and implement a national modernist approach in the city. Therefore, Ankara's master plan was designed by Jansen. Concordantly with this modernist approach, Izmir's Danger plan and Istanbul's Prost plan were applied in the name of constructing cities that reflect Republican ideology. The second one was to concentrate on railway construction which could connect the capital to other cities and increase the control of centre (Ankara) across the country (Tekeli, 1998:5). The third issue was to establish small cities for industrialization, which would be located on railway routes such as Nazilli, Kırıkkale (Tekeli, 1998:5). These three issues can be identified as city planning strategies of Republican Period and the nation building process (Şengül, 2009:114).

The Second period: 1950-1980

This period started in 1950, when DP[1] ushered into power and continued with growth in industrial sector. Therefore, during this period industrial cities were created and urban practices, urbanization and industrialization started to change (Çavuşoğlu, 2014:147).

Industrialization increased in the agricultural production and cities. Consequently, need for labour force in agricultural areas decreased. People started to immigrate to urban areas to find jobs and benefit from better health and education facilities in cities (Uzun, 2006). Between 1923 and1950 urban population did not change much (Çavuşoğlu, 2014:117). Housing stock in urban areas were enough for the newcomers, therefore state did not establish policies for housing issue. However after 1950s, rapid urbanization of Turkey emerged the housing problem. This problem was solved with state's approach to allow new comers use the public lands, which produced the problem of suburbanization, urban decline and decentralization (Kurtuluş, 2006). Lack of housing policies urged people to solve the problem by their own means. Thus, they created squatter areas full of substandard housings around city centres. 1950s main aim was to find solutions for illegal housing around cities. In 1960s, these squatters started to be transformed into illegal apartment buildings (Mutlu, 2009:36). Governments didn't react to illegal apartments because of vote potentials coming from these areas and executed amnesty laws for squatter areas. This encouraged people to make profit from squatters. Köroğlu and Erçoşkun (2006) argues that in 1960s squatter housing was a solution for housing need but then it became profitable because as people had economic power to construct new ones, new comers became their tenants. To address squatter areas problem, in 1966, law 775, which is called squatter law, was passed. Three intervention approaches were defined in the law which are: rehabilitation in squatters, urban clearance and prevention of new squatter areas (Yenice, 2014:81). Rehabilitation approach meant constructing infrastructure and rehabilitating constructions. Urban clearance was applied for the areas which were not available for rehabilitations.

This period's urban transformation approach focused on urban redevelopment and rehabilitation in the squatter areas (See table 3.2). Aim was to improve life conditions,

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[1] DP is acronym for Democrat Part. With DP, Turkey moved into a multi-party democracy era.

sustain infrastructure and solve adaptation problems of immigrants in squatters. Housing units were financed by people and state provided them with the infrastructure and basic public services such as electricity and water.

The Third Period: 1980-1999

This period starts with 1980 military coup, which lasted for 3 years. Then, the Mainland Party (Anavatan Partisi) came into power. Economic system shifted to liberal economy. Cities were also affected by liberal economy and globalization (See table 3.2) as the process of urbanization process started. Consequently, suburbanization and new residential areas were constructed in outer parts of the city. Illegal housing constructions and rehabilitation projects continued, but also urban regeneration approach started to be applied in urban areas.

Between 1980 and 2000, many laws were put in force to legalize illegal constructions and to solve ownership problems in squatters. These laws encouraged transformation of squatters building stocks into apartment stocks. It was one of the transformation approaches of the state. Governments passed policies to provide suitable environment for constructions and private entrepreneurs constructed new housings. This system could be called as public-private partnership. Ankara Çiçek Valley and Dikmen Valley urban transformations are examples of these interventions (Yenice, 2014:82).

On the other hand, not only amnesty laws but also expropriation law and metropolitan municipality law were put into force. Expropriation laws established legal base for intervention in urban areas and gave power to the state to expropriate private properties on the behalf of public. Metropolitan municipality law empowered local authorities and municipalities and granted them authorization for planning. Thus, they became decision makers in urban development and interventions, and increased their budget.

To respond rapid increase in cities and need to housing stock, Mass Housing Administration (TOKİ) was established in 1984 by government. Main purpose of this administration was to construct houses for low-income groups in cities. TOKI established new settlements for people and worked in cooperation with municipalities, they transformed squatter areas into residential zones like in Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir (Yenice, 2014:83).

The Fourth Period: 1999- Up to now

Fourth period starts with Istanbul earthquake in 1999. The approach to intervention in urban areas started to change, the main aim was set to decrease effect of natural disaster and transform the risky urban areas. Additionally, in parallel with global context, liberal economy shifted into neo-liberal economy (See table 3.2). This ushered the increase of global cities and a competition emerged among such cities (Mutlu, 2014:41). In this period, urban rehabilitation and urban redevelopment approach continued as an intervention method, however urban regeneration became a dominant approach to urban areas.

After the earthquake experience in Istanbul, quality of buildings started to be questioned. Therefore, to improve the quality and sustain redevelopment in demolished areas, urban regeneration gained more importance. On the other hand, in the third period of urbanization in Turkey, squatter areas were developed in outskirts of cities near to industrial zones. However, as the cities expanded and grew, these areas became a part of the city (Mutlu, 2014: 39). Squatter areas became valuable lands. Therefore, urban regeneration projects were launched to re-use these lands. Consequently, policies were developed by government to interfere squatters which lay on valuable lands. Act 5366 "Renovation, Conservation and Use of Dilapidated Historical and Cultural Immovable Assets Act" was passed.

In 2010, municipalities' power on urban transformations increased again. According to law 5393, municipalities were granted responsibilities in authorization of urban transformations. They had the power to renovate old housing stocks in city centres, protect historical and cultural fabric of city and take measures against earthquake risk. To perform these duties, municipalities were authorized with applying urban regeneration and development projects in urban areas.

	First Period: 1923-1950	**Second period: 1950-1980**	**Third Period: 1980-1999**	**Fourth Period: 1999-Up to now**
Dominant Planning approach	Conservation of historical areas	Rehabilitation in squatters, urban clearance	Rehabilitation and urban regeneration	Urban regeneration
Economic policy	National economy policy	National economy policy	Liberal economy policy	Neo-liberal economy policy
Partnership model	Public-led leadership	Public-led leadership	Public-private partnership	Public-private partnership
Problem of Urban	Construction and reforming cities according to republican ideology	Housing problem for migrants and emerge of squatter areas	Illegal housing constructions and squatter areas	Disaster risk and inner squatter areas

3.3.1. Policies about urban regeneration in Turkey (Legal basis of urban regeneration)

This part of the thesis examines policies about urban regeneration in Turkey. It does not aspire to present all urban policies but rather give an account of selected policies related to this research.

3.3.1.1. Renovation, conservation and use of dilapidated historical and cultural immovable assets act (Year: 2005, No: 5366)

Act 5366 was passed in 2005. The act specifically covers urban regeneration practices. Main aim of the act is to improve conditions in deprived and non-functioning urban areas by regenerating them. The act targets historical areas in cities. While regenerating the urban areas, the aim is defined as: "to improve social facilities, restoration of historical tissue, to stimulate solution for car parking, generating

residential, commercial, touristic and cultural area in accordance to today's needs" (Act 5366, 2005). According to act 5366, regeneration of historical areas can start if they are declared as an "urban regeneration area". Authorisation for decelerating an urban area as an urban regeneration area was given to local authorities such as metropolitan municipalities or municipalities. However, Council of minister for approval is also needed (Act 5366, 2005).

Other crucial part of the act is expropriation. According to the act, demolishment and expropriation should be based on conciliation with inhabitants. However, in the case of no conciliation, local authorities have right to expropriation.

There are two problems with this act. Firstly, no criteria are set to declare urban areas as regeneration areas (Uzun, 2006:51). Secondly, by transferring all authorisations to local authorities for urban regeneration limit the power of central authority on local authorities (Bayram, 2007:12)

3.3.1.2. Municipality act (Year: 2005, No: 5393)

The act was approved by Turkish Grand National Assembly in 2005. It covers laws related with establishment of municipal institutions, its bodies, management of municipalities, its duties and authorisations, and the principles and procedures. However, article 69 and 73 stands for urban regeneration practices. Article 69 underlines "production of lands and houses". Article 73 covers "urban regeneration and development areas".

According to article 69, municipalities are responsible for sustaining urbanization and responding needs of residential commercial and industrial areas to provide infrastructure lands and construct houses. In doing so, municipalities are allowed to buy lands and expropriate. Article 73 states that municipalities have the authorization to reconstruct deprived areas in the city, establish residential, industrial, commercial areas, social facilities, take precautions for earthquake risk and implement urban regeneration and development projects to protect cultural and urban tissue. However, if urban regeneration and development areas have state property, there is a need of approval of Council of Ministers. The article 73 limits right of municipality to decelerate an urban area for urban regeneration and development area and to implement projects on areas more than 500 hectares. So, by articles 69 and 73,

authorisation to implement urban regeneration projects was given to Metropolitan Municipalities (Act 5393 Municipality Law, 2005).

Municipality Act is criticised due to its land limit of 500 hectares and lack of assets needed for declaration of urban regeneration and development areas (Uzun, 2006:51). By transferring all authorisations for urban regeneration projects to Metropolitan Municipalities, district municipalities no longer have any decision and power to implement urban regeneration projects under their administrative areas (Üstün, 2009:67).

3.3.1.3. Regeneration of disaster risk areas act (Year: 2012, Act: 6306)

Act 6306 was approved in 2012. The act mainly focuses on under disaster risk areas and dilapidated buildings' lands. It covers regeneration, improvement or clearance of these lands to sustain safe and healthy environment. The aim of the act is to take precautions against all kinds of disasters such as earthquakes, land-slides or floods (6306 numbered law, 2012).

The act has negative and positive critiques. Turkey has high earthquake risk. The law makes it possible to demolish high risk buildings to reconstruct solid ones. On the other hand, the law can easily be manipulated to demolish and reconstruct the buildings that are indeed not in high risk. This can victimize the citizens.

3.3.1.4. Metropolitan municipality acts (Year:2004 Act:5216 and Year: 2012, Act: 6360)

Acts 5216 and 6360 are very much related with each other. Both focuses on metropolitan municipalities. The act 5216 was approved in 2004. It covers duty and responsibility of metropolitan municipalities without a detailed description. The act decreases the power of central authority on cities and it empowers local authorities. Also, the act expanded borders of municipality (5216 numbered law, 2004).

The act was approved by Turkish Grand National Assembly in 2012. The act focuses on establishment of new metropolitan municipalities and expansion of their responsibility areas. According to the law, 14 municipality became metropolitan municipality. All metropolitan municipalities' areas of responsibility were expanded to the provincial borders. Therefore, village's in cities became neighborhood of metropolitan municipality and they are defined as metropolitan municipalities' area of

responsibility. Before the act, metropolitan municipalities were not responsible for the public services in villages and local municipalities were responsible with such services (6360 numbered law, 2012). After the act, metropolitan municipalities' power and responsibility on villages were increased.

By 5216 and 6360 numbered acts, metropolitan municipalities became the main responsible body to provide public services, planning issues in their provincial borders. Thus, metropolitan municipalities were powered in terms of planning affairs such as urban regeneration projects.

3.4. Roma People

In this part, historical background of "Roma" people in Ottoman and Turkey is presented and definition of "Roma" people is given. Roma people are worldwide accepted as a disadvantaged group. There is a lack of written history on Roma people so there is a complexity to understand these people. The earliest research we can get on Roma people is in 1782 by Johan Christian Christoph Rüdiger. His work explored the close relationship between Roma language and Hindustani (Renard & Manus & Fellman, 2007:4). This close relation between these two languages is accepted as a major evidence which proves that India is the origin of Roma people. Similarly, Marushiakova-Popov (2001:11) states that Roma People migrated from India to other places between 5th and 15th century. Marushiakova-Popov (2001) mentions three paths for Roma migrations which created three different names for them. First group went to North Africa from Egypt and they are called "Dom", the second group went to north like Caucasus and is called "Lom" and other the biggest group migrated to Anatolia and Europe and they are called "Rom" (Marushiakova-Popov, 2006:14-15-31).

Arayıcı (2008) argues that Rome people migrated to Europe and Turkey from India. In every country, they are accepted as a minority and faced assimilation and social exclusion. Even exclusion affected how they were called. For instance, in Byzantine Empire, they were dealing with fortune-telling and wizardry. Therefore, Byzantine named them as "atsingani" which means a person who is dealing with deviant issues (Marushiakova-Popov, 2006:16). Freaser argues that in the Eastern Europe, they started to be called as "tsigan" which is generated from "atsingani" (Fraser, 1995:48). Consequently, today they are called respectively "çingene" in Turkish, "gyspy" in

English, "zingari" in Italian and "gitano" in Spanish (Lewy, 1999:1). So, calling them "gypsy" started in Byzantine times and the discrimination against them continued up until now. Therefore, in the Second International Gypsy Conference in 1978, name of "International Gypsy Committee" was changed into "International Roma Union" which aimed to use "Roma" word in order to describe all gypsies (Kolukırık, 2009:111).

Roma people adapt themselves to every place in terms of language and beliefs. There occurs variety in culture between Roma communities across the world; however they also have common characteristics such as culture of living together, living the movement, free spirit and dismissal of close and limited spaces (Kaya ve Zengel, 2005; Southern and James, 2006; Toprak Karaman, 2009). Therefore, many scholars classify or characterize Roma according to their occupations (Fonseca, 1996; Marushiakova, 2001; Beissinger, 2001). "Traditional Roma occupation" is related to craft but their occupations show great variety. Fonseca (1996:112) argues that Roma people were defined with their crafts even they don't deal with it for many generations now. There were two category of occupations they dealt with; itinerant labour and sedentary labour. Sedentary ones are divided into two: field and household. In this case, household Roma, who are musicians, had the top position compared to the field Roma (Eren, 2008:40). Itinerant labours are described by Marushiakova and Popov (2001:51) as "tinsmiths, farriers, goldsmiths, sword makers, stove-makers, shoemakers, slipper- makers..." Roma people continued these occupations under the Byzantine and Ottoman rule of Anatolia.

In Ottoman Empire, parallel with expansion of lands in 14th and 15th century, Roma community increased. Especially, when the Empire started to rule Istanbul, Roma society of the city continued to live around the castle. Presence of them can be found in the tax book records of Ottoman between 1522 and1523 (Marsh, 2009:12). However, their nomad lifestyle was a problem for empire in case of taxes revenue. Therefore, they were granted land by Empire to encourage a settled life (Marsh, 2009:13). Kolukırık (2009.12) argues that other than helping Ottomans with military service during the war, dealing with smithy and musician became main occupation for Roma people.

When the Republic of Turkey was established, Roma population increased due to the population exchange with Greece. In Treaty of Lausanne, population exchange was

based on the religion (Muslim) identity, therefore not only Turks but also Muslim Roma people migrated to Turkey (Kolukırık, 2009:13). They settled in different cities across Turkey.

Roma people have been the central subjects of urban regeneration projects during the last years. Sulukule Urban regeneration Project is the most known one both in Turkey and in the world. This was because it was both applied to Roma people, who were forced to evict but also it was an unsuccessful attempt of regeneration as it destroyed the historical peninsula. Below, I present Sulukule Project and explain the process.

3.5. Sulukule Urban Regeneration Project

Sulukule is located at the historical peninsula of Istanbul near to historical Byzantine walls of Edirnekapı. Sulukule is the unofficial name of the area which includes Neslişah and Hatice Sultan Neighbourhoods. Sulukule is known for its Roma culture and people who are in entertainment and music business. Roma community of Sulukule first appeared during Byzantine Empire in 11th century. Then the number of community increased after conquest of Istanbul by Fatih Sultan Mehmet (1453) who encouraged gypsies to settle in Istanbul (Marsh 2006). Hence, Roma people have moved to Balat and Sulukule from other parts of the Empire (Altınöz, 2007:15). Therefore, it is estimated to be an old Roma settlement for about 1000 years (Marsh, 2006). Until 19th century, community lived outside the city walls. According to Somersan (2007:725), it was only during the war time that they were located inside the walls to help military. During the peace time, they were living outside the city walls and dealing with gardening or entertainment (Somersan, 2007). Similarly Marushiakova-Popov (2001) and Marsh (2008) mention they were engaged in music to entertain the elites of the palace and pashas in Entertainment houses. In addition, Marsh (2008) states that women were dealing with story-telling and working as seamstresses, washer-women, coffee-house puppeteers and purveyors of folk tales.

In military, they worked as "metal-workers (especially in the Tophane complex), drovers, grooms and horse-trainers, porters, powder-makers, fletchers (arrow-makers), tent-makers and a host of auxiliary roles" (Marsh 2008:19). However, these occupations could vary in the different parts of the empire. For instance, in Bosnia and Kosovo, they were dealing with street-trades (Marsh, 2008). Therefore, they were not only contributing to entertainment culture but they were also a part of military and

economic activity in the empire. Ertürk (2009:33) mentions that it was Roma people who helped to establish Janissary Band. With the fall of Ottoman, they continued their occupations but their fame continued mostly with their music and dances.

Roma people carried on dealing with music after establishment of Turkey. They established entertainment houses during the early time of the Republic in Sulukule. However, there is a lack of information or consensus on the date of establishment or the opening of first entertainment house. According to Kaban (2011), the first one was opened during 1930s whereas in the thesis of Çetken (2011) and in "Beyoğlu Piliçleri" (1946) book of Turan Aziz, it is argued that first one was established in 1946 (Kaban,2011; Çetken, 2011). Sulukule and these entertainment houses were popular until 1960s. In Aziz's book, entertainment houses of 1950s and 1960s were described as simply decorated clean rooms where people played instrument, sang and danced. (Mimarizm, 2008). Sommersan (2007:726) describes entertainment houses as "private eat, drink, listen and watch places where middle and upper class Istanbulites came for the music and dance performances. These were tiny one- or room houses connected with intricate labyrinths to the owners' homes to facilitate service and going back and forth in the backstage for the musicians and dancers, and singers". In addition, some famous singers also sang in these houses. In republican period these houses were vital for neighborhoods' economic and social life. On the other hand, these houses and the region faced demolishment three times.

First demolition was in 1958 when Vatan and Millet avenues were being constructed to connect historical peninsula to outer part of the city. With this construction, some houses, including the entertainment houses, were demolished and people immigrated to other part of the neighbourhood. This devastated unity of the district and generated slightly first exclusion problem of Sulukuleans. Second and third demolitions, as Somersan (2007:726) discusses took place in 1966 and 1982 with twenty-five small and one large house demolishment, which displaced more families out of Sulukule. This led loss of identity and solidarity in the neighbourhood.

To protect Roma culture and entertainment houses in the neighbourhood, few attempts were taken in 1969 and 1985. Firstly, in 1969 inhabitants established "Sulukule Provide and Protection of Tourism Association (Sulukule Turizm Yaşatma ve Koruma Derneği)" with the help of Ministry of Tourism. The reason for establishing the association was to promote Sulukule, to create a new Roma neighborhood and to

maintain the connection among people who moved from Sulukule. With these intentions, association organized Gypsy Festival (Çigan Festivali) with many participants from Europe and Balkans. The festival lasted one month (Çetken, 2011:39). Yet the association couldn't reach its aim and it was closed down. Secondly, in 1985, Sulukuleans applied to Ministry of Tourism with "Entertainment Houses project". The project was approached positively by Ministry, and however it was not approved by municipality (Oral, 2009:102). However, they continued to operate these houses and increased its number to 34 and about 3500 people worked in them (Çetken, 2011:39). During this time, entertainment houses reached its highest level, and became the main sector of work in the region until they were closed down. Entertainment houses were not only important for people who worked there but also for the neighbourhood because people were selling various things such as roses to customers or some were providing taxi services.

In 1992, these houses were accused of promoting prostitution, therefore, by the end of 1994, all entertainment houses were closed down. This closure brought social and economic decay of the district. People became unemployed; they couldn't operate their shops and Sulukule faced poverty. They started to work in jobs with no social security or in sectors such as paper, scrap, plastic collection, fruit selling on street, drug dealer. Foggo figures out that musicians became street vendors and the entertainment houses were either offered for rent or instead became barns for animals (Foggo, 2007).

Until 2005, district became poorer and poorer. Therefore, local and national government decided to "improve" life conditions with "urban regeneration project". In 2005, act 5366 was approved by the Parliament. Being empowered by the law, on 13th July of 2006, Fatih Municipality, Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality and TOKI agreed on urban regeneration project of Sulukule.

So far, I have briefly explained the history of Sulukule. In the following section, I present the demographic structure of Sulukule before the project and then analyse how the urban regeneration project was applied. The most extensive work (questionnaire) on demographic structure of the region was conducted by Prof. Dr. Korkut Tuna, Dr. Ayşen Şatıroğlu and Dr. Mustafa Çağlayandereli in 2006. Therefore, the demographic structure presented below is drawn from their research.

3.5.1. Demographic structure of Sulukule before the urban regeneration project

The area of Sulukule, which was effected from urban regeneration, is 80.000 meter squares. The area had 690 housing units and 45 of them were being used as shops. 3430 people were living in these buildings. According to Fatih Municipality, 256 households out 690 were owners and 434 of them had tenants (Balcı, 2009:55-56).

The questionnaire was conducted with 124 people in the neighbourhood by Tuna, Şatıroğlu and Çağlayandereli. 58 percent of them were women (See figure 3.5) and 42 % of them were men (Tuna et. al, 2010). The main reason of high participation of women in the questionnaire was because women were more accessible as they were sitting out in the streets and chatting with their neighbours whereas men were usually at work.
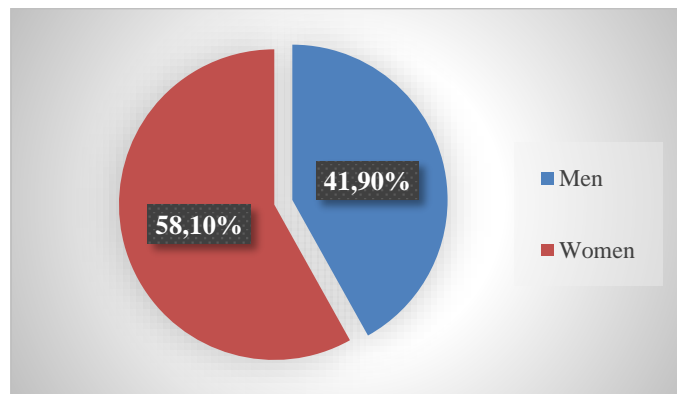
Figure 3.5: Gender ratio of responders

There were three age groups (See figure 3.6): 36-45, 46-55 and over 56 age (Tuna et. al, 2010). This shows that results contain different age groups' opinions but mainly focus on people who are 36 and above.
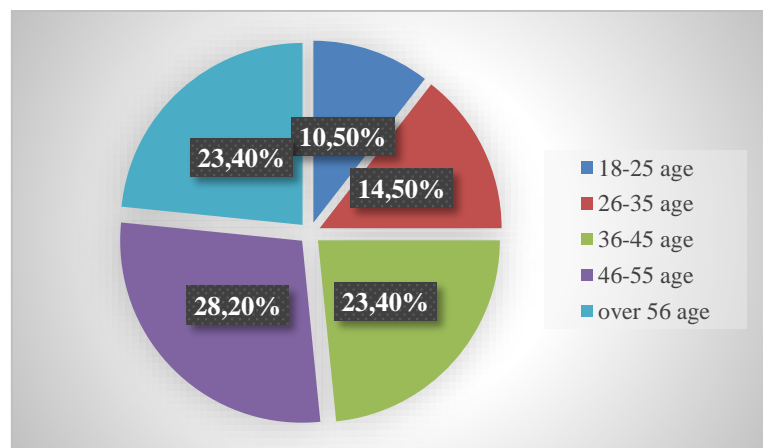
Figure 3.6: Age group of responders

In terms of education level (See figure 3.7), there were no university graduates and the percentage of illiteracy was high (34.9 %) (Tuna et. al, 2010). Majority of people, 44.4 %, was a graduate of primary school. Only a few people continued their education and graduated from secondary and high school. On the other hand dropping out of school was the common attitude among people. 23 % of them left school during their schooling, which shows the area has an education problem (Tuna et. al, 2010).
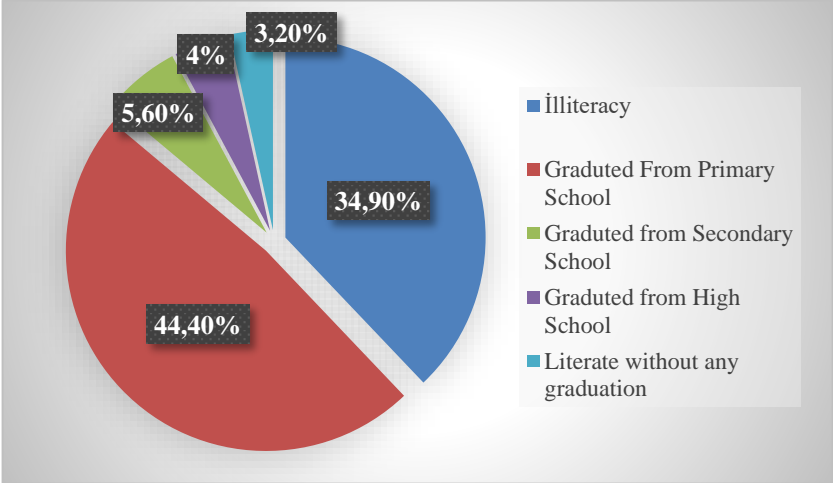
Figure 3.7: Education Level

Survey also shows that 56.5 % of people were living with 4 or less people in the houses, but there were also crowded households too (See figure 3.8). 8.1% of families had 8 and more people in the houses (Tuna et. al, 2010). On the contrary, 8.1% of them were living alone. Average size of the families was 4.3 people per household in Sulukule. Therefore, there was not a high density in terms of family size.
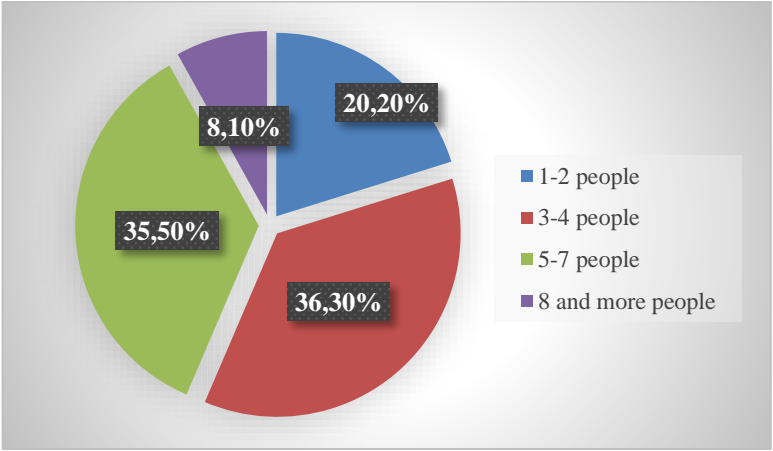
Figure 3.8: Family Size

In terms of employment rate (See figure 3.9), 53.2 % of the society was working and the rest 46.8% of them was unemployed (Tuna et. al, 2010). However, only 13.7% of them had a job with social security. 15.3% of them were working as street vendors or they were engaged in occasional jobs to earn money (Tuna et. al, 2010). This shows that the community had economic difficulties. Also, unlike the stereotypes created about Sulukule Roma citizens, only 3.2% of them were earning money from playing music (Tuna et. al, 2010). It is possible that after the closure of the entertainment houses, families stopped dealing with music and they did not encourage their children to take it as a business.
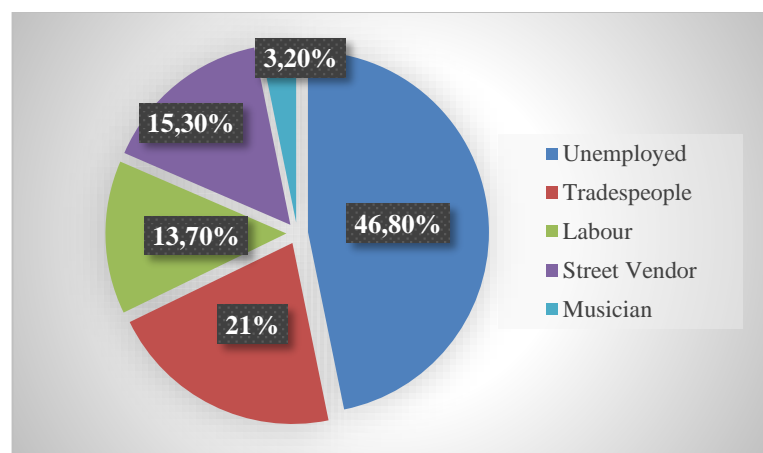
Figure 3.9: Job occupations

In terms of economic well-being, 46 % of people had income less than 500 liras monthly and16 % of them had income more than 1000 liras (İslam, 2009). As a result, it could be argued that people's income was lower than Turkey's average income. Considering that TUIK starvation line in 2007 was 570 lira, 46% of people were living under the starvation limit.

In terms of property ownership (see Figure 3.10), 51.6 % of citizens were owners of the houses and 39.5% of them were tenants. Survey shows that 55.1 % of tenants paid between 50-100 liras for rent and 91.8 % of them paid less than 250 liras (Tuna et. al, 2010) (see figure 3.11). This indicated that rent prices were lower than other parts of city. Hence, rent prices were affordable for tenants with respect to their income level. This encouraged and motivated people to continue their lives in the region.
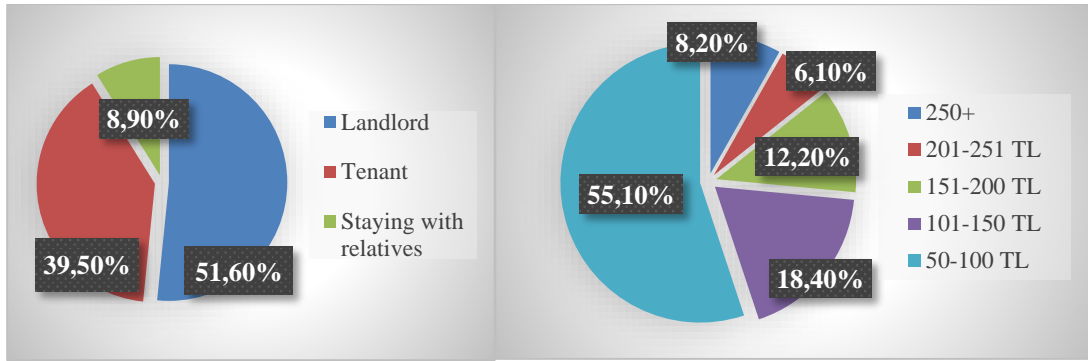
Figure 3.10: Property Ownership   **Figure 3.11**: Rent Prices

3.5.2. Urban regeneration process

The Project was carried out under this demographic structure. According to the project, householders and tenants had different rights and opportunities.

Firstly, in accordance with the act 5366, householders were offered two options by municipality. First option was being part of urban regeneration by accepting the conditions defined by municipality. So, only house owners had right to have new houses in the area by paying construction cost that could go up to 15 years of loan. On the other hand, second option was to sell the houses to municipality or exchange them with a new house (flat) from another TOKI project in the city. So, selling refers to transferring ownership of the property to municipality according to value determined by municipality. If citizens did not choose any of these options then the municipality had right to expropriation. Therefore, in any case, inhabitants were forced to be the part and subjects of urban regeneration project. This encouraged citizens to sell their properties to third persons or investors. In other words, they sold their rights. Thus, people had a chance to get more money from investors than what municipality offers them and they left the area.

Tenants did not have any rights in the beginning of the project. However, later on, municipality also gave them an opportunity to buy houses from TOKI project. The TOKI project houses offered to both tenants and owners were in Taşoluk. People were given to buy different sizes of houses with monthly instalments by paying between 250 to 400 liras of loans up to 15 years. Yet, Taşoluk was located in the outskirt of the city. It was used to be a forest and agricultural land. Despite this, it is a new residential area for the growing city. Constructions are on-going in the area. It should be noted the area is located 70 km away from Sulukule with lack of public transport and job

opportunities. This means people of Sulukule are being pushed to live in a suburb and they face losing their jobs as they cannot travel such a distance every day. Moreover, they are being cut off from their everyday life and practices.

To conclude, conditions of urban regeneration caused gentrification of the neighbourhood. This gentrification process can be analysed from for perspectives; economic, cultural, physical and social. From an economic perspective, gentrification process was based on housing conditions (Uzun, 2009). Firstly, tenants were excluded from the project and they did not have an opportunity to stay in the neighbourhood. They only had the right to buy houses from Taşoluk, however, 37 per cent of them did not buy it as it was far away to the centre and unaffordable (Uzun, 2009). So they moved out from the area. Then, householders sold their houses to investors because of forced eviction threat or because they couldn't afford to buy houses from the neighbourhood. New houses' values were 5 times more expensive than the old ones (Safdari, 2014). Therefore, they moved- to Taşoluk or other areas of the city. In terms of cultural perspective, the project did not provide plausible conditions to protect Roma culture or Roma life in the neighbourhood. The project was designed without respecting to old neighbourhood's cultural pattern (Safdari, 2014). In terms of social and psychical terms, design of the project did not establish a relation between Roma life and its use of space in the neighbourhood. On the other hand, participants did not have opportunity to participate in design process of the project. All decisions about social, economic and cultural aspects were determined by local authority. For all these reasons, gentrification became unavoidable and Sulukule lost its historical and vibrant cultural characteristics.

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter has briefly presented history of urban regeneration practices on marginalized communities by providing examples from Spain and Turkey context. Also, policies about urban regeneration are defined to contextualize Turkish context. It can be seen that. Barcelona case was successfully completed with participation of inhabitants. However, Sulukule case followed a top to down approach, which led to gentrification and further marginalization and victimization of Roma people. Both cases are important to understand the nature of an ideal urban regeneration project. Drawing from the experiences in both projects can provide valid data to achieve social

sustainable urban regeneration in Ege neighborhood which will be analyses in chapter 5 and 6.

4. DEFINING CRITERIA FOR SUSTAINABLE URBAN REGENERATION

This chapter aims to extrapolate criteria based on human rights and right to the city concepts for sustainable urban regeneration. Human rights can be defined as basic legal rights for human needs whereas right to the city aims to sustain equal opportunity and environment for citizens in order to increase participation of citizens in use of urban areas.

The chapter first introduces international declarations of United Nations on citizen rights in cities. These declarations are accepted and signed by many countries including Turkey and they address economic, social and environmental sustainability of cities. Then, drawing from the rights included in these declarations which have their philosophical bases in right to the city concept of Lefebvre, a framework is proposed to analyze the urban rights of people in Ege neighborhood. This list of framework serves to the first level of analysis of this thesis, which is presented in chapter 5.

4.1. Declarations

4.1.1. The European Declaration of Urban Rights (EDUR)

This declaration is based on European Urban Charter and it is accepted by Council of Europe's Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE) in March 1992. It includes key approaches to the improvement of life in cities which focus on four main areas; "i)improvement of the physical urban environment, ii) rehabilitation of existing housing stock, iii) the creation of social and cultural opportunities in towns, and iv) community development and public participation" (The European Declaration of Urban Rights declaration, 1992:2). Within this context, it aims to improve urban development in qualitative aspects rather than quantitative aspects and to protect fundamental freedoms, human rights. Charter works in collaboration and solidarity with local authorities in individual member countries, national and local governments, local governments and their societies, cities throughout Europe and beyond.

EDUR defines cities as complex and constantly changing entities. Its identity is rooted in history. Yet, within time, these entities have evolved and transformed in the light of new requirements, and lifestyles. Particularly between city centers and its suburbs areas, there are continuous movements which produce problems such as social integration, increase in deprived areas, lack of infrastructure and access to public services. These problems mainly arise from rapid growth of cities (The European Declaration of Urban Rights declaration, 1992:4).

In terms of right to the city, this declaration embraces human rights and it is based upon solidarity and equal acceptance of duties for all inhabitants. This includes basic urban rights which are;

- Right to protection from aggression, pollution and disturbing urban environment

- Right to exercise democratic control of their local community

- Right to decent housing, health, cultural opportunity and mobility (The European Declaration of Urban Rights declaration, 1992:4).

These basic urban rights should be applicable to all citizens without discrimination based on "sex, age, origin, race, belief, socio-economic or political position, physical or psychological handicap" (The European Declaration of Urban Rights declaration, 1992:4). Therefore, this declaration prioritizes creating a livable, agreeable, sustainable and healthy city of the future.

4.1.2. European Charter for the Safe-Guarding of Human Rights (ECSHR)

This declaration was signed in October 1998 by cities which participated in the European Conference Cities for Human Rights. Aim of the declaration is to improve the collective public space for inhabitants without discrimination and inequality.

Declaration defines city as home for all kinds of assemblies, space for personal development and place for contradictions, conflict, and danger (ECSHR, 2000). It is also source of all types of discrimination rooted in unemployment, poverty and cultural differences. However, above all, the city is where the future of humans lies. Therefore, cities should respect environment, healthy food, mobility and opportunity for social exchange, leisure in the name of continuation of city life.

In terms of right to the city, the declaration defines it as a collective power based on solidarity and inhabitant's right to determine their own political and ecological developmental agenda. The declaration asks municipalities to take responsibility in order to encourage right to the city for inhabitants with respect and dignity and to improve quality of life of the citizens. In this context rights, which are stated in the declaration focus on access to resources of the cities, access to inhabitants' right and local governments, recognition of all groups in the city, a city life with respect to basic human rights and without discrimination. Above all, it includes protection of right to city and promoting awareness of people on right to city by informal and formal education (ECSHR, 2000).

4.1.3. World Charter For The Right To The City (WCRC)

This charter defines cities as "a culturally rich and diversified collective space that pertains to all of its inhabitants" (World Charter for the Right to the City declaration, 2005:3). According to this charter, cities have potential territories with vast economic, environmental, political, cultural wealth and diversity. On the other hand, cities also include actual development models generating poverty, exclusion, social and spatial segregation, privatization of common goods and public spaces. In this context, it could be argued that cities are far from offering equitable conditions and opportunities to their inhabitants. Therefore, right to the city comes up as an important concept to address aforementioned problems of cities.

WCRC defines right to the city as "the equitable usufruct of cities within the principle of sustainability, democracy, equity and social justice" (World Charter for the Right to the City declaration, 2005:2). This includes not only traditional focus on improvement of people's quality of life based on housing and neighborhood but also addresses all the civil, political, economic, social, cultural, and environmental rights. It is regarded as a collective right rather than an individual right of citizens. Thus, citizens are understood as all persons who inhabit a city. Regardless of whether they live permanently or temporarily, all people are considered a city's citizens.

All three declaration's undertaking of right to the city has their philosophical underpinnings in Lefebvre ideas and writings. However, Lefebvre does not offer a fully fleshed, rigid or clear aspect of right to the city but offer a vague philosophical and abstract definition and understanding of the concept. Therefore, drawing from the

items in these three declarations (see appendix XX), below a list of 10 urban rights is proposed. The list is formed and tailored according to Turkey and research context. This means that since this thesis focuses on gypsy communities, who are socially, economically and politically disadvantaged in Turkey, the list has a particular focus on marginalized groups. In so doing, some rights in declarations are re-grouped in a way that is both context-specific and that could illuminate the data efficiently. For instance, right to efficiency of public services, consumer rights and right to movement and tranquility in the city stated in ECSHR are incorporated under right to public transportation and urban mobility in the list proposed below. Lastly, in discussing rights, references from Lefebvre's and Harvey's understanding of right to the city is given to better show how these rights are indeed make up a part of the broader idea of right to the city concept

4.2. The List for Rights Analysis

4.2.1. Principle of equality of rights and non-discrimination

This right is addressed in article 15 of EDUR, article 4, 10 and 12 of ECSHR. This right entails that local authorities-such as municipalities, metropolitan municipalities, headman of neighborhood and villages -should guarantee equal opportunities for all citizens, regardless of sex, age, origin, language belief, social, economic or political opinion, level of income, physical or psychological handicap. These opportunities include full and equal use for wide range of accessible services, resources, adequate quality and goods which are provided by local authority, the private sector or by partnerships.

In this sense, all three declarations describe 'citizens' in the same way as Lefebvre: "All persons who inhabit cities, either permanently or temporarily, with no discrimination of any kind" (World Charter for the Right to the City declaration, 2005:4).

In terms of marginalized or disadvantages groups, declarations state that "the most vulnerable groups and citizens have the right to enjoy special protection" (European Charter for the Safe Guarding of Human Rights in the City declaration, 2000:4). Thus, it asks authorities to aid these groups so that they could be integrated into city life which includes adaption of their housings, places of work and leisure. Their rights

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should be further supported by financial support or introduction of social policies which would reject any form of exclusion and right to stay them in the city under conditions which are incompatible with human dignity.

4.2.2. Right of (public) information

This right is drawn from article 6 of WCRT, article 11 and 23 of ECSHR. It includes inhabitants' right to receive complete, reliable, adequate, timely information about social, economic, cultural, local administrative life and the businesses and societies that deliver public services. Information should be delivered by free and open mechanisms such as local newspapers, billboards, or through information desks. To serve this aim, actions should promote learning, facilitation of access and up-dating periodically about the events or changes in cities. Right to information does not only involve actions, news and events regarding the city life but also includes constructions and expenditure of municipalities. It is one of the foremost duties of authorities to inform the citizens transparently and freely about how they run the financial and public source of the city for the good and benefit of the citizens. However, when looked from the lens of urban development programs, WCRC requires that this right should cover the future projects and plans, housing programs developed in the city. This is rather important as a citizen holds the right to know how the city is changing and how its urban structure is developing. The significant aspect of this right is that there should be systematic, transparent and automatic information processes.

4.2.3. Right to education

This right is addressed in article 17 of EDUR, 12, 15 and 18 of WCRC and article 10 and 13 of ECSHR. These articles explicitly state that citizens have right to receive education and therefore they should be provided with permanent access to education including accessible adult education with regard to values of democracy Authorities should promote lifelong learning for inhabitants and develop mechanisms to prevent child labor so that children can enjoy childhoods and acquire education. Thus, problems which result from lack of education can be prevented. Moreover, The European Declaration of Urban Rights article 17 emphasizes that urban conditions be conducive to the achievement of personal well-being and individual social, cultural, moral and spiritual development (by education).

Right to education expands well beyond formal education and also addresses promoting public consciousness through training and education of human rights and right to the city on the principles of democracy and tolerance. This is particularly important to create an opportunity for full participation in the city life with respect to freedom of choice in educational, religious, cultural and political matters. This teaching and socialization of right to the city awareness is also defined as a duty of all educational centers and universities.

4.2.4. Right to work

This right is drawn from article 14 of ECSHR, article 15 of WCRC and article 3 of EDUR. It advocates inhabitants' right to enjoy sufficient financial conditions which guarantees a satisfactory quality of life. This could be achieved if cities provide achievement of full employment opportunities. Therefore, cities should promote further education and re-training workers and unemployed with permanent formation programs for updating skills in the work force. Cities should also develop mechanism which guarantees equality for all persons in labor matters and prevents any discrimination on the base of nationality, culture, gender, working conditions and disability in matters of salary. This mechanism should work in collaboration with public administrations and the private sector. Such mechanism should also work to prevent and pay attention to child labor, illegal employment involving either nationals or foreign workers. To achieve equality, physical instruments such as nurseries or for the handicapped should be promoted by installation of appropriate equipment. This can also help to improve work conditions, if it is coupled with programs to establish the urban housing used by female household heads and marginalized groups such as work spaces for living.

4.2.5. Right to culture

This right can be found in the article 15 and 19 of ECSHR, 8, 10 and 13 of EDUR and article 1, 2 and 5 of WCRC. Citizens have a right to culture in all expressions, forms and manifestations and the municipal authorities should promote the development of cultural life with respect for diversity. It should also enable inhabitants' access, participation and establishment of wide range of cultural and creative activities. The most plausible way to do is promotion of suitable public spaces. Culture right is particularly stressed in declarations as cities have an important role in contributing to

social integration and multi-culture by making cultural centers and public spaces available to everyone.

In terms of natural historical and architectural heritage, cities should establish equilibrium between urban development and protection of them and should actively seek the restoration and reuse of existing buildings. Also, cities should stimulate physical form achieved through contemporary architecture of high quality and sensitive restoration of historic built environment.

4.2.6. Right to house

Housing right is a human right which is established in many international human rights instruments. Leckie (1992:4) points out that the international legal foundations of the human right to adequate housing is a natural global social contract which is designed to ensure access to a secure, adequate, and affordable home for all people in all countries. According to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) which was approved by countries;

> *Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control. (p. 76)*

Furthermore, United Nations recognizes the right to housing in the habitat agenda in Istanbul Declaration on Human Settlements (1996:8). Articles 8 and 9 state that;

> *the full and progressive realization of the right to adequate housing shall be seek the active participation of public, private and non-governmental partners at all levels to ensure legal security of tenure, protection from discrimination and equal access to affordable, adequate housing for all persons and their families and it shall be expand the supply of affordable housing by enabling markets to perform efficiently and in a socially and environmentally responsible manner, enhancing access to land and credit and assisting those who are unable to participate in housing markets. (p.8)*

This right is extensively mentioned in the article 14 of WCRC, article 4 of EDUR, article 16 of ECSHR. As stated above, Cities should provide their inhabitants with

adequate living conditions, adequately located houses in accordance with their incomes and with respect to their cultural, ethnic characteristics). This also includes citizens' right to a proper, safe, affordable, salubrious, healthy home. Moreover, cities should facilitate urban facilities for houses.

In terms of usage of houses, all inhabitants have right to security of housing tenure through legal instruments and they have right to protection from eviction, expropriation or forced or arbitrary displacement. For tenants, authorities should protect them from profiteering and from arbitrary evictions, regulating housing rents.

In terms of marginalized, vulnerable groups, and groups and women, cities should guarantee priority in housing laws, policies, programs and support directly organization of these people, guaranteeing in all cases preservation of their autonomy. World Charter for the Right to The City declaration, article 14 and European Charter for the Safe Guarding of Human Rights declaration article 16, specifically emphasizes that municipal authorities should guarantee the right of nomad, Romani to stay in the city and all rights for housing should be applicable to them. Authorities should adapt marginalized groups' dwellings, place of leisure, active policies to support them. Furthermore, they should assist their social integration to city life and prevent discrimination against them.

4.2.7. Right to health

Right to health can be found in article 17 of ECSHR, article 16 of WCRC and article 6 of EDUR. This right asks cities to sustain an environment and a range of facilities conductive to physical health and psychological health. Cities should encourage equal access for inhabitants to medical, preventive health care. All necessary initiatives should be taken for public health. Also, during the urban planning, authorities should contribute to promotion of health care for inhabitants with municipal actions and participation of citizens. Right to health is also closely related to environmental pollutions and cities should prevent all kind of pollutions and should reach all inhabitants, including marginalized groups, in case of contagious diseases and sustain necessary medical care.

4.2.8. Right to healthy environment and leisure

This right is stated in article 2 of EDUR, article 21 and 18 of ECSHR, and 12 and 16 of WCRC. Cities should be responsible for creating an environment free from air, noise, water, ground pollution. They should be protective about nature and natural resources and should provide inhabitants with access to public services of potable water, waste removal, energy, facilities for health and basic good. This right also mentions that cities should prevent occupation of environmental protection areas and unordered occupation of these areas. Authorities should sustain these areas with respect to historic, architectural, cultural and artistic heritage so that inhabitants can enjoy a healthy environment and leisure time.

In terms of healthy environment, as stated in right to health, cities should prevent pollution with policies and actives. They are responsible for promoting energy saving, recycling; refuse disposal and protecting green zones, to protect environment and also they should develop teaching strategies for environmental protection particularly to children. When it comes to right to leisure, local authorities should provide quality leisure spaces for all children without discrimination. At this point, they should provide accessible facilities for them and facilitate participation in sport activities. Yet there should be a fine line between supporting city tourism and social, ecological wellbeing of inhabitants. Citizens' right to access healthy environment and leisure places should not be prevented for the sake of economic benefits of tourism.

4.2.9. Right to public transportation and urban mobility

This right is heavily stressed in the article 20 of f ECSHR, article 5 of EDUR, article 13 of WCRC. Inhabitants have right to move freely in the cities and relative system for urban and inter urban circulation plan should be developed by cities. Public transport should be accessible by all inhabitants and the system should provide access to all urban resources and facilities. The public transportation should also be provided with reasonable cost. While sustaining public transportation system, cities should pay attention to pollution. The municipalities should frequently control the emission of vehicles for all kind of pollutions and they should encourage the use of environmentally friendly vehicles so that they can contribute to establishing healthy environment.

In addition to environment-friendly vehicles, cities should stimulate areas for foot traffic. There should be a harmonious balance between all street users, such as public transportation, the private car, the pedestrian and cyclists. To sustain the harmony cities should remove architectural barriers for disabled people with installation of necessary facilities in the mobility or circulation system. Cities should adapt them to all public-use buildings, work, and leisure facilities such as providing suitable work environment and access to cities resources and their homes.

4.2.10. Right of political participation (right of association assembly and demonstration)

This right is referred in article 4, 8, 9 ad 10 of ECSHR, 9 and 12 of EDUR and 8, 9 and 20 of WCRC. Right of political participation extends beyond taking part in political life with democratic election. It includes inhabitants' right of access to public debates, making direct enquiries to the municipalities and expressing their opinion through municipal referendum or public actions and meetings. Citizens' associations meeting and demonstration should be guaranteed by authorities as it is an expression of citizenship. Furthermore, cities should announce all decisions that could affect local policies of urban planning, production, renovation, improvement and management. At this point, these articles are congruent with the notion of right to the city which mentions basic principle of right to participation and being part of the decision period. (Lefebvre, Kofman, & Lebas, 1996:154). This participation method is not limited within the city and further includes that citizens are free and therefore should be encouraged to participate directly in the international relations of their community.

This right attains full liability to local authorities and cities to provide citizens with necessary opportunities to express themselves and argues that the city should offer public spaces for open meetings and informal gatherings. These public spaces should be accessible by all inhabitants and authorities should finance use of public spaces for participation. In other words inhabitants should have the right to access and use related rights and duties.

Regarding the minorities and marginalized groups in cities, cities are expected to play an active role in supporting these groups and guaranteeing each one the right of participation in life and assist the social integration of them into society without

discriminating any groups. Thereby cities could prevent discrimination against these groups and "guarantee access to justice services by establishing special policies in favor of the marginalize groups and strengthening free public defense system" (World Charter for the Right to the City declaration, 2005:7).

4.3. Conclusion

This chapter has proposed a list of framework to look into how the proposed project addresses Ege neighborhood's inhabitants' right to city entitlements and to explore the extent proposed urban regeneration project respects the citizens' claim on cities and their expectations which are presented in chapter 5. This framework has its philosophical base in Lefebvre's right to the city theory and draws from the international declarations which are likewise inspired and shaped by the ideas of Lefebvre's right to the city. This framework is believed to be helpful in analyzing the project and people's expectations in a more integrated way and offers a useful guideline to put Lefebvre's main arguments about right to the city into a list of framework that could be easily applied to a contextual setting. The next chapter now looks into the urban regeneration cases in the world and Turkey.

5.   CASE OF EGE NEIGHBORHOOD

This chapter aims to examine Ege neighborhood and its urban regeneration project. Firstly, the chapter presents the historical background and demographic structure of the neighborhood. Then it analyses urban regeneration project with respect to the list of framework drawn from right to the city concept defined in chapter 4.

Ege neighborhood is located in the city center of Izmir. Although this is the official name of the area, it is usually called as "murtake" or "mortake" by its inhabitants. For outsiders of the neighborhood, it is called "tenekeli mahalle" (favela). It is one of the oldest settlements of the city and, it is also well-known as a Roma settlement. In the neighborhood, people prefer to call their neighborhood "murtake". The word comes from a Greek word which is called "mortakia". It means country of the dead. According to Berent (2014), the reason why it is called murtake (the dead country) is because the area was a Greek cemetery before their arrival. The reason why outsiders call it "tenekeli mahalle" is because the first constructed houses in the area was from tin material.

Figure 5.1: Location of Ege neighborhood

As seen in the photo above (figure 5.1 & 5.2), the neighborhood is located near Izmir Fair Area, city center, Alsancak stadium and harbor area. The area is surrounded with

high rent areas and constructions. Especially, with new city center project of Izmir, skyscrapers have already been started to be constructed in the hinterland of the harbor. Therefore, its value and the rents are increasing day by day. However, constructions, which are located in the neighborhood, do not have as high rent value as surrounding neighborhoods. Additionally, area is economically and physically deprived and face drug related problems, and integration problems with the city.
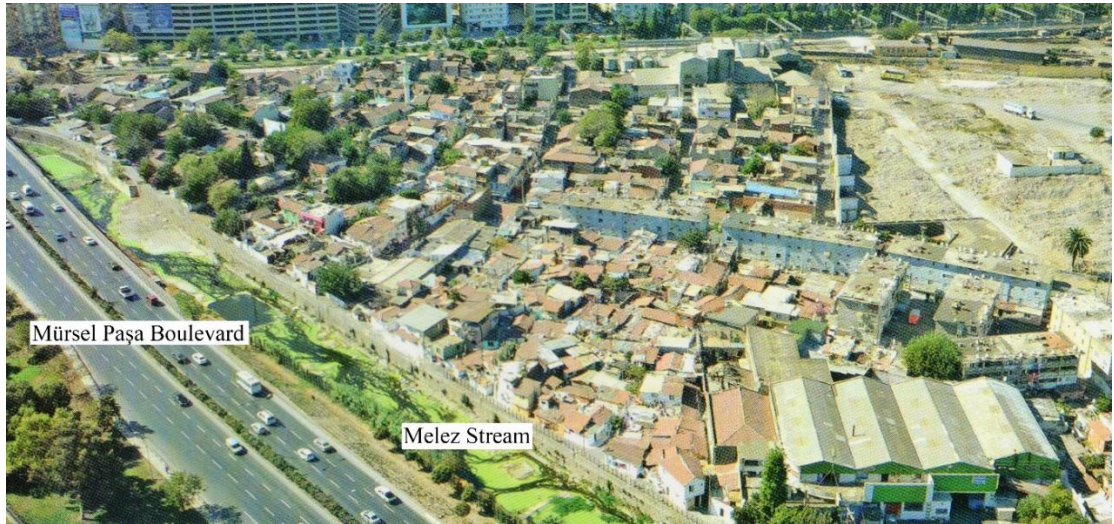
Figure 5.2: Ege Neighborhood

As in other Roma cases, there is a lack of written document for Ege neighborhood. Academic work about the area is limited. There are only few articles and theses about the neighborhood. The master's thesis written by Yağlıdere in 2007 provides us detailed information about sociological and demographical conditions of the neighborhood. On the other hand other, articles (Aşkın, 2011; Toprak Karaman, 2009; Diktaş and Sönmez, 2015, Kaya and Zengel, 2005) focus on integration and exclusion problems, and possibilities of participation of the Romani society into public life of the city.

History of the neighborhood is not mentioned in official documents. Kolukırık (2009:52) states that people who came to from Greece to Anatolia, as a consequence of population exchange in 1923, settled in Izmir. In the article of Aljazeera, Erdinç (2014) mentions that area was established by people who came from Thessaloniki. In addition, in interviews and questionnaires conducted in the field, it was frequently mentioned by old people that their grandfathers migrated from Thessaloniki. On the other hand, Yağlıdere argues that in the beginning of 19th century, place of the

settlements was a marsh area (Yağlıdere, 2007:50). Therefore, there is a lack of information about the area's former function.

In my interview with the head of the neighbourhood (muhtar), he confirmed that around 2700 people live in 772 housing unit. Among them, 582 of them are titled. Other houses are officially identified as occupants. Mukhtar stated that 1500 citizens are over 18 years old and almost half of the population is youth.

5.1. Demographic Structure of Ege Neighborhood

This part analyzes demographic structure of the neighborhood. To analyze the conditions, questionnaires and interviews were carried out between June 2014 and April in 2016 the survey was conducted every day of the week with face to face interviewing method. The reason for doing this was due to illiteracy and low education level, which would cause a problem of reaching more reliable results. Participants were randomly selected. Almost all people were willing to answer the questions and giving their opinions about urban regeneration. In some cases, they voluntarily approached and wanted to join the survey. Only in few cases, people refused to respond due to the lack of information about the questions.

Questionnaire was carried out with 105 people; however 3 of them were considered as irrelevant or gave incomplete and contradictory responds. So, 102 of them were evaluated. Surveys tried to be applied to both gender equally. %52 percent of respondents were men and %48 of them were conducted with women (See figure 5.3). It was not easy to take women's responses and to reach them. Therefore, survey was conducted in different times of day and in different days to reach women, or to reach people who have different perspectives, such as employed and unemployed ones. On the other hand, to reach different groups in the neighborhood, some surveys were applied after 6 p.m. or after at 9 p.m. Especially in the summer, street are more crowded than midday. According to my observations, clearly, after 6 p.m. streets were more lively as people started to sit in front of their houses, in the small squares they created in their streets. Even street vendors started working after 6.p.m.
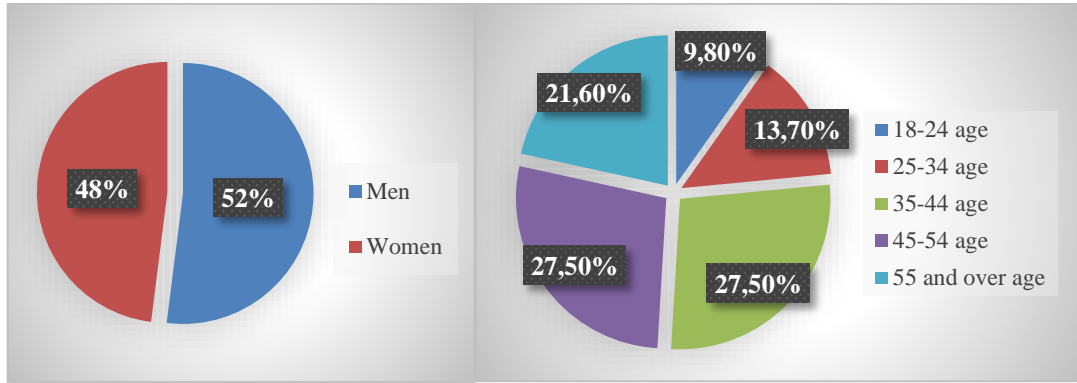
Figure 5.3: Responder's Gender   **Figure 5.4:** Responders' ages

Generally, surveys were conducted with middle age group and older people. Responders' age range was between 18 and 73. 76.6 % of the survey was responded by residents over 35. Figure 5.4 provides the distribution of age groups participated in the study. As seen, almost all age groups were addressed to provide different demands or priorities of age groups.
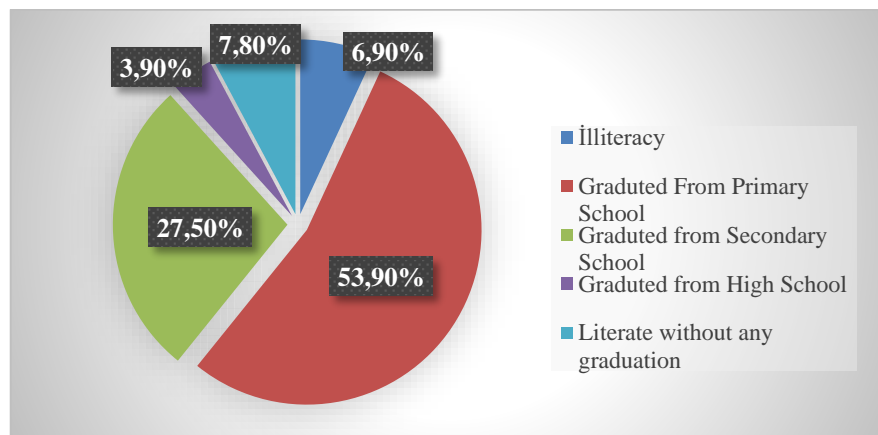
Figure 5.5: Responders' education level

Regarding the education level, %53.9 of them graduated from primary school, %27.5 of them graduated from secondary school, %7.8 of them were literate but not did not have any formal schooling degree or had never been to school; %6.9 of them were illiterate, %3.9 of them graduated from high school (See figure 5.5). None bachelor's degree or graduate degree. It seems that majority of the citizens graduated from primary school. However, I observed during the interview and surveys that some responders were ashamed of saying that they never had formal schooling so they told that they graduated from primary school instead of saying literate but not graduate. On

the other hand, according to interview with head (mukhtar) of the neighborhood Kemal Dursun, only two students from the entire neighborhood were studying at university.
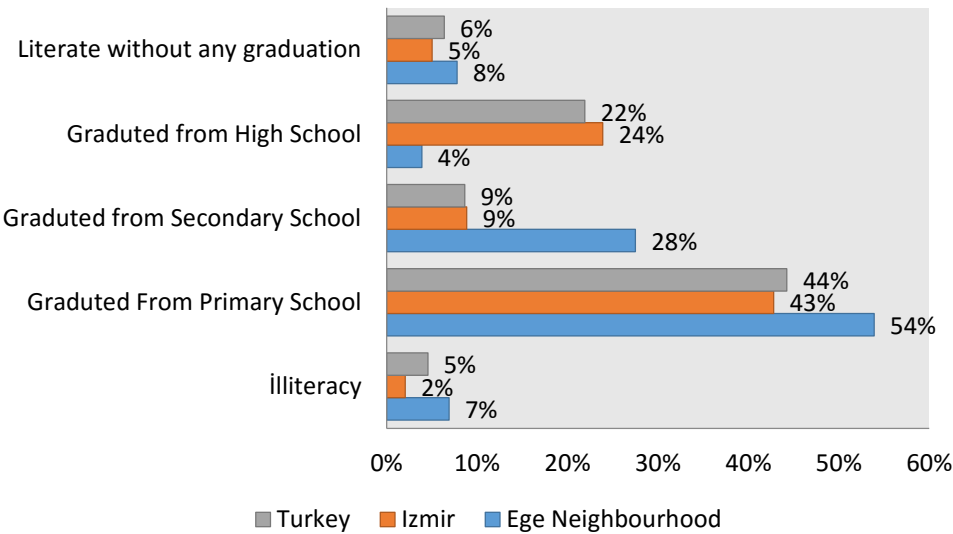
Figure 5.6: Comparison of education level

As seen in the figure 5.6 compared to Turkey's and Izmir's education level, the education level of the neighborhood is low. The demographic information shows that after secondary or primary school people stop furthering their education and this attitude is more common than rest of the city or country. In the interview with head of the neighborhood, he stressed that the reason for drop outs is the financial problems. Many young people are pushed to work to contribute household subsistence. In addition, most children stop going to school after second and third class of primary education and the parents do not particularly encourage them to study.. In interviews, head of the neighborhood also stressed that there are three important reasons why education level of the neighborhood is low. Parents don't try to persuade their kids to continue the education as also parents' education level is low; they don't pay attention to their schooling; and they cannot afford to send them to school. Employment rate of the area shows that third possibility is more likely to cause drop outs in the neighborhood.
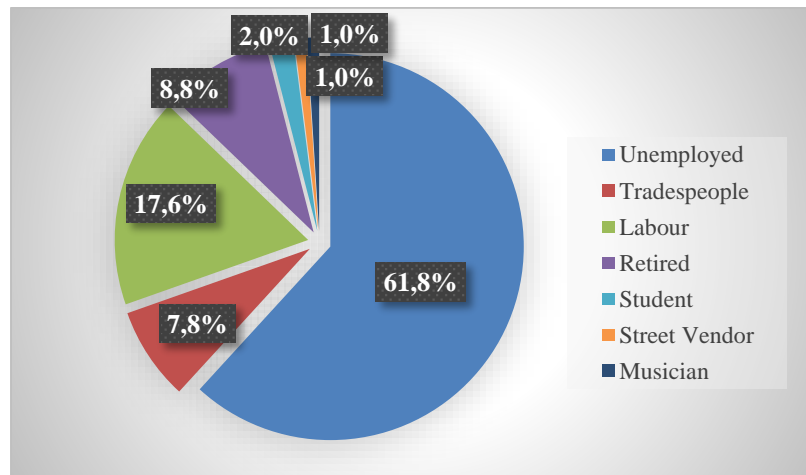
Figure 5.7: Job occupation of responders

61.8 % of the population is unemployed and among the employed ones, majority of them work as an employee with social security (see figure 5.7). Among these employees, most of them are working as a coachman in Alsancak. Working as a coachman in phaeton is important sector for them. Izmir Metropolitan Municipality started training for people to become professionals. Then, they started to work under the Municipality as official coachmen in Alsancak. However, people generally complained about the program offered by municipality because before the municipality program, it was a family business. After the program started, it became an official job and they started to earn less than before. On the other hand, other citizens work in daily jobs without social security such as street vendors. On the contrary to the general belief that Romani people deal with music, only one person was interested in music in the neighborhood and was making a living out of that. In addition, in the interview with head of Ege Neighborhood Urban issues, Culture and Beneficial Association NGO, Seyfi Yılmaz, he stressed that the neighborhood had only one professional musician in its entire history and the music has never been important for the neighborhood. This shows that unlike Sulukule, being a musician was never taken a job in Ege neighborhood.

In terms of women, as seen in figure 5.8 their participation in labor market is quite limited. According to questionnaires, among women, unemployment rate is 93.9 %. Among the respondents, none had social security; they only worked in daily jobs such as cleaning or helping their family business in markets.
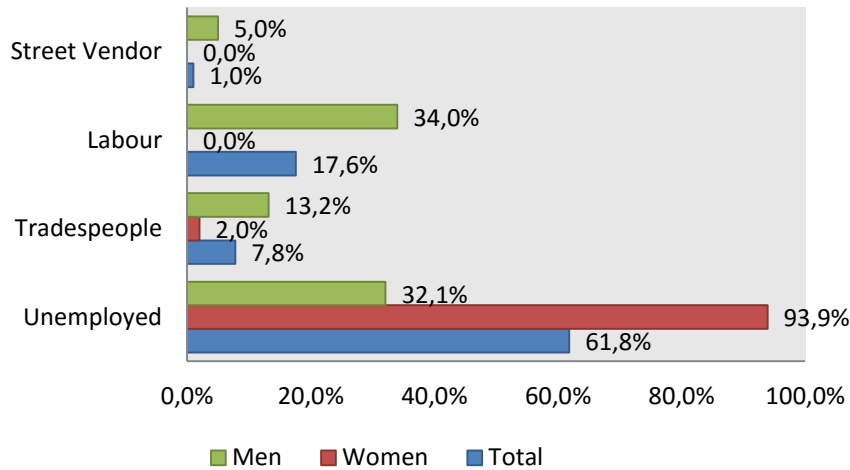
Figure 5.8: Job occupations according to gender

In terms of property ownership, 50% of citizens are owners of the houses and 14.7% of them are identified as occupants (see figure 5.9). This means they don't pay rent and they don't have any official title for their property because of unlicensed construction or constructing on somebody's area. 35.3% of them are tenants. The main reason why they chose to stay in the neighborhood as a tenant is that they were born and raised in the neighborhood. Additionally, rents are much more affordable when compared to other parts of the city. In interviews, it could be seen that rents go up to maximum 400 TL.
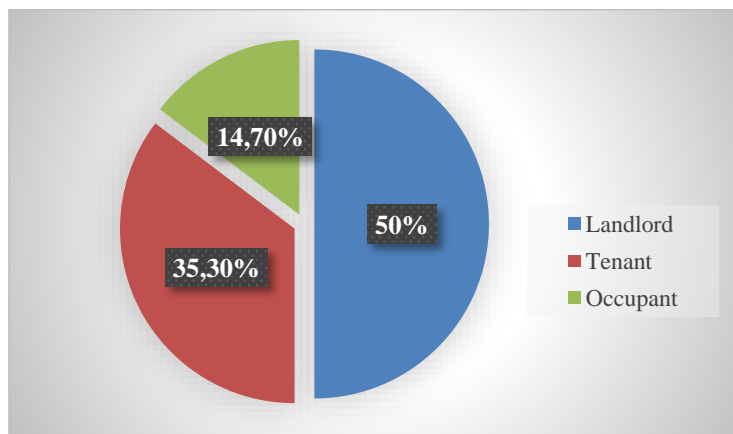
Figure 5.9: Property ownership

In terms of housing stock, houses are detached with maximum 3 floors and they do not have a courtyard, unlike Sulukule (see figure 5.10). In the neighborhood there are also 7 apartment blocks and these were constructed during 1970s (Yağlıdere, 2007:47). To

respond the housing need in the neighborhood in 1970s, it was planned, to construct 9 apartment blocks (see figure 5.11). The project was financed by Izmir Metropolitan Municipality. However, after completion of 7 blocks, the project stopped. Only 6 of them were totally finished and distributed to residents of the neighborhood. On the other hand, the 7th apartment block's only structural system was constructed and it was not distributed to citizens. The citizens finished the construction of work by their own financial means and they started to live there 7th apartment building has no official title, therefore people who live in that building are defined as occupants.. In total 7 apartment blocks contain 118 flats which are around 50 meter square and their first floor was designed as shops. However, these shops are also being used as housing units nowadays. In the last 45 years, population of the neighborhood increased; therefore they addressed new housing need by turning these shops into flats.

Figure 5.10: Detached houses in Ege neighborhood

69

Figure 5.11: Apartment blocks in Ege neighborhood

5.2. Urban Regeneration Project Proposal

This part analyzes the project according to the questionnaires. Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project has not started yet but it is in the process of design (see figure 5.12 & 5.13). The project will be implemented by Izmir Metropolitan Municipality. The project has been designed to a large extent but meetings and agreements between citizens and municipality are still continuing. With respect to these meetings, minor changes are being applied to the design of the project. Therefore, final version of the design has not finished and demolishment of the houses has not started yet.

Figure 5.12: Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project. (Arkiv, 2013)

In terms of citizens' rights, Ege case slightly differs from Sulukule. In Ege case, landlords have right to stay in the existing area and have the opportunity to have a new house (flat). Existing houses' values and new houses' construction cost will be determined by municipality. Therefore, landlords have to pay the difference between these prices. They can pay this difference by taking loans up to 15 years. If they do not wish to live in Ege neighborhood, citizens would then have the opportunity to sell their houses to municipality in return for the price determined by the municipality.

Figure 5.13: Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project. (Izmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2013)

On the other hand, tenants have same rights like in Sulukule. They could only buy houses built by TOKI in Uzundere by paying loans. Uzundere has limited

transportation opportunities in the area and therefore it is difficult for many people to go to work. However, tenants also demanded houses in the neighborhood. Izmir Metropolitan Municipality declared on its website in September 2015 that tenants will also be able to have houses in the Ege neighborhood. Yet, this announcement has not been official yet.

Uzundere is located in the outskirt of Izmir and it is the new residential area for the city. As in Taşoluk issue. It used to be a free field until TOKI constructed houses for citizens of Ballıkuyu to accommodate them after the urban regeneration project. Constructions were conducted on an area of 58 hectares. The area has apartment blocks which have up to 15 flats with 4 types of housing units. Those housing units' sizes range between 74 m2 to 120m2. In terms of social facilities, the area does not offer any opportunities or any services. Moreover the area is physically isolated from the rest of the city. For all social facilities such as education, hospital or market, people have to commute to the center.

5.3. Analysis of the Urban Regeneration Project

This chapter analyses Ege Neighbourhood Urban Regeneration Project from the perspective of right to city theoretical framework and emphasizes possible threats towards achieving a sustainable urban regeneration. Analysis draws its data from questionnaires and interviews conducted in the field.

5.3.1. Right to education

As shown in the demographic structure of the neighbourhood, education level is lower than Turkey's and Izmir's average education level. There is only one school in the district and students attend to this school. However, 2.9 percent of people are not satisfied with education in this school and they explicitly stated that the quality of education offered at schools is very low and inhabitants expressed that teachers do not put much effort to their children's education as teachers think that as they are gypsies, they do not deserve education and there is no point in giving them quality education because they do not continue to their education or drop schooling after primary school. Therefore, residents demand improvement in education quality that could equip them with employability skills with urban regeneration project.

On the other hand, questionnaire interviews show that education problem is not only related to quality but also closely associated with the ignorant attitudes of parents and poverty. Regardless of children's willingness to further their education or study, economic difficulties work against children's schooling and families and families depend on children labour to increase family income. So, children either work in their family business or work in occasional jobs such as apprentice in industry sector. Families think that if children work as an apprentice, they will have a job to do in future. Therefore, as sheer poverty exists, education level of the neighbourhood stays low. However, there are exceptions such as some families give importance to their children education and as head of neighbourhood mentioned that 2 children furthered their education to university.

The urban regeneration project does not include any school construction or aspire to enhance the conditions of schools. Only two buildings in relation to education facilities are planned to be constructed: cultural centre and metropolitan municipality's service building. Urban regeneration office's aim in building these centres is to provide inhabitants a public educational centre in which they can attend classes and visit exhibitions.

To sum up, the project is not aiming to change conditions in schools nor the quality of education offered to children via school infrastructure. It will rather provide them public education centre for music and art classes. However, as the head of NGO, s Ege Neighbourhood Urban issues, Cultural and Fraternal Association, expressed in the interview, unlike other Roma communities, Ege neighbourhood's Romani community is not famous for playing music instruments and there is little interest for music in the community:

> "*Municipality think that because we are gypsies, we play music but only two musicians grew up here during the last 10 years. I don't think they closely monitor the culture of the neighbourhood and people when they plan their project.*"

It seems that although public education centre is important for inhabitants' intellectual and cultural development, the school and quality of education in the neighbourhood is also equally important. Inhabitants particularly demand a vocational and practice-oriented education which can provide children with employment opportunities.

5.3.2. Right to work

According to international agreements and right to city concept, inhabitants have right to enjoy sufficient financial conditions and satisfactory quality of life which could be achieved with employment opportunities. However, the questionnaire shows that 61.8 percent of the citizens are unemployed which forms a major problem of Ege neighborhood. Citizens who have a job stated to deal with daily casual jobs or marginal sectors such as; house cleaning, portage, coachman and street vendor. Rather than permanent jobs, people deal with casual jobs. Concordantly, 20.6 percent of inhabitants demand employment opportunities that could offer possibilities of work from the project.

Citizens explain high unemployment rate with ethnic-based discrimination applied to them for being Roma and lack of education and professional skills. As young male interviewee Nazım[2] states:

> *"Employment is high here because people do not have any skills to find a job and even the ones who has skills have difficulty in finding a job. For instance I applied to a company as an electrician and I got the job after the interview but after they saw my address in the documents, they took back their offer. When they saw that I reside in Ege neighbourhood, they understood that I was a gypsy and did not want to work with me."*

To avoid this, Nazım expressed that in job applications most people write Kahramanlar as their address rather than Ege Neighborhood in order not to be stigmatised and identified. Parallel to this, 20.6 percent of citizens complain about discrimination they face in finding a job.

In the beginning of the urban regeneration project, some inhabitants were dealing with coachman at the city centre. They were self-employed and working with no social security. Now, the job is being controlled by metropolitan municipality and they became an employee of the municipality. Therefore, they have a social security and a fixed monthly income. However, this provided a job for only limited number of inhabitants. Urban regeneration project does not have any vision of providing more jobs other than being a coachman. So, when the unemployment rate in the region is taken into consideration, it is obvious that inhabitants will face more financial

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[2] The name is a pseudonym.

constraints when making the payments for the new flats. Therefore, to achieve sustainable urban regeneration project, employment opportunities should be created.

In doing so, maintenance of nascent green areas, cleaning of the neighbourhood or service duties in the buildings could potentially create new job opportunities for inhabitants. However, these opportunities and options have not been taken into consideration yet by municipality.

5.3.3. Right of public information

Right to get information is one of the fundamental component of participation and right to city. Objective and updated information can provide qualitative participation of the public. In Ege neighbourhood, metropolitan municipality gives high importance to informing citizens. Therefore, urban regeneration office was opened in the fair area, which is close to the neighbourhood and the office gives information on the project to citizens, responds their questions and deals with agreements between inhabitants and municipality (see figure 5.14). Additionally, the office also offers physical and virtual models of the project in order to sustain better information in their mind. Also several meetings, interviews and exhibitions were held at the office to provide information to inhabitants.

Figure 5.14: Ege Neighborhood Urban Regeneration Project office

On the other hand, most problems occur due to lack of information or information pollution. Both municipality and citizens expressed different ideas regarding the issue. One of the interviewees, Mehmet, believes that municipality's attitude towards them is impolite and the municipality is not being transparent about the project he stated that local authority tries to trick them and get their houses as cheap as possible and act ignorant towards them. Therefore, during the questionnaires, most citizens stated that they do not want to be like citizens of Sulukule, and face exclusion and gentrification. Additionally, inhabitants demand equal meter square of houses after the regeneration which is not possible due to regulations by local authority.

On the contrary, urban regeneration office argues that it is the information pollution that confuses inhabitants and creates the image that municipality is trying to trick them. The interviewee in the project office explicitly stated that inhabitants who go to the office for agreement talks and the project are informed about the conditions. According to the terms and law, citizens have to give up 40 percent of their current house's meter square and this percent will be used to construct green areas and infrastructural services by municipality. As the officer puts it:

> *"Most people do not know that it is a legally binding rule that they need to give up 40 percent of their house size, they think we are trying to deceive them"* (Municipality officer).

Consequently, the misunderstanding and conflict between the office and citizens triggers information pollution. This shows that there exists lack of adequate information and communication regarding the project process. . Therefore problem could be overcome by organizing large groups meetings on regular basis which can sustain opportunity for the office to express true information to entire households in once.

5.3.4. Right to culture

Culture is defined as an important component of cities and a tool for social integration. Therefore, it is important that authorities should provide a space for cultural events. Also in Ege neighbourhood, cultural practices have a vital role in citizens' lives. As head of the NGO, Seyfi emphasizes neighbourhood's culture is based on solidarity and sharing sad and happy moments together. Therefore, funerals, weddings and celebration of important dates gather citizens in the same place which is office of NGO

(see figure 5.15). Seyfi argues that this solidarity usually shows it self-trough weddings and funerals:

> *" There is a big solidarity in the neighbourhood. For instance, if someone dies, people stop celebrations or playing music and attend to funeral or bring food to the community. The same solidarity and commune culture can be seen in weddings. In weddings, all inhabitants attend and the entertainment continues until morning."*

Figure 5.15: NGO's Office at the Neighborhood

Seyfi further adds that renting a wedding hall for the ceremony is unaffordable for many inhabitants, there is no weeding hall in the neighbourhood and even people want to hire one, they are usually outside the district and that these places allow the ceremony to be held between 8pm to 12 am. Therefore people prefer to use the residential streets and the main street of the district. So, he teased out the need for a wedding hall in the neighbourhood which could be freely used by inhabitants. Likewise, 8.9 % of the people demanded the construction of a wedding hall.

Figure 5.16: The neighborhood square in the project (Izmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2013)

In response to his demand, local authority included construction of a wedding hall in design of the project plan. Moreover, to sustain more spaces for cultural needs, a neighbourhood square was also integrated into project (see figure 5.16). To sum up, the project gives importance on preservation of the culture and keeping inhabitants in the area after the regeneration. In doing so, regeneration of the neighbourhood is being implemented in accordance with act 5393, article 73 which gives all control to municipality for the regeneration instead of Ministry of Environment and Urbanization. This gives an opportunity to municipality to control of all phases of the regeneration. Thus, social tissue of the urban and consequently the culture has potential to continue as it is after the regeneration.

5.3.5. Right to house

Housing right is a crucial point for urban regeneration. According to legal instruments, authorities are responsible for ensuring adequate, secure and affordable housing units

for all people. Moreover, houses must be suitable for inhabitants' social needs and cultural practices. Therefore, to achieve sustainable urban regeneration, new houses have to be built in a way that inhabitants can develop sense of belonging, which can encourage inhabitants to continue live in the neighbourhood. Additionally, in the case of marginalized people like Roma community in the neighbourhood, authorities should adapt dwellings, leisure activity spaces and support their social integration to city to prevent discrimination against them.

In the project, housing right could be examined under two dimensions: habitability and affordability. These two dimensions stand for ensuring access to a secure, adequate and affordable housing for all people. To analyse these dimensions, firstly neighbourhoods housing stock and plans will be analysed. Currently, the neighbourhood has 742 housing units and 71 commercial units. 53 percent of the buildings are reinforced concrete construction and rest of them are masonry buildings. Apart from 7 apartment blocks, all buildings have maximum 3 floors. The apartment blocks have 4 floors (see figure 5.17).

Figure 5.17: Housing blocks design of the project (Izmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2013)

Affordability

Implementation of urban regeneration project has financial loads for inhabitants and municipality. In the project, buildings will be constructed by a private company. Instead of using paying method, a land will be given to the company to build and to sell. This land will be located inside of the neighbourhood. On the other hand,

negotiations with household has already started. In the negotiations, household debt will be written in the contract. Municipality guarantees that amount of this debt won't change in the future. But, construction has not started yet. Written amount was decided according to today's construction cost. Consequently, if there will be increase in construction cost, difference will be paid by municipality. On the other hand sharing loads with inhabitants can push inhabitants not to participate in project, or cause gentrification. Therefore, due to low economic income level in Roma neighbourhoods, affordability becomes an important factor to prevent gentrification.

Considering the different conditions of householder and tenants, occupants, affordability can be examined in two cases. In the neighbourhood, project is being executed by metropolitan municipality and main aim of the project is in-place regeneration. This means that houses will be provided to householders according to their title. As stated in regulations, 60 percent of their title's square meter will be provided them free and 40 percent of it will be confiscated by municipality to provide infrastructure, services and green area. Therefore, if householder wants to have a house, up to 60 percent of their title's square meter will be given without any extra payment. However, if they want more, householder has to pay for each extra square meter. For this reason, new houses are designed ranging between 31 m² to 114 m² in. Urban regeneration office explained that by offering many different sized housing units, they wanted that ensure inhabitants will become indebted as less as possible. The amount of debt will be decided during the negotiation meetings to protect inhabitants from any price change after the start of the project. These debts will be paid up to 20 years with monthly instalments after the project initiation.

According to the regulations, tenants and occupants do not have right to house. Also, Aziz Kocaoğlu, mayor of Izmir Metropolitan Municipality, stated that municipality desires to complete project in the neighbourhood without causing gentrification. According to legal instruments, municipality is not legally entitled to give house for tenants and occupants. Yet, they have right to rent these houses. Municipality is willing to solve this problem by renting houses to tenants and occupants with the lowest possible price (Hürriyet, 2016). In the project, municipality will also claim houses because it has properties in the neighbourhood and these houses can be rented to occupants or tenants. However, this does not solve the problem because in the

questionnaires, 75 percent of tenants mentioned that they also want to have the opportunity of buying houses by paying monthly instalments.

To sum up, it could be argued with its current proposal, the affordability is being tried to address. While householders will have houses in accordance with their legal documents, they will have different alternatives to buy different sized houses based on their budget. On the other hand, tenants and occupants will not have such right. The main aim of the project is in place regeneration and protection of cultural identity of Roma community and like householders, tenants and occupants are also part of the culture and identity. Although municipality wants to keep tenants and occupants in the neighbourhood and provide them affordable rent, the fact that municipality has not yet set a definite amount creates an ambiguity and raises the question of "to what extent will the houses be affordable?" for tenants and householders.

Habitability

In the project, residential areas are divided in three parts; residential zone for current inhabitants, residential area which will be allocated to construction firm in return for buildings constructions and high-rise buildings which will have residences and office blocks (see figure 5.18). Municipality explained that this division was necessary to protect Roma identity and culture. While current householders and tenants will continue to live in the same part, householders who don't live in the neighbourhood will have their houses from high-rise building. Therefore, protection of Roma identity and inhabitants life will be sustained. So, the first area of housing is reserved for inhabitants. Second area of housing is for householders who don't live in the neighbourhood. Lastly, third area of housing will be given to construction firm to build and sell.

Figure 5.18: Three parts of residential areas (Izmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2013)

On the other hand, buildings for inhabitants will have 6 floors with different size of housing units. However, in current conditions, 97 percent of houses have less than 3 floors and they are detached houses. Therefore, living in apartment blocks is a potential problem for inhabitants as it may change their life practice and pose a limitation for Roma culture because of high importance on usage of streets. In the neighbourhood, streets function as extension of their houses which enables gathering and socializing activities. It is also observed that people sit in front of their houses and talk with their neighbours. In the projects, these functions of houses are transferred to courtyards which will be built between the apartment blocks. Therefore, apartment buildings will not provide an efficient use for inhabitants for socialising. Likewise, 6.9 per cent of inhabitants express that apartment block will ruin their daily life practices and therefore demand detached houses instead of apartment blocks.

Other concern of inhabitants is the size of the houses in the project. As seen in figure 5.19 houses which are offered with the project respectively have following square meter sizes: 31 m², 38 m², 43 m², 51 m², 55 m², 87 m², 114 m² and 1+1, 2+1 or 3+1 houses. 21.6 per cent of inhabitants complained about sizes of houses (flats) during

interviews. While the small houses make it easier for them to buy a house as they will be paying the minimum amount, it creates a habitability problem. Majority of inhabitants have extended families and they all live in one house or flat. Thus, living in small houses with same number of family members is a significant problem.

Figure 5.19: Plan of housing units (Izmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2013)

Houses of landlords who do not live in the neighbourhood and houses for construction firms in return of building can change social tissue in the area. However, due to regulatory and financial constraints, municipality has to provide houses for landlords who don't live in neighbourhood and for construction firm. They solve the problem with dividing neighbourhood in three parts to protect unity of current inhabitants. However, it is for sure that new comers will move to the neighbourhood to reside after the project. Owing to location of the area, which is quite central and prosperous, it can encourage different social groups and particularly people with high income to move in. This can again constrain Roma community's daily life practices. However, if it is managed properly, this disadvantage can be overcome with social integration of the community with others.

Thelast criteria of housing right is ensuring security which is problematic due to high usage of drugs. 52.9 % of citizens complained about usage of drugs. They don't feel

secure because of drug dealers and users in the neighbourhood. For this reason, 6.9 per cent of citizens demand police station in the neighbourhood to prevent drug dealing and usage. Interviewee Hamza mentioned that people kill and fight each other because of drugs and also, they die due to use of drug. Parallel to this, while in my fieldwork, I witnessed to dead of a young teenager because of drug usage. To prevent drug related problems, I observed that there is police officer in entrance of the neighbourhood. They always control people who enter and go out the neighbourhood. However, these precautions are not enough to decrease drug problems in the area. In the project, there is no plan of establishing police station. But, interviewee who works in an urban regeneration office mentioned that it is hard to prevent drug related problems because of narrow and organic shaped streets. Therefore, grid system of planning approach in the project will provide control in the neighbourhood.

5.3.6. Right to healthy environment and leisure

Current condition of the neighbourhood has environmental deficiencies such as infrastructure, dirty environment and lack of leisure spaces. 22.5 percent of inhabitants complained about lack of leisure activity spaces and 10.8 percent of them mentioned unhealthy environment in the neighbourhood (see figure 5.20). In terms of lack of leisure activity spaces, citizens mainly demand green areas such as park and sport facilities. 19.6 percent of them demanded parks and 2.9 percent of them demanded for sport facilities. Also the condition of the mosque is not pleasant for religious people. One percent of people demanded for a construction of mosque. To respond this demands, the project includes sport facilities, green areas and a mosque. In terms of unhealthy environment, citizens are infelicitous about dirty streets (8.8 %) and abandoned ruins of factory (2%). Especially women were complaining about abandoned factory. They mentioned that they cannot sit in front of their houses because of the smell and mice and they want abandoned factory ruins to be demolished.

Figure 5.20: Dirty roads

To achieve right to healthy environment and leisure activity, local authorities should sustain adequate and health conditions to live and provide spaces for inhabitants to spend their leisure time. In terms of healthy environments, authorities should provide prevent pollutions such as; air, noise. Among the common problems in the neighbourhood, responders specified environmental problems. Particularly households who live next to railway complain about railway noise and vibrations. So, in totally 3.9 percent of inhabitants have complains about noise pollution of railway (see figure 5.21). Moreover, people who live next to river complain about the smell of the river. In total, 3.9 percent of inhabitants have complains about the smells of the river.

Figure 5.21: Noise pollution and smell of river

According to legal instruments, authorities should provide and sustain healthy environment for inhabitants. In doing so, sport facilities and green areas will be

provided in the project. However, there is not a solution for the pollution. According to master plan of the project, one apartment block will be constructed next to railway and some others will be constructed next to the river. Therefore, a permanent solution is needed to overcome noise and air pollution to provide healthy environment for the citizens. With its current form, project fails to address environmental problems of the district whereas it succeeds to for provide leisure spaces.

5.3.7. Right to public transportation and urban mobility

Public transportation and urban mobility covers adequate transportation services and foot traffic which corresponds to inhabitants' needs with reasonable costs. In current conditions of neighbourhood, due to the location and condition of the roads, difficulties can be analysed under two conditions. Firstly, connection of the neighbourhood with the city and secondly, lack of public transportation service. Although, neighbourhood is located near the city centre, access is limited. This is because visual and physical constrains were created with railways which cross cuts the neighbourhood. Therefore, to access the city centre, citizens have to use two overpasses as a safe option. Unsafe option is to take underpass which is designed for vehicle circulations. Unfortunately, most of inhabitants prefer this underpass as it is the short cut. Moreover, this underpass is not only unsafe for pedestrians, but also for vehicles (see figure 5.22). The underpass is a single-lane road which is the only choice for vehicles to access Ege neighbourhood. Due to this reason, public transportation services is not easily accessible in the neighbourhood. In current situation, there is no transportation to the district. In this regard, 6.9 percent of the household complain about conditions of underpass and 5.9 percent of them demand enhancement in public transportation. Because, there is not any public transportation passing from neighbourhood, inhabitants have to go out of neighbourhood to use public transportation. Therefore, to reach public transportation, they have to use underpass or overpass.

Figure 5.22: Underpass which connect the neighborhood to city center

In urban regeneration project, problems will be overcome with enlarging the underpass and this will provide vehicle and pedestrian circulation. In doing so, inhabitants will have opportunity to access city centre easier than before. Additionally, in the neighbourhood, due to narrow streets, mobility of vehicles and pedestrians is limited. Enlarging existence road will cause an incensement in pedestrian mobility in the neighbourhood (see figure 5.23).
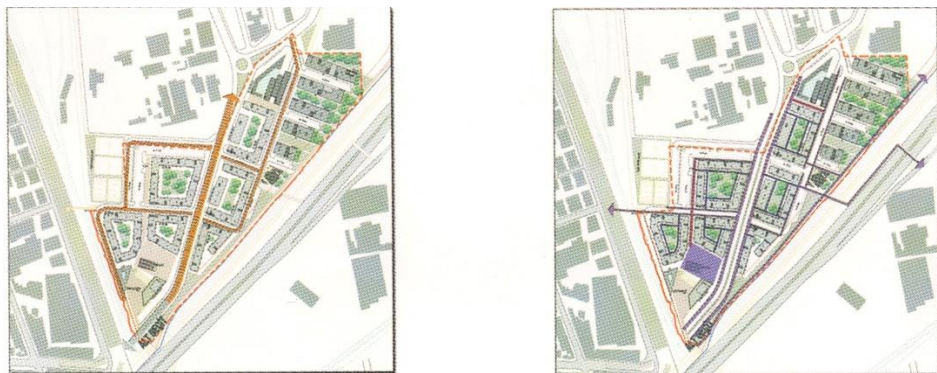
Figure 5.23: Circulation path of vehicles (left), pedestrian circulation path (Right)

5.3.8. Right to health

According to legal instruments, authorities have to sustain availability and accessibility of physical and psychological health service. In Ege neighbourhood, there are no facilities for health services and the urban project does not aim to provide such a service. Although, there are no private and public health facilities within the neighbourhood. These facilities are accessible within the walking distance. However, as seen in figure 5.24 60 percent of people who are older than 55 years old complained about lack of health facility within the district. People, who were complaining about health facility, demand for small community clinic rather than a hospital for old people who can't walk or access to surrounding health facilities.
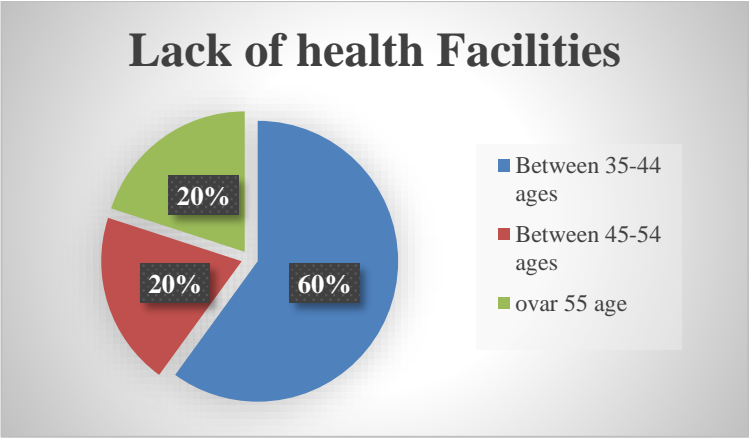
Figure 5.24: Complains on lack of health facilities

On the other hand, municipality is not willing to construct any health facility and according to them, surrounding facilities have enough capacity for them. Particularly, the narrow streets of the district make it difficult for ambulances to reach the patients. Therefore, enhancement in physical condition of street will sustain accessibility of health to neighbourhood. Still, citizens' demand for community clinic can provide easier access for especially elder residents to health services.

5.3.9. Principle of equality of rights and non-discrimination

Rights to equality and non-discrimination guarantees equal opportunities for all citizens regardless of any circumstances and includes accessible services, resources, adequate housings, place of work and leisure activates. In other words, it includes distribution of all rights and resources equally to inhabitants. So far, it could be seen that inhabitants in Ege neighbourhood are positioned in a relatively disadvantaged

position in access to job opportunities, leisure spaces and health facilities. Although Ege neighbourhood district is centrally located within one of the most prosperous areas of Izmir, both the observation in the field and the questionnaires and interviews with households show that the neighbourhood and people lack even access to basic welfare facilities: transport, sanitation, police station, sport facilities and basic infrastructure. This shows that the neighbourhood and the people are living within an enclaved district which is socially and physically separated from the rest of the city. This poses a limitation on people's equality of rights and non-discrimination. Within this enclosed disadvantaged community, certain group of people such as the disabled remain to be marginalized and their voices are not heard. Only one of the respondent and interviewee was a disabled man with a wheel chair. As he puts it, being mobile in the district was particularly difficult for him:

> *"There is nothing for the disabled people like me in this district. I find it quite difficult to move around in the neighbourhood or to be mobile outside the neighbourhood because I have to use the dangerous paths which even abled people find difficult to use."*

So, there is no handicapped elevator and road conditions are not suitable for wheel chairs and there is a lack of urban mobility opportunity for disabled citizens. So, accessibility is quite limited for disabled citizens. The new project to some extents aims to address the problems of disabled people by providing public transportation and sport and leisure facilities which will be accessible for disabled citizens. Yet, the other facilities such as access to basic welfare facilities such as health services and police station are waiting for a solution.

5.3.10. Right to political participation

Political participation of the citizens cannot be only defined by participation of political life and election. The definition also covers right to access to public debates, expressing their ideas and opinions to municipality, opportunity to gather in public spaces for open meetings and informal meetings. In the process of urban regeneration project's plan preparation, community expressed their needs and demands, they participated in public meetings to be informed and gave feedback on project. However, this participation was limited. 39.2 percent of citizens mentioned that they did not

participate to meetings because meeting to inform citizens were organized at outside of the neighbourhood in working hours. Therefore, participation was limited.
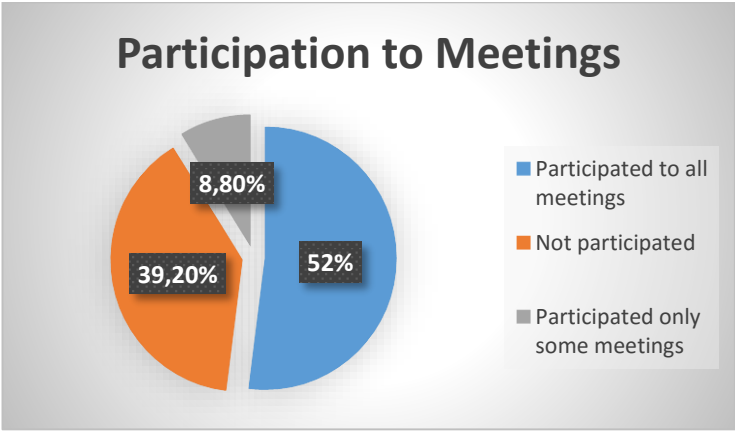
Figure 5.25: Participation level of meetings

On the other hand, feedbacks were not presented in decision making process and citizens did not have an opportunity to involve in decision making process. Municipality tried to reach citizens thoughts about project however, public participation was not effective as can be understood from the deficiencies in the project.

Lefebvre's right to participation is one of the core concepts of his right to the city notion. As mentioned in chapter 2, participation is not limited with participation in decision making. It should also grant power to shape urban space according to inhabitants' needs. However, in project proposal, there are serious deficiencies and the proposal does not entirely address   citizens' needs and demands. This is because inhabitants are not involved in the project to shape urban spaces.

Also, right to political participation is not a process to be involved only in the project. It needs to continue after the project to be part of the major changes that could affect the inhabitants. However, project dos not ensure such continuation of citizen participation after the project.

5.4. Conclusion

The analysis of the project shows that citizens' needs and demands are not entirely included in the design of the project. There are deficiencies in the project according to right to the city declarations. Some deficiencies will be overcome with proposed urban

regeneration project but majority of them are still waiting to be addressed. (See table 5.1 below for a detailed analysis of right to the city). In spite of all deficiencies, 74.5% of citizens mentioned that they are happy to live in the area as they have solidarity and culture of the neighborhood (see figure 5.26). They believe that they cannot live in another area other than Ege neighborhood. On the other hand, 6.9% of citizens are happy to live in the area because it is central and close to their work. It shows that the neighborhood is irreplaceable for the community. Therefore, 76.5% of citizens stated would like to stay in the area, but they know that they won't have a chance to stay after the project as they will not be able to pay the difference for the construction cost (see figure 5.27). They also mentioned that if they move out from the neighborhood, they will experience difficulty in getting adapted to a different place and will not easily find an affordable accommodation. Moreover, they will need to hide their identities in order not to be discriminated. It shows that the neighborhood has vital importance for their life. Findings also show that if citizens will have to move-out, most probably they will settle nearby places to neighborhood to continue their lives as we experienced on Sulukule Roma people case.
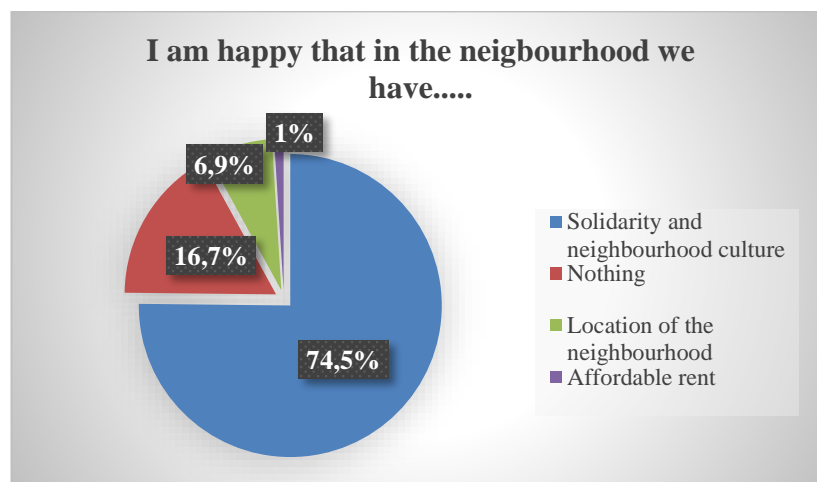
Figure 5.26: Strengths of the neighborhood
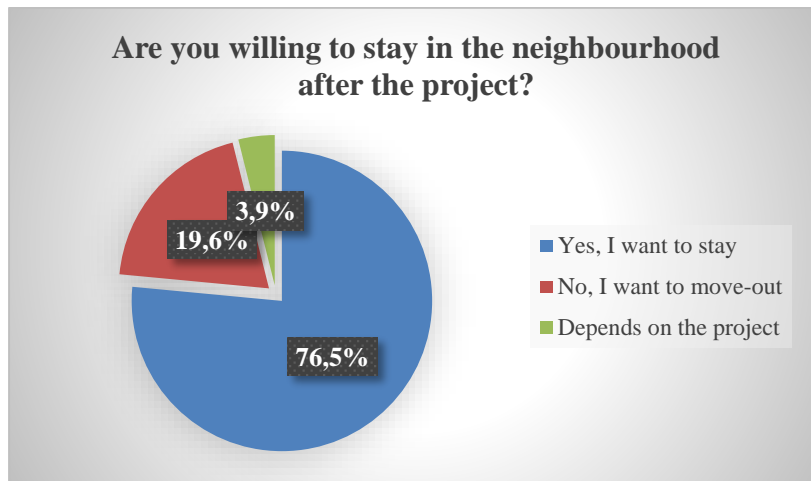
Figure 5.27: Decision of staying in the neighborhood after the project

To sum up, citizen's thoughts and concerns on the project are important to prevent gentrification in the neighborhood. This can be achieved by effective citizen participation and providing right to political participation to citizens. Right to political participation shows that there is limited participation for citizens to express their needs and there is not an opportunity for inhabitants to involve in decision making process. It should be noted that the project's succession largely depends on the extent inhabitants are allowed to participate. Therefore, the next chapter scrutinizes the right to participation carefully. It draws from the broader literature, worldwide models and frameworks; analyzes existing participation model and proposes a participation model that could work for the inhabitants of Ege neighborhood.

Table 5.1: Analysis of urban regeneration project

	Conditions in Ege Neighborhood	Improvements by the project	Deficiencies of the project
Right to Education	Primary School	Public Educational Center	Offering vocational and practice-oriented education facilities
Right to Work	High rate of unemployment	Opportunity of working as a Coachman	New job opportunities Professional training for jobs occupations
Right of Public Information	Lack of public information to community	Informing citizens about the project	Not effective information tools Participation problem in meetings
Right to Culture	Lack of gathering area for social events	Construction of wedding hall Construction of a square for gathering in social events	Loss of space quality by constructing apartment buildings Housing construction for new comers of the area
Right to House	Physical decay Affordable houses Lack of adequate housing Security Problem	Enhancement of housing conditions	Threat of gentrification and unaffordable houses Small sized houses

Right to Healthy Environment and Leisure	Lack of leisure activity spaces, green areas and sport facilities Inadequate conditions for religious facilities Unhealthy environment such as; noise, air pollution, smell of the river and dirty streets	Establishment of leisure activity spaces, green areas and sport facilities Improvement in clean streets and air pollution Construction of a mosque	Lack of measures that could prevent noise and smell pollution
Right to Public Transportation and Urban Mobility	Lack of public transportation Limited urban mobility to access the city center Bad conditions of underpass Inability of public services to access the neighborhood due to narrow streets	Enhancement of underpass and enlarging roads in the neighborhood to sustain urban mobility and access of public services	Lack of public transportation
Right to Health	Lack of health facilities	There is no improvement for this right	Lack of health facility
Principle of Equality of Rights and Non-Discrimination	Stigmatization and marginalized community Lack of to access basic welfares.	Enhancement to access basic welfare services	Lack of any measures sustaining integration of the community with city

	Discrimination in job applications Lack of handicapped elevator in overpass, bad road conditions for wheel chairs. Lack of urban mobility for disabled inhabitants.	Improvement in road conditions for urban mobility of disabled citizens	Need of improvement of elevator conditions in overpass for handicapped citizens
Right to Political Participation	There is no political participation before the project	Informing citizens Limited participation to project	Lack of using effective participation tool Lack of participation in decision making Not providing continuous participation opportunity after the project

6.   CONCEPTUALIZATION AND ANALYSIS OF PARTICIPATION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on participatory design methods. Firstly, the chapter explains the historical evolution of participation term in the urban context and then it focuses on different models, frameworks of participation and tools and methods used to actively involve citizens in decision making in urban design.   Then, drawing from the participatory models and designs explained in the chapter, a unique participatory model is developed for Ege neighborhood urban regeneration case. The proposed model is developed by taking the problems experienced by the inhabitants in the neighborhood into consideration and it aspires to facilitate a dialogue among citizens, designers and municipality. The model recommends a number of ways how inhabitants' voices can be best heard and addressed and contributes to forming a public deliberation in urban regeneration studies.

6.2. Historical Background and Conceptualization of Citizen Participation

In the literature, public participation, community participation and citizen participation words are being used interchangeably to address participation of inhabitants or users. Likewise, in this thesis, I also use these terms interchangeably.

Citizen participation has been debated by various scholars, however, as Desai (1995: 8) argues there is no one single definition or single method about participation. All definitions and conceptualizations of participation aim to improve power of citizens in decision-making.

First ideas on participation can be seen in United States in 1870s. When new cities were being established and developed, local authorities took citizens' opinions (Wulz, 1985:217). This was the first and initial attempt to include citizens in participation process. In Europe, first attempts were made by England when authorities asked participation of citizens in London urban projects during 1960s. Since then, participation method has been developed drawing from different techniques, definitions and theories of how and why to involve citizens in planning process. At the

beginning, the ideas regarding the participation focused on "maximum feasible participation" for citizens in planning. This emerged the question of how participation should be structured and how power in decision making should be distributed.

In 1968, emergence of student activism, which was a respond to urban development projects in Paris for more democratic society, raised awareness about community participation. Terms of participation formed two major points; "(1) the individual share in those social decisions determining the quality and (2) direction of his life, and society be organised to encourage independence in people and provide the media for their common participation" (Baheshti, 1985: VI). On the contrary to the traditional methods, in which only authorities hold the power for decision-making, these aims aimed to encourage the freedom and independence of societies, to provide participation in all aspects of social life and to share ideas of citizens in decision-making process about urban developments in city or urban plans in the built environment.

In 1990s, participation was defined as a process of turning citizens' ideas into initiatives and actions (Hilliard and Kemp 1999:2). In urban case, Coetzee (1989:162) argued that citizens who involved in participation were supposed to affect or interact with the end product Thus, citizens became an attention point in participation cases. On the other hand, Jones (2003) made a link between participation and social sustainability; and argued that participation of local people could provide long-term sustainability of urban regeneration. In a similar vein, UN defined the term as a mutual relation between citizens and participation; participation is creation of opportunities which provide contribution to members of community, give opportunity to influence the development process and share the results of the process equally (UN, 1993: 5). In another words, it is argued that participation of the community could increase the quality of the product which will be used by the community.

Creighton (2005) argued the term extensively in the book of "Public Participation Handbook" and defined participation as informing the public, listening to public, engaging in problem solving and developing agreements (Creighton, 2005:9). Additionally, he also the emphasized the benefit of participation such as improved quality of decisions, minimizing cost and delay, consensus building, anticipating public concerns and developing civil society (2005:18-19). His ideas on participation focused more on positive effects of planning. However, the idea of controlling decision

making by authorities was retained. This indicates a lack of collaborative work which has been mentioned by Judith Innes and David Booher (2004:419). Innes and Booher (2004) focused on collaborative approach which should be understood as a multi-dimensional interaction between citizens and authorities to reach the result or product. They suggested requirement of public participation method and argued that existing methods lacked public hearing and review. In other words, Innes and Booher (2004:429) suggested dialogue instead of one-way talk, diverse participants instead of self-selecting, mutually shared knowledge instead of top-down education, continuing engagement instead of one-shot activities. They argued that only such an approach can assign significant value to collaborative efforts.

So far, I have presented a brief history of participation and offered different approaches and understanding of citizen participation, now I focus on participation frameworks to elaborate on the matter.

6.2.1. Participation frameworks

In the history of participation, different participation forms were proposed. However, citizen participation does not have only one approach or method which could be applied to all urban areas. As can be understood from the literature presented above, community participation varies with respect to socio-economic, cultural or urban differences. Even form of participation could not work in two cases within the same city. Therefore, proposed participation forms by scholars work as guidelines rather than a model. Additionally, methodology and techniques vary from one case to another case. Therefore, in this section, I present following participation frameworks: Arnstein's ladder of participation, wheel of participation, OECD's active participation framework, and spectrum of public participation and Martin's comparison of three participation models. These models are selected according to their high relevance to urban context and they are at the same time mostly used models in the literature.

6.2.1.1. Ladder of participation- Arnstein

Sherry Arnstein (1969), a former U.S. department of housing and urban development official, suggested "a ladder of citizen participation". She argued that lack of power distribution in participation causes inefficiency. In other words, for citizens, being participant without having power in decision making, makes them passive participants. Citizens' demands are usually asked but their demands or ideas do not influence

decision making of authorities, however, authorities claim that all citizens' needs are considered. So, there is no point asking citizens' demands for the sake of asking if they will not be part of decision making. Therefore, she illustrated a participation ladder based on eight rungs. Each rung determines the influence of citizen participation on the end product. As seen in figure 6.1 eight rungs were grouped under 3 classifications. The bottom part of the ladder lies on two levels which are (1) manipulation and (2) therapy and they are identified as non-participation. In this part, the real aim of the authorities is to educate the citizens rather than enable participation. Attitudes of authorities could be understood as imposing a top to bottom approach. Second classification calls as "tokenism" which are; (3) informing, (4) consultation, and (5) placation. Tokenism allows voice of society. However, it retains power of authorities on decision making. Third classification is based on a more collaborative work between community and authorities and provides more power to citizens on decision board. It is called as "citizens' power" and includes three levels; (6) partnership, (7) delegated power, and (8) citizen control. These three levels argue that with partnership citizens can negotiate with authorities. By delegated power and citizens' control, citizens can have power in decision making but this power is shared with authorities. Therefore, even in top step of the ladder, citizens were not given full authority. According to Arnstein, none of the cities can meet criteria of citizens' control since final approval power and accountability rest with the city council.

Arnstein (1969) Ladder of citizen participation
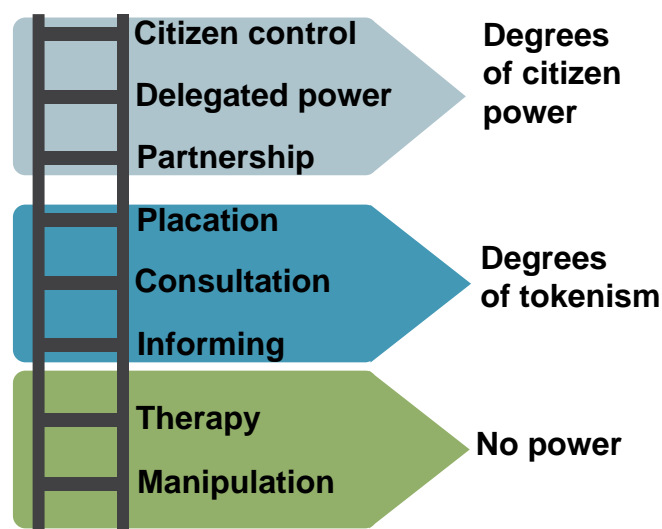
Figure 6.1*: Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation

6.2.1.2. Active participation framework- OECD

OECD's Public management Service developed an analytical framework in 2001 to be used in OECD countries, including Turkey. Framework was conducted in accordance with surveys and country case studies. Framework defines information, consultation and active participation guidelines between citizens and government (Figure 6.2).

Information is defined as a one-way relationship between citizens and authorities. This participatory method works as informing citizens by government about decision procedures without expecting feedback from citizens. This includes two sided issue which is passive and active. Passive part is accessing information and active part is spreading information to citizens by government. Access to public records, official newspaper and government website are indicated as an example of this method.

Secondly, consultation is defined as a two-way relationship between citizens and government. The framework allows citizens to provide feedback to authority about the subject they are informed. However, authorities define circumstances of consultation such as; setting the questions or managing the process. Citizens are invited to participate with their views and thoughts. Public opinion surveys, comments on draft legislation can be given as examples of consultation.

The framework provides an active participation of citizens for the process and decision making, despite the fact that policy making, responsibility of final decision rests on governments. Consensus, conferences, citizens' juries are examples of active participation.
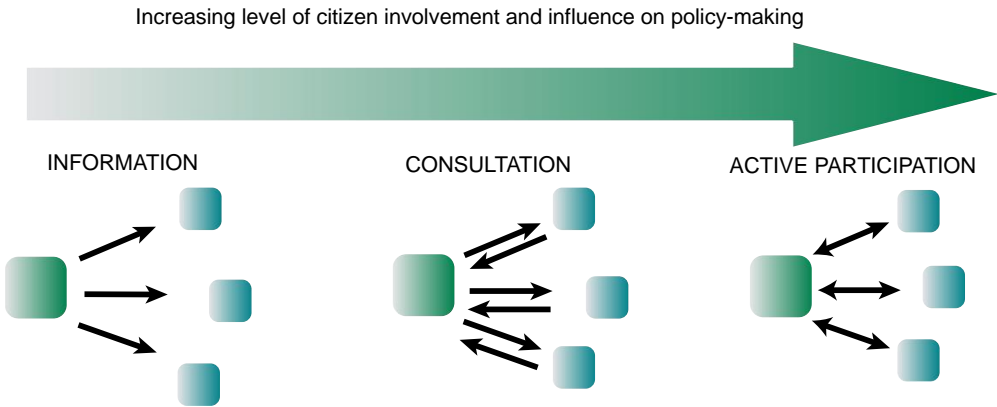
Figure 6.2: Active participation framework

6.2.1.3. Spectrum of public participation-IAP2

International association for public participation (IAP) developed public participation spectrum in 2007. Spectrum defines different levels of participation. Differences between levels are based on public participation goal and levels of concern in the decision making. Levels are identified as "inform, consult, involve, collaborate, and empower" (Figure 6.3). Spectrum of IAP has similarity with Arnstein Ladder of participation, despite the fact that spectrum does not include citizens' control level of the ladder.

Increasing Level of Public Impact				
Inform	**Consult**	**Involve**	**Collaborate**	**Empower**
Public participation goal — To provide the public with balanced and objective information to assist them in understanding the problem, alternatives, opportunities and/or solutions.	To obtain public feedback on analysis, alternatives and/or decisions.	To work directly with the public throughout the process to ensure that public concerns and aspirations are consistently understood and considered.	To partner with the public in each aspect of the decision including the development of alternatives and the identification of the preferred solution.	To place final decision-making in the hands of the public.
Promise to the public — We will keep you informed.	We will keep you informed, listen to and acknowledge concerns and aspirations, and provide feedback on how public input influenced the decision.	We will keepwork with you to ensure that your concerns and aspirations are directly reflected in the alternatives developed and provide feedback on how pubpic input influenced the decision.	We will look to you for advice and innovation in formulating solutions and incorporate your advice and recommendations into the decisions to the maximum extent possible.	We will implement what you decide.
Example techniques — - Fact sheets - Web sites - Open houses	- Public comment - Focus groups - Surveys - Public meetings	- Workshops - Deliberative polling	- Citizen advisory committees - Consensus-building - Participatory decision-making	- Citizen juries - Ballots - Delegated decision

Figure 6.3*: Spectrum of public participation

6.2.1.4. Changing views on participation- Pedro Martin

Pedro Martin compares different understandings of participation through three models which are; (1) ladder of citizen participation by Sherry Arnstein, (2) spectrum of public participation by IAP and (3) active participation framework of OECD (Figure 6.4). In his study, he stressed OECD's lack of participation in active participation framework whereas Arnstein and IAPP gave more importance to empowering citizens and their opinions. On the other hand IAPP's spectrum lacks sustaining full control of decision

making of citizens. Also, OECD's participation framework hardly goes beyond the levels of tokenism identified by Arnstein. In other words, this framework ignores or rejects to empower citizens, transfer authorities power to citizens or share power with citizens.

Sherry Arnstein
Ladder of Citizen Participation
(1969)

Citizen Power
- Citizen Control
- Delegated power
- Partnership

IAPP
Spectrum of
Public Participation
(2000)

- Empower
- Collaborate

OECD
Government-Citizens
Relations
(2001)

Tokenism
- Placation
- Consultation
- Information

- Involve
- Consult
- Inform

- Active Participation
- Consultation
- Information

Non participation
- Therapy
- Manipulation

Figure 6.4: Pedro Martin's view on participation

6.3. Participation Models

While frameworks focus on power and participation relationship, models define relationships between participants and their roles in project. Also, in urban projects, participants and their roles could vary according to the project. Frameworks are more general whereas models are unique to cases and urban circumstances. Therefore, this chapter analyses two models as a guide to propose a model for Ege neighborhood case.

6.3.1. Design participation model (1985)

Affrassiabi (1985) proposed a design participation model was proposed in urban renewal context in 1985. Model divides participants into three participant groups; local

government agencies, designers and planners, inhabitants, and it defines relations among participants groups.

According to model, designers are planners, architects and engineers who are responsible from technical process. The model identifies that the central problem in participation arises because of designers. Designers lack collaboration with local agencies and inhabitants in plan, research, control and designing processes (Afrassiabi, 1985:99). Therefore, model proposes "horizontal divisions" in planning offices. Hierarchical views of job interrupt fullest integration in all parts of planning, which could be overcome by collaboration between members of the group (Afrassiabi, 1985:99)

Second group is local government agencies who are local authorities or who are responsible from projects. The coordination between designers and inhabitants are the main responsibility of local agencies and it is important for sustainable participation mechanism. . In this process, support to designers should be performed by accepting necessary changes in project programmes such as budget planings and making regulations urban renewal process (Afrassiabi, 1985:100). Consequently, relation between designers and local authorities turn into a key role of urban renewal process.

Third group is inhabitants who are living in a neighbourhood in the process of urban regeneration project. Inhabitants' participation have the potential to generate various outcomes for end product with their needs and demands. The model suggests that, instead of having participation of citizens in current decision-making process with limited effect on decisions, all three groups should decide collaboratively and take responsibility in decision making. In doing so, local authorities and inhabitants must try to achieve a convenient solution for the needs and problems. Representatives of the neighbourhoods can be chosen to represent the area with different social, economic, political and ideological positions in community (Afrassiabi, 1985:100).

According to the all three participant groups, model identifies participation in two phases. First phase consists of relationships among participant groups to be involved in decision making system. In first phase, all groups' active participation is important for decision making, and the relationship between local agencies and designers should be based on consensus (Afrassiabi, 1985:102). Second phase of the model is implementation of decisions taken in the first phase. Model proposes applying

decisions with active participation of inhabitants and local agencies. In this phase, designers' participation is limited with their professional duty of supervision.

6.3.2. Comparison of three type of participation model

Three type of participation models are defined as; conventional process, participatory process and consensus group (Figure 6.5, Figure 6.6, and Figure 6.7). Conventional process does not include participation and therefore it is also known as traditional method. Process includes investors, architects, and planners in decision making process. The plan reaches to users as a product. Therefore, users are not involved in decision-making process or they don't have the opportunity to criticize the end product. In participation method, inhabitants have the opportunity to be involved in project. However, investors give decision about project, and then only design period is a collaborative work of designers and citizens. A consensus group is a highly participative method compared to others. Before the project starts, investors, citizens and designers discuss about the project and reach a decision. According to the decision, project is (re)designed with a collaborative work between participants. In this sense, citizens provide their experiences about the area; designers guide professional stewardship and investors involve in design with their economical input. Therefore in this method, all participants share responsibility of decision making (Day, & Parnell, 2003:iv).

CONVECTIONAL PROCESS
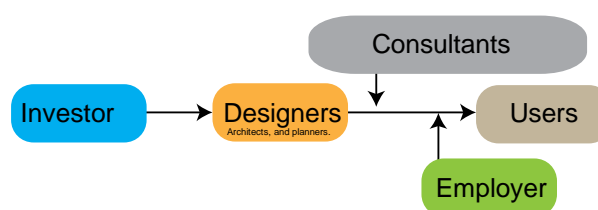
Figure 6.5: Conventional participation process

PARTICIPATORY PROCESS
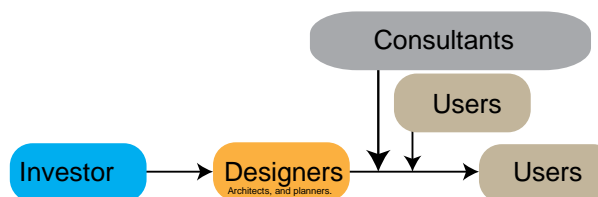
Figure 6.6: Participatory participation process
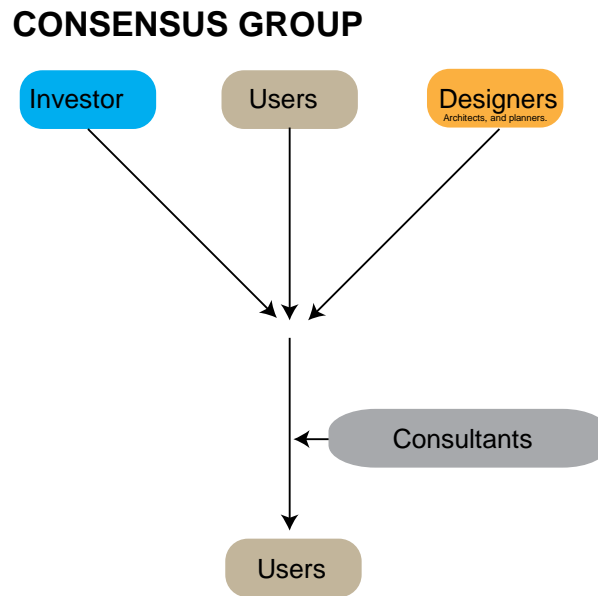
CONSENSUS GROUP

Figure 6.7: Consensus group based participation

6.4. Tools for Relation Between Public and Authorities

In participation process, communication is key a term. Thus, this part defines communication techniques between citizens and authorities. These techniques include methods to inform public by authorities and to get information or feedback from public. Informing public requires providing information to citizens about project or authorities' activities. It has different ways of informing citizens. Likewise, getting information from public requires receiving feedback from citizens after the project or authorities' activities. Information tools listed in this section can vary and depend on the case. The list below is determined according to their relevance in urban context and it should be noted more than one technique can be used at the same time to maximize the communication and participation. Techniques are divided into two groups: tools to inform public and to get information from public.

6.4.1. To inform public

6.4.1.1. Meetings

Briefing- Briefing technique is a way to inform citizens, which is based on personal visit and small group meetings. It is a tool to keep agencies or key interest groups informed. In the context of urban renewals, briefings are held by authorities to inform

community about planning and urban regeneration project. Aim of briefing is to provide detailed knowledge about urban planning and its processes (Creighton, 2005:90-91).

Exhibits and Display: It is a one way communication tool. Authorities and designers stimulate exhibits or display them in public spaces such as; shopping malls, street fairs, or at major community events. This method exhibits information and images about the project. Additionally, staff also waits in exhibitions to respond questions from community about the project (Creighton, 2005:91).

Panels: Panels aim to bring several speakers together to talk about a particular case from different perspectives. Panels can provide an opportunity for participants to discuss with panelists. In urban cases, authorities can stimulate panel with panelists who are designers, economists, urban planners and engineers. So panelists can present the project and provide information for participants from their professional perspective (Creighton, 2005:99).

Presentations to Community groups: This technique aims to arrange meetings with neighborhood groups, house owners or citizens. Information is provided directly to the targeted group via presentations, slide shows or briefings. Presentation to community groups can provide interaction between authorities and citizens. This direct interaction between them can provide reliable information to citizens. (Creighton, 2005:100).

Symposia: Symposium is a kind of meeting which is organized to inform participants who are invited. It is a one way of informing method. Activities are based on presentations, panel discussions, question and answers part. Presentations are usually made by experts on related topic from different perspectives. Then, it continues with discussion and question-answer part. An advantage of the technique is to expand participant's ideas and a disadvantage is the lack of participant's opinions and expression of sentiment (Creighton, 2005:102).

6.4.1.2. Media and internet usage

Media Tool (Interviews, Media Kits, News Conferences and Media Briefings): It is based on activities which allow spreading information through media. Interviews, media kits, news conferences and media briefings are categorized as media tools. Among media tools, only media interviews are able to provide two-way information method. Media interviews consist of verbal presentations and interviews about the

project. These presentations and interviews in media cover technical reports, aims and guidelines of the project. This method provides widely information to citizens. Additionally, by integrating broadcasting with internet, it makes it possible for citizens to ask questions from internet. This integration between broadcasting and internet can provide interactive environment for citizens which can examine as a two-way information method.

Media Kits are reports which summarize the project, decision-making process and expected outcomes. Like Feature Stories, media kit is a one-way information method, but media kits provide shorter information than feature stories (Creighton, 2005:96).

News conferences and media briefings consist of organizing briefings and conferences to take interest of media and maintain press releases. It is a one-way information approach. Responsible person about the project provides information to media and answers the questions. An advantage of the technique is that spokesperson can easily reach the public. (Creighton, 2005:97).

Newspaper Inserts and News releases: It is a one way communication tool to inform citizens by using pressed media such as; news releases or newspaper releases. News releases include short information or announcement about project whereas newspaper inserts provide an opportunity of extended information for the project. Various types of community and age groups can be reached by using these tools. (Creighton, 2005:98-99).

Paid advertisements: This technique is based on advertisement on newspapers or in radios. It is a one way communication tool to inform citizens. It aims to reach as much as possible citizens. However, compared to other media tools, cost is a major disadvantage. Paid advertisements provide advantage for authorities in terms of controlling the information and how it is presented to the public. Therefore, they can be biased (Creighton, 2005:99).

Feature Stories: A feature story is a one way information method. It uses media, newspapers or TV channels to provide information to public. The information is not limited with an announcement, it covers wide information about project. However, the tool does not provide any interaction between citizens and authorities. (Creighton, 2005:91).

Internet: This technique provides fast relay of information to community. However, it could not be applied to communities who do not have access to internet such as elderly people. On the other hand, internet can provide an information repository, a chat room to debate, quick broadcast information about project and fast feedback from people to authorities about project (Creighton, 2005:93).

Public service announcements: This technique consists of informing citizens by the help of non-government organizations or associations such as chamber of architects or chamber of urban planners. They assist authorities in providing information to citizens about projects by stimulating meetings, advertising information in their newsletter. Therefore, NGOs or associations are important for this tool and the success of the tool is based on them. (Creighton, 2005:100).

Information Repositories: The method provides information to citizens by using publicly accessible areas such as libraries, public spaces. Studies and documentations on the project are published in these places for use of citizens. (Creighton, 2005:93).

Mass Mailings: Mailing technique provides information to inhabitants by post mail. Mailing is a more convenient way to provide information for more citizens. Alternative to this method could be newspaper or magazines. On the other hand, Creighton argues that mailing can be expensive. People could think that authority impose ideas on citizens by using an expensive technique. Therefore, as Creighton offers, newsprint could be more efficient to provide information to public (Creighton, 2005:94).

6.4.2. To get information from public

Creighton (2005) mentions 36 different tools of getting information from public. Some of them are slightly more common than others. Therefore, in the context of this research, these tools are analyzed under five categories which are; group meetings, beneficiary assessments, workshops, virtual participation tool and SARAR.

6.4.2.1. Group meetings

Advisory Groups and Task Forces: According to Creighton, this technique is the most common one in the literature (Creighton, 2005:103). Advisory group gathers people from various interests, views, professions to debate about the project or urban planning. In urban case, advisory groups can be citizens who have already experienced urban regeneration project before and profession about the project. Therefore, advisory

group meetings and task forces aims to get benefit from people's lived and professional experiences.

Appreciative Inquiry Summit: Summits are multi-day events which are held by involvement of many citizens. Generally, it takes between two to five days and aims to gather people to discuss related topics (Ludema, 2003). Summits focus on existing strengths, capabilities and positive feelings of participants rather than defining needs of community. (Creighton, 2005:103).

Coffee Klatch: The technique consists of meetings in public or private spaces as small, informal discussion group. Coffee klatches are organized by authorities to debate with citizens in an informal environment. Meetings can include short presentations about the project by authorities. Then participants have opportunity to express their thoughts and ask questions to authorities about the project. Coffee klatches need series of meetings to interact with more citizens because they are based on small group attendance (Creighton, 2005:107).

Large Group/small Group Meetings: The technique is based on a meeting set up by authorities. Aim of the technique is to find a solution on a case with cooperative work among audiences. Small groups are formed from large groups. It small groups, people work and discuss on different problematic part of the case. They try to come up with a solution. At the end of small groups' work, their proposal for solution is presented to large groups. Aim of this technique is to increase interaction between participants and create a discussion on a case by sharing the work load. This can provide rapid solution on a case. (Creighton, 2005:121).

Samoan Circle: It is also identified as a type of large group/ small groups meeting. But, in Samoan circle, there is only one small group discussion. The discussion witnessed by a large group. The small group usually have five or six people. The small group is located at inner smaller circle and while the rest of people are located at outer circle. While the small group discusses the case, large group listens to them (Creighton, 2005:132).

Public Meetings, Hearings: They are widely used as a public participation method. It is based on town meetings, public hearings (Creighton, 2005:130). Meetings or hearings are organized by authorities to inform citizens and to have feedback from

citizens with workshop activities (Creighton, 2005:121). These events are held by large groups' involvement.

Town Meetings: Town meeting aims to give citizens an opportunity to express their thoughts. No decisions are taken during the meetings. The method is good for providing feedback to citizens on a case. Method is commonly used especially in England (Creighton, 2005:133).

6.4.2.2. Beneficiary assessment

Beneficiary Assessment is a mix method of qualitative and quantitative methods for information-gathering and aims to take insights into the perception of citizens (Rietbergen-McCracken, & Narayan, 1998:255). Key characteristic of the method is being qualitative, action oriented and directly targeting to inhabitants' thoughts and needs. The Technique includes interviews, plebiscite, polls and surveys, and participant observations.

Participant observation is a way of getting information about specific area from observers' perspective. The observers involve in everyday activities to establish deep analysis of citizens' circumstances (Rietbergen-McCracken, & Narayan, 1998: 274).

Polls and surveys: Polls and surveys provide a quantitative result of community's thoughts. Poll is citizens' ideas on a project by phone or internet. Surveys are based on questionnaire work which aims to be conducted with different groups to reach different perspective about a case or a project (Creighton, 2005:128).

Interview: Interview is an effective case for public participation. It is the most commonly used technique by authorities in urban transformation context. Interviews are conducted with users or targeted groups to explore their ideas. Creighton (2005:145) mentions that interview with key interest groups' leaders can provide a quick understanding of the case or their opinion. On the other hand, this technique can integrate citizens' ideas in decision making if the interviews are seriously taken into consideration by authorities (Rietbergen-McCracken, & Narayan, 1998: 257).

Plebiscite: The method is based vote of people to express an opinion against or for a proposal. Plebiscite is useful technique when community is an ultimate decision maker. If the last decision-taker is authorities, method cannot be effective. For plebiscite, high public participation is important. Therefore, to achieve reliable results

from the technique, authorities should encourage citizens to participate in plebiscite (Creighton, 2005:128).

6.4.2.3. Workshops

Workshops create an opportunity for participants to interact with each other. In urban case, it provides an interaction between citizens and designers. Workshops are activities which are held by participation of people. A group of people is divide in a small group and deal on different subjects which are connected to each other. Also participants could work with same assignment to develop solutions from different perspectives which can provide feedback to authorities (Rietbergen-McCracken, & Narayan, 1998: 26). Some of the workshop structures are defined below with respect to urban context.

Charette: Charette is a type of workshop which firstly took place in France in 19th century. It is based on dividing participants of workshop into small groups. Each small group has a duty to solve the problem. After the completion of small groups' cases, all results are gathered for come up with a design idea. This workshop is convenient for a single issue such as designing a building or planning a neighbourhood. (Slocum, & Steyaert, 2003:26).

Future Search, Visioning: Future research and visioning are quite similar to each other. Future research aims to design future plan for area in theoretical and practical ways by using appreciative inquiry summits, charrette and surveys methods (Creighton, 2005:116). On the other hand, visioning based on citizens expectation from city in the next 10 years and it was firstly applied in United States (Weisbord, & Janoff, 2000).. In Turkish case, five years development plans can show as an example of it but these development plans are prepared without participation of citizens.

City Walk: The term is expressed by Lawrence Halprin (1974). Tool is based on participation of community leaders in city-walk organization to re-experience their community. Participants are informed by professionals on how to interact with citizens. Then, participants walk in the city and record their observations, experiences to discuss together. As a result of re-experience, participants examine needs of the community and make recommendation for the project. Method provides re-interaction inside a community (Halprin, & Burns, 1974).

Open space and open house: Open space and open houses events establish link between local authorities, non-governmental organizations and citizens. Open space consists of citizens' participation in a workshop to express their thoughts about a project or a case. Therefore open space event provides feedback to citizens and give opportunity to develop new ideas. On the other hand, open houses exhibit projects by local authorities and non-governmental organizations. Exhibits aim to inform citizens about project and to get feedback (Owen, 1992).

Retreat: This technique aims to take citizens to another place (a neutral place) to help them concentrate on discussions and come up with fresh and new ideas to provide feedback about project. The tool enhances interaction among citizens within their community therefore, it improves solidarity of a community (Creighton, 2005:131).

6.4.2.4. Virtual participation tools:

Rather than providing face to face interaction, virtual participation maintains participants' attendance to discussion by use of internet. Electronic tools are used to inform citizens and to get rapid feedback. On the other hand, it has advantages for people who is working and who don't have time to attend face-to-face meetings. However, a disadvantage of the tool is that it excludes participation of people who don't have access to internet or who don't know how to use computers. Therefore, electronic participation tools are relatively good techniques for communities who have high percentage of young people. Below I present e-participation tools used in urban context.

Groupware: This technique can be identified as a group discussion which is hold in a virtual environment. Participants can access information quickly and discuss about a case by using internet. Certainly, groupware enables quick interaction between participants and fast feedback. Especially, technique can be implement to get more citizens' thoughts in decision making, when there is need for participation of many membered community (Coleman, 1997).

Hotlines: Hotlines are based on getting feedback from citizens by using phone calls. In large membered communities, it is an effective way to contact citizens and get their feedback. Calls are operated by knowledgeable people who can inform citizens for project and respond citizen's questions. Therefore it works as a two-way

communication method, people can ask their concerns and get information about a project (Creighton, 2005:118).

Internet: Internet is a powerful technique to inform citizens and get feedback. By using chartrooms, web conferencing, digital surveys, virtual conferences and online workshops, internet can provide participation of citizens and give opportunity to them to get information and to give feedback to authorities. (Creighton, 2005:120).

6.4.2.5 SARAR

SARAR is an acronym which stands for five attributes. These attributes are self-esteem, associative strength, resourcefulness, action planning and responsibility. They are essential for self-sustaining participation process. SARAR consists of using all possible methods which are also called as collection of techniques. Method is highly used by United Nations agencies such as U.N. Development Program and UNICEF (Creighton, 2005:132). The technique aims to (I) provide a multi-level approach for collaboration, (II) to encourage citizens to learn from local experience instead of external experts and (III) to empower community and agency levels in order to emerge further activities.

Main advantage of SARAR is that it is a tool based on visualization, therefore it can be adopted in many places and understood by many citizens. The technique is suitable for community who has a high population of illiteracy. Goal of the SARAR is to help citizens to describe their life experiences by using visual techniques. Consequently, tool is applicable to different circumstances and includes all part of community's opinion (Rietbergen-McCracken, & Narayan, 1998).

6.5. Existing Participation Structure in Ege Neighborhood

This part of the chapters analyzes the existing participation process of Ege neighborhood project. Drawing Parnell's three type of participation process, it could be argued that Ege neighbourhood's current urban regeneration project can be defined as a participatory process because inhabitants' participation to project starts after decisions were taken by authorities. Within this context, this part of the research examines existing participation structure of the project

Existing participation process consists of two phases. First phase is taking a decision on project type and deciding whether it will be a regeneration or a revitalization project. Then, the second phase is designing the process of the project (Figure 6.8)
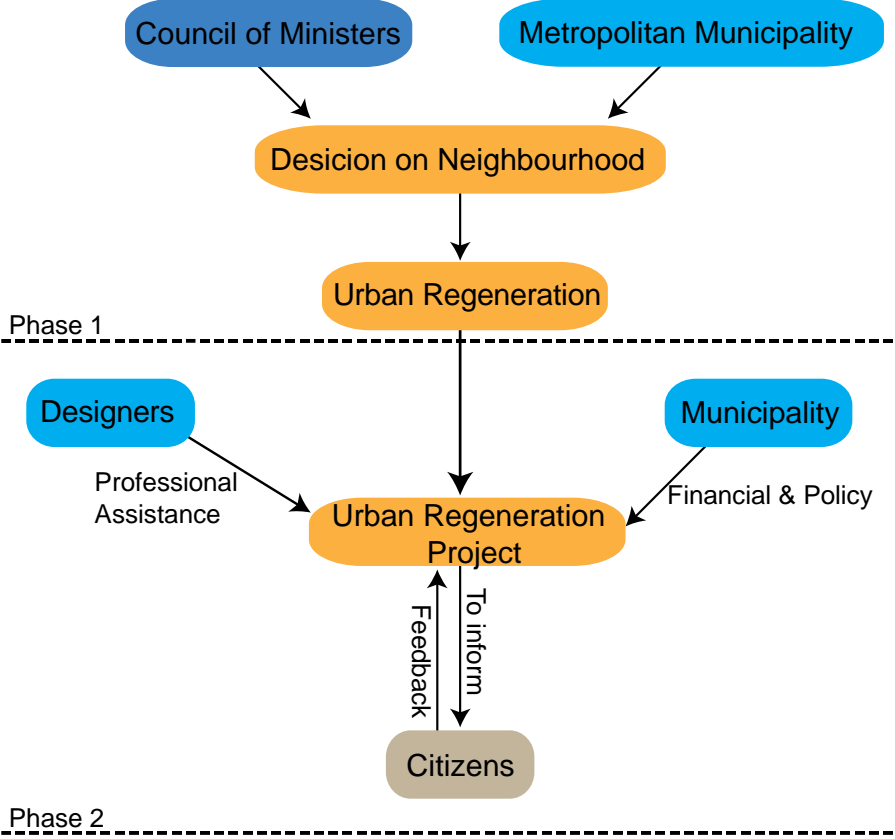
Figure 6.8: Existing participation structure

First phase covers decision making on what kind of intervention should be applied to the neighbourhood. By taking the decision of intervention, Izmir Metropolitan Municipality has decided to overcome problems in the neighbourhood which are; deterioration in physical conditions, social and economic decay, discrimination against Romani community, lack of infrastructure in the neighbourhood. To address these problems, Izmir metropolitan Municipality has decided to regenerate the urban pattern in order to provide sustainable solutions for the neighbourhood. On February 2013, Ege neighbourhood was declared as urban regeneration and development area with approval of council of ministers. (Bakanlar Kurulu, 2013). Inhabitants were not involved in decision making during this phase. They were not asked if they would want an intervention or what kind of an intervention in their neighbourhood. Therefore, decision of regeneration was a top-down approach.

The second phase of the project covers design preparation and negotiations with inhabitants. Metropolitan Municipality has started design preparation for the neighbourhood. In the designing process, to understand needs and demands of inhabitants, questionnaires were conducted with households in the neighbourhood by the municipality..   Questionnaires were applied to all households in the neighbourhood. During the field-work, the aim of local authorities was to collect demographic data, understand socio-economic structure and identify citizens' needs. On the other hand, houses and the status of the houses were also examined in terms of identifying the householders, tenants and occupants.

According to the certificate of ownership status and results of fieldwork, proposal of the project was prepared with participation of architects, planners and metropolitan municipality. While designers were aiding with their professional experiences, authorities assisted with financial and policy support.

Consequently, first version of the project was presented to inhabitants on June 2014 with presentation of Metropolitan Municipality's mayor. After the first presentation, media tools, briefings and public service announcements techniques were used to inform inhabitants about the project. My field works show that 60.8% of citizens were informed about the project (Figure 6.9). Although, citizens did not have any opportunity to involve in any decision making mechanism, authorities tried to get feedback from citizens about the project. Interviews and public meetings were conducted to understand citizen's ideas about the project. Interviews and public meetings were the only opportunities for citizens to express their thoughts on project. The interviews which I have conducted with the citizens showed that some parts of the project were changed according to citizen's thoughts such as entrance of apartment buildings. However, no public discussion or debate were held to get feedback from inhabitants. Therefore, satisfactory level of the project is low. Questionnaires show that only 34% of the community was satisfied from the project (Figure 6.10). People, who mentioned dissatisfaction, states that the project does not respond their needs and it lacks involvement of inhabitants.
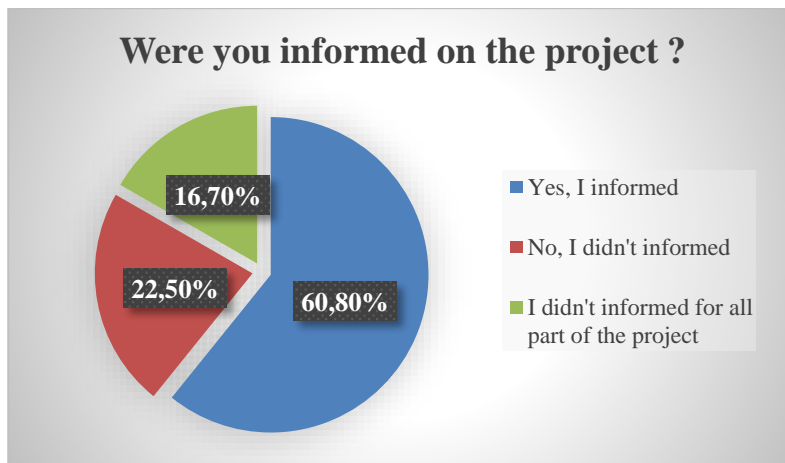
Figure 6.9: Informing the citizens
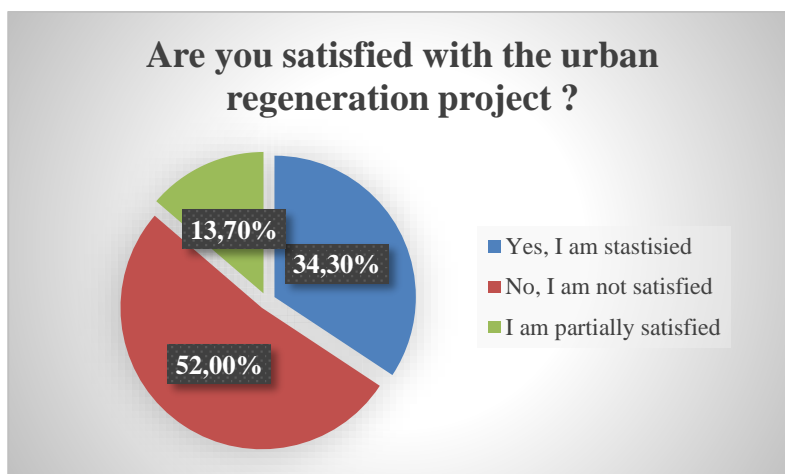
Figure 6.10: Satisfaction from the project

In terms of public participation, interviews and public meetings were only opportunities provided to the citizens. However, my interviews and questionnaires (particularly open-ended questions asked in the questionnaire) with citizens show that they were not encouraged to express their demands in public meetings. On the contrary, they were pushed to show their supports. As one of the participants notes: "*They invited us to talk about the project, however, the mayor gave us a long briefing and we were not encouraged to express our ideas and they told us to clap his speech and not say a single word*" (Hamza). As understand from his speech, public meetings worked as a one way communication method and only citizens got informed. Likewise, in questionnaires 56.6% of citizens mentioned that they did not express their thoughts to the municipality (Figure 6.11) whereas only 33.3 % of citizens mentioned that, they expressed their thoughts. Even though, 52% of them believe that their thoughts did not

have impact on the project (Figure 6.12) So, they haven't got opportunity to involve in project by giving feedback. So, not being able to express their ideas increased their dissatisfaction about the urban regeneration project. As seen in figure 6.12, 52% of inhabitants were dissatisfied from the project.
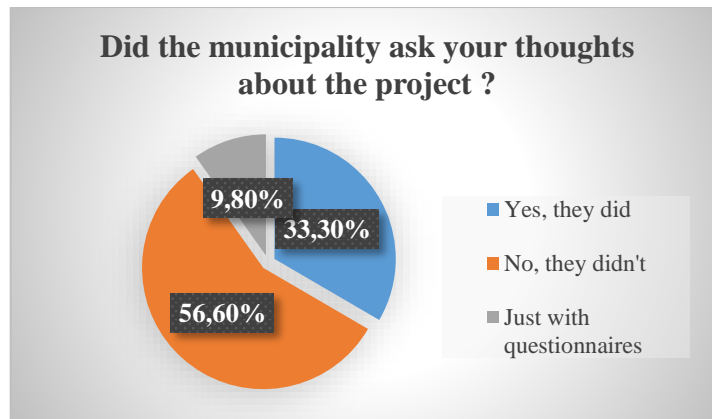
Figure 6.11: Participation to the project with their thoughts
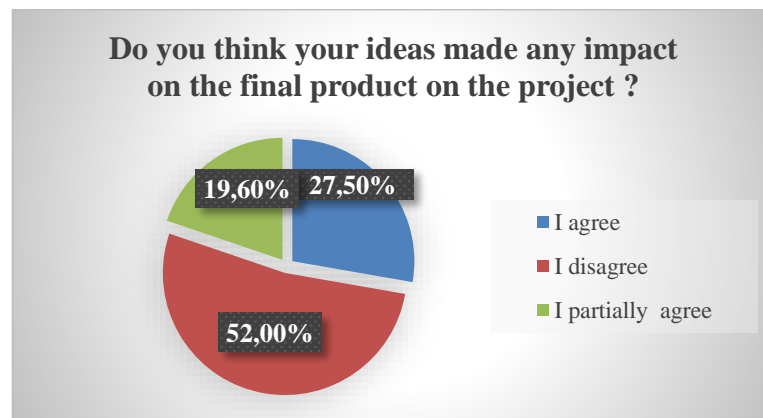
Figure 6.12: Citizen's ideas' impact on the project

To sum up, after approval of the project by council of ministers, Izmir metropolitan municipality informed citizens about the urban regeneration project. Information was based on expressing aims, process and expected outcomes. Citizens did not have an opportunity to express their ideas about project's type and its outcomes. Moreover, they had to be the part of the project because there was not option to be involved in the project.. Therefore, citizen participation was not the case in decision making process of the project. Also, the survey shows that 59.8% of inhabitants are not happy with current participation structure (Figure 6.13). They believe that citizen participation is just show-off for the project, remains at superficial level and does not genuinely aspire to involve them in decision making. However, local authorities try to

give the impression that they "contacted" citizens about the project. So, inhabitants were only rhetorically asked what they expect and demand from the project with no power in taking decisions and becoming a part of the design and production.
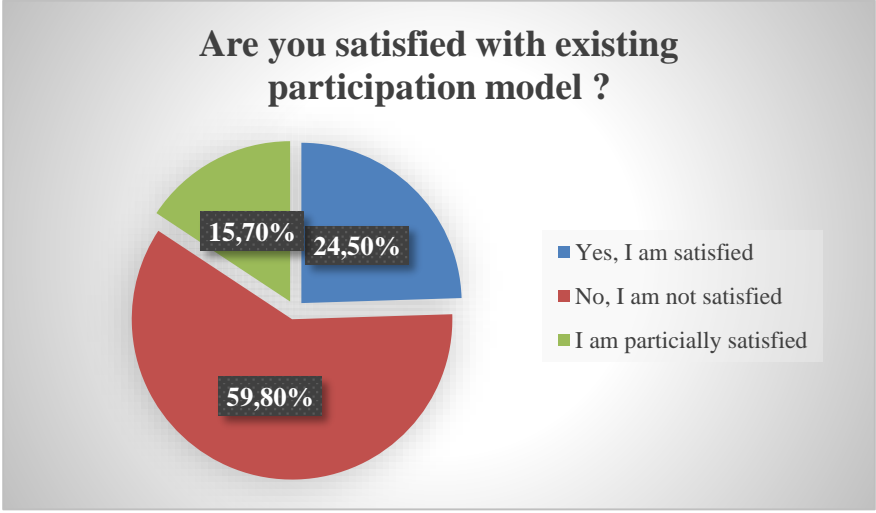
Figure 6.13: Satisfaction from existing participation model

6.6. Participation Structure Proposal for the Neighborhood

Current participation process in the project generates two main problems: lack of participation in decision making and ineffective participation tools to inform citizens and get feedback. To extend, participation of the inhabitants is limited with expression of their demands and needs and selected participation tools to communicate with inhabitants are not providing information to inhabitants. Therefore, current participation structure can't provide environment for open discussion and joint decision making environment for the project. According to Arnstein's level of participation, role of citizens in participation structure can be defined as "degree of tokenism" which merely provides opportunity to listen citizens' thoughts and they do not have any power in decision making. Therefore, in this section, the research aims to establish a participation model by drawing experiences from current participation structure and literature. Establishment of participation structure will provide three outcomes which are; (1) to hear citizens' thoughts, demands and needs during the design process of the project, (2) to provide opportunity to overcome problems in current project proposal by drawing from inhabitants' experience, (3) to achieve social sustainable urban regeneration project by sustaining sense of belonging of the community.

Current participation model based on one way communication tools. This causes only to give brief to inhabitants without providing opportunity to express their thoughts. Therefore, two-way communication tools are suggested for proposed participation model. By using two-way communication tools, the model aims to build a consensus on decision making. Proposed participation model consists of two phases likewise in current participation model. First phase is based on making decision on goals, objectives, agenda and project type whereas, the second phase is based on designing process of the project.

In the first phase of the project, there could be participation of three groups which are; designers, citizens and local authority. Each group should be involved in the project with certain responsibilities. While Citizens should be involved in the project to express their needs and expectations, designers should contribute to this process with professional knowledge. On the other hand, local authority should be responsible for legitimacy and budget plan. Local authority should also provide suitable environment for communication of designers and citizens.

In terms of communication tools, beneficiary assessments and group meetings can be used as suitable tools. Beneficiary assessment can provide reliable information from all citizens with questionnaires and interviews technique. Also, it provides face to face interaction opportunity among inhabitants. All citizens' needs and demands can be determined by using beneficiary assessments. On the other hand, group meetings can provide an environment to discuss the project and to reach a final decision on common goals, agenda and urban regeneration type for participants. However, the choice of group meeting tools has great importance in order to facilitate a discussion environment. In interviews, citizens complained about meetings. The meetings were organized in a very formal environment in which they felt very uncomfortable. As some interviewees expressed, the meetings were conducted in a big conference room where they could feel the hierarchy. . Therefore, meetings should be organized informally and in informal ways to maintain a friendly and a relaxed environment where everyone can express their ideas freely. Town meetings and public meeting tools can be chosen as an informal way of group meetings and coffee klatches can be opted for organizing informal group meetings. Another important case of group meetings is finding an appropriate place to organize the events. In existing participation tool, people have to go out of the neighborhood to be informed by

municipality. In interviews, in terms of meetings, people complained about two issues which are; distance of the place and starting time of meetings. Therefore, organizing formal and informal meetings in the neighborhood can enhance public participation and these meetings can be held during the different times of the day and evening to ensure maximum participation

First phase of participation model emerges with implementation of beneficiary assessments which gives information about citizen's needs and demands. Results of assessments will provide an idea of public perspective. According the results, designers and municipality will be responsible for development of objectives and agenda for the project. This developed objective will be presented to public by group meetings. In the meetings, objectives will be expressed to public and discussion environment will be provided by municipality. Discussions on objectives with participation of inhabitants will provide a consensus on a common agenda and outcome. This consensus will maintain decision for project type of project that needs to be carried out such as; revitalization, regeneration or rehabilitation.
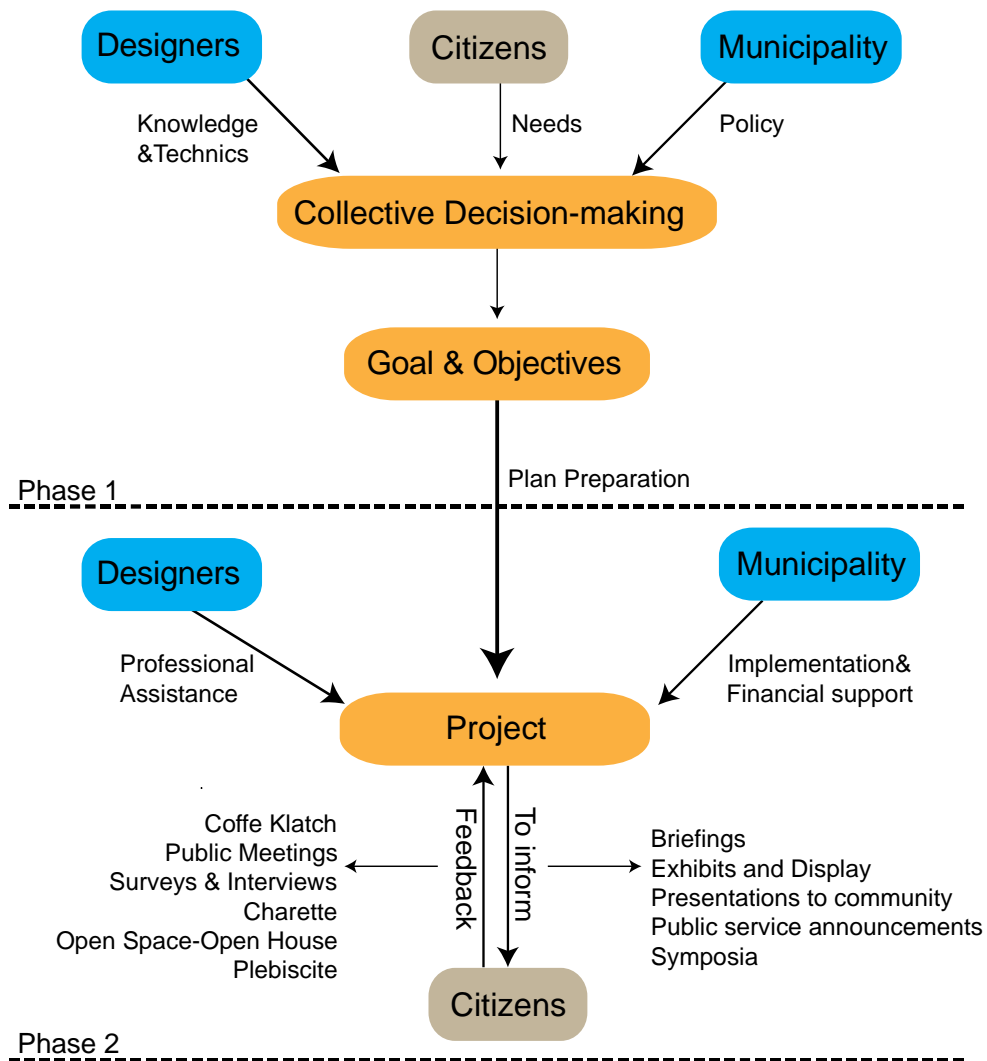
Figure 6.14: Proposed participation model

Second phase of the model emerges after a consensus on objectives and project type is achieved. In this phase, like the first phase, participation of three groups is essential. While planners design the project according to needs and demands of inhabitants, Citizens should be involved in the project with their experience and approval of design ideas. On the other hand, local authority will manage the process and financial part of the project such as fitting and balancing budget. Also, they should provide a suitable environment for designers and citizens to discuss on the project.

In terms of participation tools, beneficiary assessments and group meetings are suitable tools for the reasons explained above in the first phase.

Second phase goes into a continuous cycle of informing citizens and getting feedback from them until a consensus on the project is achieved. In doing so, briefings, symposia, presentations, public service announcements, exhibits and display can be

chosen as tools to inform public. Briefings, symposia and presentations can be organized by municipality to inform and to keep citizens up to date for the project. In existing conditions, many people get information from Ege Neighbourhood Urban issues, Cultural and Fraternal Association. Thus, public service announcements can be used to provide information to citizens via NGO. Organizing exhibits and display in the neighbourhood can be determined as another effective information tool when considering that inhabitants also complaint about inappropriate place and time of the organized events. So, citizens who do not have time to attend meetings, can get information from the exhibit panels.

On the other hand, coffee klatches, public meetings, charette, open space-open house, surveys & interviews and plebiscite can all be determined as tools to provide feedback. According to interviews, citizens hesitate to express their thoughts in formal meetings because they feel reluctant to speak in front of a large group in a formal event. Therefore, appropriate participation tools should be determined to maintain formal and informal meetings. In doing so, coffee klatches is an important tool of informal meetings on the contrary, public meetings can be held for formal meetings. Coffee klatches can be organized in coffeehouses of the neighbourhoods or in the NGO's office. Citizens will then have the opportunity to talk in a small group a without hesitation. So, coffee klatches can make up the main tool of the organization   to get feedback from the citizens about the project.

When it comes to the design process, workshops are useful for citizen participation. By different tools of workshop technique, participants can have the opportunity to exchange their experience and knowledge. In this participation model, designers and citizens are the participants of workshops. Therefore, it is important that designers benefit from inhabitants' lived experiences and their knowledge about the area. As a workshop technique, charette and open space-open houses tools should be determined. Open space-open house tool provides an environment for designers and citizens to gather in the same place. The tool is based on a discussion about the project with designers. Also, charette tool provides discussion. Charette requires dividing participants into small groups and these small groups are responsible for finding a solution on a case under the supervision of the designer. After the small groups complete the discussion, they meet the large group to finalize and discuss each groups' solution for design. So this tool can provide solutions according to citizens' thought.

Also, problems of the neighbourhood can be overcome by having a consensus on solution. So, workshops can provide an opportunity for inhabitants to overcome difficulties by reaching a consensus.

In second phase, surveys, interviews and plebiscite are determined as beneficiary assessments. Beneficiary assessments can provide quantitative results with questionnaires to get feedback from public. Face to face interviews can be used for deep analysis of citizens 'thoughts. But, especially plebiscite tool has great importance to reach a final decision on design. It can be used at the end of second phase for the final approval of the design by citizens.

According to the chosen tools above, second phase consists of continuous communication process among participants. Design of the project is offered by designers at the beginning of second phase. This initial design proposal informs citizens with determined tools. Then, citizens provide their concerns and the deficiencies they have spotted about design by using the participation tools, which are expected to be provided by the local authorities. Concern of inhabitants and deficiencies they have realized in the project should be examined by workshops and group meetings. These events can help to find a solution and to overcome deficiencies with consensus. Then, according to outcomes of workshops and meetings, designers can revise the project to have a plebiscite. In the plebiscite, citizens evaluate the project under different sections regards to right to the city criteria as mentioned in chapter 4.. As a result of the voting, the selected project's sections become last version of the design. If project is not approved, sections are revised by organizing workshops and meetings. This process continues until the project is approved in the plebiscite.

It is important that this participation method gives minimum power and influence to the local authority in decision making process. This is rather important to break the hierarchies and foster a deliberative democracy and environment. Existing participation approach is highly based on top to down approach and do not provide any opportunity of involvement of citizens. Therefore, citizens are not satisfied with the project and they believe that the project won't respond to their demands. Moreover, they are not satisfied with the participation model because, they believe that, municipality applied this model to show off. So, this participation model can causes more problems such as economic problems and habitability after the project, rather

than responding needs of citizens. These problems can push citizens to change their place and move-out from the neighborhood. Therefore, proposed participation aims to;

1. to improve communication between participant,
2. to provide citizens' thoughts involvement in decision making,
3. to sustain environment for taking decisions with consensus
4. to prevent possible gentrification

6.7. Conclusion

Analysis of the existing participation structure shows that public participation to design process of the project is not effective to establish sustainable urban regeneration project. Also, it shows that citizens' expression of their needs and demands are limited with formal meetings and there is not an opportunity to involve in all decision making processes. In another words, citizens have to accept the project as urban regeneration. Used participation tools are not effective to provide comfortable environment to Roma community and they are not feasible for them to express their needs. Therefore, a new participation model is established to overcome deficiencies in existing participation structure. This participation structure aims to provide comfortable participation tools for community so that they can freely express their ideas and sustain involvement of their ideas in decision making process.

7.   CONCLUSION

Since the beginning of 2000s, there is a continuous improvement in entrepreneur role of local authorities. This entrepreneur role focuses on decisions about infrastructure, environmental planning, decision making process and also, establishing regulatory bases for urban regenerations. Therefore local authorities' perspectives on the urban area cause more disintegration of community rather than providing integration among different class, ethnic, religious and cultural. In this perspective, urban regeneration projects are being applied and shaped according to the sake of upper and middle class' benefits. So, projects provide investment cycle and opportunities for these classes whereas they cause discrimination and dispossession cycle of marginalized people. Especially in last 20 years, authorities support in regeneration projects caused marginalized communities to face gentrification in cities.

The central aim of this thesis was to analyze urban regeneration case of Ege neighborhood from Lefebvre's right to the city perspective. Driven by the idea of the right to participation, it also aimed to propose a participation model to prevent gentrification by urban regeneration projects. By approaching to the urban regeneration project from right to the city perspective, the thesis aimed to contribute to achieving social sustainability in urban regeneration project and to provide a guideline on how gentrification on marginalized people in regeneration cases (as in Sulukule) can be avoided.

Revisiting the research questions

Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project is an ongoing project in Izmir. The area is densely populated by Roma people. It is quite poor and it faces social and physical decay. Therefore, Izmir metropolitan municipality emerged an urban regeneration project to improve conditions in the neighborhood and prevent discrimination against Roma community. Although, the municipality has been trying to adapt participatory design approach to enhance social, physical and economic conditions, proposed urban

regeneration project seems to improve only physical conditions. Most likely, the project can cause gentrification, which can be read as a violation of right to the city.

Lefebvre's right to the city notion works as a robust analytical and conceptual framework to analyze this research because it can be taken as an advanced version of human right and it widely covers and addresses human needs in the city. As Lefebvre argues, right to the city means to participate in decision making process and to appropriate urban space. It is right to shape urban space rather than letting urban space shape inhabitants. However, these notions stand as a vague explanation of theoretical framework rather than explaining certain criteria for achieving inhabitants' right to the city as Lefebvre does not offer a robust explanation of each concept. Therefore, the international rights to the city declarations were examined. These declarations were prepared by UN. Many countries including Turkey approved the declarations. These declarations define citizens' rights in the city and they draw their philosophical underpinning ideas from Lefebvre's right to the city notion. The rights in declarations cover physical, economic and environmental needs of inhabitants to live in a city. Drawing from mentioned rights in declarations, 10 criteria were established in this research to look into what extent inhabitants of Ege neighborhood can perform their city rights and how these people can be included in the project.

In doing so, the thesis analyzed Ege neighborhood's urban regeneration project based on two dimensions. Firstly, the project was analyzed according to the criteria extrapolated in chapter 4. As mentioned in table 5.1, deficiencies about the project were examined drawing from the questionnaires and interviews in the field. It could be argued that the project provides opportunities to solve some problems of the area. However, there are still deficiencies about the design of project. Compared with Sulukule case, local authority in Izmir has an effort to sustain citizens' involvement in the planning process. However, the questionnaires show that there is still lack of full citizen participation in decision making and there is not high level of participation in meetings. On the other hand, as seen in figure 5.27, majority of citizens would like to stay in the neighborhood, however they know that it is not possible after the regeneration. They are also not willing to move another neighborhood as they hesitate to live out of the neighborhood due to affordability concerns. It shows that the urban regeneration project can push citizens to move out due to its deficiencies and it can

change the physical conditions of neighborhood. In other words, it can cause gentrification of the area as in Sulukule.

So far, Ege neighborhood project primarily aimed at improving physical conditions in the neighborhood. However, there is no strategy or implementation in the project to overcome social and economic problems of the area. Therefore, this project cannot reach social sustainability with its existing conditions. There is a need to improve conditions of the project and stimulate news strategies. These new strategies should be stimulated with inhabitants according to their needs and demands. What is need is an improvement in participation level of citizens and establishing a communication between inhabitants and local authority to enhance conditions and to sustain sense of belonging even after the project. There are also a lot to be drawn from the life experiences of inhabitants in the neighborhood such as how they use and produce space, and therefore their voices should be included in the project.

Drawing from the analysis of the Barcelona Ciutat Vella and Istanbul Sulukule, it could be argued that projects can achieve social sustainability by adapting participation of inhabitants as a key aspect. Otherwise as in Sulukule case, it is very like that gentrification may occur if citizens do not actively or genuinely participate in the project or designs are completed with a top- down approach. So the implication drawn from these two projects can aid this research to achieve sustainable urban regeneration project in Ege neighborhood. Therefore, the second part of the analysis is based on examination of existing participation model. Analysis shows that there is a communication problem among inhabitants, designers, local authority. This problem arises from the lack of use of appropriate communication tools to foster a dialogue. What is needed is to organize more informal meetings for inhabitants to express their thoughts. On the other hand, citizens' thoughts cannot be involved in decision making due to the hierarchical structure of participation model. The model is based on a top-down approach. Municipality only informs inhabitants about the project, asks citizens' demands and needs, and does not provide room for further participation Thus, the municipality takes an authoritarian approach and decides the design of the project. To overcome problems in participation structure, a model of citizen participation was established. The model's participation tools were chosen in a way that it can best enable improvement of communication between inhabitants and local authority and provide suitable environment for expression of inhabitants' thoughts.

As result of this research, it becomes clear that local authority should provide an opportunity to inhabitants to involve them in decision making process. This involvement should be made by using appropriate participation tools which can provide expression of their thoughts freely. These thoughts should be included in decision making. Also, decisions on the project design need to be taken with a consensus. In terms of designers, they should be involved in the community to understand their needs. Although designers analyzed physical conditions of the area, their analyses are limited with number of houses, their ownership and physical conditions. They need further insights about the social conditions, how they live and how they use space so that a suitable project for the community can be proposed.

As results of Ege neighborhood urban regeneration project, it is possible to see gentrification process of the community due to local authority's decisions in the neighborhood. The regeneration Project shows that after the project, different income level group will live together which can be read as improvement in social conditions. However, rapid change in build environment and social structure can push Roma communities to move out from the neighborhood by direct or indirect ways. So, the thesis aims to prevent gentrification in the area by establishing a participatory decision making process.

Among the urban regeneration projects in Izmir, Ege neighborhood is the main one which remains on agenda. In the neighborhood, design process of the project was completed. However, effects of the urban regeneration project in the neighborhood and the city will take place after completion of all processes of the project. According to Sulukule experience, implementing urban regeneration projects by ignoring citizens' needs caused devastating impacts on community in the long-run. Also, this devastating impact affected area and its surroundings neighborhoods. Like in Sulukule project, central and local authorities have initial role in the project of Ege neighborhood. This attitude will continue and gradually increase until the end of the project. Therefore, experiences in Ege and Sulukule neighborhoods prove that activism or neighborhood movement against gentrification process will not be enough to prevent gentrification. Therefore, authorities should benefit from previous bitter experiences. There is a need to shift perspective of local authority from top to down procedural planning approach to giving voice to the community. Only then, authority can establish a pluralistic planning approach and address different needs and demands of community.

Contribution to the literature

There is lack of research on Ege neighborhood, its urban regeneration project and Roma community in Turkey. Also, there are few studies conducted in the field of developing participation model in Turkey context (Ceylan Baba, 2009; Varkal, 2010). There is also lack of research on analyzing urban regeneration projects by right to the city notion and establishing participation model for urban regeneration cases on marginalized communities in the literature. Therefore, this thesis aims to contribute to the literature by providing an analysis of urban regeneration project on Roma community according to right the city notion. By establishing a participation model, the thesis provides a guide on how to prevent gentrification with extensive and equal participation of all stakeholder and partners of the project.

Limitations of the study

The data collected in the research is based on 102 survey responders and 9 interviewees. Among 9 interviewees, only one interviewee is the local authority's actor. This is because local authorities work confidentially on the project and they provide limited information. Therefore, people who work on project are not willing to talk about it.

Suggested participation model does not express detailed implementation of participation tools and its structure. To elaborate on participation tools and implementation, there is a need to know skills and professions of designers who will participate. Also to analyze this, there is a need to participate, organize and experience these tools as a researcher. However, experiencing and organizing participation tools are not possible due to lack of authorization in the project and time restriction of the thesis. Such a process requires actively being part of the project as a researcher. This can be the study topic of further research.

Finally, participation model is suggested for Ege neighborhood case. The model was established with regard to socio-economic structure condition of the area. Also, as I mentioned in chapter 6, participation tools are unique for a community. Therefore, this participation tool cannot be implemented even another case in Izmir. However, this thesis can guide and aspire other researchers to establish participation models.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A.1 European Urban Charter -The European Declaration Of Urban Rights

Appendix A.2 The European Charter For The Safeguarding Of Human Rights In The City

Appendix A.3 World Charter For The Right To The City

Appendix B.1 Survey questions

Appendix B.2 Interview's questions

Appendix A.1 European Urban Charter -The European Declaration Of Urban Rights

EUROPEAN URBAN CHARTER

The European Declaration of Urban Rights

Considering that the exercise of the following rights should be based upon solidarity and responsible citizenship implying an equal acceptance of duties, citizens of European towns have a right to:

1. SECURITY:- to a secure and safe town, free, as far as possible, from crime, delinquency and aggression;

2. AN UNPOLLUTED AND HEALTHY ENVIRONMENT:- to an environment free from air, noise, water and ground pollution and protective of nature and natural resources;

3. EMPLOYMENT:- to adequate employment possibilities; to a share in economic development and the achievement thereby of personal financial autonomy;

4. HOUSING:- to an adequate supply and choice of affordable, salubrious housing, guaranteeing privacy and tranquility;

5. MOBILITY:- to unhampered mobility and freedom to travel; to a harmonious balance between all street users - public transport, the private car, the pedestrian and cyclists;

6. HEALTH:- to an environment and a range of facilities conducive to physical and psychological health;

7. SPORT AND LEISURE:- to access for all persons, irrespective of age, ability or income, to a wide range of sport and leisure facilities;

8. CULTURE: - to access to and participation in a wide range of cultural and creative activities and pursuits;

9. MULTICULTURAL INTEGRATION:- where communities of different cultural ethnic and religious backgrounds co-exist peaceably;

10. GOOD QUALITY ARCHITECTURE AND PHYSICAL SURROUNDINGS:- to an agreeable, stimulating physical form achieved through contemporary architecture of high quality and retention and sensitive restoration of the historic built heritage;

11. HARMONISATION OF FUNCTIONS:- where living, working, travelling and the pursuit of social activities are as closely interrelated as possible;

12. PARTICIPATION:- in pluralistic democratic structures and in urban management characterized by co-operation between all the various partners, the principle of subsidiarity, information and freedom from over-regulation;

13. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: - where the local authority, in a determined and enlightened manner, assumes responsibility for creating, directly or indirectly, economic growth;

14. SUSTAINED DEVELOPMENT:- where local authorities attempt to achieve reconciliation of economic development and environmental protection;

15. SERVICES AND GOODS:- to a wide range of accessible services and goods, of adequate quality, provided by the local authority, the private sector or by partnerships between both;

16. NATURAL WEALTH AND RESOURCES:- to the management and husbanding of local resources and assets by a local authority in a rational, careful, efficient and equitable manner for the benefit of all citizens;

17. PERSONAL FULFILMENT:- to urban conditions conducive to the achievement of personal well-being and individual social, cultural, moral and spiritual development;

18. INTER-MUNICIPAL COLLABORATION:- in which citizens are free and encouraged to participate directly in the international relations of their community;

19. FINANCIAL MECHANISMS AND STRUCTURES:- enabling local authorities to find the financial resources necessary for the exercise of the rights as defined in this Declaration;

20. EQUALITY:- where local authorities ensure that the above rights apply to all citizens, irrespective of sex, age, origin, belief, social, economic or political position, physical or psychological handicap.

Summary of the Principles of the European Urban Charter, as Contained in the Individual Chapters

1. Transport and mobility Principles;

- It is essential that the volume of travel, particularly by private car, be reduced

- Mobility must be organized in a way which is conducive to maintaining a liveable town and permitting co-existence of different forms of travel
- The street must be recovered as a social arena
- A sustained educational and training effort is required

2. Environment and nature in towns principles;

- Public authorities have a responsibility to husband and manage energy resources in a coherent and rational manner
- Local authorities should adopt policies to prevent pollution
- Local authorities have a responsibility to protect nature and green spaces
- Nature conservation is a factor in developing community involvement and pride

3. The physical form of cities principles;

- City centres must be safeguarded as important symbols of European cultural and historic heritage
- The provision and management of open space in the city are integral parts of urban development
- Architectural creation and development play a crucial role in the quality of the urban townscape
- All persons are entitled to a healthy, safe, settled, pleasant and stimulating living environment
- The vitality of a town depends upon balanced urban residential patterns and the maintenance of the residential character of the city centre

4. The urban architectural heritage principles;

- Urban conservation requires a carefully constructed legal framework
- Conservation of the urban heritage requires policies for information partnerships
- Adequate and often original finance mechanisms and partnerships are necessary
- The maintenance and sometimes revival of specialised crafts and techniques are essential

- Urban heritage must be integrated into contemporary life via its incorporation as an essential element in overall planning

- Economic development can often be stimulated by the heritage

5. Housing principles;

- The urban dweller is entitled to privacy in the home

- Every person and family is entitled to secure and salubrious housing

- Local authorities should ensure diversity, choice and mobility in housing The right of persons and families in the most disadvantaged categories cannot be safeguarded by market forces alone

- Local authorities should ensure that opportunities to purchase housing are available and that security of tenure is achieved

- The redevelopment of older housing must not be undertaken at the expense of the existing social fabric

6. Urban security and crime prevention principles

- A coherent security and crime prevention policy must be based on prevention, law enforcement and mutual support

- A local urban security policy must be based on up-to-date comprehensive statistics and information

- Crime prevention involves all members of the community An effective urban security policy depends upon close co-operation between the police and the local community ☐ A local anti-drug policy must defined and applied

- Programmes for preventing relapse and developing alternatives to incarceration are essential

- Support for victims is a key component of any local security policy

- Crime prevention must be recognised as a priority and thus command increased financial resources

7. Disadvantaged and disabled persons in towns PRINCIPLES

- Towns must be designed in such a way that all citizens have access to all places

- Policies for the disadvantaged and disabled persons should aim to integrate and not over-protect

- Co-operation with and between specialised associations, representing disadvantaged or minority groups, is essential
- It is important to ensure that houses and workplaces are suitably adapted to the requirements of the disadvantaged and disabled
- Travel and communication and public transport must be accessible for all people

8. Sport and Leisure in Urban Areas PRINCIPLES

- All urban dwellers have a right to take part in sporting and recreational facilities
- Sports facilities should be safe and well designed
- All urban dwellers have a right to be able to develop their expertise in sport up to their individual potential

9. Culture in Towns principles

- All urban dwellers have a right to culture
- The cultural development of towns contributes to their economic and social development
- Cultural exchange is a powerful bond between peoples of different nationalities, different regions and nations
- Cultural development and genuine cultural democracy involves extensive collaboration between local authorities and community groups, the voluntary sector and the private sectors
- Cultural pluralism presupposes experiment and encouragement of innovation
- The balanced promotion of cultural tourism by local authorities can have a beneficial effect on their community

10. Multicultural Integration in Towns principles

- Non-discrimination is a fundamental aspect of urban policies
- Local authorities should ensure effective participation by immigrants in local, political life
- Cultural and educational policies in towns should be non-discriminatory
- The provision of equal access to employment must be a concern of public authorities

- Multicultural integration implies full integration of immigrant communities into the social and physical urban environment

11. Health in Towns principles

- The urban environment must be conducive to good health for all citizens
- A reliable and durable supply of goods, meeting the fundamental needs of people, is a major factor in ensuring good health
- Local authorities must encourage community-based health initiatives and participation
- Urban health, a matter of international importance, involves the coordination of municipal action with international programmes

12. Citizen participation, urban management and urban planning principles

- Citizen participation, in local political life must be safeguarded through the right to elect local elected representatives freely and democratically
- Citizen participation in local political life must also be effective at all levels of the local, political and administrative structure
- Citizens are entitled to be consulted over all major projects affecting the future of the community
- Urban management and planning must be based upon maximum information on the characteristics and special features of the town special features, potential, activities, development capacities and resources
- Local political decisions should be based on urban and regional planning conducted by teams of professionals
- Political choices, the final stage in the decision-making process, should be vital and comprehensible
- Local authorities should ensure the participation of young people in local life

13. Economic development in cities principles

- Local authorities should ensure the economic development of their local communities
- Economic and social development are inextricably linked
- A town is economically and socially part of its surrounding region or hinterland

- Economic growth and development depends upon an infrastructure adequate to produce, sustain and increase that growth

- Collaboration between the private and public sectors is an important component in urban economic growth and development

This Declaration arises from the European Urban Charter, adopted by the Council of Europe's Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE) on 18 March 1992, a Session held during the annual Plenary Session of the CLRAE (17-19 March 1992, Strasbourg).

Appendix A.2 The European Charter For The Safeguarding Of Human Rights In The City

THE EUROPEAN CHARTER FOR THE SAFEGUARDING OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE CITY

Addressed to the men and women of the city

Why, at the beginning of the 21st century, is there a need for a European Charter for the Safeguarding of Human Rights in the City?

The Declaration of Human Rights (1948) is universal. Has it not been adequately reinforced and finalised by countless agreements, which to a varying degree concern the protection of specific rights?

The European Convention on Human Rights (1950) offers a legal guarantee. Despite this, there are many rights not yet realised and citizens find it difficult to find their way through the labyrinth of legal and administrative red tape.

How do we better guarantee these rights? How can we act more effectively? How do we create the right conditions for the personal wellbeing of everyone?

This is where the role of the city comes in.

Today, both for those inhabitants of rural areas who make the long march to the city, but above all for those foreigners who arrive seeking freedom and new experiences and looking for employment, to live here temporarily or permanently, it is clear that the city is now where the future of mankind lies.

The city today is home to all kinds of assemblies and, above all, a space for personal development. At the same time, it is the locus for contradictions, conflict and danger: The urban space with its anonymity on the one hand is a source of all types of discrimination rooted in unemployment, poverty, and disdain for cultural differences, while simultaneously municipal and social practices are appearing, which more and more build on the principle of solidarity.

City life today also demands that certain rights be more clearly defined. This is necessary, for it is here in the city we live, seek work and move around. This also obliges us to acknowledge new issues, such as respect for the environment, the guarantee of healthy food, the matter of tranquillity and the opportunity for social exchange and leisure etc.

And finally, in the face of the crisis facing elected democracy in the national states today and in view of the concern over European bureaucracy, the city emerges as a possible new political and social space.

Here exciting possibilities for an accessible democracy are emerging. All city dwellers will be able to participate in civic life and thus in citizenship. If all of the rights laid down below are for everyone, then each citizen must secure those rights for all others in freedom and solidarity.

The commitment which we undertake concerns all people of today. It does not claim to be exhaustive and the breadth of its application depends on how far the citizens make it their own. It is merely an outline response to the aspirations of those citizens, aspirations which arose in the cities. This Charter contains a set of points which will enable all citizens to access their rights, and local government, at the subsidiary level, to facilitate their delivery and to recognize and put an end to any violations of those rights.

This support should facilitate problem solving and clarification of any apparent contradictions integral to life in the city.

The intention: to facilitate integration into public life in the long term

The principle: equality

The objective: to raise the political awareness of all inhabitants

The undersigned European cities:

Recognise that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the European Convention for the Safeguarding of Human Rights and Fundamental Liberties, the European Social Charter and other international instruments of protection of human rights, apply to all, whether inhabitants of cities or otherwise.

They acknowledge that human rights are universal, indivisible and interdependent and that all public bodies have a responsibility to guarantee them. They further recognize that the mechanisms for their application and protection are as yet not adequate, particularly with regard to social, financial and cultural rights.

They are convinced, that good administration of cities requires respect for, and a guarantee of human rights for all inhabitants without exception, with the object of promoting social inclusion and protection of the weakest.

They are therefore convinced of the necessity of a European Charter for the Safeguarding of Human Rights in the City, which expresses formally, and clearly those rights and civil liberties to which all citizens are entitled and which in addition makes known the obligation of the city administration to guarantee those rights according to its powers within the national legal framework.

They adopt the stance of the European Charter of Local Self Government, which strives to make the municipal administration more accessible to the public as well as more effective. Moreover, following the recommendations of the Barcelona Agreement, signed on October 17, 1998, by those cities participating in the European Conference Cities for Human Rights, they aim to improve the collective public space for all citizens, with no exception.

They have therefore unanimously pledged commitment to the following:

PART I GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article I RIGHT TO THE CITY

1. The city is a collective space belonging to all who live in it. These have the right to conditions which allow their own political, social and ecological development but at the same time accepting a commitment to solidarity.

2. The municipal authorities encourage, by all available means, respect for the dignity of all and quality of life of the inhabitants.

Article II PRINCIPLE OF EQUALITY OF RIGHTS AND NON-DISCRIMINATION

1. The rights contained in this Charter apply to all persons who inhabit the signatory cities, irrespective of their nationality, henceforth known as "citizens".

2. These rights are guaranteed by the municipal authorities, without any discrimination with regard to colour, age, gender, sexual orientation, language, religion, political opinion, ethnic, national or social origin, or level of income.

Article III RIGHT TO CULTURAL, LINGUISTIC AND RELIGIOUS FREEDOM

1. All citizens have the right to exercise their cultural, linguistic and religious freedom. The municipal authorities act, in collaboration with other administrations, to ensure that children who belong to minority linguistic groups can study their mother tongue.

2. Freedom of conscience and individual and collective religious freedom are guaranteed by municipal authorities to all citizens. Within the limits of national legislation, the municipal authorities must take all necessary steps to ensure such rights, and at the same time are called upon to safeguard against the creation of ghettos.

3. With regard to secular matters, the cities encourage mutual tolerance between believers and non-believers, as well as between the various religious communities.

4. The municipal authorities are to preserve the history of their people and respect the memory of those who have died, guaranteeing to uphold the dignity of cemeteries.

Article IV PROTECTION OF THE MOST VULNERABLE GROUPS AND CITIZENS

1. The most vulnerable groups and citizens have the right to enjoy special protection.

2. The authorities shall take all necessary steps to help the disabled to fully integrate in the life of the city. Their dwellings and places of work and leisure must be adapted for them. Public transport must be accessible to everyone.

3. The signatory cities adopt active policies in support of the most vulnerable of the population, guaranteeing each one the right of participation in civic life / citizenship.

4. The cities adopt all the measures necessary to assist the social integration of all citizens, regardless of the reason for their vulnerability, thereby preventing discrimination against them.

Article V DUTY OF SOLIDARITY

The local community is united by an obligation to mutual solidarity which is supported by the local authorities. The latter are engaged in promoting the development and quality of public services.

Article VI INTERNATIONAL MUNICIPAL CO-OPERATION

1. The cities promote mutual awareness of peoples and their cultures.

2. The signatory cities undertake to co-operate with regional and local authorities from developing countries in the areas of infrastructure, protection of the environment, health, education and culture, and to involve the maximum number of citizens.

3. The cities particularly encourage financial agents as well as the population at large to participate in co-operation programmes, with the purpose of developing a feeling of solidarity, eventually achieving full equality between peoples, which transcends urban and national frontiers.

Article VII PRINCIPLE OF SUBSIDIARITY

1. The principle of subsidiarity which governs the areas of responsibility of the state, the regions and the cities, must be constantly negotiated and managed in a new and vigilant way to prevent the central state and other competent administrations from neglecting their own responsibilities in the cities.

2. These negotiations should guarantee that public services operate more efficiently and on the administrative level closest to the people.

PART II CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS IN THE CITY

Article VIII RIGHT OF POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

1. All citizens have the right to take part in local political life through the free and democratic election of local representatives.

2. The signatory cities wish to see the right of municipal suffrage extended to the entire adult resident non-national population who have resided in the city for more than two years.

3. Democratic participation is generally encouraged outwith the times of those periodic elections necessary for the election of municipal governments. To this end, citizens and their organisations can access public debates, direct enquiries to the municipal authorities over issues concerning the regional and local authority, and express their opinion either through a "municipal referendum" or through public action and meetings.

4. In keeping with the principle of openness and in accord with the legislative regulations of their respective countries, the cities organise their municipal governments and their mode of operation in such a way that they contain mechanisms which hold accountable both elected representatives and the municipal administration.

Article IX RIGHT OF ASSOCIATION, ASSEMBLY AND DEMONSTRATION

1. The rights of the citizens to association, meeting and demonstration are recognised and guaranteed.

2. The local authorities encourage associations as an expression of citizenship, and respect their autonomy.

3. The city offers public spaces for the organisation of open meetings and informal gatherings. It ensures free access to these spaces for everyone, provided regulations are adhered to.

Article X PROTECTION OF PRIVATE AND FAMILY LIFE

1. The city protects people's right to a private and family life and recognises that respect for the family unit, in all its current manifestations, is a fundamental element of local democracy.

2. The municipal authorities protect the family unit from its foundation, without interference in its internal running. The authorities particularly provide assistance in housing issues. Low income families receive financial support, and structures and services are put into place to help children and old people.

3. Each individual has the right to be emotionally attached to the person of their choice and, provided all the legal requirements are fulfilled, is free to marry that person without obstacle.

4. The municipal authorities develop active policies to monitor the physical safety of family members and encourage the disappearance of all forms of ill-treatment within the family unit.

5. With regard to freedom of choice in educational, religious, cultural and political matters, local authorities adopt all the necessary measures to protect children and young people, and base their education on the principles of democracy and tolerance with the opportunity for full participation in the life of the city.

6. The local authorities create suitable conditions so that children can enjoy their childhood.

Article XI RIGHT TO INFORMATION

1. Citizens have the right to information on matters concerning social, economic, cultural and local administrative life, limited only by respect for the boundaries of privacy of the individual and the protection of small children and young people.

2. The municipal authorities offer free open and easy access to information. With this in mind the learning, facilitation of access to and regular updating of Information Technology skills is to be encouraged.

PART III ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS IN THE CITY

Article XII GENERAL RIGHT TO THE PUBLIC SERVICES OF SOCIAL PROTECTION

1. The signatory cities consider social policies a decisive part of their policies for the protection of human rights and they undertake to guarantee these rights within the limits of their authority.

2. Citizens are entitled to enjoy free and smooth access to general municipal services. For this reason the signatory cities oppose the privatisation of personal support services and monitor to ensure that good quality basic services are made available in other areas of public the lowest possible and stable prices.

3. The cities commit themselves to develop social policies, aimed expressly at the most disadvantaged, which would reject any form of exclusion but champion human dignity and equal rights.

Article XIII RIGHT TO EDUCATION

1. Citizens have the right to an education. The municipal authorities provide access to basic education for all children of school age. They encourage accessible adult education which corresponds with the values of democracy.

2. The cities contribute to social integration and to multi-culture by making available to everyone without distinction public spaces, as well as spaces in further education establishments, schools and cultural centres.

3. The municipal authorities raise public consciousness through education, particularly with regard to the struggle against sexism, racism, xenophobia and discrimination.

Article XIV THE RIGHT TO WORK

1. Citizens have a right to enjoy sufficient financial recompense for a worthwhile occupation which guarantees a satisfactory quality of life.

2. The municipal authorities strive towards the creation of full employment within their possibilities. To make the right to work an achievable goal, the signatory cities encourage the matching of supply and demand in the job market, and resolve to promote further education and the updating of skills in the work force. They develop measures with the unemployed in mind.

3. The signatory cities undertake not to sign any municipal contract without including clauses − rejecting child labour and − illegal employment, whether involving nationals or foreign workers.

4. The municipal authorities develop mechanisms, in collaboration with other public institutions and companies − to ensure equality for everyone at work, and − to prevent any discrimination on the grounds of nationality, gender, sexual orientation, age or disability in matters of salary, working conditions, right of participation, professional promotion or wrongful dismissal.

They promote equal opportunities in the workplace for women by making various structures available to them, such as nurseries, and for the handicapped by the installation of appropriate amenities and equipment.

5. The municipal authorities encourage the creation of protected jobs for those individuals returning to the world of work and encourage in particular the creation of jobs in the areas of public service, the environment, social provision and adult education.

Article XV RIGHT TO CULTURE

1. The citizens have a right to culture in all its expressions, forms and manifestations.

2. The municipal authorities, in co-operation with cultural associations and the private sector, promote the development of urban cultural life with a respect for diversity. Suitable public spaces are at the disposal of citizens to use for cultural and social activities as they see fit, with equal conditions applying to all.

Article XVI RIGHT TO A HOME

1. All citizens have the right to a proper, safe and healthy home.

2. The municipal authorities endeavour to ensure an appropriate supply of homes and infrastructure for all their inhabitants, without exception, within the limits of their financial resources. They must include measures encompassing the homeless which will guarantee their safety and dignity, as well as safeguard structures for women who are victims of violence or who are attempting to escape from prostitution.

3. The municipal authorities guarantee the right of nomads to stay in the city under conditions which are compatible with human dignity.

Article XVII RIGHT TO HEALTH

1. The municipal authorities encourage equal access for all citizens to medical and preventive health care.

2. The municipal authorities adopt all necessary initiatives for public health with particular reference to preventive and active intervention measures where required.

3. The signatory cities, through their actions in the spheres of economy, culture and social town planning, contribute in a general way to the promotion of health for all their inhabitants, with their active participation.

Article XVIII RIGHT TO THE ENVIRONMENT

1. The citizens have a right to a healthy environment which seeks a sustainable balance between industrial development and the environment.

2. To this end the municipal authorities take precautionary measures by creating policies of pollution prevention (including that of noise pollution). They promote energy saving, recycling or re-usage and guarantee refuse disposal. They extend and protect the green zones of the cities.

3. The municipal authorities put into practice all the actions necessary for citizens to appreciate and care for the countryside surrounding their city. At the same time they enable the citizens to be consulted over any changes affecting this landscape.

4. The municipal authorities develop specific teaching strategies for presenting the theme of environmental protection, particularly aimed at children.

Article XIX RIGHT TO HARMONIOUS CITY DEVELOPMENT

1. The citizens have a right to an ordered town planning development which guarantees a harmonious relationship between residential areas, public services and amenities, and green areas.

2. The municipal authorities, with citizen participation, deliver a system of town planning and administration which sustains a balance between urban development and the environment.

3. In this context they pledge to respect the natural, historic, architectural, cultural and artistic heritage of the cities by actively seeking the restoration and reuse of existing buildings.

Article XX RIGHT TO MOVEMENT AND TRANQUILLITY IN THE CITY

1. The local authorities recognise the right of the citizens to have a transport system in keeping with the desired tranquillity of the city. To this end they develop a public transport system accessible to all and incorporating a system of city and inter city links. They manage motor traffic and see to it that it runs smoothly and in harmony with the environment.

2. The municipalities rigorously control the emission of all types of noise and vibrations. They define those permanent pedestrian areas and those restricted to certain times of the day and encourage the use of environmentally friendly vehicles.

3. The signatory cities undertake to set aside resources to help fulfil these rights, calling upon where appropriate, financial co-operation between local authorities, private business and society in general.

Article XXI RIGHT TO LEISURE

1. The cities recognise the right of citizens to leisure time.

2. The local authorities guarantee quality leisure spaces for all children without discrimination.

3. The municipal authorities facilitate participation in sports activities, and provide accessible facilities for all.

4. The municipal authorities encourage sustainable tourism and oversee the balance between city tourism on the one hand and the social and ecological wellbeing of the citizens on the other.

Article XXII CONSUMERS' RIGHTS

Within the limits of their authority, the cities uphold consumers' rights. To this end, and with reference to foodstuffs, they guarantee the supervision of weights and measures, the quality and composition of products and the accuracy of information with regard to sell-by dates.

PART IV RIGHTS RELATIVE TO DEMOCRATIC LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

Article XXIII EFFICIENCY OF PUBLIC SERVICES

1. The local authorities ensure the efficiency of public services, and that these fit the requirements of users. Every measure will be taken to avoid any form of discrimination or abuse.

2. The municipal authorities will have at their disposal various means of evaluating their activities and will take on board the results of this evaluation.

Article XXIV PRINCIPLE OF OPENNESS

1. The signatory cities guarantee the openness of the administrative process. Citizens must be informed of their political and administrative rights and obligations through regular and comprehensible publication of the municipal regulations.

2. The citizens have a right to a copy of those files which refer to them, except in cases where there are restrictions in the public interest or where the privacy of a third party may be compromised.

3. The obligation of clarity, publicity, impartiality and non-discrimination in the action of the municipal powers is applied to: − The conclusion of municipal contracts, in particular with reference to proper management of municipal spending; − The selection of officials and other municipal personnel, by merit and suitability.

4. The municipal authorities guarantee openness and rigorous control of the use of public funds.

PART V MECHANISMS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE CITY

Article XXV LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

1. The signatory cities develop policies designed to improve citizens' access to law and justice.

2. The signatory cities encourage the extra-judicial resolution of civil, criminal, administrative and labour disputes, through the establishing of public mechanisms of reconciliation, settlement, mediation and arbitration.

3. Where necessary, a municipal arbitration body will be set up, either elected by the public or established by the municipal authorities. It would include independent magistrates, i.e. people of good repute, and has the power to settle conflicts between citizens and local government, in a fair manner.

Article XXVI POLICE IN THE CITY

The signatory cities encourage the development of a highly qualified community police division, responsible for local security and fostering a sense of community. These police officers take preventive measures against crime and can be seen as an educational force in the raising of civic awareness.

Article XXVII PREVENTIVE MEASURES

1. The signatory cities put in place preventive measures such as

− social or local neighbourhood mediators, particularly in areas with high social tension; − the municipal Ombudsman or "People's Advocate", as an independent and impartial institution.

2. To realize the citizens' rights laid out in this Charter, each of the signatory cities establishes a steering committee made up of citizens and entrusted with evaluating the implementation of the Charter.

Article XXVIII TAXATION AND BUDGETARY MECHANISMS

1. The signatory cities undertake to set up their budgets in such a way that they will enable the rights set out in this Charter to be implemented. For this purpose they may establish a system of "citizens' participation" in the budget. The citizens in various city districts or their associations can voice their opinions over which measures they consider necessary to help realize these rights.

2. The signatory cities, in awareness of the equality of all citizens with regard to public levies, undertake to permit no social, fiscal or ecological irregularities within their area of competence, or, if they exist, to make sure that these irregularities are abolished.

FINAL PROVISIONS LEGAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CHARTER AND MECHANISMS FOR ITS APPLICATION

1. When this Charter is passed, it will remain open for the individual signature of all those cities which want to endorse its aims.

2. The signatory cities will incorporate into their local ordinances the principles, regulations and guarantee mechanisms laid down in this Charter and refer to them expressly in justification of their official activities.

3. The signatory cities recognize the irrefutable legality of the rights stated in the Charter and undertake to reject and terminate all legal transactions, particularly municipal contracts, the consequences of which would militate against the implementation of those rights. They resolve to act in such a way that all other legal entities will also recognize the legal significance of these rights.

4. The signatory cities undertake to set up a commission which every two years is called upon to evaluate the implementation of the rights laid down in this Charter and publish their findings.

5. The network of European Conference Cities for Human Rights, established by the signatory cities, will decide on an appropriate follow-up mechanism to monitor regularly that the Charter is being properly implemented by those signatory cities.

ADDITIONAL PROVISIONS

FIRST The signatory cities undertake to act so that the national legislation of their states allows participation in municipal elections of the resident non-national population, as set out in Article VIII.2 of the present Charter.

SECOND To allow jurisdictional control of the rights contained in this Charter, the signatory cities undertake to request that their states and the European Union complete the constitutional declarations of Human Rights or the European Convention of Human Rights.

THIRD Each of the signatory cities will draw up and put into motion their Agenda 21 Programme, in application of the agreements adopted in the UN Conference on the Environment and Development, held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992.

FOURTH In the case of armed conflict, the signatory cities will ensure the preservation of the city's autonomous government and maintain the rights laid out in the Charter

FIFTH The document agreed on by representatives of the cities, is subject to ratification by the Municipal Council which may introduce reservations into the text as deemed appropriate in view of national legislation.

Approved in St Denis on the 18th May 2000

Appendix A.3 World Charter For The Right To The City

WORLD CHARTER FOR THE RIGHT TO THE CITY

Social Forum of the Americas – Quito – July 2004

World Urban Forum – Barcelona – October 2004

World Social Forum – Porto Alegre – January 2005

Revision in preparation for Barcelona – September 2005

PREAMBLE

The new millennium dawned with half of the world's population living in cities, and experts forecast that by 2050 the world's urbanization rate will reach 65%. Cities are potentially territories with vast economic, environmental, political and cultural wealth and diversity. The urban way of life influences the way in which we link with our fellow human beings and with the territory.

However, contrary to these potentials, the development models implemented in the majority of impoverished countries are characterized by the tendency to concentrate income and power, generating poverty and exclusion, contributing to environmental degradation, and accelerating migration and urbanization processes, social and spatial segregation, and privatization of common goods and public spaces. These processes favor proliferation of vast urban areas marked by poverty, precarious conditions, and vulnerability to natural disasters.

Today's cities are far from offering equitable conditions and opportunities to their inhabitants. The majority of the urban population is deprived or limited – in virtue of their economic, social, cultural, ethnic, gender or age characteristics – in the satisfaction of their most elemental needs and rights. Public policies that contribute to this by ignoring the contributions of the popular inhabiting processes to the construction of the city and citizenship, are only detrimental to urban life. The grave consequences of this situation include massive evictions, segregation, and resulting deterioration of social coexistence.

This context favors the emergence of urban struggles that remain fragmented and incapable of producing transcendental changes in the current development model, despite their social and political importance.

In the face of this reality, and the need to counter its trends, urban organizations and movements linking together since the First World Social Forum (2001) have discussed

and assumed the challenge to build a sustainable model of society and urban life, based on the principles of solidarity, freedom, equity, dignity, and social justice, and founded in respect for different urban cultures and balance between the urban and the rural. Since then, an integrated group of popular movements, nongovernmental organizations, professional associations, forums, and national and international civil society networks, committed to the social struggles for just, democratic, humane and sustainable cities, has worked to build a World Charter for the Right to the City. The Charter aims to gather the commitments and measures that must be assumed by civil society, local and national governments, members of parliament, and international organizations, so that all people may live with dignity in our cities.

The Right to the City broadens the traditional focus on improvement of peoples' quality of life based on housing and the neighborhood, to encompass quality of life at the scale of the city and its rural surroundings, as a mechanism of protection of the population that lives in cities or regions with rapid urbanization processes. This implies initiating a new way of promotion, respect, defense and fulfillment of the civil, political, economic, social, cultural and environmental rights guaranteed in regional and international human rights instruments.

In the city and its rural surroundings, the correlation between these rights and their necessary counterpart of duties can be demanded in accordance with the different responsibilities and socio-economic conditions of its inhabitants, as a form of promotion of: just distribution of the benefits and responsibilities resulting from the urbanization process; fulfillment of the social functions of the city and of property; distribution of urban income; and democratization of access to land and public services for all citizens, especially those with less economic resources and in situations of vulnerability.

For its origin and social meaning, the World Charter for the Right to the City is, above all, an instrument oriented to strengthen urban processes, vindications, and struggles. We call on the Charter to be constituted as a platform capable of linking the efforts of all those actors – public, social and private – interested in allocating full validity and effectiveness to this new human right through its promotion, legal recognition, implementation, regulation, and placement in practice.

Part I – General Provisions

ARTICLE I. THE RIGHT TO THE CITY

1. All persons have the Right to the City free of discrimination based on gender, age, health status, income, nationality, ethnicity, migratory condition, or political, religious or sexual orientation, and to preserve cultural memory and identity in conformity with the principles and norms established in this Charter. 2. The Right to the City is defined as the equitable usufruct of cities within the principles of sustainability, democracy, equity, and social justice. It is the collective right of the inhabitants of cities, in particular of the vulnerable and marginalized groups, that confers upon them legitimacy of action and organization, based on their uses and customs, with the objective to achieve full exercise of the right to free self-determination and an adequate standard of living. The Right to the City is interdependent of all internationally recognized and integrally conceived human rights, and therefore includes all the civil, political, economic, social, cultural and environmental rights which are already regulated in the international human rights treaties. This assumes the inclusion of the rights to work in equitable and satisfactory conditions; to establish and affiliate with unions; to social security, public health, clean drinking water, energy, public transportation, and other social services; to food, clothing, and adequate shelter; to quality public education and to culture; to information, political participation, peaceful coexistence, and access to justice; and the right to organize, gather, and manifest one's opinion. It also includes respect for minorities; ethnic, racial, sexual and cultural plurality; and respect for migrants. Urban territories and their rural surroundings are also spaces and locations of the exercise and fulfillment of collective rights as a way of assuring equitable, universal, just, democratic, and sustainable distribution and enjoyment of the resources, wealth, services, goods, and opportunities that cities offer. The Right to the City therefore also includes the right to development, to a healthy environment, to the enjoyment and preservation of natural resources, to participation in urban planning and management, and to historical and cultural heritage.

3. The city is a culturally rich and diversified collective space that pertains to all of its inhabitants. 4. For the effects of this Charter, the meaning of the concept of city is two-fold. For its physical character, the city is every metropolis, village, or town that is institutionally organized as local governmental unit with municipal or metropolitan character. It includes the urban space as well as the rural or semi-rural surroundings that form part of its territory. As public space, the city is the whole of institutions and

actors who intervene in its management, such as governmental authorities, legislative and judicial bodies, institutionalized social participation entities, social movements and organizations, and the community in general. 5. For the effects of this Charter, all the persons who inhabit a city, whether permanently or transitionally, are considered its citizens. 6. Cities, in co-responsibility with national authorities, should adopt all necessary measures – to the maximum allowed by the resources available to them – to progressively achieve, by all appropriate means and with the adoption of legislative and regulatory measures, the full realization of economic, social, cultural, and environmental rights. Furthermore, cities in accordance with their legal framework and the international treaties, should dictate legislative or other appropriate provisions so they fully reflect the civil and political rights gathered in this Charter.

ARTICLE II. PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIC FOUNDATIONS OF THE RIGHT TO THE CITY

1. FULL EXERCISE OF CITIZENSHIP AND DEMOCRATIC MANAGMENT OF THE CITY: 1.1. Cities should constitute an environment of full realization of all human rights and fundamental liberties, assuring the dignity and collective well-being of all persons, in conditions of equality, equity, and justice. All persons have the right to find in the city the necessary conditions for their political, economic, cultural, social, and ecological realization, assuming the duty of solidarity. 1.2. All persons have the right to participate through direct and representative forms in the elaboration, definition, implementation, and fiscal distribution and management of public policies and municipal budgets, in order to strengthen the transparency, effectiveness, and autonomy of local public administrations and of popular organizations.

2. SOCIAL FUNCTION OF THE CITY AND OF URBAN PROPERTY: 2.1. As its primary purpose, the city should exercise a social function, guaranteeing for all its inhabitants full usufruct of the resources offered by the city. In other words, the city must assume the realization of projects and investments to the benefit of the urban community as a whole, within criteria of distributive equity, economic complementarity, respect for culture, and ecological sustainability, to guarantee the well-being of all its inhabitants, in harmony with nature, for the present and for future generations. 2.2. The public and private spaces and goods of the city and its citizens should be used prioritizing social, cultural, and environmental interests. All the citizens have the right to participate in the ownership of the urban territory within democratic

parameters, with social justice and within sustainable environmental conditions. The formulation and implementation of public policies should promote socially just and environmentally balanced uses of urban space and soil, in conditions of security and gender equity.

2.3 Cities should promulgate adequate legislation and establish mechanisms and sanctions designed to guarantee full advantage of urban soil and public and private properties which are deserted, unused, underused, or unoccupied, for fulfillment of the social function of property. 2.4 In the formulation and implementation of urban policies, the collective social and cultural interest should prevail above individual property rights and speculative interests. 2.5. Cities should inhibit real estate speculation through adoption of urban norms for just distribution of the burdens and benefits generated by the urbanization process, and the adaptation of economic, tributary, financial, and public expenditure policy instruments to the objectives of equitable and sustainable urban development. The extraordinary income (appreciation) generated by public investment – currently captured by real estate and private sector businesses – should be redirected in favor of social programs that guarantee the right to housing and a dignified life for the sectors living in precarious conditions and risk situations.

3. EQUALITY, NO-DISCRIMINATION: 3.1 The rights enounced in this Charter should be guaranteed for all the persons who inhabit cities, either permanently or temporarily, with no discrimination of any kind. 3.2 Cities should assume commitments acquired in regard to implementation of public policies that guarantee equal opportunities for women in cities, expressed in the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and in the Environment (Rio de Janeiro 1992), Women's (Beijing 1995), and Habitat II (Istanbul 1996) Conferences, among others. The necessary resources should be allocated from governmental budgets to assure the effectiveness of said policies, and the necessary mechanisms and quantitative and qualitative indicators should be established to monitor their fulfillment over time.

4. SPECIAL PROTECTION OF GROUPS AND PERSONS IN VULNERABLE SITUATIONS 4.1 Groups and persons in vulnerable situations have the right to special measures for protection and integration, resource distribution, access to essential services, and protection from discrimination. For the effects of this Charter,

the following groups are considered vulnerable: persons or groups living in poverty or situations of environmental risk (threatened by natural disasters), victims of violence, persons with disabilities, forced migrants (displaced), refugees, and all groups living in disadvantaged situations with respect to the rest of the inhabitants, in accordance with each city's reality. In turn, priority attention should be addressed within these groups to the elderly, women (in particular female household heads), and children. 4.2 Cities, through affirmative action policies in favor of the vulnerable groups, should suppress the political, economic, social, and cultural obstacles that limit the freedom, equity, and equality of citizens and impede the full development of the person and his or her effective political, economic, social, and cultural participation in the city.

5. **SOCIAL COMMITMENT OF THE PRIVATE SECTOR**: Cities should promote the participation of private sector agents in social programs and economic endeavors with the purpose to develop solidarity and full equality among inhabitants, in accordance with the guiding principles established in this Charter.

6. **PROMOTION OF THE SOLIDARY ECONOMY AND PROGRESSIVE TAXATION POLICIES**: Cities should promote and value the political and economic conditions necessary to guarantee social-solidarity economic programs and progressive taxation systems that assure just distribution of the resources and funds necessary for implementation of social policies.

Part II. Rights relative to the Exercise of Citizenship and to Participation in the Planning, Production and Management of the City

ARTICLE III. PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF THE CITY 1. Cities should open institutionalized forms and spaces for broad, direct, equitable and democratic participation by male and female citizens in the processes of planning, elaboration, approval, management and evaluation of public policies and budgets. Guarantees should be in place for the operation of collegiate bodies, audiences, conferences, and public consultations and debates, and to allow and recognize popular initiative processes in legislative proposals and urban development planning. 2. In conformance with the fundamental principles of their legal organization, cities should formulate and apply coordinated and effective policies against corruption; in promotion of the participation of society; and that reflect the principles of the force of law, dutiful management of public affairs and goods, integrity, transparency, and accountability. 3. To safeguard the principle of transparency, cities should organize

their administrative structures in a way that guarantees the effective responsibility of their functionaries vis-à-vis their citizens, as well as the responsibility of the municipal administration in its relations with other levels of government and regional and international human rights bodies and entities.

ARTICLE IV. SOCIAL PRODUCTION OF HABITAT Cities should establish institutional mechanisms and develop the necessary legal, financial, administrative, programmatic, fiscal, technological, and training instruments to support the diverse modalities of social production of habitat and housing, with special emphasis on self-managed processes, whether they be individual, family, or organized collective efforts.

ARTICLE V. EQUITABLE AND SUSTAINABLE URBAN DEVELOPMENT 1. Cities should develop urban-environmental planning, regulation, and management that guarantees equilibrium between urban development and protection of natural, historic, architectural, cultural and artistic heritage; that impedes segregation and territorial exclusion; that prioritizes social production of habitat, and that guarantees the social function of the city and property. For that purpose, cities should adopt measures that foster an integrated and equitable city. 2.City planning and the sectoral programs and projects should integrate the theme of urban security as an attribute of the public space.

ARTICLE VI. RIGHT TO PUBLIC INFORMATION 1.All persons have the right to solicit and receive complete, reliable, adequate and timely information in relation to the administrative and financial activity of any entity pertaining to city administration, the legislative and judicial branches, and the businesses and private or mixed societies that deliver public services. 2.The respective governmental or private sector functionaries should produce the information required of their area of competence within a minimum time period if they do not have the information at the moment of the request. The only limit on access to public information is respect for the right of individuals to privacy. 3.Cities should guarantee mechanisms so that all persons have access to effective and transparent public information. For that purpose, actions should be developed to promote access for all population sectors to the new information technologies, their use, and their periodic up-dating. 3. All persons or organized groups, and especially those who self-produce their housing and other habitat components, have the right to obtain information on the availability and location of adequate land, housing programs developed in the city, and support instruments available.

ARTICLE VII. FREEDOM AND INTEGRITY All persons have the right to freedom and integrity, both physical and spiritual. Cities should commit to establish protection guarantees that assure that these rights are not violated by individuals or institutions of any nature.

ARTICLE VIII. POLITICAL PARTICIPATION 1. All citizens have the right to participate in local political life through the free and democratic election of their local representatives, as well as in all the decisions that affect local policies of urban planning, production, renovation, improvement, and management. 2. Cities should guarantee the right to free and democratic election of local representatives, the realization of plebiscites and popular legislative initiatives, and equitable access to public debates and audiences on issues relevant to the city. 3. Cities should implement affirmative action policies for the representation and political participation of women and minorities in all local elective posts and positions responsible for the city's public policy, budget, and program definition.

ARTICLE IX. RIGHT TO ASSOCIATE, GATHER, MANIFEST, AND TO DEMOCRATIC USE OF URBAN PUBLIC SPACE All persons have the right to associate, meet, and manifest themselves. Cities should provide and guarantee public spaces for this effect.

ARTICLE X. RIGHT TO JUSTICE 1.Cities should adopt measures designed to improve the access of all persons to the law and to justice. 2.Cities should foment the resolution of civil, penal, administrative, and labor conflicts through implementation of public mechanisms of conciliation, transaction, mediation, and arbitration.

3.Cities should guarantee access to justice services, establishing special policies in favor of the vulnerable population groups, and strengthening free public defense systems.

ARTICLE XI. RIGHT TO PUBLIC SECURITY AND PEACEFUL, SOLIDARY AND MULTICULTURAL COEXISTENCE 1.Cities should create conditions for public security, peaceful coexistence, collective development, and the exercise of solidarity. For that they should guarantee the full usufruct of the city, respecting diversity and preserving the cultural memory and identity of all citizens free of discrimination of any kind. 2.The primary missions of the security forces include respect for and protection of the rights of citizens. Cities should guarantee that the

security forces under their jurisdiction apply the use of force strictly within the previsions of the law and with democratic control. 3.Cities should guarantee the participation of all their citizens in the control and evaluation of the security forces.

Part III. Rights to Economic, Social, Cultural, and Environmental Development of the City

ARTICLE XII. RIGHT TO WATER AND TO ACCESS AND SUPPLY OF DOMESTIC AND URBAN PUBLIC SERVICES

1.Cities should guarantee for all their citizens permanent access to public services of potable water, sanitation, waste removal, energy and telecommunications services, and facilities for health care, education, basic-goods supply, and recreation, in co-responsibility with other public or private bodies, in accordance with the legal framework established in international rights and by each country. 2. In regard to public services, cities should guarantee accessible social fees and adequate service for all persons including vulnerable persons or groups and the unemployed – even in the case of privatization of public services predating adoption of this Charter. 3. Cities should commit to guarantee that public services depend on the administrative level closest to the population, with citizen participation in their management and fiscal oversight. These services should remain under a legal regimen as public goods, impeding their privatization. 4. Cities should establish systems of social control over the quality of the services provided by public or private entities, in particular relative to quality control, cost determination, and attention to the public.

ARTICLE XIII. RIGHT TO PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION AND URBAN MOBILITY

1. Cities should guarantee for all persons the right to mobility and circulation in the city, in accordance with an urban and interurban circulation plan and through an accessible public transportation system, provided at a reasonable cost and adequate for different environmental and social needs (gender, age, capacity, etc.). 2. Cities should stimulate use of non-polluting vehicles and establish areas reserved for foot traffic, permanently or during certain times of the day.

3. Cities should promote removal of architectural barriers, installation of the necessary facilities in the mobility and circulation system, and adaptation of all public or public-

use buildings and work and leisure facilities to guarantee access for persons with disabilities.

ARTICLE XIV. RIGHT TO HOUSING 1.Cities, within the framework of the respective competences, should adopt measures to guarantee for all citizens that housing expenses be accessible in accordance with incomes, that it fulfill adequate living conditions, that it be adequately located, and that it adapt to the cultural and ethnic characteristics of those who inhabit it. 2. Cities should facilitate adequate housing supply and urban facilities for all citizens and establish subsidy and finance programs for land and housing acquisition, tenure regularization, and improvement of precarious neighborhoods and informal settlements. 3. Cities should guarantee priority for vulnerable groups in housing laws, policies, and programs, and assure finance and services specifically designated for children and the elderly. 4. Cities should include women in the possession and ownership documents issued and registered, regardless of their civil status, in all public policies developed related to land and housing distribution and titles. 5. Cities should promote the installation of shelters and social rental housing for female victims of domestic violence. 6. All homeless citizens, individually, as couples, or as family groups, have the right to demand of the authorities effective implementation of their right to adequate housing in a progressive manner and through application of all available resources. Shelters and bed-and-breakfast facilities may be adopted as provisional emergency measures, without obviating the obligation to provide definitive housing solutions. 7. All persons have the right to security of housing tenure through legal instruments that guarantee it, and the right to protection from eviction, expropriation, or forced or arbitrary displacement. Cities should protect tenants from profiteering and from arbitrary evictions, regulating housing rents in accordance with General Comment Nº 7 of the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. 8. Cities should recognize as direct interlocutors the social organizations and movements that defend and work to fulfill the rights linked to the right to housing contained in this Charter. Very special attention, promotion and support should be directed to organizations of vulnerable and excluded persons, guaranteeing in all cases preservation of their autonomy. 9. This article is applicable to all persons, including families, groups, untitled occupants, the homeless, and those persons or groups whose housing circumstances vary, including in particular nomads, travelers, and romanies.

ARTICLE XV. RIGHT TO WORK 1.Cities, in co-responsibility with national authorities, should contribute, to the degree of their possibilities, to the achievement of full employment in the city. Cities should also promote continued education and retraining for workers, employed or unemployed, through permanent formation programs. 2.Cities should promote the creation of conditions to prevent child labor so that boys and girls may enjoy their childhoods and acquire an education.

3.Cities, in collaboration with other public administrations and the private sector, should develop mechanisms to guarantee equality for all persons in labor matters, impeding any discrimination. 4.Cities should promote women's equal access to employment through the creation of day care centers and other measures, and of disabled persons through implementation of appropriate facilities. To improve work conditions, cities should establish programs to improve the urban housing used by female household heads and vulnerable groups as work spaces. 5.Cities should promote progressive integration of the informal commerce carried out by low-income and unemployed persons, avoiding their elimination and repression toward informal merchants. Spaces adapted for informal commerce should be provided and adequate policies should be developed for their incorporation within the urban economy.

ARTICLE XVI. RIGHT TO A HEALTHY AND SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENT 1.Cities should adopt prevention measures against pollution, unordered occupation of the territory, and occupation of environmental protection areas, as well as measures in favor of energy conservation, waste management and reuse, recycling, recovery of slopes, and expansion and protection of green areas. 2.Cities should respect natural, historic, architectural, cultural, and artistic heritage, and promote the recovery and rehabilitation of degraded areas and urban facilities.

Part IV. Final Provisions

ARTICLE XVII. OBLIGATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE STATE IN THE PROMOTION, PROTECTION, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RIGHT TO THE CITY 1. The international bodies and the national, provincial, regional, metropolitan, municipal and local governments are responsible for the effective application and defense of the rights enunciated in this Charter, as well as all the civil, political, economic, social, cultural, and environmental human rights of all citizens, based on the international human rights system and the system of competences valid in the respective country. 2. The no-implementation by the

responsible governments of the rights contained in this Charter, or their application in disagreement with the guiding principles and directives or with the international and national human rights norms applicable in the country, will constitute violation of the Right to the City, which may only be rectified through implementation of the necessary measures for the reparation/reversal of the act or omission originating the violation. Said corrective measures should assure that the negative effects or damages derived from the violation be repaired/reverted in such a way as to guarantee for all citizens effective promotion, respect, protection, and fulfillment of the human rights contained in this Charter.

ARTICLE XVIII. MEASURES FOR IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING OF THE RIGHT TO THE CITY 1.Cities should adopt all the necessary regulatory measures, in an adequate and immediate manner, to assure the Right to the City for all persons, in conformance with this Charter. Cities should guarantee the participation of

citizens and civil society organizations in the regulatory review process. Cities are obligated to use up to the maximum of the resources available to them to fulfill the legal obligations established in this Charter. 2.Cities should provide training and education in human rights for all the public agents related to the implementation of the Right to the City and corresponding obligations, in particular for functionaries employed by the public bodies whose policies influence in any way the full realization of the Right to the City. 3.Cities should promote the teaching and socialization of the Right to the City in all educational centers, universities, and through the communications media. 4.Cities should establish, together with their inhabitants, evaluation and monitoring mechanisms through an effective system of right to the city indicators, with gender differentiation, to assure the Right to the City based on the principles and norms of this Charter. 5. Cities should regularly and thoroughly monitor the degree of respect upheld for the obligations and rights enunciated in this Charter.

ARTICLE XIX. VIOLATIONS OF THE RIGHT TO THE CITY 1.Violations of the Right to the City are constituted by the actions and omissions, legislative, administrative and legal measures, and social practices that result in impediment, rejection, difficulty, or impossibility in the: - implementation of the rights established in this Charter; - collective political participation of all inhabitants, including in particular women and social groups, in city management; - fulfillment of the decisions

and priorities defined in the participative processes that form part of city management; - conservation of cultural identities, forms of peaceful coexistence, social production of habitat, and the forms of manifestation and action of social and citizen groups, especially the vulnerable and disadvantaged, based on their uses and customs. 2.Actions and omissions may be incurred in the administrative field in the elaboration and execution of projects, programs and plans; in the legislative sphere through law enactment and control of public resources and governmental actions; and in the legal sphere in trials and decisions on collective conflicts and court decisions in relation to issues of urban interest.

ARTICLE XX. DEMANDABILITY OF THE RIGHT TO THE CITY All persons have the right to access to and use of effective and complete administrative and legal resources related to the rights and duties enunciated in the present Charter, including the non-enjoyment of said rights.

ARTICLE XXI. COMMITMENTS IN RELAITON TO THE CHARTER FOR THE RIGHT TO THE CITY

I - The social networks and organizations commit to: 1. Broadly disseminate this Charter and promote international articulation in favor of the Right to the City within the context of the World Social Forum, as well as in other conferences and international forums, with the

objective to contribute to advance the struggle of the social movements and nongovernmental networks in the construction of dignified life in the cities; 2. Build platforms with which to demand the Right to the City, and document and disseminate national and local experiences that contribute to the construction of this right; 3. Present this World Charter for the Right to the City to the distinct bodies and agencies of the United Nations System and regional bodies to initiate a process whose objective is the recognition of the Right to the City as a human right.

II - The national and local governments commit to: 1. Elaborate and promote institutional frameworks that consecrate the Right to the City, and urgently formulate plans of action for a model of sustainable development applied to cities, in accordance with the principles enunciated in this Charter; 2. Build partnership platforms, with broad civil society participation, to promote sustainable development in cities; 3. Promote the ratification and application of the human rights treaties and other

international and regional instruments that contribute to the construction of the Right to the City.

III- The members of Parliament commit to: 1. Promote citizen consultations and undertake lobby activities with the objective to enrich the contents of the Right to the City and advance their recognition and adoption by the international and regional human rights bodies and by the national and local governments. 2. Elaborate and enact laws that recognize and consecrate the human Right to the City, in accordance with the contents enunciated in this Charter and with the international human rights instruments. 3. Appropriately adapt the national and local legal frameworks to incorporate the international obligations assumed by the States in human rights matters, with special attention to those contained in this Charter.

IV- The international bodies commit to: 1. Undertake all possible efforts to sensitize, stimulate, and support governments in the promotion of campaigns, seminars and conferences, and to facilitate appropriate technical publications that support governmental adherence to the commitments contained in this Charter; 2. Monitor and promote the application of the human rights treaties and other international and regional instruments that contribute to the construction of the Right to the City; 3. Open spaces of participation in the consultative and decision-making bodies of the United Nations system that facilitate discussion of this initiative.

All persons, civil society organizations, local governments, members of parliament, and international organizations are invited to actively participate at the local, national, regional and global levels in the process of integration, adoption, dissemination and implementation of the World Charter for the Right to the City as one of the paradigms for a better world in this millennium.

Appendix B.1 Survey questions

İZMİR-EGE MAHALLESİ KENTSEL DÖNÜŞÜM İLE İLGİLİ ANKET FORMU

İyi Günler,

Bu anket İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi bünyesinde yürütülen yüksek lisans tezinin bir çalışmasıdır. Anketin amacı Roman vatandaşlarınmızın kentsel dönüşüm projeleri sırasında karşılaştığı sorunları ve projeye katılım durumlarını belirlemeye yöneliktir. Sorulara cevap vererek çalışmamıza katkıda bulunduğunuz için teşekkür ederiz.

Tarih:...../......./201..

1.Cinsiyet: Erkek ☐   Kadın ☐

2.Yaşınız: 18-24 ☐   25-34 ☐   35-44 ☐   45-54 ☐   55 ve üzeri ☐

3.Öğrenim Durumunuz:

Okur-yazar değil	Okur yazar ama mezun değil	İlkokul	Ortaokul
Lise ve dengi	Ön lisans	Lisans	Lisansüstü

4.Mesleginiz:

5. Ege Mahallesine yapılacak olan kentsel dönüşüm ile ilgili bilginiz var mı?

Evet ☐   Kısmen ☐   Hayır ☐

6.Kentsel dönüşüm projesi hakkında bilgilendirildiniz mi?

Evet ☐   Kısmen ☐   Hayır ☐

7. Kentsel dönüşüm projesi hakkında kendiniz bilgi almaya çalıştınız mı?

Evet ☐   Kısmen ☐   Hayır ☐

Evet ise ne yaptınız?..

8.Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm toplantılarına katıldınız mı?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Hayır ☐

9. Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesi için önerileriniz alındı mı?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Hayır ☐

10. Görüş bildirdiyseniz, Görüşünüz neydi, Dikkate alındı mı?

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11. Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm çalışmalarını olumlu buluyor musunuz?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Hayır ☐

12. Genel Olarak Kentsel dönüşüm projelerini olumlu buluyor musunuz?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Hayır ☐

13. Belediyenin halkı projeye dahil etme girişimlerininden memnun musunuz?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Hayır ☐

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....

14.Bunun proje tasarımı konusunda etkili olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

Evet ☐ Kısmen ☐ Evet ☐

15.Sizin için mahallemde;

Keşke Olsa:	İyi ki var:	Keşke olmasa:

16.Ege Mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesi hakkındaki beklentileriniz nelerdir? Hangi şartlar altında projeyi kabul edersiniz?

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....

....

17.Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesinden sonra burada kalmayı düşünür müsünüz?

Evet ☐   Hayır ☐   Diğer ☐

Appendix B.2 Interview's questions

1. Ege Mahallesinde oturma sebebiniz nedir?
2. Mahalle kültürünü açıklayabilir misiniz?
3. Düğün, nişan, cenaze gibi etkinlikler nasıl gerçekleşiyor?
4. Mahallede olduğunuz zamanlar vaktinizi nasıl geçiriyorsunuz?
5. Eğitim seviyesinin düşük olmasının sebebi nedir?
6. Mahallede rahatsızlık duyduğunuz sorun nedir?
7. Ege Mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesi hakkında bilginiz var mı?
8. Ege mahallesi kentsel dönüşüm projesi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
9. Proje ile ilgili bilgilendirme toplantıları nasıl yapıldı?
10. Kendi fikirlerinizi ve sorunlarınızı toplantılarda dile getirebildiniz mi?
11. Sizce toplantıların verimli olmamasının sebebi neydi?

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name Surname:	**Mehmet Melih CİN**
Place and Date of Birth:	**Izmir, 02.08.1990**
Address:	**İzmir Katip Çelebi University, Engineering and Architecture Faculty**
E-Mail:	**mehmetmelihcin@gmail.com**
B.Sc.:	**Architecture, Izmir University of Economics**

Professional Experience:

Company/Institution	Duty	Year
Izmir Katip Celebi University	Research Assistant	2014-
Parsel Construction	Architect	2013-2014

List of Publications:

<u>**Publications**</u>

Cin, M. M. and Eğercioğlu, Y. (2016). Critical Analysis of Urban Regeneration Projects in Turkey: Displacement of Romani Settlement Case. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Volume 216, 269-278. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.12.037.

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