HOUSING ALONG THE WESTERN DEVELOPMENT CORRIDOR IN ANKARA: CASE STUDIES IN ETIMESGUT & SINCAN

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

DERYA DOĞAN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE FOR THE DEGREE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF URBAN POLICY PLANNING
AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

SEPTEMBER 2008

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ABSTRACT

HOUSING ALONG THE WESTERN DEVELOPMENT CORRIDOR IN ANKARA: CASE STUDIES IN ETİMESGUT & SINCAN

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Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Ali Türel
September 2008, 258 Pages

Urbanisation and suburban housing development are the foci subjects of this thesis. The process of urbanisation may differ from one country to another in terms of socio-economic and political structures, environmental characteristics and also local features. In this context, housing areas at the urban fringe of Ankara were found to have been developed highly compatible with urban land use theories; but different from the process experienced in developed countries.

In this thesis, a different dimension of suburbanisation has been discussed with regards to middle and lower-middle income groups' suburban movement. The reasons why lower-middle and lower income residents prefer to live at the urban fringe have been found out.

Suburban developments have various opportunities for the households such as larger housing unit due to cheap and available land, better urban services, quiet

and clean environment and privacy. However, households living in urban fringe who are relatively from middle and lower-middle income are subject to high transportation cost. It is expected that they make a trade off between lower housing units and greater commuting distances and also many opportunities of living in such a suburb. With regard to these, the process of suburbanisation of middle and lower-middle income groups in Ankara within the boundaries of Sincan and Etimesgut Quarters in terms of their social characters and the features of using their urban space and house is discussed according to plan decisions, house builder and households' characteristics, urban development pattern of Turkey and Ankara and then Etimesgut and Sincan, considering the theoretical basis and historical process.

Keywords: Suburbanisation, Urban Fringe Development, Urban Development in Turkey and Ankara, Housebuilder& Household Characteristics

ÖZ

ANKARA'DA BATI GELİŞME KORİDORU BOYUNCA KONUT GELİŞİMİ: ETİMESGUT VE SİNCAN ÖRNEK ÇALIŞMALARI

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Yüksek Lisans, Kentsel Politika ve Yerel Yönetimler
Tez yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Ali Türel
Eylül 2008, 258 Sayfa

Kentleşme ve kent dışı konut gelişimi bu tezin odak konularıdır. Kentleşme, süreçleri bir ülkeden diğerine, ülkenin sosyo-ekonomik yapısı ile çevresel ve yerel özellikleri bakımından farklılık gösterebilir. Bu bağlamda, Ankara kentinin kent çeperindeki konut alanları, kentsel arazi kullanım teorilerine geniş ölçüde uyumlu, ancak gelişmiş ülkelerdeki süreçlerden daha farklı olarak gelişmiştir.

Bu tezde, banliyöleşmenin orta ve düşük-orta gelir grubunun banliyö hareketine dayanan farklı bir boyutu tartışılmaktadır. Orta ve düşük-orta gelir grubundaki insanların kent dışını tercih etme nedenleri incelenmiştir. Kentlerin uç alanlarında gelişen konut yerleşmeleri kullanıcılarına ucuz ve elde edilebilir arsa olanaklarına bağlı olarak daha büyük konutlar, nitelikli kentsel servis olanakları, sakin ve temiz bir çevre ile güvenlik gibi çeşitli olanaklar sunar. Fakat, kent dışında yaşayan ve görece orta ve düşük-orta gelir grubuna dahil olan konut kullanıcıları yüksek

ulaşım ve daha uzun banliyö mesafesine katlanmak durumundadır. Hanehalkının uzun süreli banliyö mesafesi ve ulaşım masraflarını düşük konut fiyatları ve aynı zamanda bu tür konut alanlarının sunduğu daha geniş bir konut, daha temiz ve yaşanabilir bir çevre gibi çeşitli olanaklarla telafi etmesi beklenir. Bu çerçevede, Ankara'nın Etimesgut ve Sincan ilçe sınırları içerisindeki orta ve düşük orta gelir grubunun banliyöleşme süreci, yaşayanların sosyal karakterleri, kent mekanını ve konutlarını kullanım özellikleri kuramsal çerçeveler ve tarihsel süreçler de göz önünde bulundurularak; plan kararları, konut üretici ve kullanıcılarının özellikleri, Türkiye ve Ankara'nın kentsel gelişme dokusu açılarından incelenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Banliyöleşme, Kent Çeperi Gelişimi, Türkiye ve Ankara'da Kentsel Gelişim, Konut Üreticisi ve Kullanıcısının Özellikleri

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Ali TÜREL for his guidance, stimulating suggestions and contributions throughout this study.

I am thankful to my jury members Assist. Prof. Dr. Işıl EROL, and Instructor Dr. Staff Bahar GEDİKLİ for their valuable critics and inspiring comments.

I should also thank to the Etimesgut Municipality, the Sincan Municipality for sharing their archives.

I offer to my greatest thanks to my family, Ahmet DOĞAN, Seher DOĞAN and Deniz DOĞAN for their support, understanding and encouragements at all aspects of my life. My gratitude can never be enough.

Lastly, I want to express my deepest appreciation to my fiancé, Çağlar UZUNER for his continuous support, technical assistances and criticisms at all times. I could not finish my study without all sorts of his support.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. The Subject of the Study

The subject of this study has close relationships with the terms of urbanisation and sub (urbanisation). In that sense, it will be useful starting to express the term urbanisation. The term urbanisation is used for a spatial dimension which specifies the condensation of various events and populations in a restricted area. On the other hand, urbanisation refers to the existence and diffusion of a given, cultural and conventional system in these areas. The term of suburbanisation deriving from the urbanisation refers residential differentiation in the urban space since the early periods of industrialisation. Urbanisation, suburbanisation and global economic processes are systematically connected with each other in terms of social, political, and cultural context. Among 1980s, urban areas were highly affected by global economic forces. Indeed, world economic, political, and cultural forces were the major forces in shaping cities, urbanisation patterns and the spatial formations of the built environment.

This study includes both the history of development of suburbs and gives different examples of suburbanisation from the world.

The world as a whole has experienced a transformation on the social, cultural, economic and political arena in the last decades. The impact of global restructuring on cities has varied across the world. Suburbanisation is a part of this

transformation on residential decentralisation dimension. Within metropolitan areas a social segregation has started to become into being as a result of suburban expansion which take places under the impact of forces prevailing in the world-economic, political system.

When looked at the history of suburbanisation in western countries, suburbanisation movement started in developed countries after the Industrial Revolution. In the beginning, the high-income groups could be able to settle at the outskirts of the city, in fact; it was a dream available only to the bourgeoisie, later it was affordable for the upper-middle and middle classes. After a while, middle income groups could also be able to afford to settle in those suburbs by the aid of economic and social developments and also technological improvements. The decentralisation process starting with residential areas, continued also in industry and retail. As a result suburbs have become a part of metropolitan system today with the coordination of the city centre and also other suburbs.

The analysis of (sub) urbanisation exposes the fact to view that the emergence of suburbs are highly related with the rise of industrialization that cause to increase social and spatial segregation in the city. By the rise of industrialisation in the British and American cities, the city centre used to be shaped according to the factories and the residential location of working classes near to those factories. Since this is the way it is, the high-income groups were choosing cities at the outskirts of the city for residential location. Needless to say those different urban patterns could be possible in different societies. For the British and American cities, the suburbanisation movement was eventuating like that while in France bourgeoisie choosing their location in the inner city. The emergence of suburbs and history of suburbanisation in developed countries will be analysed en detail in the third chapter.

In Turkey urbanisation movement has eventuated differently when compared to developed countries as mentioned above. In a short period, the whole transformation process as in developed countries has been experienced, the industrialization process began in the 1950s in Turkey and urban fringe was

occupied by the people who migrated from rural to urban areas as a result urban periphery was a place of those shanty towns of low income people rather than of high and middle income people as in developed countries. Among 1980s, the upper-middle and middle class residential areas have started to locate in the bigger cities of Turkey at the outskirts of cities. During the last two decades, new middle class has flourished in Turkey. In the housing system, lower or middle-lower income groups could not afford to have their own houses since Turkish housing finance could not meet the low income groups' demand for housing. As a result the low income groups of people used to try to find alternative ways to have for their own house.

(Sub) urbanisation history of Ankara denotes a close similarity with that of the whole country. In addition, Ankara has a private situation from any other big cities in Turkey which shows similarities with Turkey urbanisation history. Originally, it was planned as an indicator of a modern city after declaration as the capital of Turkish republic in 1923. Thence, Ankara case is worth to being chosen as an example of this study.

The urban pattern in Ankara has been reshaped by a process of suburbanisation in the last two decades. The earlier phase of urban sprawl in Ankara started with the unauthorized settlements of migrants from rural to the city centre. Through 1970s, by the aid of master plan the development in urban periphery started to gain a legal form by mass housing projects. In addition to the north-western axis, urban decentralisation initiated to flourish along the south-eastern axis especially by the mass housing projects undertaken by housing cooperatives. As of 1980s, the effects of globalisation have denominated itself in reshaping of the urban space of Ankara. The large scale housing areas built by big capital building firms have been articulated to the urban sphere at a great rate. The urban development has continued by being added on to the urban periphery. This formation causes to the urban expansion. After 1990s, the southern part of the city gained importance and the city has maintained its development towards the west. Therefore, many people from upper, upper-middle, middle and lower-middle income groups moved to the

new residential areas especially along the western side of the city at the urban periphery.

It is useful to emphasize that the western part of the city was preferred not only by the high or upper middle groups of people. The agglomeration on the west part of the city shows varieties in terms of income level of people. The Gölbaşı and Çayyolu are the areas that are mostly preferred by the upper and upper-middle income groups while; Etimesgut and Sincan are preferred by middle or lower-middle income groups. This study focuses on the middle and lower-middle income groups' movement to the outskirts of the city within the context of suburbanisation and analyses their social character and the features of using the urban space and also deal with specific form of this residential community along the western corridor of the city within the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities.

1.2. The Aim of the Study

In this study it is primarily aimed to discuss the process of suburbanisation of middle and lower-middle income groups in Ankara within the boundaries of Sincan and Etimesgut Municipalities in terms of their social characters and the features of using urban space. Another aim is to reveal the reasons why middle or lower-middle income groups choose to live in the outskirts of the city of Ankara.

To achieve these objectives, a two dimensional study has been carried out. At the theoretical level, the study has been developed around the spatial patterning of residential areas, particularly the emergence of suburbs, their formation in developed countries, comparison with Turkey and the suburban movement in Ankara. On the micro level of the study, a field survey has been carried out in residential areas within the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities, whish are the area of mostly preferred by middle or lower-middle income groups. The social and economical characteristics of these groups will be investigated as well as characteristics of using their housing and the urban space. Other issues

that are concerned are entertainment characteristics, residential mobility patterns, family, neighbourly relations, life-style, work patterns, transport facilities and the quality of urban living in those community.

Therefore, a set of hypotheses are put forward considering the (sub)urban housing development framework, as well as local features of Ankara and aiming to answer in relation to the aim of the thesis:

- H_o: Urban fringe developments should have better urban services and environmental facilities when compared to the centrally located neighbourhoods. [1]

- H_o: Households choosing housing at the urban fringe especially in Sincan and Etimesgut Municipalities' boundaries are expected to be from the middle and lower-middle income groups. [2]

- H_o: Households living at the urban fringe in Sincan and Etimesgut Municipal boundaries are expected to use mostly public transportation in commuting. [3]

- H_o: Households prefer outskirts developments because of accessibility advantages to work and urban services. [4]

- H_o: Households are expected aiming to reduce commuting distance when they are choosing their residences. [5]

- H_o: Households are expected to pay lower prices or rents for housing in that location. [6]

- H_o: Households who rely on public transportation are expected to make a trade off between lower housing price and rent with greater commuting time. [7]

- H_o: Households who use their own cars in their commuting are expected aiming to economise in operating (fuel) costs by choosing vehicles that are advantageous in that respect. [8]

1.3. Organization of the Study

As the subject and aim of the study has been explained in the previous part, the methodology is designed to explain the issue considering different aspects. The study has been undertaken in eight chapters. The first, second and third chapters constitute a theoretical framework and informative background for Ankara case while the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh chapters warrant an explanatory and guiding framework to the issue.

Introduction outlines the theoretical framework shortly, states the subject, contains the hypotheses that are directed to the aim of the study and denominates the methodology of the thesis in the first chapter.

The second chapter includes a theoretical basis in terms of urban economic approach. Thus, urban land rent theories are summarized in terms of demand and supply side of housing within the context of households and house builders rationalities. And lastly the other effects related to the housing pattern such as population growth, transportation facilities and income relations are included to this chapter.

In the third chapter, the origins of suburbs, theoretical and historical background of (sub) urban housing development in developed countries in terms of socio-economic- political transformations, their spatial repercussions, and technological improvements are explained. In the final part of this chapter, suburbia worldwide is investigated in this framework.

The fourth chapter comprises the urbanisation process in Turkey since the proclamation of the Republic by especially focusing on the post-1980 period and

also (sub) urban housing development in Turkey with regards to the comparison of urban fringe developments of Turkey and developed countries within the context of urban expansion, household groups, house builder types, scope of suburbanisation. In this section, the most recent composition of the housing stock in Turkey with respect to building attributes, construction and occupancy permits are evaluated according to the data of Building Census, 2000 undertaken by Turkish Statistical Institute.

In the second part of this chapter, Housing Provision in Turkey are investigated according to different types of provision which have been effective in different periods in terms of legal and illegal developments beginning with the early republican period.

Chapter five focuses primarily on urbanisation and (sub) urban housing development in Ankara. The Planning context of Ankara beginning from the Jansen Plan Period in the early republican time to The Greater Ankara Municipality Period from 1984 to the present time is discussed in the first section of this chapter. Besides, important examples of housing developments and mass housing projects are given especially in the outskirts of the city. The second section of this chapter focuses on the housing development in Ankara within the context of suburbanisation in three different periods (1923-1957, 1957-1980 and after 1980s), and the data of the Building census, 2000 are used also in that section to reveal the housing stock composition in Ankara in the last decade by making construction and occupancy permits analyses and using the building attributes. Then, a set of hypothesis stated above, related to the main theoretical framework of the study are put with regard to local features of Ankara and selected case study areas from Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities.

The chapter sixth tests the compatibility of hypothesis with the Ankara case. In that context, western part of the city is determined as the case study areas. The boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities are chosen for this case study since mostly middle or lower-middle income groups choose to live in those areas. Some descriptive statistics, such as number of building and dwelling units

according to construction and occupancy permits and also schematic maps made by using GIS techniques (Geographical Information Systems) are presented for analysing the selected case study areas before passing onto the results questionnaire survey.

In the seventh chapter, in order to complement the study and investigate the validity of the formerly put hypothesis the questionnaire survey mentioned above was carried out at randomly selected housing estates in Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities produced by different types of housing provision. The questionnaire was applied to 200 households and it was aimed to reveal social characteristics of households, their features of using urban space, their life-standards, the reasons that motivate them to move to the outskirts of the city in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan, location of their workplace, their commuting behaviours, income and education levels, transportation expenditures, the location of the cultural and entertainment facilities that they can search and the level of their residential satisfaction.

Finally, the last chapter evaluates the questionnaire and devotes the conclusion. The hypothesis stated before are tested with regard to the facts provided for the selected hosing areas by the findings as a result of the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter, the theoretical background of urban development and suburban movement will be discussed.

Housing has specific characteristics as it is a different commodity from most of any other consumer goods. It has many functions; it is a shelter, a commodity which is produced, a consumption good, an investment good to enjoy gains, a kind of security item for the old age households, an element which facilities reproduction of social the relations, a cultural artefact to shape the urban environment, a good having the role in reproduction of labour power, and a sector of the economy (Tekeli, 1991:4-8). Besides all of these, land, capital, labour and technology are the factors of housing production which guides types of provision.

In this framework, it will be useful to start with land which is the most important factor of production of housing. The Urban Economic Approach by referring to the Theories of Land Rent will be used to explain the production and use of housing explained. In the third and fourth part of this chapter, demand and supply side of housing will be focussed on considering household and house builder characteristics and finally some other variables such as income relationship, population growth and transportation, which are effective on housing, will be mentioned.

2.1. Classical Approach to Land Rent

Land has a unique characteristic; non-producibility and being fixed in supply. This unique characteristic is very important for the determination of the land-price structure. Besides, the services producing by land are accumulated in urban space and enhance the land-value. When all these services are gathered in urban land during a specific time period, then the land rent value is capitalized as land-price.

> With man-made commodities, …, price is a function of demand and supply ... But since land as a whole is a fixed supply provided by nature, the earnings of 'pure' land are determined solely by demand (Harvey, 1986).

Most of the service sector activities are located in the Central Business District (CBD). Being close to the CBD is important to enjoy benefits from these services. The location differences between city centres are determined by "distance". The accessibility to the urban centre and nearness to the CBD determines the price of urban land.

> Both land rent and land use vary across locations depending on these characteristics. Among them, the most important for location theorists is the transport-cost differential over space (Fujita, Thisse, 2002).

All those mentioned above such as accessibility to the CBD and aiming to maximize benefits have increased the demand for being close to the CBD, and location rent has increased with the price of land related to this demand. Therefore, the variation and usage of land in urban space is determined by the demand for urban land. The patterns of urban land usage are designated according to city's activity and location of these activities. Development is in the direction of using less land, which is a more expensive factor relatively structural capital, which is a less expensive factor. As a result, housing services would be relatively expensive at those locations where land price is high. As it is shown in the Figure 2.1 residential areas (III, IV) are placed on the fringe of the monocentric city. In this frame to engross the subject, it will be useful to focus on Ricardo and Von Thunen within the context of the Monocentric City Model and Static Monocentric

Urban Model of Alonso and Muth before going onto the Demand and Supply Sides of Housing.

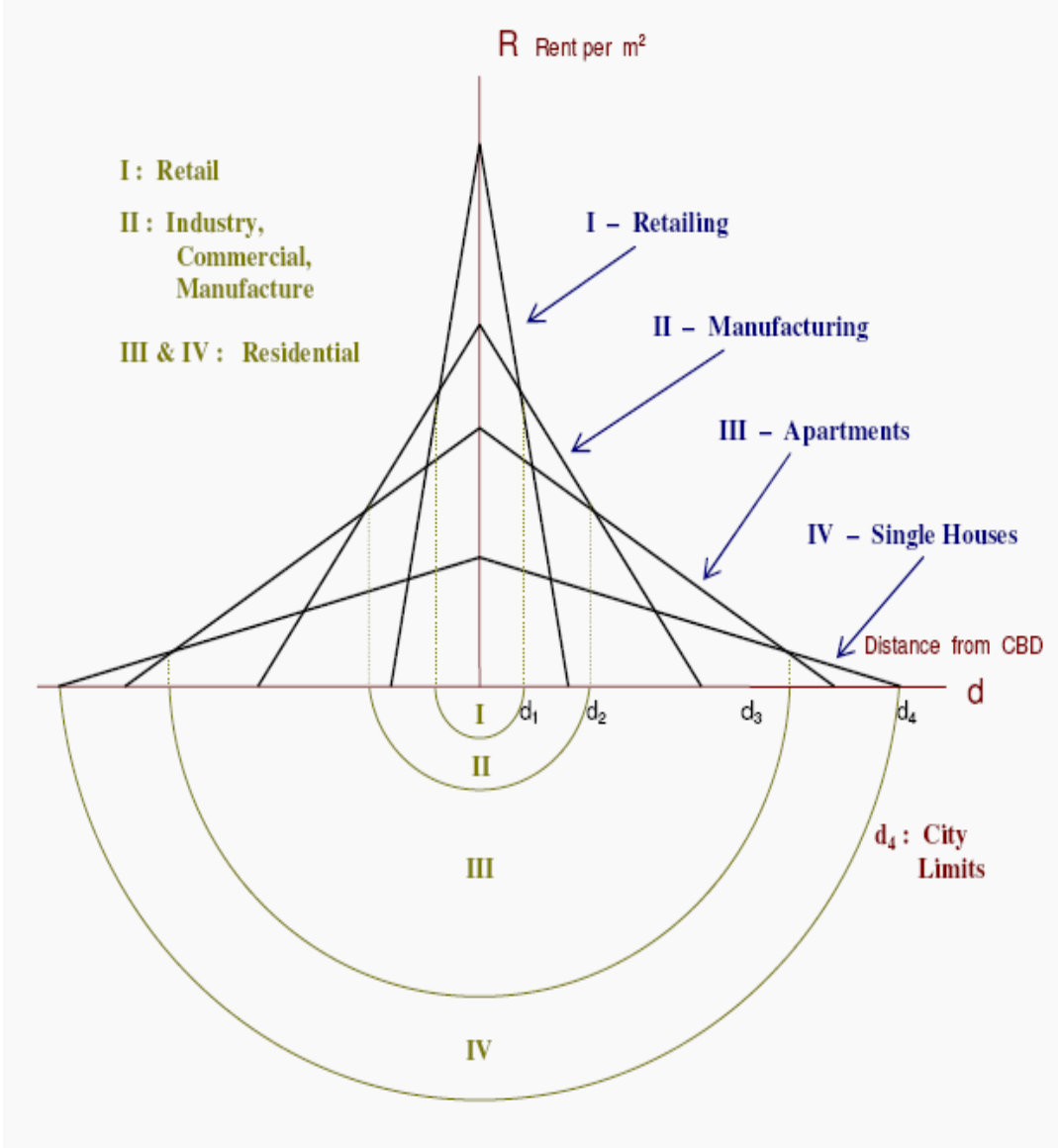

Figure 2.1: Bid-rent curves and their relation to distance also function of land-use
Source: Richardson, 1978

One of the most important theorists about land rent is Ricardo. He focuses on differentials in fertility. According to him, land rent is equal to the residual revenue after remunerating non-land factors of production. In other words, land rent is proportionate to the excess of fertility over that of the least fertile land in use (Mills, 1972).

The other Land Rent Theorist Von Thunen had brought up the *location* concept. He deemed that the lands around the city have the same fertility and with a constant unit transport cost production can be relegated straight to the city from any point. According to Von Thunen (Figure2.2), the furthest land from the city centre, land rent indicates zero, and there is a linear relation between the rent and distance (Mills, 1972).

Both Ricardo and Thunen's Models have been improved on urban land. In those models, centrally located land is more valuable than the land on the outskirts of the city, because of transport costs.

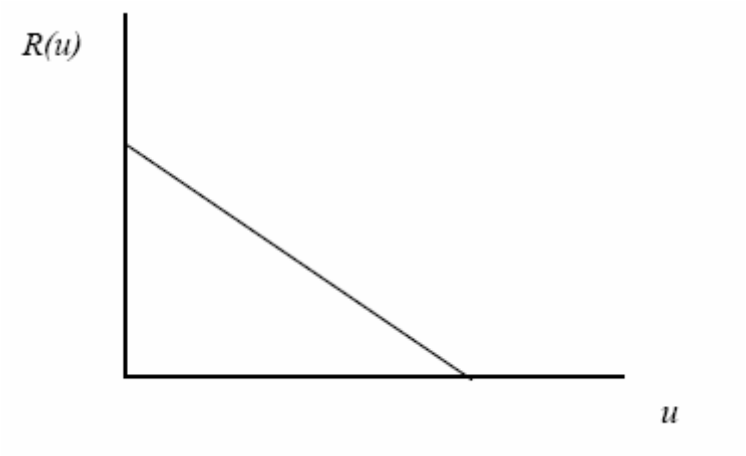

Figure 2.2: Rent and distance relation according to Thunen's model
Source: Mills, 1972

2.2. Monocentric Urban Model

Alonso assumes that all land has an equal quality and according to him, CBD[1] is the place where all employment activities occur.

The Monocentric Urban Model[2] implies decreasing urban land rents and consequently land prices with increasing distance from the CBD. Figure 2.3 shows the relation between land price and distance.

[1] CBD: Central Business District. Alonso assume the CBD as the *foci* and defines the land as "the featuresless plain" (Alonso, 1964:18)

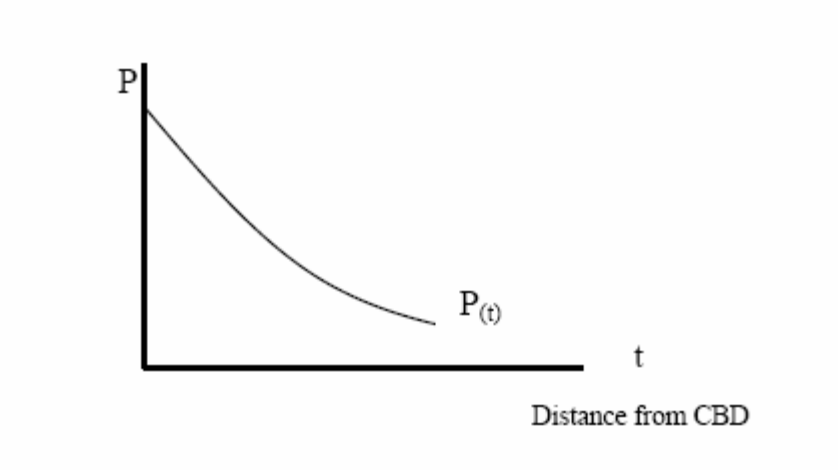

Figure 2.3: Diagrammatic structure of land prices
Source: Alonso, 1964: 20

2.3. Demand Side of Housing and Equilibrium Point of Households

Demand is the quantity of a commodity consumers are willing to purchase at a particular price. The demand for residential land derives from the demand for housing (Muth, 1975:59). The preferences and choices of households and willingness to pay for housing have important impacts on residential land use. The aim of households is to maximize their satisfaction for the consumption of housing and the other goods. In this chapter, under the demand side of housing, firstly individual equilibrium of households will be explained, secondly housing-price functions and locational equilibrium of households will be investigated, thirdly household's utility function and finally household's considerations in a residential areas will be analysed.

To begin with the searching the individual equilibrium of households according to the Alonso model, individuals are in the tendency of distributing their income among the optimum composition of land costs, commuting costs and all other expenditures. The theory of household location choice could be modelled as an overhang of consumer behaviour theory (Mills and Hamilton, 1993:107). The aim of the individual is to Access to the highest level of satisfaction on the basis of the

[2] The main assupmtions of Monocentric Urban Model are 'the perfect market condition' and 'rational deecision making'.

cost and quantity of composite good and land in addition the distance from the CBD. The equation of the formulation is as follows:

$$y = p_z z + P(t)q + k(t)$$

Where; ***y*:** income; ***p_z*:** price of composite good; ***z*:** quantity of the composite good; ***P (t)*:** price of land at distance t from the centre of the city; ***q*:** quantity of land; ***k (t)*:** commuting costs to distance t; ***t*:** distance from the centre of the city (Alonso, 1964:21).

This equation is a reflection of household equilibrium and shows the different ways of spending money by individuals.

In this equation, when the distance is constant, the preference of consumers is either quantity of land or the composite good. As it is shown in Figure 2.4, the indifference curve's shape accentuates decreasing marginal utility while the preference of consumer is at the intersection point.

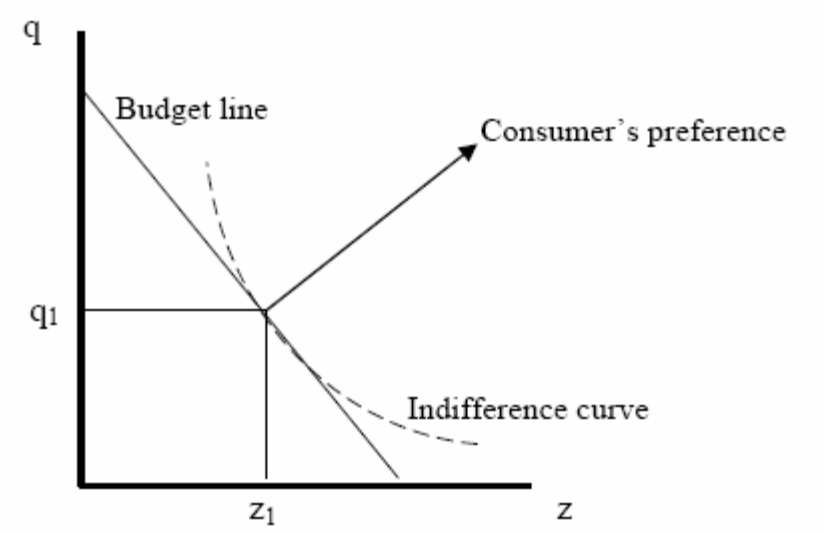

Figure 2.4: Indifference curve between *q* and *z*, when *t* is constant
Source: Alonso, 1964:22

Alonso's model also assume a residential bid price curve which denotes the diversified prices for land as regards the distance with a constant level of individual's satisfaction (Figure 2.5).

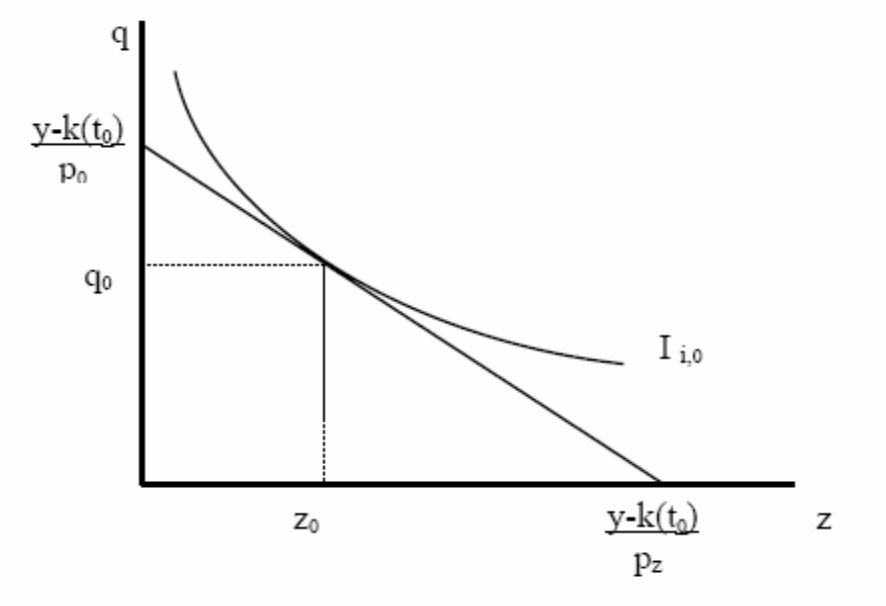

Figure 2.5: Equilibrium indifference curve between q and z, at a given t_0
Source: Alonso, 1964:60

With at a given t_0, the equation of indifference curve is as follows:

$$yi - k(t_0) = p_z z + p_0 q$$

Where; ***i*** **:** individual, y_i **:** income, p_0 **:** price of land , $k(t_0)$ **:** commuting cost, p_z: price of the composite good, t_0 **:** distance from the city centre (Alonso, 1964:60).

The point (q_0, z_0) is the maximum level of the household's satisfaction and where the locus of opportunities and highest of the indifference curves are tangent is the equilibrium point also.

Secondly, housing price functions and locational equilibrium of households according to Muth will be clarified in this part. According to Muth, by going away from the CBD, the transportation cost becomes unavoidable for households. The amount of Money a household willing to pay in each distance is questionable. According to the locational equilibrium of households by Muth, gains and costs of varying residential location are as follows:

$$-qpu = Tu$$

$$-pu / p = Tu / pq$$

Where ***q*** **:** quantity of housing purchased; ***p*** **:** unit price of housing; $\boldsymbol{p_u}$ **:** the change in price per mile, which is negative; $\boldsymbol{T_u}$**:** the increase in transportation expenditure per mile (Muth, 1975:61).

In this equation, $-qp_u$ indicates the saving on the purchase of a given quantity of housing. This means, a short distance from the CBD, the T_u shows the additional transportation expense incurred by such a distance (Muth, 1975:61).

Muth's a linear housing function assumption, the consumption of quantity of housing is the same at all prices. In Figure 2.6, the equilibrium point of household is u_2 where ($-qp_u = T_u$), it is the best location for him. Even if s/he changes her/his location, the well-being of the household would not change. At u_1, the household has an additional income left over for spending on other goods where ($-qp_u > T_u$), then moving further from *that point* can be possible by consuming the same amount of housing for household at u_1. The household at u_3, can move closer to CBD as the best location for him/her is not that point (Muth, 1975:61).

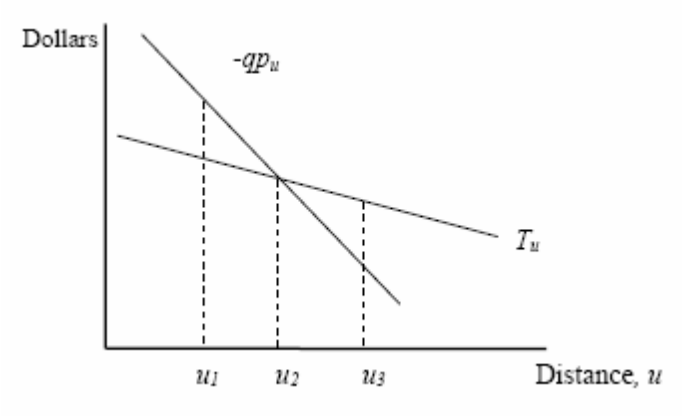

Figure 2.6: Gains and costs of varying residential location
Source: Muth, 1975:62

The linear and convex housing price functions have been indicated in Figure 2.7 and Figure 2.8. In the convex housing price functions, when a household move away from the centre, decrease in the price per square meter offsets the fixed amount of per km increase in commuting costs. As a result, a convex housing price functions is more rational as to the linear housing price function.

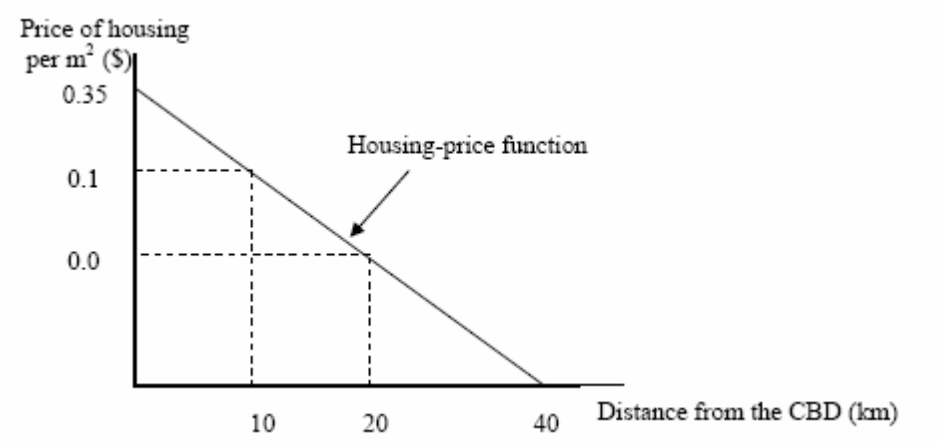

Figure 2.7: Linear-housing price function
Source: O'Sullivan, 2003:180

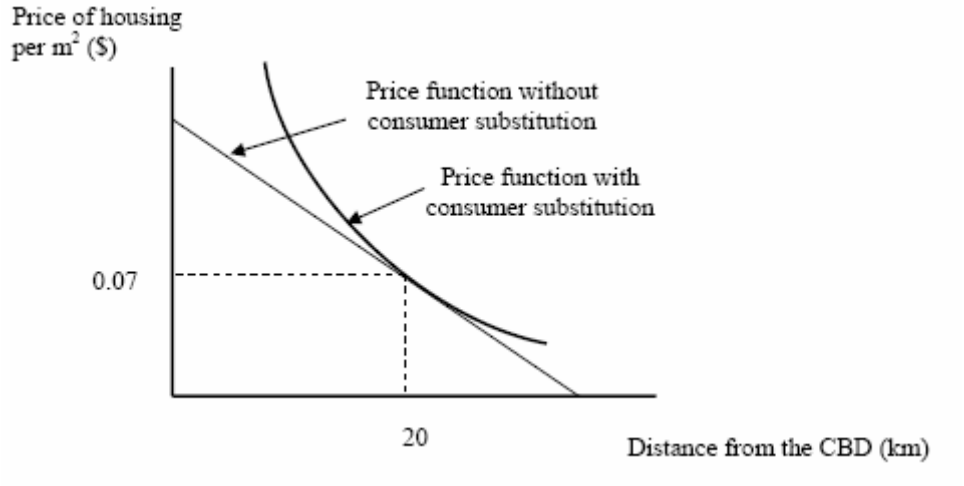

Figure 2.8: Housing price functions with and without consumer substitution
Source: O'Sullivan, 2003:180

Thirdly, as an extension of consumer behaviour theory, household's utility function can be formulated by indifference curves. Preferences for housing services and non-housing goods and services are shown by these curves. It differs from the consumer behaviour theory by including the location choice into the model.

Satisfaction level of a household is changed according to the consumption of housing, other goods and services commuting and household always try to maximize their satisfaction level (Mills, 1972:60)

According to the equation formulated in below, the households allocate the remainder on housing services and other goods in an optimum way to maximize their satisfaction.

The formulation of the equation is as follows:

$$Y = PZ.Z + PH.H + T(k.d)$$

$$Y - T(k.d) = M = PZ.Z + PH.H$$

Where ***Y:*** income; P_Z: price of all other goods; ***Z*:** quantity of all other goods; P_H**:** price of housing; ***H*:** quantity of housing; ***k*:** unit transport cost; ***d*:** distance from the CBD; ***M*:** income net of transport cost

As it is shown in Figure 2.9, when the household move away from A to B, there will be an increase in the consumption of housing services, while decrease in consumption of other goods because of higher transportation costs, since the equilibrium point move from E_A to E_B.

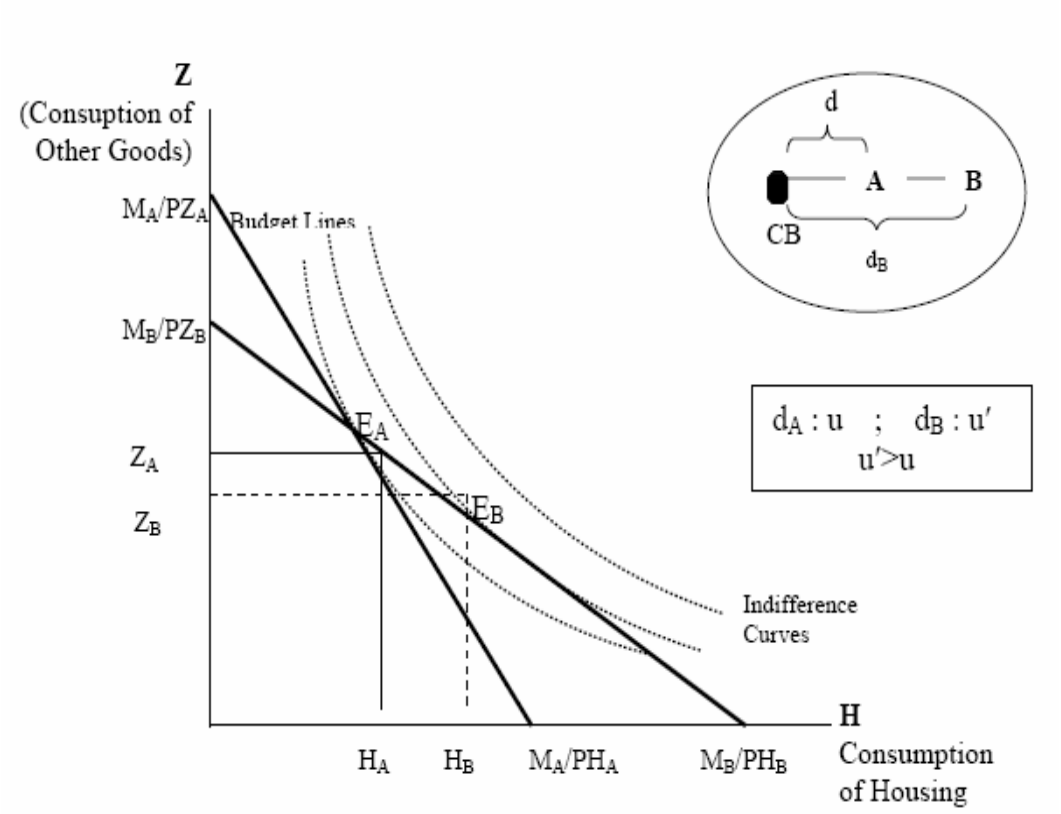

Figure 2.9: The equilibrium's change of household by moving from A to B in an urban area
Source: cited in Senyel, 2006

Finally, the last issue which will be analyzed under the heading of housing demand is household considerations.

Housing is a very heterogeneous commodity as it is composed of many attributions such as lot size, land amenities, quantity of bedrooms, bathrooms, the quality of kitchen facilities, garden and features of architectural design and

consumption quality (Dipasquale, 60). While households choose a house, their preferences change due to these bundles of attributes. Therefore, the heterogeneous structure of housing affects preferences and choice of households which result in changes of prices in the housing market.

Needs, wants or preferences are different from each other and differ from people to people. Needs can be considered as subjective preferences of the households or basic human necessities in housing market whereas wants can be changed by social status or position of the people (Ytrehus, 2001).

In the light of this explanation, household considerations can be thought in concept of needs and wants. To the effect that, when looking the subject in the view of needs of households, price and value are the main considerations of households. The second most considered one is locality. That is to say; price, value and locality can be thought as needs of households in housing pattern. The other considerations such as estate (urban design), design qualities, liveability and services, environmental features and socio economic profile of neighbourhood can be considered as wants of households (Carmona, 2001:120).

2.4. Supply Side of Housing and Characteristics of House Builder

Housing supply shows a stable character in the short-run because of its fixed stock. Housing production is not easy as its lingering construction process. As a result, the determinants of housing production show differences either in the short-run or in the long-run. In the short-run demand is the main determinants of housing prices and rents, in the long-run construction, land costs or development costs set the housing prices (Mills and Hamilton, 1993:209,210).

The actors of supply side vary differently such as house builders, capital market, construction activities, design professionals, planning authorities and lend-use regulations. The point which should be taken into account is that different

countries have different stages and stakeholders because of their administrative structure and constitutional requirements.

The suburbs attract the suppliers because of the low land prices. The producers can use more land and build larger housing units within low-density residential areas because of the lower prices of land at the urban fringe (Muth, 1975: 65).

In the supply side of housing, it's worth mentioning about House builder's Production Function and characteristics of house builders.

To begin with, house builders mainly consider making their profit maximum, for this purpose they try to decrease unit production cost. The production function of house building is composed of capital (K) and land (L). When these factors reach the optimum level, producers also maximize their profit. If the commodity is homogenous, the capital which includes infrastructure and superstructure expenses of the construction could be supposed to be constant at every location of the urban area. However, land rents show differences as to location. Hence the only way to decrease the costs is deciding on capital-land substitution with the change in land prices.

The amount of housing units with a limited budget is an indicator of production function of the producer. In the central places, land rents and prices are relatively higher, so house builder would use smaller amount of land (L_A), whereas at the far away from the city centre, land (L_B) is more available to use for house builder. However, the share of capital decreases from K_A to K_B, in this way house builder can built more housing units as the increase in the amount of land input increases more than the decrease in capital input ($K_A/L_A > K_B/L_B$) (Figure 2.10).

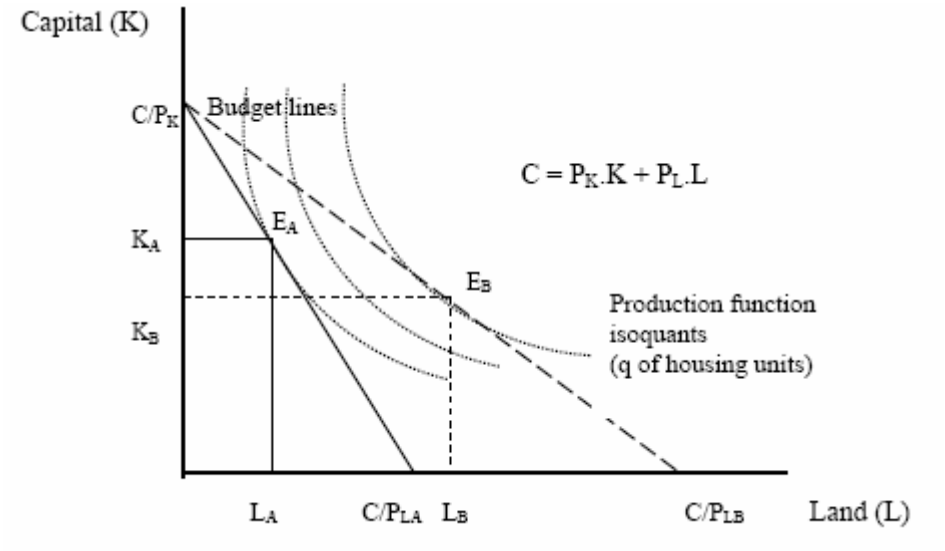

Figure 2.10: House builders' production function with respect to the quantities of capital and land
Source: Senyel, 2006:24.

One of the important outcomes of this factor substitution is that densities decrease with increasing distance from the city centre, as the density gradient is an outcome of different non-land/land ratios around the city. The monocentric city causes the density to concentrate in the city centre and also create high values of land in the CBD.

As a result of all things mentioned above, the way to maximize the house builder's profit is taking into account the development density. In the central area, high-densities are preferred to the lower one because of the quite higher land rent in order to economize on land, on the other hand densities decreases by moving towards to the urban fringe giving to the possibility of low-rise housing and cheaper land rent.

Optimum development density is another determinant factor on housing price, land price and floor area ratio from the supplier's side. Interests of house builder and preferences of households could differ from each other in such situations. Developers are in the tendency of substituting land with capital in the situation of land is more valuable and they consider the optimum density to make increase their profit, at the same time providing the satisfaction of households'expectations. Higher density in city centres with regard to urban

fringe has some complications as it may lead to a decrease the value of housing units.

In the model of Dipasquale and Wheaton, the relationship between the over-mentioned variables and maximum profit that can be provided at a certain FAR value which is used as a measure of density are explained.

$$P = \alpha - \beta F$$
$$C = \mu + \pi F$$
$$p = F(P-C)$$

Where ***P:*** price of housing ***α***: collective value of all other locational and structural attributes that can affect the price of a dwelling unit ***β*****:** marginal reduction in value with increasing density. ***F:*** floor area ratio (FAR) ***C:*** cost of construction ***μ***: basic cost of construction ***π*****:** incremental additional cost which increases linearly with density increase ***p:*** the residual value per square foot of land, attained from the multiplication of FAR with the difference between price of housing and construction cost (Dipasquale and Wheaton, 1996:74).

The difference between the price and construction costs composed of the residual profit. Until point d, at all the points price of housing is above the construction cost. Therefore it's possible to obtain different levels of profit. The point where the residual profit and also maximum value for p^* is at F^* which is an indicator of the optimum FAR value (Figure 2.11).

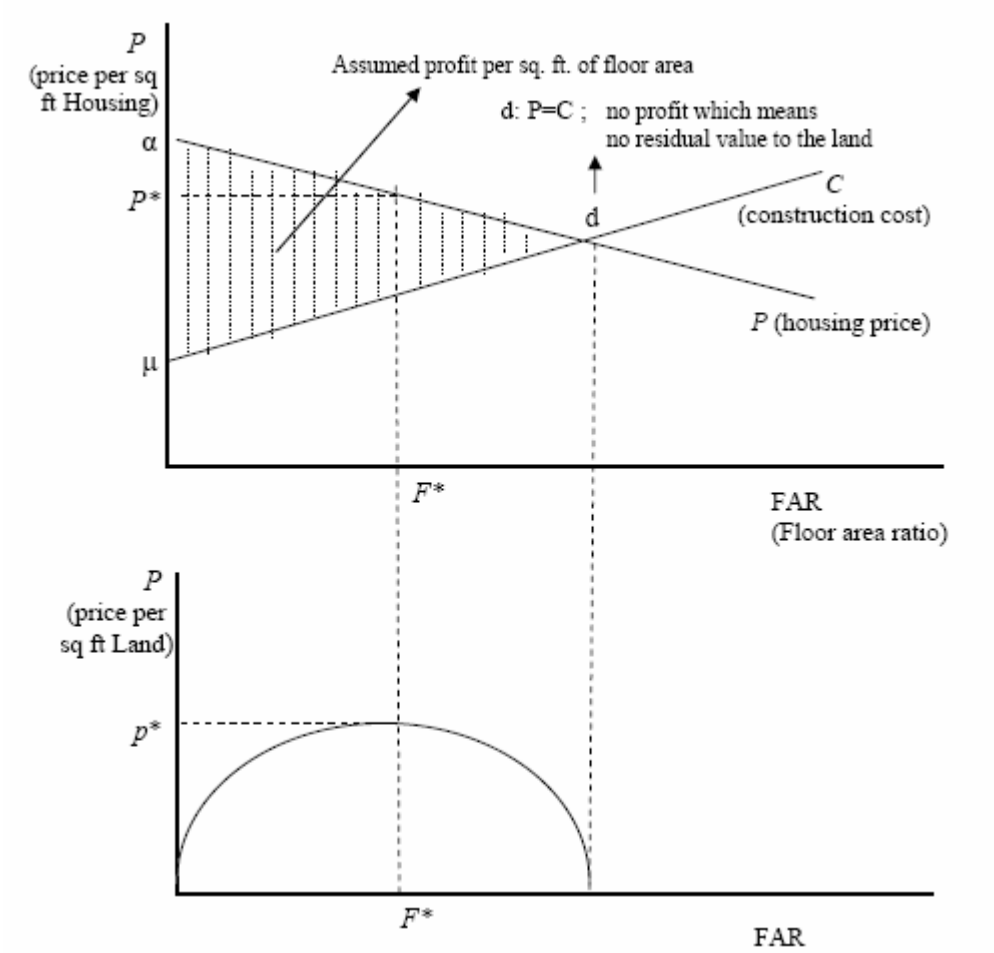

Figure 2.11: Optimal FAR
Source: Dipasquale, Wheaton, 1996:75 (cited in Senyel, 2006:27)

In order to understand the supply of housing from the house builder side, it is useful to look for the characteristics of house builder.

As it's mentioned before house builders' main consideration is to maximize their profit. To this end, they have to care about the selection of sites, consideration of marketing, chances of obtaining planning permission, the social context and availability of servicing. House builder could be work in a company or on their own status. In Turkey, any house builders are in business on their own names, in order to have easy entry and exit to from the industry. Producing housing on their own names allow builders to deal with land owners, sub-contractors, workers and house buyers informally when needed to escape from much of the tax-burdens. It may also be considered to be an indicator of the level of development of capitalist relations in the construction industry (Turel, 1998:5).

When thought in general, site selection considerations of housebuilders are shown in Figure 2.12 by Carmona.

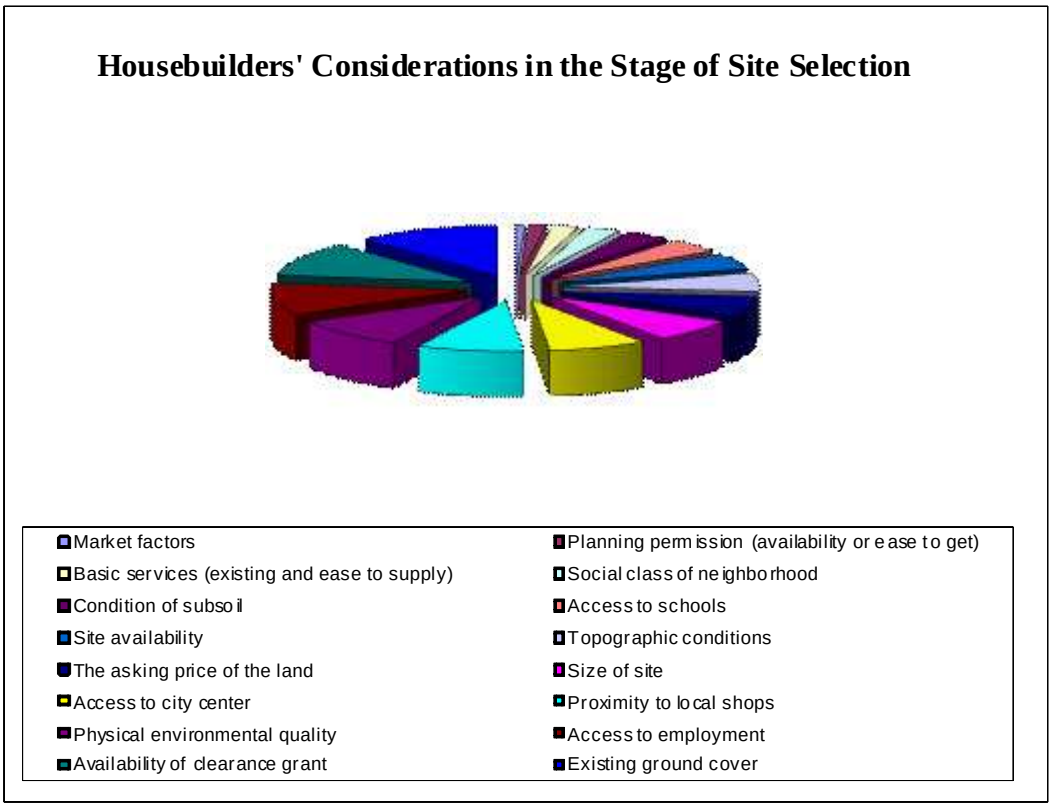

Figure 2.12: Perceived Importance of site selection criteria by house builders
Source: Carmona et *al*, 2003:49.

Under these ranking, there have been various criteria for both housing production and also locational attributes which the house builder considers about. The urban fringe could be desirable for any development uses such as residential, commercial, industrial or recreational uses. In that sense, house builder may produce housing units taking into account of market factors, planning permission, and site availability, price of land and size of the site. Of course this classification is specific to housebuilders that were surveyed by Carmona.

Social class of neighbourhood, compatibility of topographic conditions and also physical environmental quality could be seen as opportunities while developing a new site, however there have been some disadvantages such as basic services,

accessibility to the city centre, proximity to local shops and employment problem (Senyel, 2006:29).

2.5. The Impacts of Other Variables on Housing Such as Population Growth, Household Income, Transportation

After mentioning the demand and supply sides of the housing sector, it will be important to talk about some other variables affecting the housing patterns in terms of socio economic, demographic and technological advance. In this part, the effects of population growth, household income and transportation infrastructure on housing will be discussed while choosing the spatial housing.

One of the important facts related the urban space and also housing is the growth of population. It causes to increase in housing demand as more people will need more houses. Population growth has some effects on housing in terms of increase in housing price and also in urban densities (Muth, 1975:68). In the long run, on the other hand, housing prices will be decrease since the rise in the housing supply both by redevelopment projects in the centre and also new settlements at the urban fringe.

Another important fact which effects people' choice for their location is their income level. It is a determinant factor on locational choice of housing. The demand for housing by a household has been demonstrated to depend on its income, size, and composition and place in the life cycle, as well as on the relative price of housing services generally, and on certain tax provisions.

One can imagine that at low levels of income the probability of home ownership is small due to the difficulty of assembling the initial capital (equity) and obtaining the necessary credit-risk certification. On the other hand, at high levels of income such difficulties are comparatively minor and the tax subsidies to ownership are greater in many countries so that the probability of ownership is

quite high. In Figure 2.13 depicts the relationship between the household income and ownership of a house.

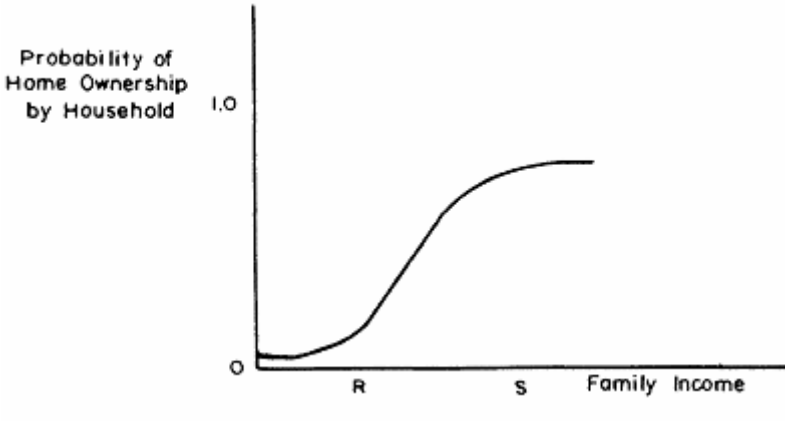

Figure 2.13: The relationship between homeownership and household income
Source: J. Struyk, Marshall; 1975: 19-26

There is a correlation between income and locational choice of housing also. In the US, which is one of the most developed countries, the locational choice of high income groups is to live at the outskirts of the city, whereas most of low income groups choose to stay in the city centre since income elasticity of demand for housing and income elasticity of commuting cost have different responsive features to the changes. In that sense, high income groups' demand for housing is greater than their commuting conceptions as they can afford to live in suburbs by paying high commuting cost. On the other hand, some city centres which have some unique characteristics, cultural amenities, historical architectures and also entertainment facilities are preferable by the high income groups instead of suburbs. For instance, Paris is a city which the high income groups prefer to live in the centre instead of suburbia because museums, parks and other cultural and entertainment facilities take place in the centre part of the city (O'Sullivan, 2003:190). In Turkey, suburbanisation has denominated quite different development from many developed countries. The urban fringe was initially invaded by lower income groups by building unauthorized housing (mostly gecekondu), however, the high income groups' movement to suburbs have come into being after the invasion of the outskirts of the city by those "gecekondu". These subjects will be explained in greater detail in the fourth chapter.

Lastly, technical improvements are the third factor affecting the urban pattern and also locational choice of housing together with the factors mentioned above. By courtesy of transportation improvements people could move away from the city centre to the urban fringe. According to Alonso, better transportation facilities provide people's commuting easier and faster than before and secondly and most probably less expensive if the households use public transport for their commuting (Alonso, 1964:111). When they use their own automobile in commuting, it will be more convenient and contented but also more expensive. In addition to all effects of improved transportation network, it will lead to an increase in the price of land at the urban fringe. This would cause higher density residential area at the outskirts.

2.6. A Critical Review of Theoretical Background

Urban land rent theories are developed to explain the (sub) urban movement. Theories based on Ricardian/Von Thünnen's land rent models tried to evidence that the city centre has high land values, and show together with households' and housebuilders' economic rationality how housing produced and consumed at locations far away from the city centre.

Alonso' s model explain the decreasing land values from the city centre and the optimum composition of land and commuting costs and other expenditures in a monocentric urban model. According to his model, households make a trade off between housing and transport costs. Commuting costs, prices of housing and other goods and services are effective on households' consumption pattern among housing. As well as the locational features, environmental characteristics and structural attributes of dwelling units, neighbourhood relationship, availability of the urban services and the features of using urban services and their housing are the other considerations of households.

On the house builder side, they try to make their profit maximum. As a result, housing far away from the city centre is attractive for developers since the

relatively low land prices and abundant land. The important thing for the house builder is the optimum combination of capital and land in housing production.

In addition to things stated above, technological and demographic factors affect housing at the urban fringe. Increasing in population growth leads to the decentralisation and suburbanisation movements. Spatial segregation experiencing in urban areas is closely related to households' income. High-income people having a tendency to move to the suburbs left the declined city centre to the low-income people since they could afford transport costs and willing to pay for better urban environment and structural quality.

In this thesis, the situation is different a bit from this model since the middle and lower-middle income people prefer to live in suburbs than the city centre. As it's been stated that high income households try to live in suburbs because of the environmental and social facilities of the areas and also structural qualities of the dwelling units and also transport cost are affordable for them, on the other hand, the lower income households are living in the city centre. The two thesis studies have been made related to preferring of high income households to live at the urban fringe. The former investigate the apartment housing in Ankara, which was studied by Metin Topçu named as "Spatial Variation of Apartment Housing in Ankara". The latter is related to the low rise housing development in the western corridor of the Ankara development area, preferred by high-income groups. This thesis study was made by Anil Senyel named as "Low Rise Housing Development in Ankara". These two studies reveal the pattern of housing development along the western corridor.

As well as the thesis studies stated above, lower-middle and middle income households' movement, together with the features of using their housing units and urban services will be investigated in the other part of the western corridor of Ankara, with case studies in Etimesgut and Sincan. Thence, this study will take a complementary role in order to figure out the housing pattern along western part of Ankara.

CHAPTER 3

HISTORY OF HOUSING DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF SUBURBANISATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

In this part, suburbanisation will be investigated within its all features by beginning the origin of the suburbs to suburban movement in the world, historical background and recently changes in suburbanization.

3.1. Suburbs

To begin with suburbs and its origin and then evaluation will be the best way to understand how this movement eventuated in developed countries.

3.1.1. The Origin and Evolution of Suburbs

The word is derived from the *Old French* "sub urbe" and from the *Latin* "suburbium", it is formed from "sub" meaning "under", and "urbs", meaning "city", therefore suburbs would mean under the city (Baumgartner, 1988). Suburbs are used as residential areas on the outskirts of a city.

> Many suburbs have some degree of political autonomy and most have lower population density than inner city neighbourhoods. Mechanical transport, including automobiles, enabled the 20th century growth of suburbs, which tend to proliferate near cities with an abundance of adjacent flat land (Fishman, 1987)

British planner Ebenezer Howard[3] emerged the most influential advocate for dispersing the urban masses. According to him;

> Town and country must be married and out of this joyous union will spring a new hope, a new life, and a new civilization (Ebenezer Howard).

Suburban development can be categorized into 5 components generally in U.S cities. Firstly, *housing subdivisions,* also known as clusters or pods generally involve at least single family homes located on small plots of land. Many of them are surrounded by walls on all sides, are isolated from other subdivisions and from retail. Some are "gated communities" with their own security forces (Blakely, Edward J. and Mary Gail Snyder, 1997). Secondly, *strip malls,* also known as shopping centers, retail parks and power centers. These areas are only used for retail space and auto-parking. Thirdly, *office parks,* also known as business parks. They involve 4-10 story buildings surrounded by parking structures. Fourthly, civic institutions, they are public buildings where citizens gather for civic functions such as town religious places, schools. They are typically very large in size and serve very large geographical areas. And finally, *roadways*, they are typically much wider than in city or town roads, with multiple lanes and few, if any, side walks. They are conceived to serve only automobiles, not pedestrians or cyclists (Baxandall, 2000).

3.2. Theorising Suburbanisation

The literature about suburbs and suburbanisation is immense. There have been various definitions of suburbs.

To begin with Robert Fishman, he defines suburbs first by what they involve, it means middle class residences and second by what they except, that is; all industry especially most trade facilities except for enterprises that serve a

[3] Howard was the driving force behind two of England's first planned towns, Letchworth in 1903 and Welwyn in 1912. His "garden city" model of development soon influenced planners around the world: in America, Germany, Australia, Japan and elsewhere.

residential area and all lower class residents except servants where all the social and economic characteristics are explained in landscape (Fishman, 1997:25). At the beginning, suburbs served the “withdrawl” of upper and middle classes. However, all segments of society noticed the post-war suburbanisaton in advanced capitalist countries particularly in United States. According to Fishman, suburbanisa is an original, collective and cultural creation. Its evolution was parallel with that of revolution of industry.

Herbert Gans’s account is that suburbs are not only residential areas, where the realized and sustainable homogeneity take place (Gans, 1995:182) He advocates those suburbs are an integral part of the city, not the autonomous units. Homogeneity is the characteristic point of all neighborhood units located in the “outer city”. The other characteristic point of outer city neighborhoods is uniformity. This “outer city” is consisted of different people who choose to live among distinct neighborhoods on the basis of place, nature of work, income, racial and ethic characteristic, social status, taste, preference and prejudice (Gans, 1995:18).

Mike Savage and Alan Warde (1993:77-78) focus other perspectives on suburbanization. To the Orthodox accounts, the meeting of supply and demand for a particular type of housing and residential environment is represented the growth of suburbs. Because of the cheaper and more effusive land on the urban fringe, people prefer to live in there with reasonable priced, good quality of environment and special houses with gardens. Housing with a particular life style and market for housing are important tools of Weberian accounts.

David Harvey argues that residential differentiations deriving from capitalist wave of (sub) urbanization, in the long run, creates contradictions for the sustainable capitalist growth. In case, because of the conservative ideas suburbs are not open to change and growth which is a need for a positive accumulation rate (Harvey, 1985:122). Another problem is the fragmentation of the society into different communities. According to him, the community consciousness ensued by

residential differentiation replaces class-consciousness. Therefore, the capitalist city avoids the danger of an emergent class-consciousness.

Another argument about suburbanisation made by Neil Smith is that suburbanisation is representation of a concurrent centralisation/decentralisation of human activity and capital in geographical space. In national scale, suburbanisation is an outward expansion of centralized urban places. He also advocates that suburban movement represents the centralization of capital and this capital leads towns to growth into cities and metropolitan areas.

Castells maintains that technological changes related to the automobile were the easy attribution of suburbanisation. Suburbanisation is not only a decentralisation process, but also a progression of dynamic centralisation of capital into urban areas. The internal differentiation of urban space is the consequences of this suburban movement (Smith, 1996:85, Castells 1977:384-386).

Within the context of theorizing suburbanisation, Richard Walker in his article[4] mentions about the features of suburbanisation. Spatial differentiation, decentralisation and urbanisation waves are the three major defining features of suburbanisation. To begin with, spatial differentiation is an outcome of capital division of labour and suburbs are the realization of this spatial differentiation. Spatial segregation and decentralisation developed dependently to each other and urbanisation waves put in action them in the capitalist era.

In conclusion, suburbs and suburbanisation is a decentralisation process of not only spatial sprawl of population but also activities within the metropolitan areas (Castells, 1977:384). It is an integral part of the metropolitan area.

What is more, capital accumulation created suburbanisation in an economic way, but this political and economical view is not enough to explain suburbanisation itself. The cultural values, social choices, preferences, behavioral approaches,

[4] Walker.R, 1981, *"A Theory of Suburbanisation: Capitalism and Construction of Urban Space in the United States"*

urban traditions are the other affects playing important roles in such a development. As a result, suburbanisation acquires different characters in different patterns of the world countries.

3.3. Historical Background Affecting the Suburban Form in Developed Countries

In this part, (sub) urbanisation will be debated in four periods: industrial revolution, First World War, Second World War and globalization.

3.3.1. Industrial Revolution's Effects on Cities

Soja stated that pre-industrial city was the centre of coordination, control and administration of territorial cultures and modes of production based primarily in agriculture, mining and other primary sector activities, and also trade and commerce, but this structure of pre-industrial city was changed significantly by time. The industrial revolution and mass migration have an influence in this change. Millions of people move from countryside to urban areas because this large scale industrial production (Soja, 2000).

The mass migration from rural to urban came into existence in the late 19th century. Unfortunately urban areas were not ready for such a huge population increase. New migrates started to locate next to the factories, at the centre and close to the main transportation connection such as railroads and seaports. People who live in those crowded cities started to have problems.

The City Beautiful Movement tends to improve the declining City Centre. This movement aims to bring the light air, green space to the city with the help of landscape design while creating low density sites (Mumford, 1961).

The effects of technical improvements and the emergence of electric streetcar enabled more people to move to outskirts. However, suburbs were still dependent

on the central city in terms of working, retail and entertainment activities. The suburban movement of early 20th century was suite callow.

3.3.2. After First World War the Structure of Urban Areas

After the First World War, an important suburban blow was experienced in the 1920s. It was a crucial pace for urban decentralisation. Improvements in manufacturing brought about increasing private car ownership. As a result of this increase people started to move towards the suburbs.

In the period of 1920 and 1940, Fordist and Keynessian model provided big government intervention in the economy and for expanded social welfare (Soja, 2000:111).

Automobile warranted people to be free in choosing of location provided that there was a highway. However, due to the lack of public transport to out of the city, suburbs were still dependent to the automobiles.

After the movement of housing to suburbs, commercial activities and work places spread out. At first, there was small scale retailing in suburbs, and then larger stores and regional shopping centres started to locate outside the city. Decentralisation of industry gathered speed because of transportation opportunities and developing technologies. Since suburbs had shopping centres and working places, they were not only a residential area but also the other facilities they had. Nonetheless, city centre became areas where both housing and small working places came up.

3.3.3. The New Form of Cities after Second World War

By the effect of 1930s Great Depression and Second World War, a regression had started in economy of developed countries. On the other hand, urban population was increasing by time. Because of this rapid population increase to urban, construction was not enough and thus housing shortage problem occurred.

In 1950s, by the use of mass production techniques[5], suburban growth faced the fastest period and as a result of this, the rate of suburban growth exceeded that of urban[6] (Gillham, 2002:38).

In that period, suburbs were not only residential area, but also retailing and office centres. The connection between city centre and suburbs were provided by new highways.

The Industrial decentralization became nearly the same reasons with residential and commercial development. The main reasons of this decentralization were the cheaper and more proper land.

By the emergence of new markets & firms, the connection of suburbs to the city centre reduced (Stanback, 1991:2).

The population increase and employment have become much more in suburbs than central cities. As a result of such development in suburbs, the decrease in population, in investment and increase in crime rates came into existence in the downtown of the city. Consequently city centre became less attractive than suburbs (Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2).

Urban redevelopment and renewal activities started to be put into practice for preventing this decline in both population and investment of the economy.

Furthermore, suburbs attracted the capital and continued to expand, so declining spatial and social quality, economic and financial problems could not be prevented easily in the period of 1950 and 1970s.

[5] Plywood, drywall, prefabricated elements and the mass production technique were used in suburb housing.
[6] In US, 'White' families became distinctive features of post-war suburb movement (Gillham, 2002)

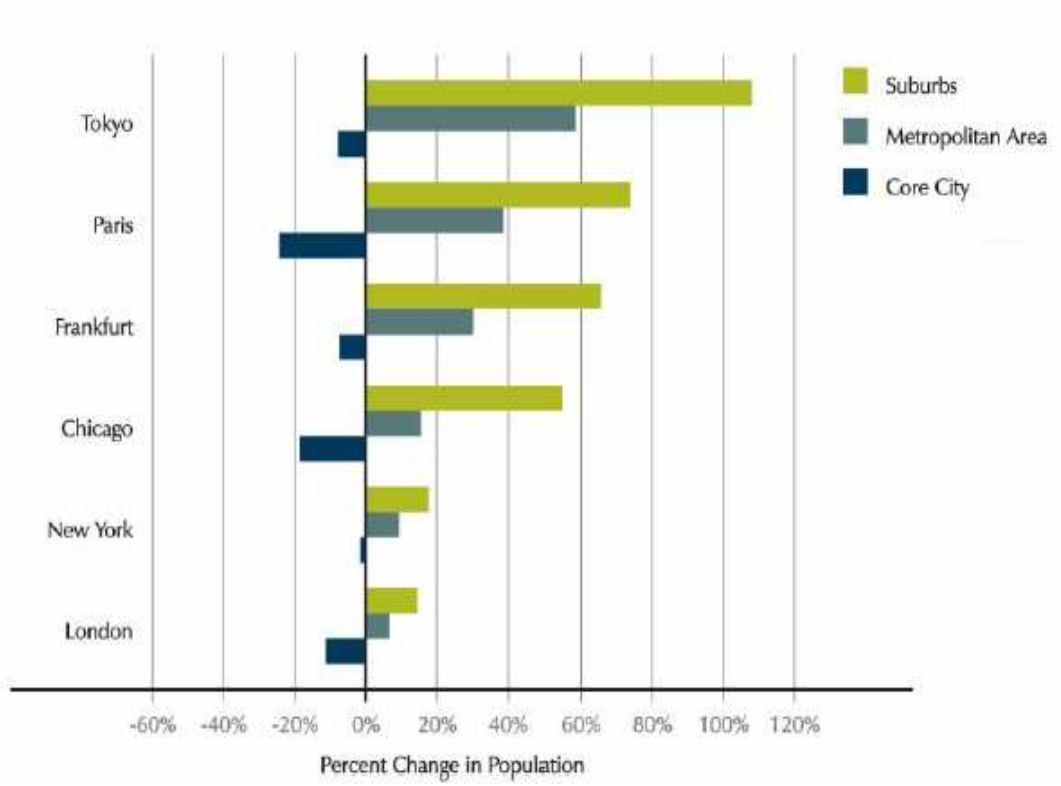

Figure 3.1: The percentage change in different cities in terms of suburbs, metropolitan areas and core city
Source: Kotkin, 2005 (cited in Kotkin, 2005)[7]

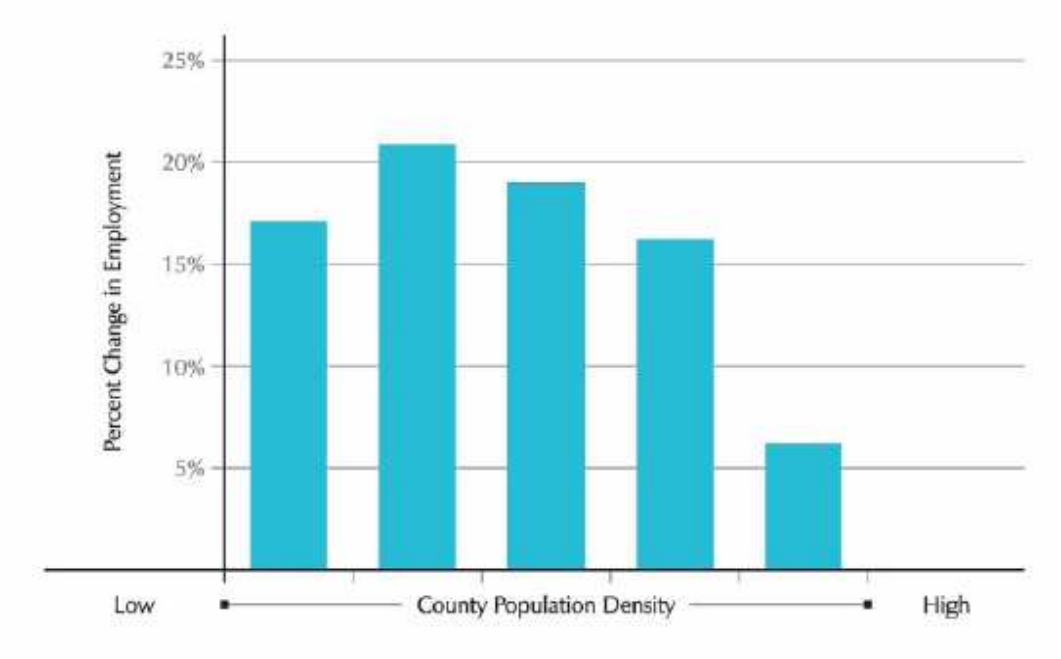

Figure 3.2: The percentage of average employment growth
Source: Kotkin, 2005 (cited in Kotkin, 2005)[8],

[7] The author of this article, Joel Kotkin, had denoted of reference of this figure as Wendell Cox, Demographic in his article. http://www.joelkotkin.com/Urban_Affairs

3.3.4. The Effects of Globalisation on Cities

The Globalisation has been living its best age after 1980s. Spatial organization was affected by changing economic & political structure.

In that period, suburbs continued to show an urbanized area character, whereas downtown made regeneration & revitalization projects. The metropolitan areas emerged and the new definition came to order; “regional urbanism”.

Through 1980s, Urban Gentrification[9] started to be appreciated by some elites. The effect of the oil crisis of the 1970s, made an important contribution to this returning movement to the city. Although the central city was living a revitalization movement, suburbanization continued because the returning movement to the city had an influence only a particular group. According to Carmona, urban push and suburban pull factors could be the reasons of such an intensive urban decentralisation (Figure 3.3).

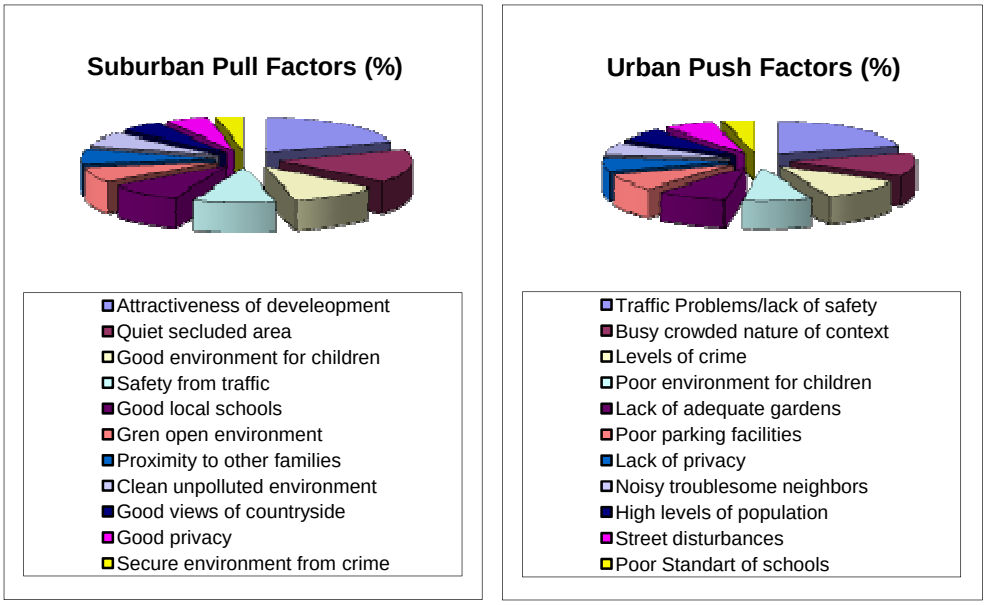

Figure 3.3: The representation of urban push and suburban pull factors
Source: Carmona, 2003:52. (Cited in Şenyel, A, 2006)

[8] The author of this article, Joel Kotkin, had denoted of the reference of this figure as Joint Centre Tabulations of the Regional Economic Information System (REIS) Database in his article (Kotkin, 2005).
[9] The trend of returning to the city, (Beauregard, 1993:307)

According to Stanback, the city and suburb constituted a metropolitan system together. He explains this relationship as;

> The central city heavily draws upon the suburbs for its work force yet sends a substantial number of its resident workers daily to jobs outside its boundaries, and suburbs depend heavily upon the streams of income provided by the wages and salaries of commuters (Stanback, 1991:1).

Consequently, suburbs are not anymore a composition of several urbanized areas; it composes the metropolitan system together with the central city.

In the 21st century, borders of nation-states remained, but more flexible, fleeting world was created in both economic and social.

In this new system, monocentric urban development has been replaced by the polycentric urban development. Anymore, the network between cities, suburbs, towns and villages defined as the “urbanized regions”

3.4. Suburbia Worldwide

The origin and evaluation of suburbs and also theorising suburbanisation were discussed in the previous part in this chapter. This part draws attention to the process of suburban expansion from the first industrialised and modernised societies: Europe and then United States.

Suburbanisation started to become notable during the second half of the 19th century. The subject of suburbanisation has close relationship with “segregation” which means residential separation of subgroups within a wider population.

Differentiation and decentralisation are the spatial features of suburbanisation (Champion, 2001:149) Because of the accessibility cheap land at the urban fringe hence more space, better transport qualities, infrastructure facilities, technological developments, decentralisation gained importance and suburbanisation movement emerged as a result of all these process.

3.4.1. Spreading of Suburbanism in Europe: Great Britain, France and Sweden

Suburban expansion had been occurred differently in Europe in contrast to American suburban expansion.

According to Robert Fishman, first residential suburban movement eventuated in London. The bourgeoisie of London transformed the family into a new form and in the late 18th century the separation possibilities of work and residential areas were sought in London. Fishman argues that suburbanisation process was emanated from the idea of "physical segregation is required by social distinctions".

By the impact of industrialisation, the relationship between business elites and the large number of workers lost the old connection. The lack of mutual trust and daily contact between elites and workers resulted in more impersonal and loose relationship with each other. As a result of such an impersonal relation, elite segregated their residential area in the form of residential suburbanisation (Espino, 2001, 2-3).

The picturesque villages within easy commuting by private carriages for the riche bankers and merchants were the suitable settlement for this new type of housing at urban fringe. In these villages, settlements were at low density and there was a (strict) separation of work and domestic life. Family primacy, domestic and intense civic life were the new urban values (Fishman 1987/1996:27).

Economic side of suburbanisation was figured out by these urban values. Another contribution to the development of suburban expansion was made by the market mechanism. Suburban railway and motorbus services were used in terms of the daily journey between work and home in Britain. By the advent of railways there was a sudden increase in the construction of working class suburbs in 19th Century London (Harvey, 1985:40).

British and Americans system had almost similar consequences in the process of suburbanisation. While affluent households were moving to the outskirts of the city, urban poor stayed in the slums of the city centre in both countries. The differences between American and British middle classes were that, British middle class prefer to live in smaller houses of higher density areas whereas Americans reside in less dense suburban areas.

In France, the bourgeoisie preferred to stay in the city centre, by living in big apartment houses at huge boulevards whereas Anglo- Americans live in suburbs. This difference caused the distinction between French and Anglo-Saxon imagination of city (Fishman 1987/1996:40-43).

The last discussing country is Sweeden; Suburbanisation in Sweeden has some notable similarities with Turkish middle class suburban development. High density settlements in the form of high-rise apartment blocks constituted these suburbs, and location of Swedish suburbs was usually around a shopping centre at the periphery in contrast to American suburban expansion.

The planning process and implementation steps are similar to Turkish system. Local and Central governments were dominant in such developments in Sweeden like in Turkey but unlike in the United States, private developers are effective in such construction activities (Hall 1990:308).

The other and most remarkable difference between European and Americans who prefer to live in suburbs is that adoption of car ownership in Western Europe widespread forty years later than it did in the United States (Peter Hall, 1990). Traditional urban structure and life-style had also been affected by this change in Europe. By the 70s, suburbanisation movement had shown itself in the western European upper and middle class like American suburbanisation pattern. Therefore, this difference shows suburbanism is the post-war model of development which first emerged in the United States (Dear and Flustry, 1999:69; Katz 1994: ix).

3.4.2. Spreading of Suburbanism in the United States

American suburban development began as early as the 1890s and it was renewed in 1920s, and the years after the World War II were the acceleration years of suburbanisation (Castells, 1977:384).

The United States suburbanism was affected by socio-economic and political developments, technological improvements; this caused different urban development patterns in the United States.

An early suburban expansion took the form of street-car suburbs which were hugely confined to narrow belts near the interurban railways which obtain appropriate services to commuters and households living at the urban fringe (Legates and Stout, 2000:20).

By the 1920s, the new suburban pattern based on automobiles and single story detached type of housing emerged (Jhonson 1969:127, Fishman, 1987/2000). All these process were related with the infrastructural investments in the country. At that moments in the United States, industrial settlements suburbanisation began (Rowies and Scott 1981:124) and also occupation, religion, income and ethnicity were the factors which differentiate suburbs from each other distinctly (Palen, 1997:202).

Through the 1950s, further mass suburbanisation and further utilisation of private-automobile were facilitated by the massive “intraurban” highway construction. As a result of this, there had been some traffic and parking problems in the central part of the city.

Following years after World War II, suburbs were engaged by a huge number of middle classes, even blue-collar families. They mostly want to live in homogeneous residential areas, in the form of detached single-family homes in those suburbs (Palen 1997:203-205).

Land-use zoning which accompanied all this process encouraged the formation of homogeneous land-use district and also improved physical conditions (Legates and Stout 2000:21).

The reason Americans want to live far away from the central city is the large private spaces and small public spaces of the suburbs (Garreau 1991). Most of the people prefer to live in suburbs present day suburbs.

The cheapness of land at the outskirts of the city, partly the mass production of housing were the major reasons that the centre cities loosing their position as to suburbs and suburbanisation came up (Castells 1977). Thence major technological changes both in transportation and in the mass housing, increase spatial freedom of industry and services were much more effective on the process of suburbanisation in the United States.

In regard to all discussions above, suburbanisation should not be thought only residential but also industrial, retail activities (malls), business investment districts (offices), entertainment, sport and cultural activities, parks were the other suburbanisation spheres (Castells, 1993/2000 and Calthorpe, 1989/2000). In the twentieth century, suburbanisation life has become widespread.

3.4.3. Recent Changes in Suburbanisation

The basic distinctions between urban and suburban areas revealed suburbs. The social and spatial segregation of suburbs and their positive and negative aspects are argued by Levis Mumford (Mumford, 1961:549-563).

Indeed, suburbanisation in 20th century derived from a reaction against the crowded, dirty and unhealthy cities of industrial revolution. People who get tired and bored from this situation of those cities found the way to live in the outskirts of the cities in suburbs. This segregation, on the other hand, prevented people to easy access to the cultural and intellectual activities of the city. There were also

the negative infirmities of living in suburbs such as boredom, monotony, lack of social realities, status seeking and sacrificing realism for the sake of pleasure.

Monotonous similarity, the ugliness of mass houses, destruction of rural areas for residential development, the common architectural style was the criticisms of intellectuals against to suburbs.

Suburbs were also a burden on the city because of the flight of taxes out of the central city administration and making the infrastructure facilities in such a large development area was difficult for the local administration and this was seen as another burden on the municipalities (Senyel, A. 2006).

3.5. Concluding Remarks

The form of cities has been changed by socio-economic and also political transformations. By movement from city to the periphery of high income groups, suburban movement started. At the beginning, suburbs were only the place where high income groups who could afford to live far from the city locate and then they were also urbanized areas where all industrial, manufacturing and commercial activities have taken place.

After a while, by improvements in technology and transportation, middle income groups could afford to live in these suburbs. By the decentralization of not only residences but also industry and commerce, suburbs were not dependent on the city centre anymore.

In recent years, the suburb and the city constituted the metropolitan system together due to increasing networking. The regional urbanism which comprehends the city and the suburb came into the agenda. Anymore the city and suburb could not be thought as distinct from each other.

In developing countries, suburban development involves both in the form of unauthorized settlements of low income and migrant households and authorized housing built for middle and upper income groups. In those countries, squatter areas are often built, with unregulated buildings and other form of legal disorder. In such situations suburbs and houses are roughly built and often not even in the traditional building materials. The occupiers of longer lasting homes may be defined such suburbs “shanty towns” (Kruse, Kevin M, and Thomas J. Sugrue, 2006). Increasing car ownership is instrumental in the spread of the latter type of suburban development.

In Turkish cities, cooperatives, cooperative unions and public organizations (Emlakbank, Municipalities and HDA) were leading housing development in the fringe of urban areas. In recent years, large capital housebuilders joined these types of housebuilders by developing large tracks of land at the outskirts of cities and building housing on these lands in time.

CHAPTER 4

URBANISATION AND (SUB) URBAN HOUSING DEVELOPMENT IN TURKEY

Urbanisation and suburban movement in Turkey has developed differently in comparison to the western countries. Firstly, in a relatively short period of time the whole transformation process was experienced. Secondly, there were negative outcomes of industrialisation in developed countries, most important of which has been housing shortage in cities leading to unauthorized house building. Thirdly, low income migrants located at the urban fringe initially in Turkey, but in developed countries high and middle income groups live in suburbs.

In order to understand this process, urbanization will be studied in historical periods. Then, in the second part of this chapter, housing provision in Turkey will be explained within the context of suburbanisation.

4.1. Housing Development in Turkey within the Context of Suburbanisation

Urbanisation in Turkey through different decades has been shaped by different waves of urbanisation. Urbanisation in Turkey has proceeded with the development of capitalism and the suburbanisation movement in Turkey has developed differently compared to the developed countries.

In this part, (sub) urbanisation will be analysed within the historical context of Turkish urbanisation. The era beginning with the proclamation of the Turkish Republic, from 1923 to 1957 will be analysed first and in the second part from 1957 until 1980 will be mentioned. Then, a special emphasis will be made to the post-1980 period when the class polarisation has increased notably. And finally, the era after 1990 until nowadays will be discussed with the contemporary problems of urban areas.

4.1.1. A Brief History of (Sub) Urbanisation and Urban Policies in Turkey in the Period 1923-1957

Turkish urbanisation movement began with the proclamation of the Turkish Republic in 1923, comprehensive regulations were started to be applied to create a modern society. By the declaration of Ankara as the capital, Turkish urbanisation has speeded up (Tankut, 2000:301).

All but, particularly together with big cities and Ankara, intense urban transformation activities were initiated. In the early years of the Republic, the rate of population growth was almost zero. During the former years, transportation, housing environment and infrastructure were considered as planned manner. Urban planning was made for obligatory for all cities with the execution of Municipal, Public Sanitation & Building and Roads Law[10] in 1930 (Tekeli, 2001).

In those days, unauthorized housing began to spread; unfortunately governments took no precautions for this issue. Soon after, squatter house and slum areas invaded urban periphery and the legal, spatial and social problems emerged as a result.

[10] Belediye Umumi Hıfzısıhha ve Yapı Yolları Kanunu

4.1.2. (Sub) urbanisation in Turkey in 1957-1980 Period

The Second World War was a focal point for the urbanization history of Turkey. Until the Second World War, the urbanization has not experienced as a dramatic change, after the Second WW years, the system was overturned by economic and social transformations.

1950s were the years that the most speed urbanization occurred. At that period mass migration movement from rural to urban areas began increase. Ratio of urban population between 1927-1980 in Turkey is shown in Figure 4.1.

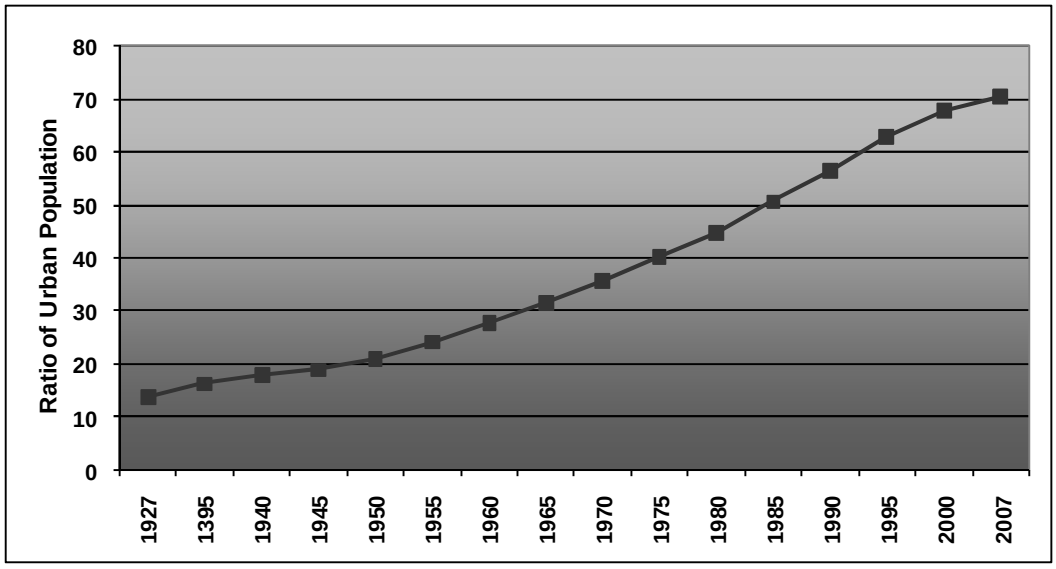

Figure 4.1: Ratio of urban population between 1927 and 2007 in Turkey
Source: Tekeli and Güvenç, 1986:16 and TSI, http://www.die.gov.tr/nufus_sayimi /2000Nufus_Kesin.htm, last accessed: March, 2006

One of the reasons of this migration was mechanization in agriculture which affected the agriculture sector in many ways. When the need for labour power decreased, workers in agricultural sectors became unemployed and started to migrate to urban areas. As a result, urban population began increase, which resulted in many problems in cities.

In addition to this, urbanisation showed differences in Turkey compared to developed countries. Instead of high income groups' movements to suburbs such

as in developed countries, lower income group of people who migrated from rural areas invaded the bound at the fringe first. The unauthorized housing started to be built by these migrates. One of the reasons of such a different development was unpredictable population increase because of rural-urban migration. After a while, Turkish cities were surrounded by squatter settlements named as “gecekondu”.

> Government under pressure from ever increasing population failed to provide serviced land for low income groups. There were not exist sufficient funds for this aim. The credit funds were channelled into productive sectors and whatever was allocated for housing was used by middle income groups. Government also failed to take the necessary measures to encourage private sector to share the problem. The private sector was functioning in a narrow area in the housing market producing luxurious housing for the upper income groups. The failure to provide cheap and developed land, the failure to prevent land speculation and soaring of land prices led the way to another unauthorized development on land beside the gecekondus, namely to hisseli tapu (shared deed) (Şenyapılı, 1996:52).

By spreading those unauthorized housing areas, inadequate infrastructure and urban services problem came into the agenda as urban problems.

The Amnesty Laws where put into practice in order to prevent negative impact of these problems and discourage the unauthorized housing in 1960s and 1980s. Unfortunately, it could not achieve its aim, on the contrary, land invasion and unauthorised housing increased after this law.

As the growth of unauthorised housing was continuing, authorised housing was growing in numbers, some of which was realised by cooperatives. Those who moved to suburban housing which was built by cooperatives were mostly civil servants who want to live further but can not afford to build or purchase housing in other ways. Urban sprawl was developing as an oil-spot in those cities by disregarding the voids and green areas. At that time, two important transformative laws put into practice. The first one was “Condominium Law[11]” which resulted in

[11] Kat Mülkiyeti Kanunu _Law No:634

emerging of small scale house builders named as “yap-satçı” and the other one was “Gecekondu Law[12]” which leads to increase small scale house builders more.

To sum up, especially in the era of 1950 and 1980 Turkey could not be able to reach to the ongoing trends in the western countries. While the industrialized countries were experiencing a comprehensive suburbanisation and decentralisation of retailing and industry, Turkey was staying inefficient in this type of suburban movement as explained above. Being as a newly industrializing country, it had to face with the industrialization problems and the subsequent mass migration. The only thing the authorities made against these problems was putting some laws into practice. Due to lack of monitoring systems, these laws could not achieve. In addition, according to Turel, there was not an efficient and sustainable housing finance system which led to first, moderate-middle income people own their dwellings by non-profit forms of provision, second, speculative house builders have developed peculiar ways of producing and marketing housing and by this way they meet enable their own capital requirements and also provide convenient conditions of payment to house-buyers (Türel, 1982, 2).

Therefore after 1950s, urban sprawl as an oil-spot form brought dualistic urban form to the Turkish cities: on the one side there was authorized house building at central locations and on the other side an illegally occupied urban fringe. By the expansion of “gecekondu” and new high-rise apartments and the urban problems increased because there were still inadequate urban services, deficient urban infrastructure and transportation facilities in those residential areas where people’s requirements could not be meet.

4.1.3. (Sub) urbanisation in Turkey after 1980: Increase of Spatial Differentiation

In the late 1970s, the economic crisis period, the compromise between the classes in sharing urban surplus was abolished. By the military coup of 1980, the intermediary position of the state ended, as this position was very crucial for the

[12] 775 Gecekondu Kanunu_Law No: 775 (inured in 1966)

surviving of lower income groups. Through the 1980s, privatisation came up and the state gave up its interagent role (Pınarcıoğlu and Işık, 2001:37). As a result, “less regulated” market conditions initiated competition different classes.

Turkey was also affected from this global economic trend and became a part of the global capitalist system. In this era, the government’s policies were oriented towards liberalisation and deregulation. As a result, income distribution worsened, the decrease in subsidies and social expenditures, decline in the real wages and also sudden increase in unemployment were the outcomes (Keyder and Öncü, 1993:19-20).

There was a shift from the urbanisation of the labour power to the urbanisation of capital realized in the early 1980s. The most impressionable group from this “urbanisation of capital” was the urban poor who became poorer in this era. Therefore, there had been a dramatical increase in the polarisation in the society. Such a competitive and unequal system created new groups with the fragmentation of the middle class.

The oil prices crisis after the mid-70s affected the Turkey economy like affected the whole world economies and as a result the stagnation became inevitable in Turkey economy. One of those industries that were affected from the crisis was housing. In 1980-1981 period as demand and supply were affected, housing starts dropped sharply (Türel, 1994:203).

In fact, a chain affect was constituted beginning from the oil price crisis. It increased the inflation rates and therefore housing sector earned the status of the most effected sector from this crisis. Because of unchanged interest rates with regard to increased inflation rates, institutions made severe losses as they were providing housing finance at fixed rates.The stabilization program in 1980 brought forth a decline in demand of housing. Bankruptcy was unavoidable for many house builders, especially the small capital ones as housing starts came down sharply at the beginning of the 80s.

The government intervention stayed limited only by creating a new finance system whose control was in the hand of the government also (Türel, 1994:205). And two major mass housing acts[13] were enacted. The first one was the 1st Mass Housing Law (No: 2487) by the military regime in 1981. This law empowered the Ministry of Reconstruction and Resettlement to develop the state-owned land and provide credit to house builders (Altaban, 1966:33, 34).

The institutions who obtained finance with regard to this law were cooperatives. However because of not being transferred required funds to the national budget, this system did not function. Therefore, 2nd Mass Housing Law (No: 2985) was introduced in 1984. The main difference this law with regards to the first one was that this law provided credits not only to cooperatives, but also to individuals and construction materials producers. Another distinction with regards to the first law was that there was no limit for the floor area of the dwelling for credit. Afterwards, the number of new housing starts increased in a very short period of time. This period was the boom period of housing cooperatives (Table 4.1)

Table 4.1: Distribution of housing cooperatives according to construction permits in Turkey

Years	*Total Number of Housing Units that get Construction permit(Toplam Ruhsat alan konut birimi)*	*Number of Housing Cooperatives that get Construction Permit*	*Ratio of Housing Cooperatives (%)*	*Collective Housing Credits of Collective Housing Fund*	*Collective Housing Fund-Newly Opened Credits (included individual credits)*
1975	181685	14005	7,71		
1976	224584	16643	7,41		
1977	216128	25142	11,63		
1978	237097	26049	10,99		
1979	251846	31437	12,48		
1980	203989	31538	15,46		

[13] 1st Mass Housing law (Law no:2487), 2nd Mass Housing Law (Law no:2985)

1981	144397	26904	18,63		
1982	160078	48518	30,31		
1983	169037	36841	21,79		
1984	189486	38426	20,28	142597	149947
1985	259187	76563	29,54	70015	87865
1986	392825	142779	36,35	138707	157776
1987	497674	163863	32,32	140813	157420
1988	473582	167514	35,37	29918	58883
1989	413004	131504	31,84	25947	29765
1990	381408	70730	18,54	113008	113039
1991	393000	77068	19,61	83272	83298
1992	472817	122694	25,95	24327	24811
1993	548130	136012	24,81	16746	17053
1994	523794	131780	25,16	30313	30574
1995	518236	111106	21,44	25709	26570

Source: TSI, Construction Permits Statistics

The reason of mentioning mainly cooperatives is that they played the innovator role in suburbanisation movement by mass housing projects in the outskirts of cities, Although the importance of housing cooperatives[14] were huge in the process, the participation of various stake holders such as cooperatives, Housing Development Administration Private Developers and the house building firm of Emlak Bank actualized the transition in the form of mass housing developments (Özüekren and Yirmibeşoğlu, 2002:97).

Anymore, the city went beyond its boundaries and new residential areas were expected to locate at the urban fringe with suitable services and cheap land for producers.

Unfortunately, due to changing Turkish economy, in other words not stable Turkish economy caused this system not to become sustainable. Therefore, the first Mass Housing Fund was in crisis in 1989 because it could not be possible to

[14] The housing cooperatives will be investigated more detail in the part 4.2

balance the credits with fixed rates with high inflation rates; in addition, accepted credit applications got over the system's capacity. Even some other measures for limiting the eligibility for credits were taken; they were of the Mass Housing Fund enough to get over the problem between 1989-91, seeing 30-50% of the income was transferred to the National Budget (Türel, 1989:153). Another Law which was enacted in 1984 by the government as an intervention was the Building Amnesty Law[15]. The aim of this law to legalizethe existing "gecekondu" buildings and prevent new ones to built with regard to previous amnesty acts and restructuring through urban projects.

> Development and Upgrading Law no: 2981 brought a concept that was different in essence from the laws issued before. The primary aim was no longer to authorize the existing ones and to prevent the construction of the new ones. It was to achieve a spatial transformation in the gecekondu areas changing them into apartment houses. Furthermore this transformation was to be rapid and at mass scale. Gecekondu population was encouraged by the government authorities to unite their parcels which would be legalized and multi-storey buildings would be constructed financed by the promised credits. It was expected that in time large construction and development companies would enter these areas to realize conversion to apartment houses in mass scale (Şenyapılı, 1996, 53).

By replacing gecekondu areas by apartments the density increased. Therefore, the infrastructure and urban services could not be adequate to people who live in those areas. Land speculations occurred and owners of gecekondu wanted more than one house in newly built area.

In summary, housing development transformed itself in 1980s. Important paces were taken in that period. To begin with, Mass Housing Fund and Building amnesty law generated important effects on urban sphere. First one was related to legal housing development and large scale housing projects at urban fringe while the second one was effective in unauthorized housing development and transformation of shanty houses into apartments. Nevermore, unplanned

[15] Law no:2981 and it is translated in Turkish as "İmar ve Gecekondu Mevzuatına Aykırı Yapılara Uygulanacak Bazı İşlemler ve 6785 sayılı İmar Kanunun Bir Maddesinin Değiştirilmesi Hakkında Kanun"

development brought the lack of urban services and infrastructure problems along with. Then, Turkey lived a different suburbanisation movement in comparison to developed countries and finally the change in household and house builder groups in the 80s was one of the most important chances of in 1980s. While small capital house builders had lived the golden age in pre-80s, after the mid-80s cooperatives were effective notably. In addition all those things, major household types change significantly. Previously, the urban fringe was involved by the domination of shanty houses and low-income groups, whereas by 1980's, high and middle income group of people have been choosing to locate in the outskirts of the city, "in suburbs". This type of movement corresponds with the western suburban movement, not previous ones.

After analysing the 1980s in terms of housing dimension now, it's useful to look in the perspective of urban policies which had been taken and transformation cities.

After1980s, urban policies oriented towards global trends and the form and social structure of the major cities were affected from this orientation. In between 1960-1980 which were marked by military coups, the new pattern was derived from inter-urban migration not rural-urban migration (Ertuna, 2003). Promoting private entrepreneurship and major cities to "catch up with" the conditions of global market were shown as reasons of this inter-urban migration era. In order to reach to global market conditions replaced public investment and subsidies by privatization.

The central business district (CBD) in European cities and Turkish cities has shown the similar types of transformation in that era. They were not centres of production anymore; instead decision making centres of finance and service sector (Tekeli, 1998:22).

While these transformations were coming up in the cities, the changes in the income levels were also coming into being. The ascending thing was not only the income gap between upper and lower classes, but also between different fractions

of the middle class gap was growing in that period (Kandiyoti, 2002:5).

Upper middle classes wanted to distinguish themselves from the other fractions of middle class by living in better environment in suburbs and satellite cities. The upper classes moved these suburbs but some of them to luxurious and secure homes that are called *gated communities*[16].

To summary, it can be said that, social differentiation results in urban differentiation which has increased significantly in the post-1980 era. The new allocation mechanism in surplus distribution brought about the new urban differentiation (Pınarcıoğlu and Işık 2001:30).

The suburban movement after 1990s will be discussed in the part of "Contemporary Sub (Urbanisation)" which comes hereafter.

4.1.4. Contemporary (Sub) Urbanisation

After 1990s, Turkish economy transformed to a neo-liberal period, one of the most important features of this period was privatization which came into prominence by globalization.

Since 1990s class relations were redefined and the middle class was divided because of the increased class polarisation. Enhanced capital showed its power in urban areas, as a result building large scale investments such as shopping malls, five star hotels and business centres. All above reasons make also major Turkish cities become the speculative profit making places (Şengül, 2001:89).

Housing is one of the most important sectors which make private sector powerful on and also one of the most important commodities which signify status for the new middle class. By the effect of the consumerist boom after 1980s, the middle classes' desires focussed on a lifestyle cleansed from poverty, immigrants,

[16] " Gated Communities" are isolated luxiorius residential areas of the wealthiest groups (Baycan Levent and Gülümser, 2004:11)

crowds, dirt and traffic. The housing market started to promise ideal homes around the city with cleaner air, water and healthy environment, homogeneous setting to the households experiencing a life those they saw in films mainly from the United States. As a result, new villa type residential areas with tennis courts, swimming pool, etc. were designed for the new upper-middle class. Anymore homes were not only "bedroom community" but also assured a complete lifestyle. The first of such a new trend was seen in the surrounding areas of Istanbul (Bartu, 2001:146).

The owners of these prestigious gated communities were mostly the famous businessmen, artists, journalists and bureaucrats. Unfortunately, the homogeneity could not be constituted between these neighbours who have paid some amount of money but were from different class backgrounds (Bali, 2002:119).

Needless to say that lower-middle class or middle class members did not have any chance to buy these prestige homes. For this, house builders and developers built different "community" lives for different middle class members having different budgets. As a result, "site[17] " life with cleaner environment and good quality life standards have become widespread among middle classes especially by 90s, even it was first seen since mid 70s. *Sites* have been quite common after the 1990s by the increase of spatial segregation and they played pioneering role in this segregation.

> The site is conceived as a community of equal, but unique and autonomous, individuals. The generalisable aspects are those that distinguish the middle classes from others, and the unique codes and styles are what separate them as individuals, families and status categories… In the suburb, conventions and proprieties are less rigid, and they are less imposed on individuals. Consequently, there is less community control in the site life. Such individuating and emancipating aspects of suburbia in the Turkish context contrast with the description of the suburb in the Western

[17] "Site" which can be translated to English as estate is a highly homogeneous and single-class residential area where work and industry and lower-income residences are decisively excluded and some of them includes shopping centres, recreational and sports complexes but primarily serving as residential (Ayata, 2002:303)

> literature as a place of standardisation, monotony and conformity (Ayata, 2002:37).

In this way, the new suburbs designed and described such as; “airy”, “light”, “refreshing”, “clean” and “orderly” for the middle class members who share similar aspects with garden city dwellers, but who have less purchasing power compared to the other upper-middle classes.

Istanbul was not only the place where the “site” life of middle class takes place, but also in Ankara, middle classes started to live in sites since the mid-70s, by the increase in private car ownership and enabling of Mass Housing Fund to developers for engaging in cooperative housing projects (Özyeğin, 2002:46).

In this period, private sector dominated and focused on housing production. The effects of globalization and state’s fiscal and political deficiencies played a significant role in the dominance of the private sector. The number of housing starts in that period according to different sectors is shown in Figure 4.2. The contribution of the public sector to housing production as mentioned above can be seen from these figures.

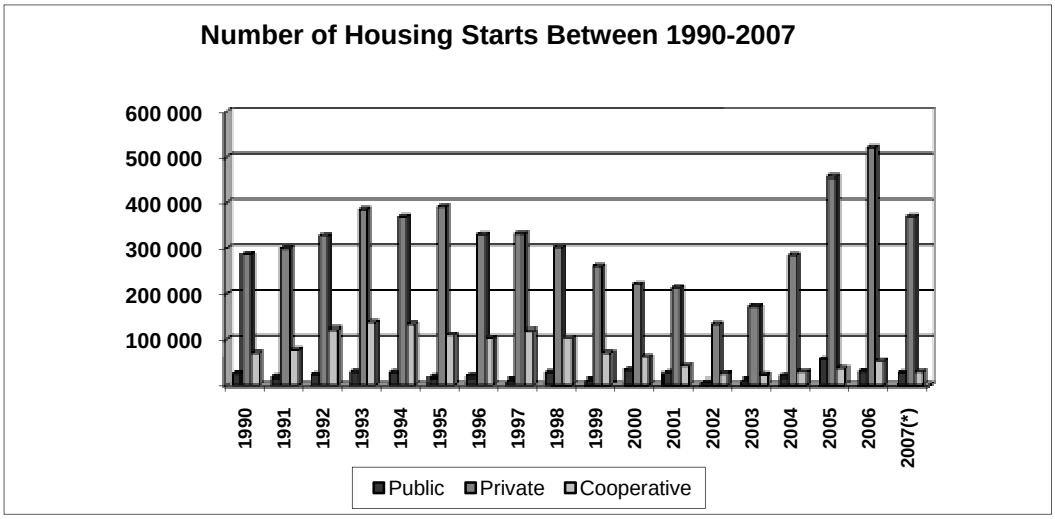

Figure 4.2: Total number of dwelling units for which construction permit is issued by sector completed or partially completed new buildings and dwelling unit by sector
Source: TSI, last accessed: March, 2008
(*)First 9 months are included

The period by 1990s has not been only the period where housing transformations started, but also comprehensive transformations in other sectors such as transformation in socio-economic and cultural spheres[18] have been experienced. Therefore, the effects of globalisation on urban space have shown itself with all these transformations mentioned above while the sharpness of social fragmentation increased in urban areas in time.

By the 1990s, another important development is the rise of "gated communities". *Gated Communities* defining as the luxurious residential areas of the affluent group of people and they are the ultimate form of *site* concept. In residential level, private gated communities of upper middle classes called according to Öncü (1997:64) "the garden city", Kurtuluş (2003a:92) "the welfare enclave" and Bartu (2001:148) "the prestige community". Istanbul Kemer Country and Alkent 2000 can be given as examples of these communities. The ideological and socio-cultural polarisations reflected in the contemporary gated communities in Istanbul. The common features of gated communities in Istanbul are being near to the forest, lake or the sea and away from lower classes. Easy access by residents, also having security guards, walls, gate and electronic surveillance systems, being designated by prestigious design architects, having recreational spaces, rich socio-cultural facilities and lastly of lower classes are eliminated from these areas automatically due to their prices (Kurtuluş,2003a:93).

The private gated communities have also been adapted to the urban life of Ankara. Çamlık Sitesi, Beysukent and Angora Evleri are the examples of the gated communities in Ankara. Actually in Ankara, the exodus of upper classes to suburbs along the Eskişehir Highway demonstrates the spatial differentiation and it is also an indicator of Ankara as a decentralised city (Bota, 2001:57).

Hence, gated communities gave rise to a spatial segregation and separation of the high-income groups, at the same time these communities created the reorder of public and private space conflict.

[18]Those of cultural spheres contain the increasing telecom opportunities, development of information technologies and transformation from industrial production to service sector.

4.1.5. The Composition of Housing Supply in Turkey by the end of 1990s with regard to Construction and Occupancy Permits

The way to understand the current situation of housing supply in Turkey is to put some facts about the existing stock according to construction and occupancy permits in accordance to building attributes and house builder characteristics. In order to make these analyses, the recent Building Census, 2000 of the Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI) is a very useful source.

4.1.5.1. Housing Production in the Last Decade

Before all else, the increase in the ratio of urban population has exceed the increase in the ratio of total population. At the present day, almost 71% of population live in urban areas in Turkey as it's shown in Table 4.2. On the other hand, during the 1984-2000 periods according to Building Censuses, there has been a notable increase both in the total number of residential and mostly residential buildings and also the number of dwelling units (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2: Population change in Turkey in the 1990-2007 period

	Population in 1990	***Population in 2000***	***Population in 2007***	***% of population Increase in 1990-2007 period***
Turkey	56 473 035	67803927	70 586 256	**25%**
Turkey-Urban	33 326 351	44006274	49 747 859	**49%**
% of Urban Population	**% 59**	**%65**	**%70,5**	

Source: TSI, last accessed: March, 2008,http://www.belgenet.com/arsiv/nufus.html

Table 4.3: The increase in the number of residential buildings and the dwelling units in Turkey between 1984 and 2000

Years	***The number of residential buildings***	***% Change***	***The number of dwelling units***	***% Change***
1984	3 841 609	75 %	7 096 277	77%
2000	6 735 813		16 235 830	

Source: TSI, 2001: 7, 8

While these increases continue both in the number of population and also in the number of building and dwelling units in 1990-2007 period, the two important economic crises in 1994 and 2001 have effected the overall economy in a bad way, whereupon, the GDP growth fell sharply in those years due to 1994 and 2001 crises (Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4).

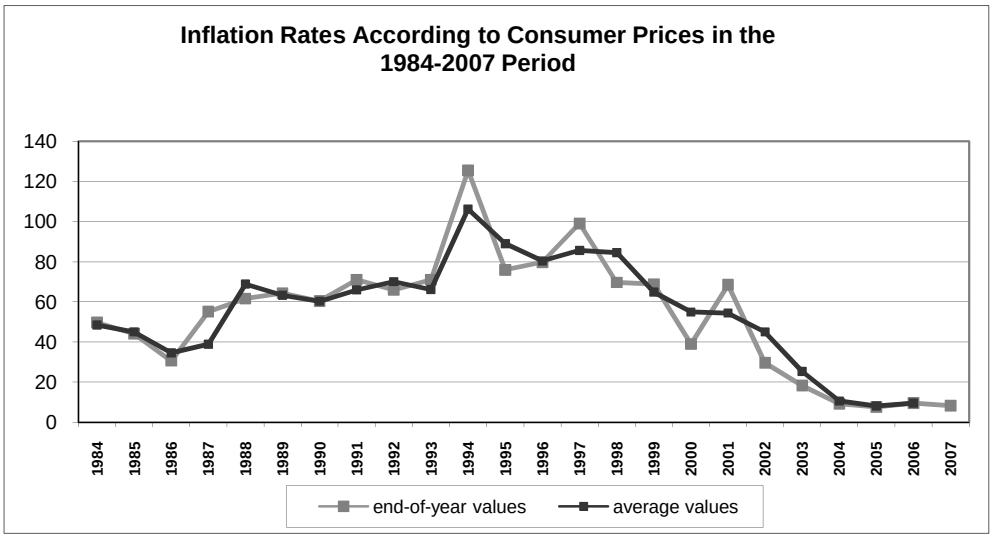

Figure 4.3: Inflation rates (%) in the 1984-2007 period
Source: TSI

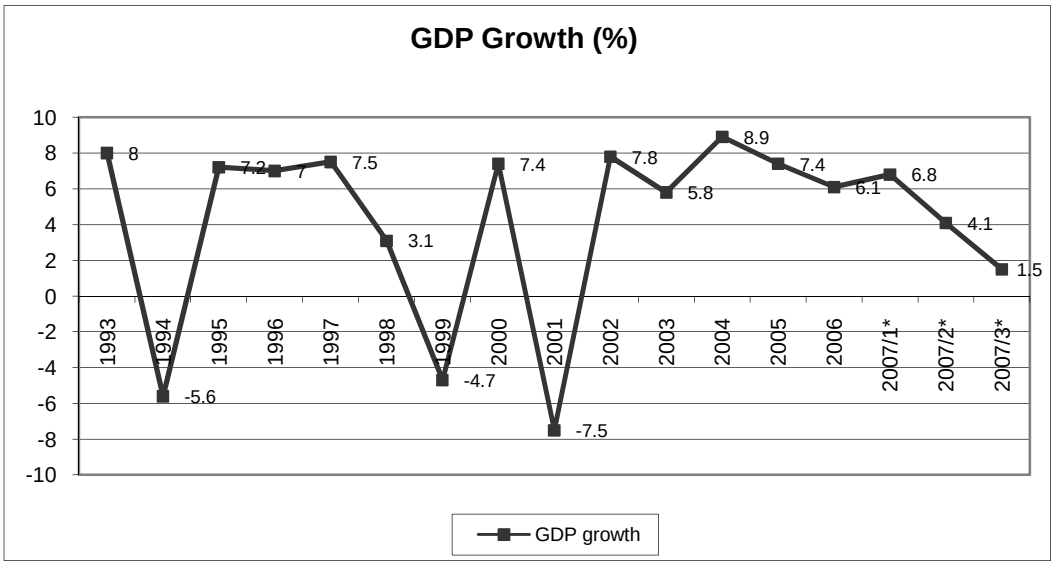

Figure 4.4: GDP growth (%)
Source: Türkiye'de Dünya Bankası, 1993-2004, 2005:2
(*)First 9 months are included

As a result of these crises, there have been fluctuations in housing production. This fluctuation started in 1994 and reached its bottom level in 2002. After that date, housing production has begun to increase and a recovery period has shown itself as a result of the government interventions (Figure 4.5).

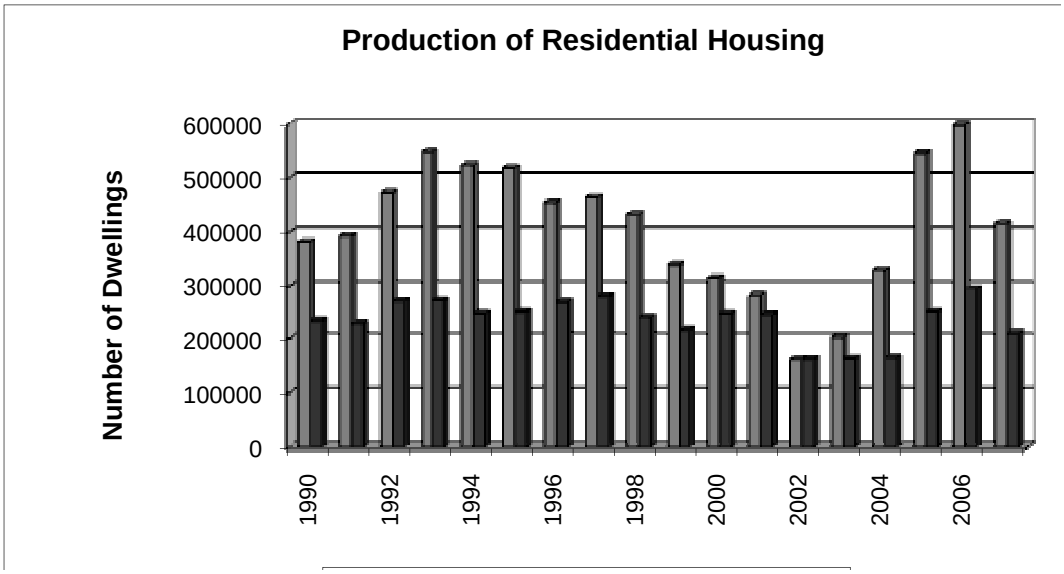

Figure 4.5: Production of residential housing according to the construction and Occupancy permits
Source: TSI
(*)First 9 months are included

4.1.5.2. Construction and Occupancy Permits Analyses

In this part, the housing supply within the context of construction and occupancy permits and also, building ownership in Turkey will be analysed in greater detail.

According to Figure 4.6, until 1994, the number of dwelling units increased, in 1993 the number of dwelling units has gone beyond 500 000 and then it has started to decrease. The effects of the 2001 economic crisis were seen after the year of 2001. The number of dwelling units has reached the lowest value with 100 000 dwelling units in 2002. After 2002, the housing production has begun to increase once again. This increase continued and reached its top level in 2006. The housing production in 2006 reached to the highest value since 1990.

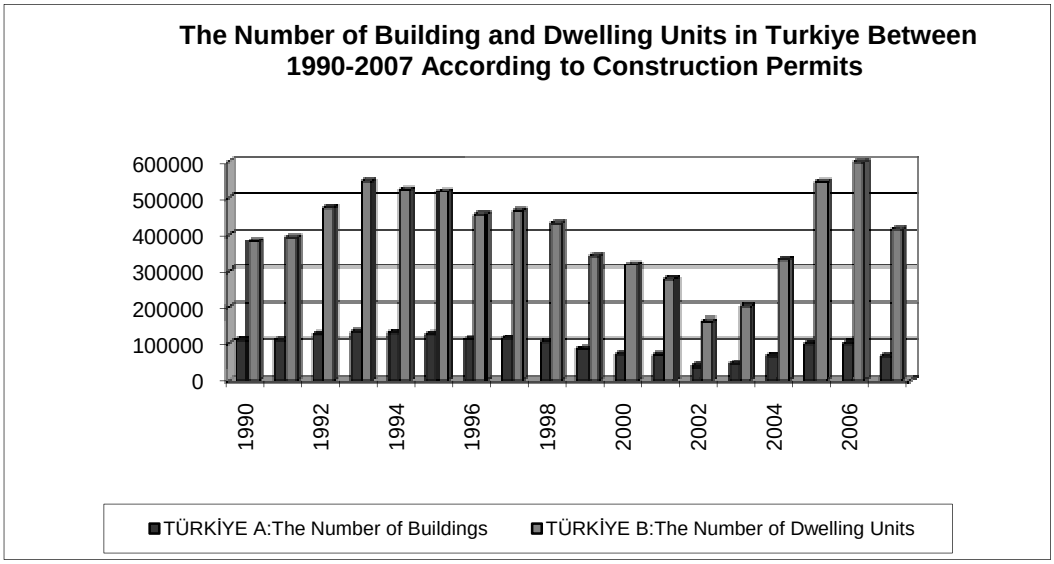

Figure 4.6: Housing production according to construction permits
Source: TSI
(*)First 9 months are included

Figure 4.7 indicates the share of building ownership status in the years between 1990-2007. The dominance of the private sector can be seen from this figure. Especially after 2001 the economic crises, the rise of private sector began in 1980s and reached its top level in 2000.

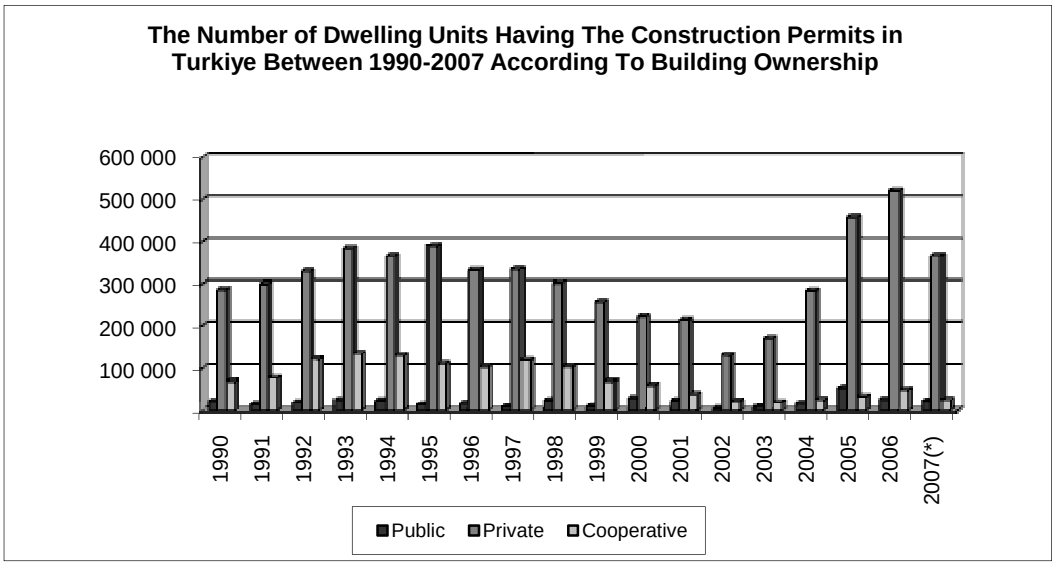

Figure 4.7: The number of dwelling units according to building ownership in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

When looked at the share of public sector in Figure 4.8, it affected the housing production in 2000 and 2001 years, after 2001 economic crises, the impact of public institutions decreased, but in 2005 it increased again especially by HDA houses. The highest ratio of the public sector share in 2005 was only 10%. The number of dwelling units built by the private sector in 2006 was the highest since the dwelling units over 500 000 were began to be built for the first time by the private sector in that year since 1990.

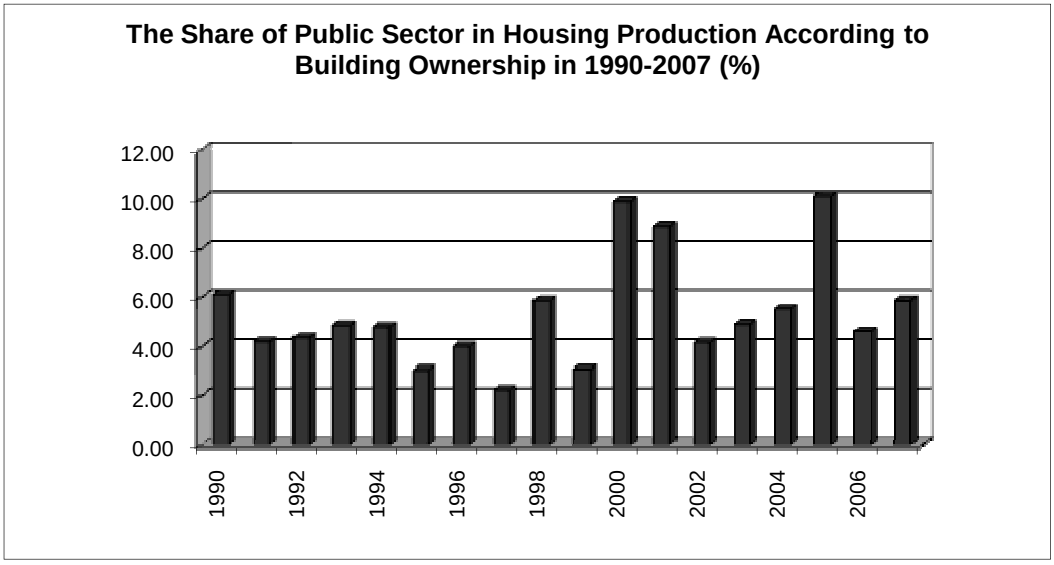

Figure 4.8: The share of public sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI

The share of the private sector was between 60% and 90% in the 1990-2007 period. The lowest period of the private sector (60 %) was between the years of 1992-1994 period. After that date, although there was a fluctuation in housing production of the private sector, it has never fallen under 60%. The 2001 crisis did not also affect the private sector so much, the increase continued in the years following the 2001 crisis (Figure 4.9).

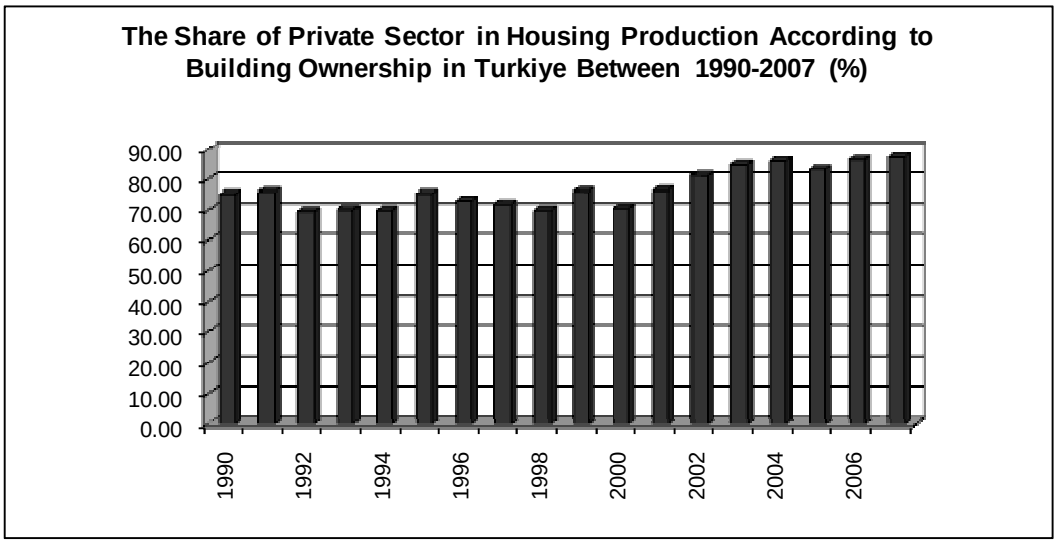

Figure 4.9: The share of private sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI

The third type of producer is cooperatives. In the 1992-1998 period, the share of cooperatives remained between 20% and 25%, and these were the highest values for cooperatives after 1990 until nowadays. After 1998, the decrease perpetuated its fall until the 2001 economic crises. After 2001, the downfall continued and the ratio of cooperatives has reached its bottom level in 2005 with a percentage of just over 5. There has been a little increase in 2006, but this was not be a promising growth for cooperatives, compared to the glorious years of 1980s (Figure 4.10).

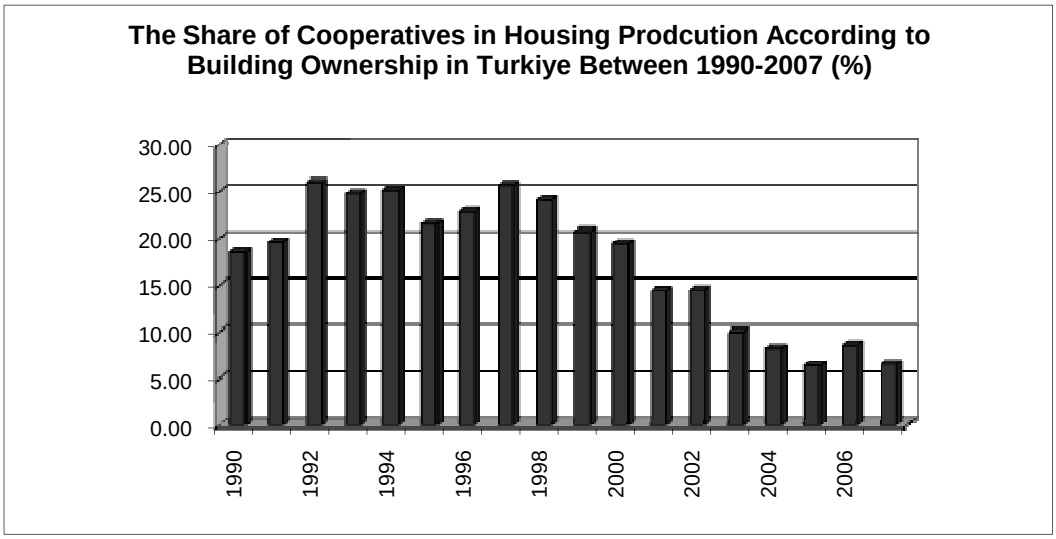

Figure 4.10: The share of cooperatives in 1990-2007
Source: TSI

4.1.6. Concluding Remarks

The whole transformation activities and changes in social and economical perspective of Turkey have had an important impact on urban patterns. It can be said that Turkey's urbanisation movement started with the proclamation of the Republic. Population increase and migration from rural to urban lead to the invasion of the urban fringe by those migrants. Such an urban sprawl, Turkey has a different transformation movement to urban fringe compared to the western world.

Through the 1980s housing cooperatives reached the best times and Mass Housing Fund and Amnesty Laws made crucial impacts on urban areas. First Mass Housing Fund was effective in the legal housing development; however the second one was influential in unauthorized housing transformation. One of the other most considerable changes of 1980s, the major household type changed notably. High and middle income households started to move to the fringe during that decade.

At the end of 1980s, high-rise blocks and further expansion of unauthorized houses surrounded the city. Long term housing credits with low interest rates have encouraged individuals to have a dwelling.

To sum up, political and economic factors have always been influential on urbanisation in Turkey. As a result of migrations from rural to urban, the macro form of city has changed. Urban transformation of Turkish cities has taken a different form than developed cities. Such a different development brought some problems along with it such as unauthorized housing, inefficient urban services, inadequate urban infrastructure and congestion, etc.

In this part, the Housing Development in Turkey within the context of suburbanisation was examined between 1923-1980, and then suburbanisation period in Turkey after 1980 in terms of increasing spatial differentiation and lastly

contemporary suburbanisation after 1990s was clarified within a historical framework. The next section will focus on the Housing Provision in Turkey.

4.2. Types of Housing Provision in Turkey

The housing provision types in a society are determined according to the some factors such as land ownership, development in land values, and rate of urbanisation, features of entrepreneurs in the housing sector, improvements in a building material industry, policies of the state to this sector.

Housing provision in Turkey went through many transformations from 1930s to the present, and has increased in variety by time.

The first criteria used which differentiate housing provision types from another are how the functions will be shared in between owners of housing, the entrepreneur and the state. The second one is how the implementation of these functions will be distributed in time (Tekeli,1982:61). According to Tekeli, housing provision could be divided into seven types; individual housing provision, building cooperatives' housing provision, developers' housing provision (yapsatci and large-capital builders), mass housing corporations' provision, building cooperative associations' and local administrations' housing provision, individual squatter housing provision, semi-organized squatter housing provision (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Types of housing provision in Turkey

The Housing Types Serving to Planned- Areas	**1**. Individual Housing Provision **2.** Building Cooperatives' Housing Provision **3.** Developers' Housing Provision (Yap-satçı and large-capital builders) **4.** Mass Housing Corporations' Provision **5.** Building Cooperative Associations' and Local Administrations' Housing Provision
The Housing Types Serving to Unauthorized Settlements	**6.** Individual Squatter Provision **7.** Semi-organized Squatter Provision

Source: Tekeli, 1982:61-88

Apart from these, there are also the central government housing provision such as TOKI and Emlakbank houses. They have also produced housing to meet the housing demand. These two types of housing provision will be investigated in the second part of this chapter.

4.2.1. Individual Housing Provision

While starting to investigate all housing provision type in Turkey beginning from the urbanisation, the first housing provision type is "Individual Housing Provision". This is the first housing provision type in history of Turkish urbanisation movement, the other types of housing provision aroused from the point that individual housing provision has been insufficient.

In 1930s the only housing provision type was individual one. Due to low speed urbanization, urban land was not gaining much speculative value and lower land cost in housing cost, adequate amount of urban land parallel to urbanization rate could be developed.

The function of the local governments here is not to join to the housing provision but to control this process. Thence, the local government would make the development plan of the city, provide the urban infrastructure with the assistance of the sources taken from house builders and control the compatibility of the housing built to structure the rules. In 1930s, Turkey gives this function to the Local Government in the production of housing.

In this type of housing provision, the majority of the functions such as providing land, financing of hiring architect for the house plan, obtaining permission from the local governments, hiring the persons to build the house, managing the maintenance and operation of completed houses were made by the house builder or the house owner. In 1930s, housing projects designed by architects used to be built by small entrepreneurs or sub-contractor.

It can be said that this type of housing provision was very expensive and duration

building was considerably long. In the process of individual housing provision, the efficiency of the administration was not good. Local governments did not produce the infrastructure in time and plans had no chance to guide this form of house building either.

The new housing provision types that came after individual housing provision were the building cooperatives and "gecekondu" housing provision. Hereafter, the housing provision of building cooperatives will be investigated, the "gecekondu" process and the rise of gecekondu as an urban problem will be discussed in the next part (Tekeli, 1981:63-66).

4.2.2. Building Cooperatives' Housing Provision

There are two different stages to built house by the hand of building cooperatives. The first stage started from the beginning of the mid-1930s and kept on extensively throughout Turkey until the mid 1950s.

In the mid-1930s, the value of the planned land increased rapidly and there was not any opportunity for middle income groups to build their houses on the one-single parcel. Since the condominium ownership was not institutionalized, the high-grade bureaucrats could overcome these obstacles by other ways. They established first the Bahçelievler Building Cooperative. They obtained land at a low-price because the land was not planned. By coming together the powerful part of the middle-classes, it was easy to overcome land ownership problem and also to get credit from the Emlak and Eytam Bank which was a state bank.

First widespread of this phenomenon took place in Ankara, after 1950 it became prevalent in all country because of increasing urbanisation rate in all Turkish cities. Those cooperatives tended to provide housing to the middle or upper-middle classes.

The planned period composed the second stage of the housing provision by the hand of building cooperatives after 1960s. The condominium law was

empowered in that period. The Social Security Organization discontinued to give out the social insurance housing funds by the mediation of Emlak Credit Bank, started to give credits with their own organization and only to the housing cooperatives. In fact, the people who especially got benefit from this housing provision type were the middle income groups and top-level workers.

Cooperatives are the most important features of this type of housing provision. It makes the people come together, organizes the demand and by this way, it provides opportunities for a larger scale housing provision.

The functions that entrepreneurs committed were very similar to the individual provision. However, due to the organization of the house-buyers, the scale of the demand had changed. The scale of the production and specializing of the entrepreneurs enabled to use more improved construction technology compared to the individual production.

This type of housing provision is appropriate to built apartments in the developed area of the city and mass houses in the areas which will be open to the development.

Besides, as the building cooperatives' housing provision process were encouraged mainly by the credit mechanism and this credit mechanism are used by the organized segment of the society, the other housing provision types had come into being concurrently. As a matter of fact, *Yap-satçılık* aroused as the other housing provision in Turkey (Tekeli, 1981:66-70).

4.2.3. Developers' Housing Provision (Yap-satçı)

The "Yap-Satçı" Housing Provision became widespread towards to the end of 1950s in Turkey.

> Small-capital house builders who are called "yap-satçı" in Turkey, meaning builder and seller, produce multi-story apartment housing usually on single plots of land (Turel, 1998: 3).

The conditions providing Yap-Satçı housing provision to become prevalent were the same with the building cooperatives housing provision's. These conditions were disappearing of the possibility of middle income classes to build house on a single parcel because of the increasing value in urban lands as a result of rapid urbanisation and the Law on condominium ownership which provide middle income classes to share the payment for the land. The "münferid kredi" which was given to house-buyers by Emlak Credit Bank made also widespread this type of housing provision in Turkey.

The most important agent of becoming widespread of the "yap-satçı" housing provision was not the house-buyers, it was the small scale house builder named as "yap-satçı". The "yap-satçı" makes all the functions from provision of land to planning, marketing and implementing stage of building housing.

Because of this, it is useful to know well the "yap-satçı" first of all. The large scale house builders was not interested in housing sector in that period since the circulation speed of the capital and the profitability of large capital per capital unit were low as to the other enterprise alternatives. Therefore, housing sector was devolved to the small scale house builder with their limited capital facilities.

> Yap-satçı produces multi-story apartment housing usually on single plots of land. Land is not generally purchased in cash, due to shortage of capital, but a deal is made between the land owner and the yap-satçı concerning the number of dwelling units that will be left to the land owner as the payment for land. By acquiring land in this way yap-satçı saves in operating capital, but has to accept the terms of the land owner. Production cost of housing by yap-satçı has increased continuously due to rising share of land-owners in the total cost. Yap-satçı also relies on advance payments of the buyers of housing that he produce in order to fill his operating capital deficit. Dwelling units to be produced are put on sale as soon as construction begins, by offering convenient conditions of payment, stretching over the years. The more houses that a yap-satçı sells during the construction, the less chance that he will have of making speculative profit (Turel, 1998: 4).

The small scale house builders come from two different origins. The first group is architects and engineers who enterprise to yap-satçılık by combining their skills with their limited capitals. The second ones are rising from the ranks of builders to the yap-satçılık after an obvious capital accumulation. If they prosper in this sector, they would attend another sphere of business.

In the organization of capital in this sector, yap-satçı is not the owner of land; he builds on another person's land. This land could be either an empty land in the city or it could be obtained by pulling down the old house on a parcel which gained value. The yap-satçı obtained the building right from the agreement with the landowner. Such an arrangement provided three profits to the small scale house builder. Firstly, he did not invest capital for the land; secondly, the land value was paid out by housing producer and finally he created demand in the beginning for houses which will be produced. If the land is in the most valuable district of the city, the yap-satçı has to give up to 60% of the houses to the landowner. According to the locations of the land, this ratio would decrease.

The yap-satçı starts to build by selling some parts of the houses on his share. He could take the commercial credit by the mediation of building material company. The yap-satçı prefers to sell the houses when the construction is finished, because later he sell the houses, more he would make profit.

The yap-satçı process produces the houses for the middle or upper middle class in the market mechanism. Therefore the medium or large size houses are produced.

At the end, it is useful to mention that this type of provision would stay at the apartment level and it could not go beyond the small scale house builders. Thence it is close to the improved technological implementations and it has a considerably insensible process.

The process of yap-satçılık accomplished the "demolish and build" process in the old prestige areas of the city to a large extent in the second part of the 1970s. Local governments did not develop sufficient land by making the development

plans and bringing the infrastructure. Therefore private sector tended to built at the outskirts of cities, mostly by large capital firms. Because of the reasons mentioned above and also the rapid inflation, the mass housing companies came to the agenda to build the large scale houses. Hereafter, this type of housing provision will be investigated in detail (Tekeli, 1981:71-75, Turel 1998: 3-5).

4.2.4. Mass Housing Corporations' Production

In this type of housing provision, Mass Housing Construction Firms are highly developed in their functions compared to yap-satci housing provision. This time the volume of the work is so large. The capital of the firms is often relatively smaller than the volume of investment that is necessary for the whole enterprise. Thence, this type of housing provision depends on the funds which will be composed of the capital accumulation and taken credits of the house-buyers and also channelezing these funds properly in accordance to the work program.

In this type of housing provision, the change of the entrepreneurs' quality will be analysed in four different parts. First, the ownership of the land belongs to the entrepreneur. In this way, conflicts in the relationship between landowner and yap-satci are solved. The entrepreneur acquires an agricultural land at the outskirts of the city at the beginning of this process. The value increase of this land belongs to the entrepreneur. As a result all functions such as making development plan of this area, taking decision of opening to development, bringing most of the urban infrastructure have to be made by the entrepreneur.

> Large capital house builders are less engaged in speculative house building, compared to their contractual undertakings. Contrary to small-capital house builders who built housing mostly on single plots within planned boundaries of cities, large capital house builders develop large tracts of unplanned land as speculative ventures. Large capital house builders determine their annual output levels on the basis of the marketing prospects of the houses that they build for the people who are not dependent on mortgage credit (Turel, 1998:1-7).

It’s only possible to make all these functions economic if the development area is sufficiently large so many houses can be produced. This is the second difference of this housing provision as to yap-satci housing provision. The industrialised construction technologies are used instead of traditional techniques and materials in this provision. This transformation in construction techniques do not provide an important decline in building cost to entrepreneurs, but it enables regular and inspectable building yard organization and also to produce houses more rapidly.

The third differentiation of this housing provision is the scale. To make such a large scale projects depends on large amount of demand. Moreover, entrepreneurs have to diversify the provision to different parts of the society in order to reach to higher demand.

The fourth difference of this housing provision is that there is a new developed area outside the city to settlement. While yap-satci produces houses in existing settlements, the entrepreneurs of Mass Housing establishes a new life space in a new area.

In this type of housing provision, the functions of local governments declined, the only function of the local governments is issuing construction and occupancy permits and construction supervision.

The mass housing production tends to be mostly in the type of apartments in Turkey. However, the company could produce low-rise and single-houses according to demands. The industrial production caused the construction materials become standardize in this provision. In the process of this type of housing provision, it’s possible to produce cheaper and larger amount of houses.

4.2.5. Building Cooperative Associations’ and Local Administrations’ Housing Production

In the second half of the 1970s, Building Cooperative Associations’ and Local Administrations’ Housing Production started to develope.

The victory of social democrat mayors in Municipality Election in 1973 was effective in appearing this type of housing provision. The lower income groups could not get benefit from the housing production by housing cooperatives. Although they had the right of benefit from the Social Security Fund, they choose to build shanty houses because they could not get finance from these funds. The new municipalities organized Mass House Building actively because they believe that one of the aims of them was to provide houses for lower income groups. Thence, this type of housing provision developed in the leadership of local governments.

> Non-profit housing provision in general and house building by cooperatives in particular have increased substantially in 1980's. Cooperative housing starts totalling 750 thousand units between the years 1985 and 1990 provided unprecedented amount of contract works for construction firms (Turel, 1998: 3).

In this type of housing provision, local government take the leadership at the beginning, after the housing process becomes mature, it is revolved to the direction of the Building Cooperatives' Associations.

The function of the Local Government is development and subdivision plan preparation fort he Project area and trying to organize the groups of people who demand house. Local governments organized people according to their capacity of repaying credits and affordability of paying for their cooperatives which are organised under Cooperatives Associations.

Cooperatives Associations have two important features. Firstly, many of house buyers are gathered in one cooperative. This causes some problems such as operability of the cooperative and also joining of the house buyer in different time to the cooperative. Secondly, the survival of the Cooperative Associations does not depend on one cooperative that is to say after one cooperative finished their houses, the Cooperative Associations carry on their functions.

After the Cooperative Associations are established, local governments revolve its work to the associations. Associations make housing and infrastructure plans,

market land and houses to cooperatives arrange the relationship between the house buyers and credits institutions, eventuates the initiate building of the dwelling, and provides conditions for operating the new settlement with housing cooperatives. Cooperative Associations get services from private planning offices, middle or large scale builders while affecting these functions or it could make these functions on their own or could organize together with the private entrepreneurs.

The quality of houses in this provision is similar to the houses produced by mass housing firms. The only difference between them is that this housing provision tends to produce houses for lower income groups of the society as a result the produced houses are a bit smaller than usual and more economic materials are used (Tekeli, 1981:7982).

4.2.6. Individual Squatter Provision (Gecekondu)

Until now, it's analysed how the housing provision developed in the planned parts of Turkish cities. On the one hand, the large amount of unauthorized settlements was created since the housing provision types did not meet the demand of the whole society. This part is aim to investigate unauthorized house building.

The first developed "gecekondu" housing provision was the "individual squatter provision". In the previous parts, the individual housing provision was investigated. The individual housing provision was inadequate especially by 1950s, even for the middle income groups of people. This insufficiency causes people who migrate from rural to urban build their own squatter housing.

The reason why these residents did not choose the "individual housing provision" is that the individual housing provision is expensive for the slum resident and it is necessary to have a high amount of money accumulation even in the beginning. On the other hand, in order to build a house it's necessary to get a plan and take construction and occupation permits, which cost high for lower income groups.

The gecekondu owner uses the labour of himself and his family at the beginning of gecekondu building process. However, it's needed to have a specialized craftsmen labour as well. The craftsmen labour gains importance when gecekondu provision gets institutionalized by time. In the advanced stages, specialized sub-contractors appear in gecekondu building.

In the process of this housing provision, the gecekondu builder has to find land at first. In the first years, the areas found by the slum residents were in the public ownership. After a while, they started to pay a share to magic type groups who control these places in order to build housing in the public ownership. Therefore the gecekondu owners started to build these illegalized shanty houses in the shared deed areas.

The owner of gecekondu would try to legalize their squatter house and get benefit from the infrastructure facilities. After the number of squatter houses in the settlement reaches a certain size to create a pressure group, the local government would start to provide some infrastructure. The only thing that the central government would contribute to this process is regularization of these houses.

Squatter houses are usually enlarged horizontally, but after a while, vertical adding appears especially in the old squatter areas as a result squatter houses turn into apartments.

4.2.7. Semi-Organized Squatter Provision (Yarı-örgütlenmiş Gecekondu)

By the passage of time, another type of squatter housing provision emerged. The market mechanism started to work up in the slum areas of the city. New migrants coming to the city could not find a public land to invade on their own anymore. It's necessary to pay some amount of money to certain people in order to have land. Anymore, gecekondu was not being built only by the people to live in, but it was built for selling to other people.

Squatter housing provision process undergoes a significant change as a result of all these developments. This process was named as “semi-organized gecekondu housing provision”. There are some reasons to call this process as semi-organized housing provision. Firstly, it’s necessary to built houses in regular organization of house building. However gecekondu is built out of this regulatory framework, so it’s not possible to have an organization. Nevertheless, it can not be said that there has no organization in the gecekondu areas; there is the existence of a semi-organized area.

In order to own a house in such an area, there are two alternatives. The first one is being a gecekondu builder; second one is buying a house from the gecekondu market. Gecekondu residents obtain land after paying compensation. This compensation is paid to different people. If the gecekondu was built on a public land, it’s necessary to pay the money according to market value to a strong person in a magic type organization. It may be an unauthorized subdivided parcel. In that case a real estate agent or landowner gets the money.

The people who control the land do not only give over the land to the gecekondu builder but make the other services such as accelerating to bring the local governments’ infrastructural facilities and undertaking the protection of the land. In a primitive way, they also make planning (Tekeli, 1981:82-89).

4.2.8. Central Government Housing Provision

Other housing provision type which is made by public institutions is Central Government Housing Provision. Emlak Bank and HDA houses (Housing Development Administration) can be given as examples of this type of housing provision.

4.2.8.1. The Role of Emlakbank in Housing Provision in Turkey

Emlak Bank was established on July 3 1926 in order to support the public building initiations in Turkey, to provide necessary housing credits and save the

orphan rights in accordance with Ataturk's directions under the name of "Emlak and Eytam Bankası".

The first capital was 20 million TL and the first Office and agency of the bank was established in Ankara. The most distinguishing feature of the bank from the other banks was that it was a bank which gives the loan money in return to the real-estate mortgage. The bank maintained works until 1946. The most important project of that period was "the Saraçoğlu Neighbourhood with 434 houses", which was completed in 1946. However, the services were becoming insufficient for the booming Turkey. So as to restructure the bank, "Türkiye Emlak Kredi Bankası Anonim Ortaklığı" was established in September 1946 with the capital of 110 million TL.

The paid capital of the bank increased 300 million TL in 1953. The bank worked properly until 1988. In the period of passing 42 years, the bank played the pioneer role both in housing and commercial banking. The bank superseded in the sector by the contemporary houses, the housing and commercial credits and all banking services. The most important applications made by the bank until 1988 were Ankara-Yenimahalle, Ankara-Telsizler, Istanbul-Levent, Istanbul-Koşuyolu, Istanbul-Emekli Subay Evleri, Istanbul-Ataköy, Izmir-Denizbostanlısı, Edirne-Mimar Sinan, Eskişehir-Yunuskent, Urfa, Çankırı and Diyarbakır. In addition, the bank also built the Ankara Türk Ocakları Central Building, The Building of Merkez Bank, Ankara Devlet Opera ve Balesi, The houses of Milli Savunma Bakanlığı, TRT Sitesi, Devlet Mahalleleri, and TBMM Public Houses in the same period without its own buildings.

At the end of 1987 the bank had 307 bank offices. On January 1988 the bank united with the Anadolu Bank. By the unification of these two banks Turkiye Emlak Bank was created.

In the years between 1995-1998, the bank executed the projects such as Istanbul-Ataköy, Ataşehir, Bahçeşehir, Mimaroba, Sinanoba, Ankara-Bilkent, Elvankent, Konutkent, Izmir-Gaziemir, and Mavişehir.

In accordance with date of 3 April 2001 and 2001/2002 cabinet decision, all property holdings and the shares and commercial real estates of Emlakbank without the banking services was handed over to HDA, the protocol was signed in 14 December 2001.

4.2.8.2. The Role of Housing Development Administration (HDA) in Housing Provision in Turkey

As a result of rapid population increase and urbanisation, in order to meet the need of housing, the first Mass Housing Law (law no: 2487) was enacted in 1981 to create new finance opportunities to different income groups. Within the framework of the second Mass Housing Law (law no: 2985) was enacted in 1984, the existent fund was distinguished from the budget. In order to get the fund, Housing Development Administration of Turkey[19] (HDA) was established.

Since the Mass Housing and Public Participation Administration had two different functions, HDA transformed into a different formation with the enactment of the law no 412 in 1990. The resources needed for housing projects were obtained from the Mass Housing Fund until 1993. In 1993, by combining the Mass Housing Fund with the General Budget, HDA started to use credit paybacks, sales revenue of the real estates and government subsidies as resources. Then, the Fund was abrogated completely in 2001.

At the present day, HDA revenues composed of transfers from the National Budget, revenues of real-estate selling and renting, credit repayments and global charges which are taken from people going abroad since 2005 by the legal arrangement.

HDA rustling as adherent to Prime Ministry had adherent to the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement in November 2002, however in January 2004 it had adherent to the Prime Ministry again.

[19] Toplu Konut İdaresi (TOKİ) Housing Development Administration (HDA)

In accordance with date of 3 April 2001 and 2001/2002 cabinet decision, all property holdings and the shares and commercial real estates of Emlakbank had handed over to the HDA and the protocol had been signed in 14 December 2001.

HDA was authorized by making plans in every scale in the area within the conscious of not corrupting the integrity environment and development of the area. The other authorities of HDA is making socialization the areas and undertaking the unauthorized settlements transformation projects. By cancelling the Law no 25671[20] on 15 December 2004, the "Land Office" was made a department of HDA.

All these authorizations show The Housing Development Administration of Turkey is the most authorized public formation in housing sector (TOKI, 2006).

The housing provision types of TOKI can be categorized under seven groups, these are;

1. The Housing Production Project in the TOKI Land to the Low and Middle Income Groups
2. The Urban Transformation Project; The Slum Area Transformation Project and The Urban transformation Project aim at improving the Traditional and Historical Housing Stock
3. The Mass Housing Project executed in Disaster Areas
4. The Projects aim at compose the resources to the Public Housing Project Proceeds and Profit Sharing Project ; Ankara- Eryaman 8. and 9. Stage Project
5. Eco-village Applications, Migrant Houses
6. Land Production Project
7. The Credits Applications to the Individuals, Cooperatives and Municipalities

[20] Arsa Ofisi Kanunu ve Toplu Konut Kanunu'nda Değişiklik yapılması ile Arsa ofisi'nin kaldırılması hakkında Kanun

In Figure 4.5, the share of houses produced by HDA in housing production[21] between 1984-2005 period is shown.

Table 4.5: The share of HDA in housing production

Years	*Total number of houses as to Construction Permit*	*Number of houses produced by HDA as to Construction Permit*	*The share of HDA*
1984-2002	7 058 096	43 131	0,6
2003	202 237	13 000	6,4
2004	323 927	8 000	24,7
2005*	336 549	40 805	12,1

Source: TSI, HDA
*It includes first 9 months.

4.3. A Critical Review of Housing Provision Process in Turkey

The development of housing sector in Turkey started with housing cooperatives in 1930s and by building migrant oriented housing and public housing, and progressed in parallel with the socio and economical developments after the Second World War by the aid of agricultural mechanization and industrialization. The urbanisation movement increased due to migrations from rural to urban in 1950s. In that meantime, in addition to the detached houses, the high-rise apartment blocks were built.

The housing provision increased by the effects of building high-rise apartments and the "Condominium Law[22]" enacted in 1965. During the same years, house building by cooperatives and mass housing production started to grow. With regards to these developments in the housing sector, planned urbanization movements continued. As housing demand increased in the following years by the effects of rural urban migration, illegal housing developments, especially in the 1970s, started to create some social problems in addition to economic ones.

[21] It includes houses which are completed or still continue to built, and does not include houses which are taken credits (kredilendirilen konutlar dahil edilmemiştir)
[22] Kat Mülkiyeti Kanunu Law No: 634

The years of 1980s become the second rising period of migration from rural to urban by the effect of state policies related to safety problem in the rural areas of the southern-eastern region. In that period, the housing provision by the hands of public, private sector and cooperatives began to accelerate by the middle of that decade due to the effect of finance from the Mass Housing Fund. Consequently, large expansions occurred significantly especially in the big cities' peripheries. Some of these development areas existed in an unplanned and illegal way. In 1980s, it's started to build mass housing by the hand of the public sector (mostly by HDA). In this context, planned urbanisation was encouraged.

The 1990s, while the public sector was declining the housing provision by the effect of state policies, the private sector rather took in hand the provision of housing. However, even the private sector took in hand the provision of housing, the public sector continued to produce the houses in the period of 1990s.

Since 2000, growing demand in the housing sector is being met by both public and private sectors. In recent years, although the private sector has played an important role in housing provision, the public sector has increased housing investments (TOKI, 2006).

4.4. Concluding Remarks

There have been many changes in housing provision in Turkey since the establishment of the Republic in 1923. As mentioned before, Turkish cities followed a different urbanisation when compared to industrialized countries. This difference reflected in the type of housing provision in Turkey also.

Turkey housing provision has developed under the effect of this population increase due to migrations from rural to urban areas. Various problems, such as unauthorized housing, inefficient urban services, congestion and increasing urban densities emerged as a result of such an unprecedented population movement from rural to urban areas. Therefore, a dual system emerged in the housing sector.

While the authorized housing was built in planned areas of cities, on the other hand the people who migrate from rural were building their own houses in an illegal way on areas which has no development plans. This dual housing system has been tried to be changed until now, but it has still continued in a different type.

To sum up, the problem of housing provision is not producing housing for the lower income groups. As a result of this, lower income groups try to find another way to acquire housing. One and illegal way of this lower income group of people in order to have their own house is to built gecekondu or obtain their own house from the new projects undertaken by public institutions.

In the next chapter, the role of planning bodies in the development of Ankara macroform and housing provision in Ankara will be analysed by giving a special emphasis to the provision of housing in Ankara within the context of suburbanisation from past to present.

CHAPTER 5

URBANISATION AND (SUB) URBAN HOUSING DEVELOPMENT IN ANKARA

Urbanisation of Ankara showed parallelism with Turkey's urbanisation movement. At the same time, Ankara is the city where the different housing provision types occur first in Turkey.

In the first part of this chapter, urbanization and (sub) urban development process in Ankara in accordance to the Planning Context will be explained in four major subsequent periods. In the second part, Housing Development in Ankara within the context of suburbanization will be focused on. Lastly Composition of Housing Supply in Ankara by the End of 1990s with regard to Population, Construction and Occupancy Permits will be analysed with the annual Building Construction Statistics and some researcher findings.

5.1. The Planning Context

In this part, beginning from the early Republican period to the present planning context will be tried to explain in four phases. These are Early Republican period and Jansen's Plan period (1923-1957), Yücel-Uybadin's Plan Period (1957-1969), The Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau Period (1969-1984) and lastly Greater Ankara Municipality Period from 1984 to present.

5.1.1. Jansen's Plan Period (1923-1957)

In the planning context of Ankara, the first period started with the proclamation of Turkish Republic. After the proclamation of Turkish Republic in 1923, Ankara was declared as the capital city of Turkey. Ankara was conceived as both official capital and reflection of desired modern community. By the declaration of Ankara as the capital city, new job opportunities in the public sector emerged. Therefore, first migration movements began to Ankara from rural areas and other cities. In 1924-1925 , a first development plan was made for Yenişehir named as "Lorcher Plan". However, it was not enough to eliminate the housing shortage and meet the needs of newcomers also create a modern capital (Bademli, 1985, 2-3: 12).

Therefore, a planning competition was initiated to prepare a comprehensive plan for Ankara. According to the results of the competition in 1927, the plan of Herman Jansen (a German planner) was chosen in 1928. Approval of the plan was made in 1932, after improving the original one with some modifications.

Jansen's plan took an important role in establishing the new regime's capital. The boundaries of the plan were like, in the south; beginning of the Eskişehir Highway and Akay Street, in the west; the northern part of Dikmen Highway.

The plan was prepared for 300 000 inhabitants during the 50 years (Figure 5.1). The features of the plan was being sensitive to natural environment, considering aesthetics, economic conditions and health urban-environment with open and green areas tried to be created and by also proposing low-density residential areas.

Figure 5.1: Jansen Plan
Source: Günay, 2005:73

Date of the making decision of the plan: 1927
Date of approval of the plan: 1932
Urban residential area: 2.000 ha
Target year of the plan: 1978
Target population of the plan: 300.000 people (forecasted population for 1978)
The urban poulation in 1927: 74.500 people
Population of Ankara became 289.000 in 1950 and 650.000 in 1960.

This low density residential development failed to respond to the unexpected growth of the city and revisions were made in the next years out of necessity. Housing development areas were only for 150.000 residents, but it was stated that it's possible to accommodate 300.000 residents by rising densities in the same

planned areas. Unfortunately, urban population exceeded projected population for the 50 years in just 20 years time. The population had just exceeded 400.000 in that plan period. In the northern part of the city, unauthorized housing also flourished.

In order to meet the housing need of increasing population, the first housing cooperative, Bahçelievler Housing Cooperative, in 1935 started to pull the development of the city to the west. This housing cooperative was low-density residential development.

Indeed, Bahçelievler itself could not withstand the rapid increasing rent pressures. Housing cooperatives which obtained land around Bahçelievler continued partial implementation plans. In this way, residential density increased also in this area (Tekeli and İlkin, 1984:109).

Consequently, housing need could not met despite of all attempts mentioned above, thence "gecekondu" areas were spreading by households who could not acquire a dwelling unit from the existing stock. By the government intervention, laws numbered 5218 [23] and 5228 [24] were enacted in 1948. The first law was put into effect by the aim of granting amnesty to squatter houses. The second law numbered 5228 let parcel allocation and the examples were practiced first in Yenimahalle then in Etlik. However, these implementations facilitated to legalize the existing unauthorized stock and triggered the ultimate urban problems. Indeed, the Gecekondu Areas Amnesty Laws were effective in increasing the number of unauthorized areas in Ankara.

5.1.2. Yücel-Uybadin's Plan Period (1932-1957)

The Jansen's Plan lost its effectiveness because the population increase of Ankara was more than the expected level. It's decided to obtain a new development plan

[23] Law no coded 5218: Encouragement of Building Construction Law

[24] Law no coded 5228: The Law about Giving Ankara Municipality the Authorization of Conveyancing and Allocation of Certain parts of Its land and Parcel to the House Builders with determined)

for Ankara, with a competition again. The planning competition was organized in 1955 and the Yücel-Uybadin's Plan come into effect in 1957 (Figure 5.2). In this plan, existing north-south development axis were accepted and the plan was designed considering a single city centre for the population of 750.000 residents for the year 1977 and precautions for unauthorized settlements were not taken consideration in the plan.

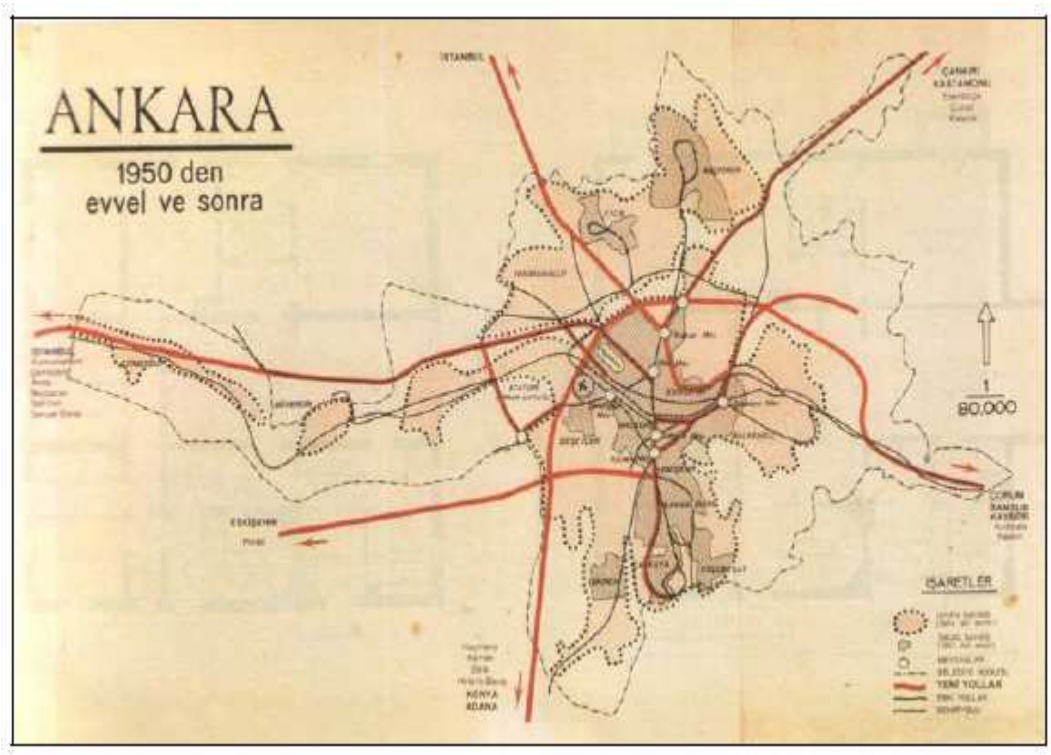

Figure 5.2: Uybadin-Yücel Plan, 1957 (urban development before and after 1950)
Source: Cengizkan, 2001:255

Date of the making decision of the plan: 1952
Date of approval of the plan: 1957
Urban residential area: 5720 ha-10.332 ha
Target year of the plan: 1987
Target population of the plan: 750.000 (Population forecast for 1980s)
The urban population in 1957: 455.000
Population of Ankara will be 902.000 in 1965.

In the new plan, it's aimed to develop areas in Mamak, designate cultural and administrative centres, commercial terrain and health areas, and arrange open spaces at Ulus, Sıhhiye, Kızılay and Tandoğan. Unfortunately, none of these predictions were eventuated. Yücel-Uybadin's plan was insufficient to guide

development of Ankara (Mimarlar Odası, 1999: 9-10). Moreover, the enactment of Condominium Act (Law No: 634) led to increase in the number of stories. The Amendment plans in 1966 and 1968 increased the number of stories two times more and there occurred high-rise apartments in Atatürk Boulevard.

According to Bademli "the plan had born dead, in a sense" (Bademli, 1986:107) since predicted population for the year 2000 exceeded the limit of plan population 750 000 before 1965. Indeed, pre-determined densities were exceeded in a few years time due to rural to urban migrations. Ad-hoc, speculative developments and wide spreading "gecekondu" areas covered the city's surroundings (Figure 5.3).

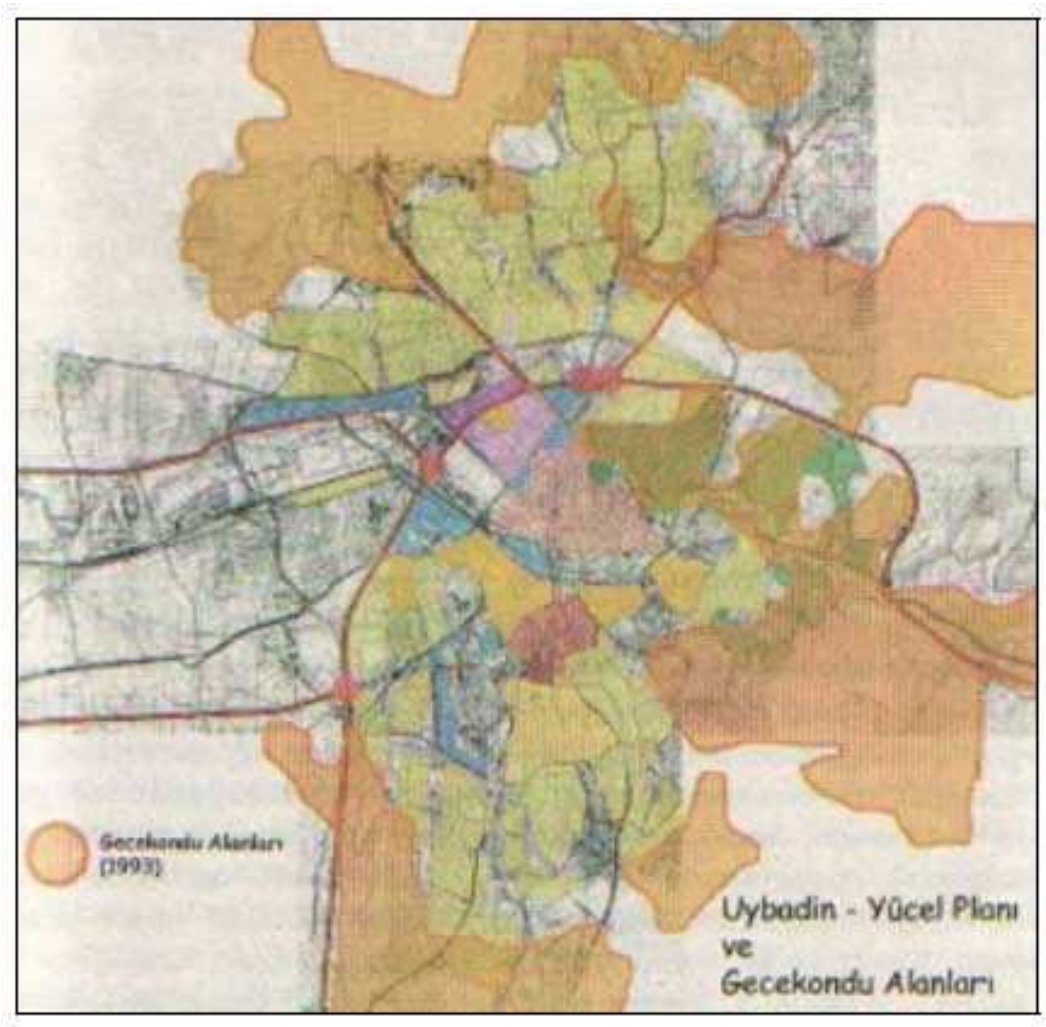

Figure 5.3: Uybadin-Yücel Planı and gecekondu areas
Source: Günay, 2005:89

Yücel-Uybadin plan brought some urban problems soon after such as insufficient urban services, air pollution and unauthorized housing. Furthermore, the total urban area of the city was 1500ha in 1924; it increased 16000ha in 1938 and 31.000ha in 1970. In other words nearly 20 times expansion in a 40 years time was eventuated in the city by the "Partial Urban Physical Development Plans" beyond the boundaries (Şenyapılı, 1996:2).

Consequently, Yücel-Uybadin's plan was misled in population estimation as is the case in Jansen's plan. Urban densities increased both in the city and in urban fringe in this plan period. Unauthorized settlements outspread towards urban fringe. As a result a new plan came up. In this way, "Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau" which was established in 1969, under the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement, proposed a master plan. The comprehension of this master plan involved not only the physical development pattern but also social and economic aspects for projected 20 years after making comprehensive research and analyses (Akın, 2007). In the next part, this plan period will be explained.

5.1.3. The Period of Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau (1969-1984): Ankara Metropolitan Plan 1990

Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau[25] which was an institution adherent to Ministry of Public Works and Settlement did not have an authorization to approve a plan.

AMPB initiated the first metropolitan plan study in Turkey. The bureau prepared a Master Plan named as "Ankara 1990 Nazım Planı" at 1/50.000 scale, which was approved in 1982 as a result of comprehensive research and analyses in 1970-75s (Figure 5.4).

Ankara Master Plan proposed sub-centres instead of one-single centre. While Batıkent was one of these sub-centres at the western corridor, Sincan, New Settlements and Yenimahalle were determined as some of the other sub-centres.

[25] Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau –AMPB in Turkish language, Ankara Metropolitan Alan Nazım İmar Plan Bürosu-AMANPB

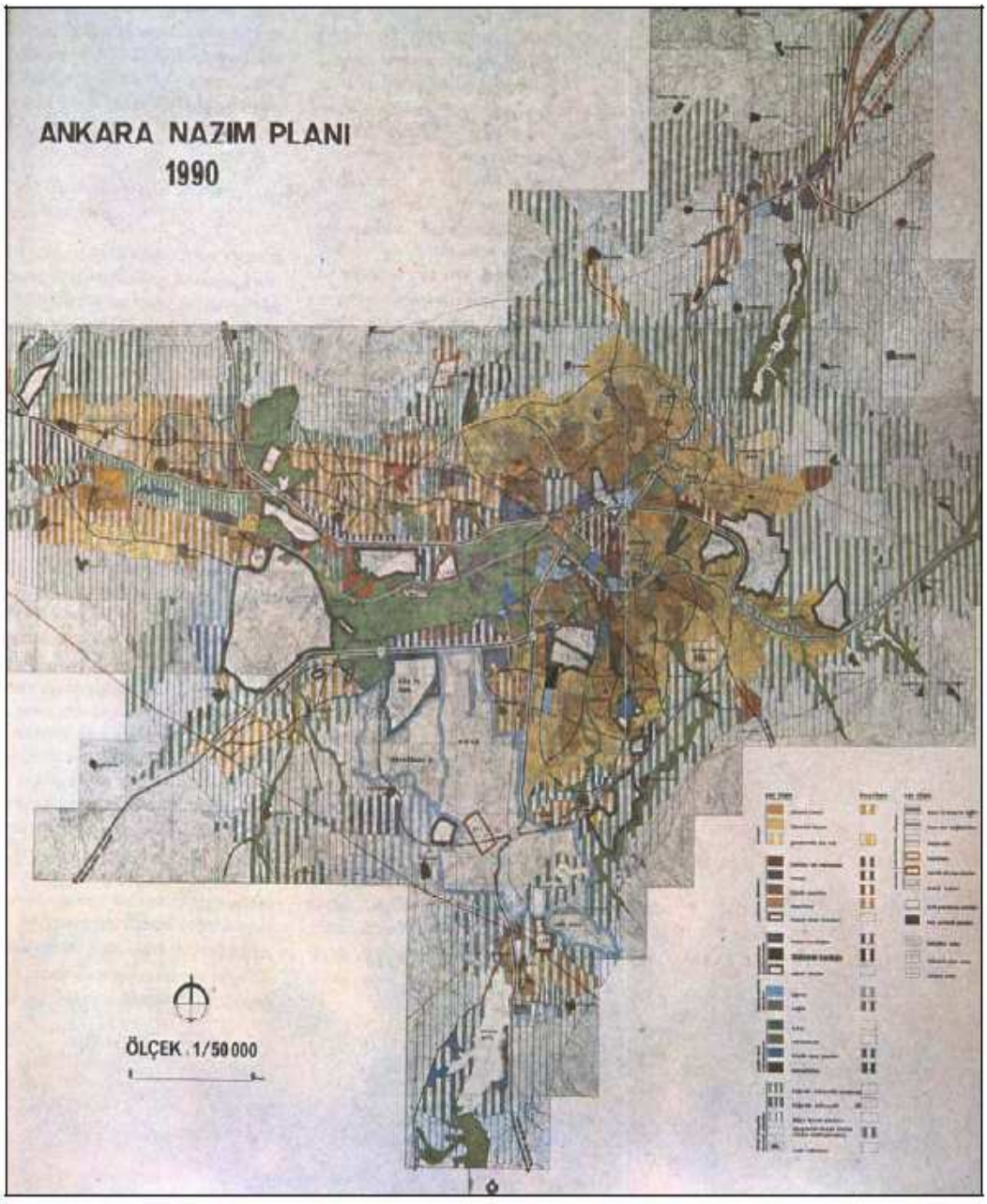

Figure 5.4: Ankara Nazım Plan 1990
Source: Bademli, 1986:111

The "Ankara 1990 Metropolitan Plan" was oriented towards the development along the western axis because of the topographic thresholds in north-south and east. The new policies of the new plan prepared the way for the urban decentralisation and traditional topographic thresholds were got over. Sincan, Fatih, Batıkent, Eryaman around the Istanbul Highway on the north-western part and Çayyolu, Konutkent along the Eskişehir Highway were some suggested

developments on the western axis. The major policy of "Ankara 1990 Metropolitan Plan" was ousting the existing development among north and south direction of the city to the out of the topographic crock by the aid of this western corridor. This main policy played a significant role in the form of the recent situation of the city (TMMOB, 2002). The predicted western corridor Sincan, Fatih, Elvankent, Batıkent, Eryaman, Sincan Industrial Zone and the Public Buildings along Eskişehir Highways in Ankara Master Plan started to be implemented in stages even if the Master plan was not approved. The Batıkent Project was one of the most important projects of this master plan.

Consequently, this plan was not only a development plan, but also a structural plan which was a guiding mark. Under the light of this, it brought a new planning understanding to the planning context and process to the planning agenda (Bademli, 1986).

5.1.4. The Plan Period of Greater Ankara Municipality After 1984s: Ankara Development Plan: 2015 and 2025

The period after 1980s was an origin of a crucial transformation in the planning history for not only Ankara but also for the whole country. Different approaches in planning, radical changes in institutionalization, laws & regulations enacting consecutively constituted the foundation of the new spatial development. After the election of the Liberal Government in 1984, administrative sphere and urban development pattern were affected by the new regulations. The Greater Ankara Municipality was established depended on the Law numbered 3030[26]. According to this Law, Altındağ, Çankaya, Keçiören, Mamak and Yenimahalle and then Sincan, Etimesgut and Gölbaşı Municipalities were established as adherent to the Greater Ankara Municipality.

After 1980s, Greater Ankara Municipality had a significant authority and responsibility in planning, particularly within the context of laws numbered

[26] Law no 3030: The law on the Management of Metropolitan Municipalities-Büyükşehir Belediyelerinin Yönetimi Hakkında 3030 Sayılı Kanun

2985[27], 3030 and 3194[28]. The Mass Housing Projects on new development areas and urban redevelopment projects at the city centre were two major paths that the Greater Ankara Municipality determined the housing development.

The second Mass Housing Law (Law no: 2985) and Urban Physical Development Law (Law no: 3194) were the other laws which gave a new planning understanding for urbanisation.

1990 Ankara Metropolitan Plan did not give way to any suggestion for the existing unauthorized settlements although most of the areas of Ankara were occupied by gecekondu (Barely, 1986). This deficiency of the master plan was handled by the law numbered 2981[29] and enacted in 1984.

Until 1990s, there was not any upper scale plan which had already been approved. Partial plans far away from the integrity of the master plan were made. These applications accelerated the uncoordinated development of the city.

Members of the METU, The Department of City& Regional Planning's members made macro-form planning study for a target year of 2015 (Bademli, a.g.e:63) (Figure 5.5). This plan was not a development plan; on the contrary, it was a policies or structure plan. The policies of this structure plan were that the new residential areas would be out of the topographic crock and the population in these new residential areas would be less than 300000 (Altaban:63).

In the 2015 Plan, the planning decisions of 1990 Ankara Metropolitan Plan were taken into account. Etimesgut, Batıkent, Eryaman, Çayyolu Housing Areas, Dikmen River, Etlik-Kasalar, Portakal Çiçeği Projects were the projects which started to be undertaken in 1990. The decentralisation was aimed at first in the 2015 plan. For this purpose, the boundaries determined by the Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau in 1976 were updated and the development process of urban area was investigated.

[27] Law no 2985: Toplu Konut Kanunu
[28] Law no 3194: Building Code-İmar Kanunu
[29] Law no 2981: Development Amnesty Law

In the 2015 Plan studies, the location of public buildings, CBD dynamics, infrastructural systems, land prices and the industrial areas were analysed. The 2015 plan was not approved, only a protochol was signed between the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement, the Governorship of Ankara and the Greater Ankara Municipality in order to provide the coordination (Altaban, 2002). However, the changes predicted in "2015 Plan" started in the legal process. Çayyolu, Beytepe, Gölbaşı Housing areas can be given as an examples of this partial development changes.

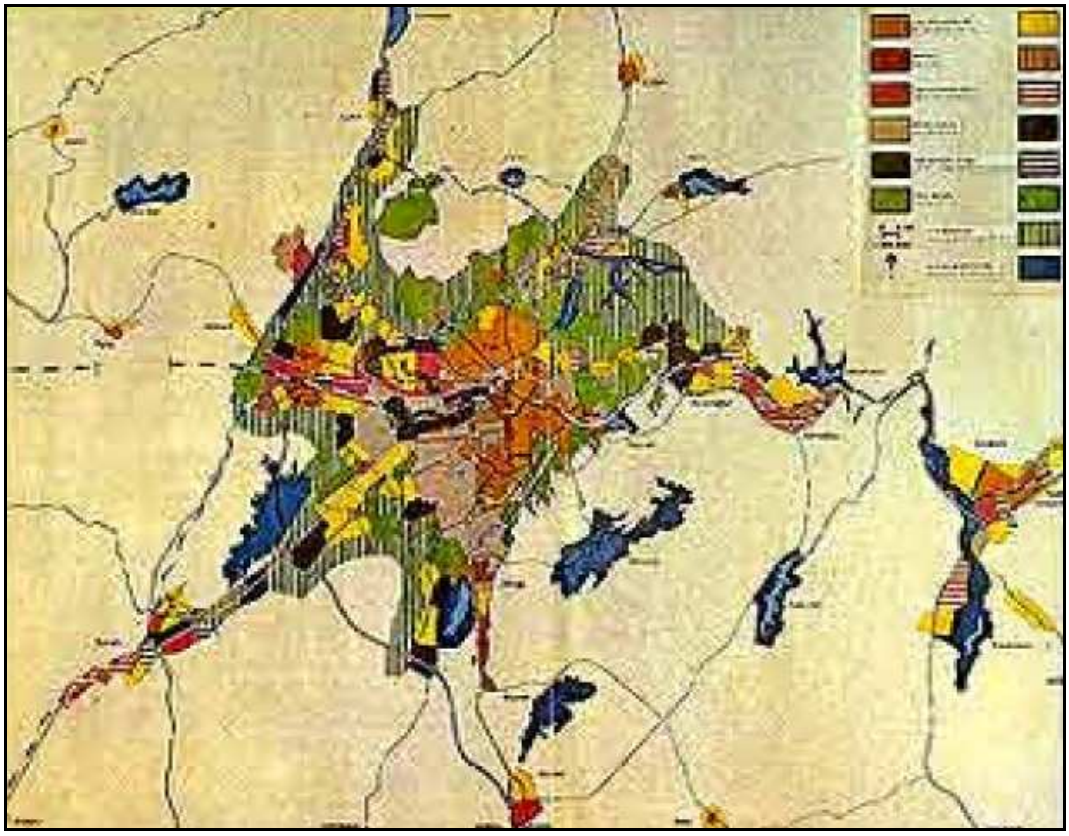

Figure 5.5: Ankara 2015 Structural Plan
Source: Akın, 2007

Greater Ankara Municipality launched the new planning studies for the predicted year of 2025, also to take into consideration the rapid transformations and changes in urban dynamics and the urban problems which arise from these changes and also from partial implementation plans.

This plan expanded the boundaries of the main city (Figure 5.6). The Greater Ankara Municipality worked on this plan between the years 1997-98, but this plan was not approved either. A lot of criticisms were made about the 2025 plan such as insufficient handling of process of change, no intervention to the existing stock, determining new residential areas without suggesting policies for existing areas. As a result of not being approved a new upper-scale plan, the housing areas have been developed by partial master plans, partial development plans, amendment (ıslah-imar) development plans.

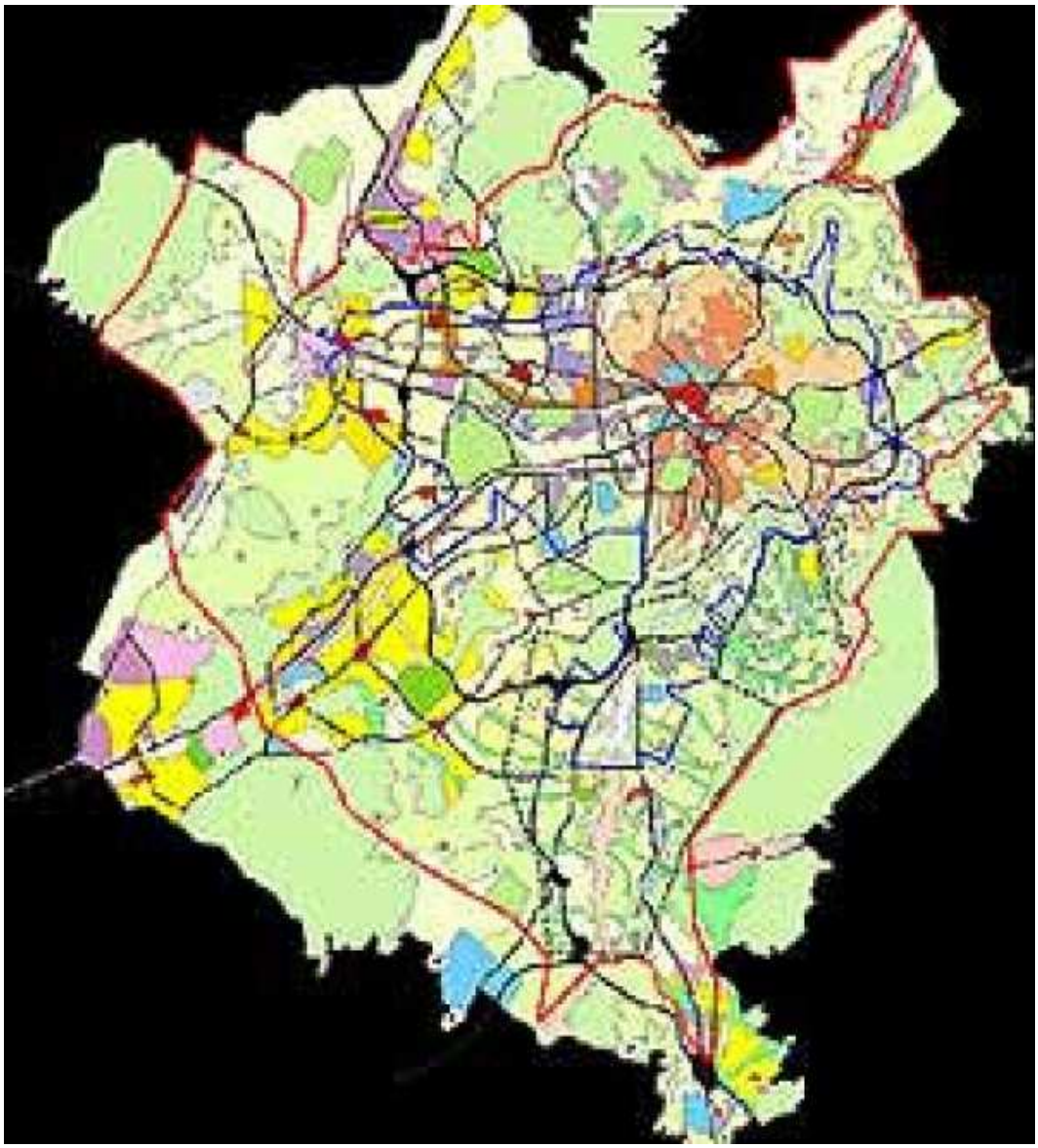

Figure 5.6: Ankara 2025 Master Plan
Source: Akın, 2007

The plan studies executing by the Ministry brought a serious movement in the land market in south-western part of Ankara and around it. Hence, the property transformation process accelerated. So, land values reached to high levels at that areas and land speculation increased seriously by this way.

The western and south-western parts of the city developed and an apparent socio-economic segregation of inhabitants from the city, and two distinct social groupings occurred. Middle income and low-income group choose the northern and north-eastern parts of the city, while high-income and middle income groups located on the south and south-western part of the city. In this way, new housing developments have chosen places by taking into consideration this spatial concentration.

In addition to the spatial distribution of socio economic groups, development pattern of Ankara was affected by geographical features too. Because of topographical thresholds, the development towards to northern and eastern part could not be possible (Altaban, 1986:7). (Figure 5.7) As a result, the expansion of the city after 1980s was towards South-western and Southern corridors of the city.

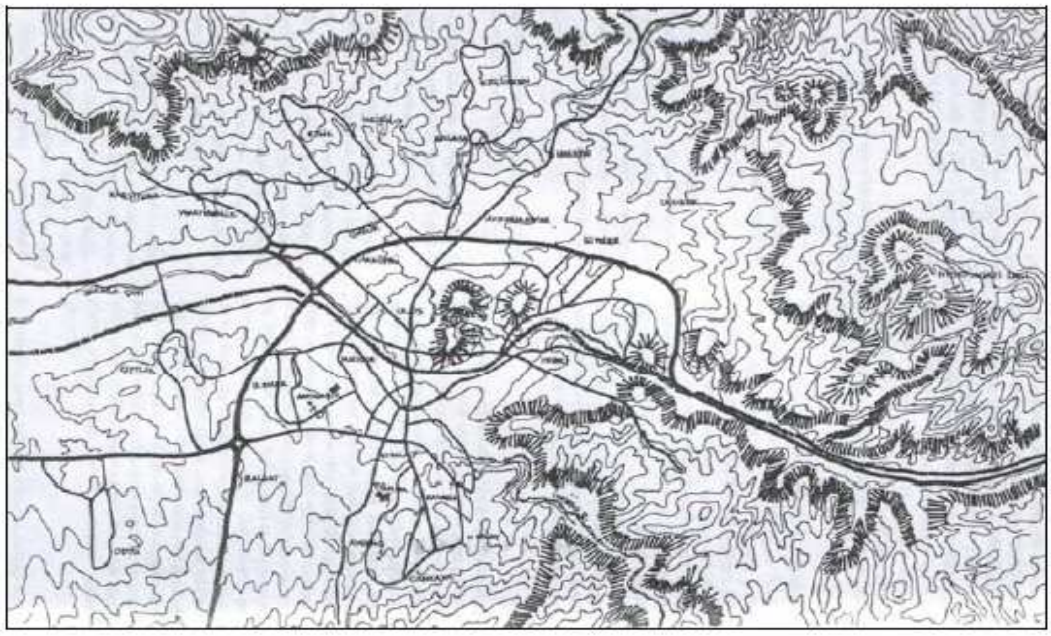

Figure 5.7: Topographical formation of Ankara
Source: Altaban, 1986:9

The western corridor along the Eskişehir Higway and the South western part of the city started to develop by initiating new housing investments such as Çayyolu I, II, Konutkent projects along Eskişehir Highway and on the western-north-western parts and along the Istanbul Highway, Elvankent, Eryaman and Sincan Squatter Preventation Areas[30] projects.

When looked at the initial phases of urban expansion, Northern and North-eastern parts of the city were invaded by unauthorized housing areas. Mamak, Keçiören and Etlik, can be given as an examples of such unauthorized development. Therefore, the new developments selected location around western and southern parts of the city.

5.2. The Housing Development in Ankara within the Context of Suburbanisation

As it's mentioned in the previous chapter, Ankara followed more or less the same urbanisation path with Turkey. This transformation in urbanisation reflected its effects on the development of housing areas in Ankara. In this part, Development of Housing Areas in Ankara within the context of Suburbanisation will be explained in four subsequent periods: The Period 1923-1957, The Period 1957-1984, The Period after 1984s up to present will be clarified.

5.2.1. 1923-1957 Development of Housing Areas in Ankara

In an effort of creating a modern city in Ankara after the formation of Turkish Republic, there was a binary facet of Ankara. There was a western-imitated buildings with new opened ways, latest design cars, western-imitated life-standards in the new parts of Ankara , on the other hand, old-texture buildings with old roads, ox-carts and poor life of old city were experienced in the other part of Ankara.

[30] Gecekondu Önleme Bölgesi

The first organized housing construction in the city started on a 4 million square meter area where the expropriation decision as taken by Şehremaneti in 1925. This first 2-3 storey houses were built by using public resources. The 198 dwelling houses which were built and sold by the municipality composed of the first neighbourhood named as Yenişehir.

Houses built by the government concentrated in Yenişehir, apartment houses built by the private sector in Ulus (Nalbantoğlu, 1984:254).

Since 1925, there were four types of houses (Şenyapılı, 1996). The first one was apartment houses in the old city because of the high land values. The second type of houses was villas and two storey houses with garden, in the south part of Yenişehir, especially at Kavaklıdere and Çankaya. Apartment houses in the old city were built by pulling down old ones and building new ones, while villas in Yenişehir and Çankaya were built on the empty area as dispersed and independent from each other.

From 1930s building houses for civil servants became a government policy. For this aim, the law numbered 4626[31] was enacted in 1946. The first application of this law was "Saraçoğlu Mahallesi" planned by Bonatz. This neighbourhood was intended for high-level bureaucrats. These houses built for civil servants were the third type of houses.

The lift housing type was the houses, which constitute the old city's pattern, whose infrastructure was inadequate and belong to the period before the Turkish Republic.

Between the years 1930-1945, the high-density and functional part of the city was the old city; the modern facet of the city was Yenişehir. In 1935, 72% of the houses were in the old city. The land values were increasing towards to city centre, building of apartment houses was the market response. The apartment houses were started to build in Yenişehir in 1935 instead of villas.

[31] Law No. 4626 Memur meskenleri inşası hakkında yasa

In order to solve the housing problem of rapidly increasing population, the first cooperative was established in 1935, Bahçelievler Building Cooperative. This housing cooperative was established as a remedy to high land-prices and also used land speculation as a tool in the process of production of houses. The members of the cooperative were middle or high-level bureaucrats from that date on, Bahçelievler residential area showed a rapid development (Tekeli, 1984:66). After, Bahçelievler Housing Cooperative, the number of cooperatives increased rapidly in Ankara. A total of 22 housing cooperatives out of 50 housing cooperatives in Turkey were established in Ankara in 1946. However, those cooperatives built only 554 houses until 1944 (Akın, 2007). The number of houses produced by cooperatives increased after 1950.

In 1950s, insufficiency of individual and cooperative housing provision, unauthorized housing became widespread by the households who could not afford to acquire housing from the existing stock. In that manner, the laws numbered 5218[32] and 5228[33] were put into effect in 1948. Unfortunately, these attempts could not achieve their aims; on the contrary, unauthorized housing stock was just legalized and urban problems increase more. In the second half of 1950, unauthorized housing began to dominate urban in Ankara.

The Fact of "Gecekondu" during 1923-1957 period

The unauthorized housing started to be built in empty and uncontrolled areas which are very close to the city centre as from the beginning of 1930s because of the migration from rural to urban. Ulus and some nearly areas were so attractive for low income groups since the administration, commerce, entertainment, culture and education services were located there. When came to 1945, 14116 people in Altındağ, 7354 in Atıf Bey, 2353 in Aktaş, 9053 in Yenidoğan and 4396 in Yenihayat were living in shanty houses (Akın, 2007).

[32]Law No. 5218: The Law about Giving to Ankara Municipality the Authorization of Conveyancing and Allocation of Certain Parts of Its Land and Parcel to the House Builders Conditions not Depending on the Law No. 2490 (Ankara Belediyesine Arsa ve Arazisinden Belli Bir Kısmını Mesken Yapacaklara 2490 Sayılı Kanun Hükümlerine Bağlı Olmaksızın ve Muayyen Şartlarla Tahsis ve Temlik Yetkisi Verilmesi Hakkında Kanun)

[33] Law No. 5228: Encouragement of Building Construction Law (Bina Yapımını Teşvik Kanunu)

After 1947, the effect of new socio-economic politics and rapid liberalization affords changed the attitude to the gecekondu. The first “Gecekondu Amnesty” law was enacted in 1948. Within the context of this law (law coded 5218), public lands close to unauthorized areas were transferred to municipalities. The municipality could make a plan without sticking to the development laws and distribute created parts to the people who did not have a dwelling unit at a low cost within one year time. The land cost would be paid in ten years time with equal instalments without interest. In order to get benefit from the law, the people had to be living in the boundary of the municipality for at least one year and did not have a house or land (Tekeli:33).

Yenimahalle housing experiment was undertaken in accordance to the Laws numbered 5218 and 5228. So it will be useful to mention briefly about this experience in this part. In terms of these laws, in Yenimahalle the municipality made the percolation plans of the 46 ha land transferred from the government and the 60 ha land was taken from the neighbouring cooperatives and private people. After allocating these lands, Emlak Credit Bank provided credits, and more than 2000 buildings were completed in three years time. This application in Yenimahalle caused new development areas to arise around it. In the following year, because of discarding this principle, Yenimahalle stayed as a unique example of this type of housing production (Akçura, 209-222).

The gecekondu amnesty laws which came into effect after 1950 caused to increase the number of gecekondu areas in Ankara more.

5.2.2. 1957-1984 Development of Housing Areas in Ankara

In years between 1950 and 1965, the main housing provision type was yap-satci production. This development is depended on the increase in the number of apartment houses.

By 1954 the number of housing produced declined in both Ankara and all of the country. Because, building activities almost ceased in 1959 and the price of

building materials increased. The Law numbered 7367 and enacted in 1959 led to big rises in housing production in 1960, 1961 and 1962 (by order of 43.08 %, 32.47%, 45.68% respectively). The big bounce in 1965 (85 %) was due to the "Condominium Law". The "Cooperative Law" coded 1163 enacting in 1969 and establishment of the Land Office had important impacts and caused the number of housing production increase in 1969 (46%). The crisis in the housing sector experienced at the end of 1970s affected Ankara badly also (Akın, 2007).

As a result of the policy related to housing ownership of that period, a number of institutions were giving credits in return to mortgage. Emlak Bank giving credits with lower interest rates started to serve high and middle income groups which should be outside its function. "Telsizler" was an example of enormous and deluxe housing production of Emlak Bank for the high income groups instead of producing for the lower income groups (Akçura, 1971:212). However, due to its location, upper income groups would not stay in this housing estate. When looked at the credit rates and conditions of the bank, it can be stayed that the housing production oriented to the middle income and high income groups.

In addition, the number of block of offices started to increase in Kızılay and Ulus. Kocatepe Mosque and Emek Office Building projects were built in 1957. Emek Office Building belonged to the "Pension Fund (Emekli Sandığı)" which was a public institution, and it was the first high-rise building of Turkey.

The Development Plan made by Middle Anatolian Company was approved in 1971 by Ministry of Public Works and Settlement. OR-AN settlement was formed by the courtesy of this plan. As a result, the development of the city was tended to the southern part of Çankaya afterwards. At the end of 1970s, there was a rapidly developing mass housing areas along the western corridor of the city. Intense structuring of existing settlements and building new authorized housing was also going on. This spatial structuring in Ankara was a considerably different from the previous period of Ankara.

The Fact of Gecekondu during 1957-1984 period

In 1957, 45.850 gecekondu were existing in Ankara with a population of 222.275. There were 795 gecekondu which had a title deed and 29.345 of them would have a title deed in one year time (Akın, 2007). Another development amnesty came up by the law numbered 327[34] in 1963. As a result of these amnesties, the unauthorized settlements in Altındağ, Arifbey, Abidinpaşa, Telsizler, Saime Kadın and Topraklık were created. On the other hand, the number of gecekondu increased rapidly as a result of expectation of other building amnesties. By taking Demetevler into the boundary of the Ankara Municipality in 1958, the speed in the process of unauthorized building increased visibly. In 1975 the central government stepped in against to this problem since the gecekondu problem reached a large scale.

After 1980s, due to the applications of populist policies of the industrial period, the unauthorized settlements are overlooked in order to take the share from the urban rant. As a result, urban space of the city was reshaped.

5.2.3. Development of Housing Areas in Ankara After 1984s

The development of housing stock in Ankara started to take a new form as a result of new institutional and legal developments planning and also plan decisions after 1984s.

The years of 1982, 1986 and 1992 were the peak points of the housing production in Ankara. The peaks in these years could be explained with the effects of different regulations and laws and implementation of also new housing projects. First of all, by coming into effect the *Batıkent Project* in 1981, the first increase in housing production was experienced in 1982. Then, enacting Development Law numbered 3194 and Mass Housing Law in 1984 affected positively housing production in the years between 1986 and 1992. In addition, Türkkonut initiated the Çayyolu Project, Batıkent obtained new construction permits in 1986 and

[34] 6785 sayılı İmar Yasasına Bir Madde Eklenmesi Hakkında 327 Sayılı Yasa

Eryaman Mass Housing Project started in the second half of 1980s. In 1992, the other stages of Eryaman Mass Housing Project and also Elvankent Project started. Ümitköy-Çayyolu Mass Housing Project created a housing development in that part of the city. Economic crisis of 1994 and 2001 adversely affected the housing production in Ankara. Although there was a back tracking in the building sector in 2002, an important increase was eventuated in the production of housing in 2003.

Batıkent played an important role in the development of the city. As the municipality did not give the land directly to the cooperatives, the Central Associations of Cooperatives (Kent–Koop) was established and this problem got over by this way. Kent-Koop aimed to control and reduce building costs as well by assisting cooperatives in tendering.

In Batıkent, the primary aim of the Project was to provide low-cost housing in a well planned and controlled way. Project area was located at 13 km away from the city and two different housing types were planned at the beginning. One of them was well-organized (derli) houses and the other one was the houses to be built with credit. The former one was the low-density (120-150 person/ha) and the plan of them was located in North, North-east and South-east. 17.890 houses would be built in almost 230 ha. In order to prevent speculations, parcels were kept small in this area. The latter one was around the center of Batıkent and planned as middle (425 person/ha) and high density (600 person/ha) housing. Those 26.350 houses were planned by cooperatives and members of the cooperatives could use credit from the state institutions (Eryıldız, 2003:74).

Although Batıkent Project began firstly in 1974, it came into effect and started to produce housing in 1981. For this Project, Greater Ankara Municipality expropriated 1034 ha land and aimed to develope a sub-centre with 200-300 thousand residents. In that context, Batıkent can be appreciated as a foresighted large scale project since it assisted the decentralization of residential areas towards the north-western corridor in a planned and controlled way (Figure 5.8).

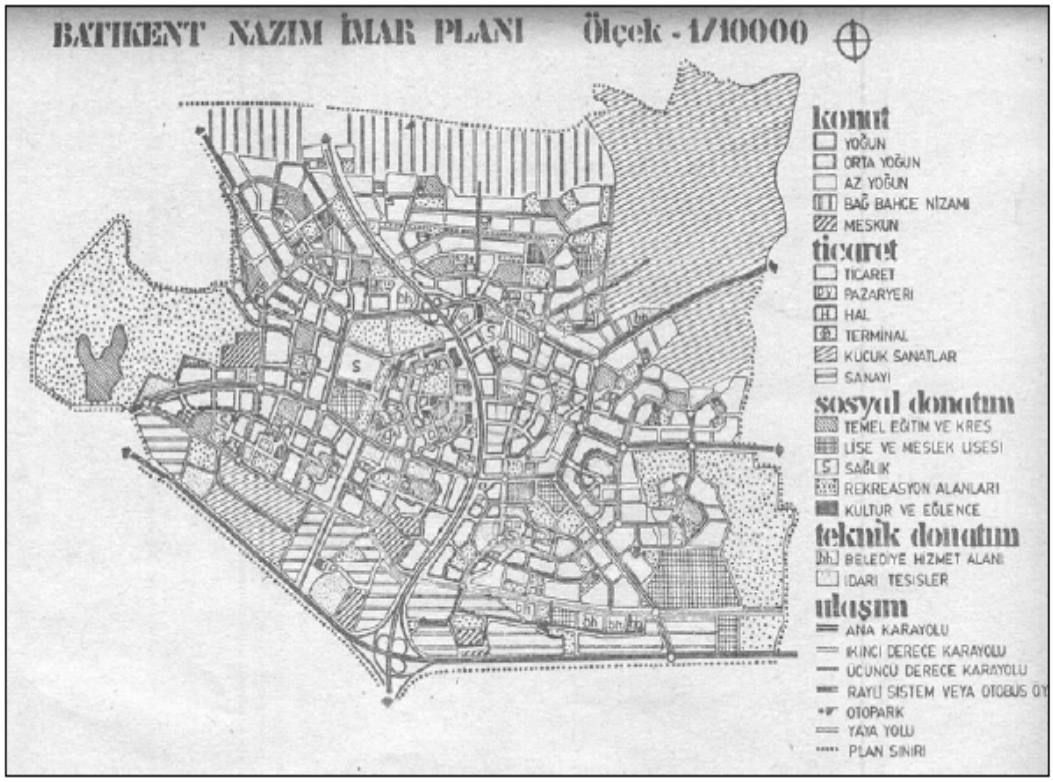

Figure 5.8: Batıkent Plan
Source: Birgül and Şahin, 1984:107

In 1970s, the mass housing area in ***Susuz-Eryaman*** which was expropriated named as "New Settlements Project" aimed to produce houses for the low and middle income groups of people, but it was planned for the middle income groups of people. Eryaman Project which was started to be built in 1985-1986 predicted 1200 ha residential area with 210000 residents at the first stage and the neigbourhood units with 5000-8000 people were designed in the project area. Those houses were built by big construction company such as MESA, GAMA, KUTLUTAŞ under contract with the Housing Development Administration of Turkey. By increasing Mass Housing Projects in Eryaman and Etimesgut, some big shopping centers started to be established in those areas. Eryaman, Elvankent and Doğakent Mass Housing Projects developed along this axis.

By the Mass Housing Projects beginning from 1980s, Çayyolu- Ümitköy Projects were put into practice in the South part of Ankara-Eskişehir Higway, and the city continued its development to the west.

1990 Ankara Metropolitan Plan decisions and those Mass Housing Projects directed the development of the city towards the western corridor of the city along the Eskişehir and İstanbul Higways. Although the city developed to the western and south-western orientations, big investments were also made to areas around the Konya and Samsun Highway. Balgat-Dikmen route on Konya Highway and also Karakusunlar-Çiğdem neighborhoods were efffected from these investments and changed and developed. As a result of the transformation of the area from gecekondu to apartment houses, these areas got attractive for middle and middle-high income groups. There were a two side of development along the Konya Highway: Balgat-Ahlatlıbel and Gölbaşı.

After completing the plan of OR-AN districts at the end of 1960s, Turan Güneş Boulevard became also an attraction center. There was a transformation in Yıldız too, because of closeness to Çankaya. Bussiness and commercial centers were located here. On the Samsun Higway there were military, industry and gecekondu areas.

Mamak being mainly a gecekondu district, lower income groups were located there. Since there were not sufficient social and recreational areas, Mamak was not seen as a prestige area. In the direction of the Airport and around Pursaklar, there was a partial development. Gecekondu areas in Pursaklar and Solfasol make a negative impression on those areas. Gecekondu areas and topographical threshold in Mamak and Kayaş affect negatively the development of the district. However, Bilkent, Beysukent, Konutkent, Ümitkent along the Eskişehir Highway are different settlements, inhabited mostly by upper income people. There is not any gecekondu in those areas either. All these factors increased the rant value of the area. Furthermore, there has been an enormous change in Çukurambar recently. High-rise apartments and modern houses has take placed instead of gecekondu in this area (Akın, 2007:207).

The Fact of Gecekondu after 1984s

Improvement Development Plans (Islah İmar planları) have an important place in

the planning context; it annihilates the population-density balances and settlement pattern. In addition, the changes in globalism were effective on country's economy and planning and many partial plans were brought up for approval, as a result the master plan has almost lost its importance.

The gecekondu started to increase rapidly as from the end of 1945s. When came the end of 1980s, it has changed its identity. Urban Transformation Projects begun to be implemented in gecekondu areas. GEÇAK, Koza Street, Yıldızevler Private Project Area, Altındağ-Aktaş-Atilla Urban Transformation Project, Mamak Municipality Ege Urban Transformation Project and Yenimahalle Municipality Şirindere Urban Transformation Projects are some of these urban transformations.

Greater Ankara Municipality determined 22 unauthorized housing areas to prepare the improvement plans before the law numbered 3030. In the years between 1987-1992, the improvement development plans were prepared for the 74.6 percentage of unauthorized houses in Ankara. There are some urban transformation projects being implemented. Their summaries are written below.

GEÇAK I was the first Urban Transformation Project of Ankara[35]. This Project was initiated in the Koza Street of Gaziosmanpaşa district. High income groups of people located in this area. The owners of gecekondu obtained the allottee from the contractor of the project. However, most of the former gecekondu residents sold or rented their houses instead of living in them (Akın, 134-139).

GEÇAK II was the other Urban Transformation Project made in Bağcılar, Kırkkonaklar and Çukurca by the Çankaya District Municipality. The 1990 Ankara Metropolitan Plan defined this area as an "irregular housing area" and it was within the "İmrahor Revision Development Plan". About 50%of the area belongs to Çankaya Municipality, 34% to Greater Ankara Municipality while 8 percent is under private ownership. The houses were built by the TEPE construction company.

[35] The name of the Project means from gecekondu to the modern house because the term of "transformation" was not in the literature at that time

Zafertepe, Aktepe gecekondu areas have almost completed their transformation. Nonetheless the transformation of Çiğdemtepe, Güneşevler and Şentepe was started; realization of those Projects was very low. **Şentepe Urban Transformation Project** started in 2004; however 10% of the project has been eventuated (Yenimahalle Municipality Annual Reports). After approval of the improvement development plans, they have been started to be implement as from 1989.

Portakal Çiçeği Vadisi Urban Transformation Projects is another transformation area. In the transformation process, private ownership increased gradually. Building Development rights increased as parallel to this increase. Some development rights were given to Portakal Çiçeği Valley in the previous years. The first development right was given in 1950, and different planning decisions were taken in the following years: in 1952, 1957, 1963, 1967, 1968 and 1985. Until 1980s, the building right were given to the edges of Valley; however building in the Valley could not be allowed. In 1985, the said development rights were lifted and the expropriation decision with a green space was taken. Before starting to the Project, 250 gecekondu residents were living in 67 gecekondu. Half of the gecekondu land belonged to the public and the other half belonged to the private ownership. The first stage had 68 housing units, which were between 70-400 m^2 in floor area and were completed at the end of 1994; the second stage had 112 housing units and they were finished in 1997. The transformation still continues in that area.

Dikmen Valley Urban Transformation Project

Although there was a Dikmen Green Space Project[36], the building increased in the valley by time. At the end of 1980s, 10.000 residents were living in 2285 gecekondus at the valley. The Greater Ankara Municipality together with the Çankaya District Municipality developed the Dikmen Project. Dikmen Valley Project was planned as 229 ha, at 5 stages.

[36] Master Plan at 1/5000 scale

Protocol Ways-North Ankara Entrance Urban Transformation Project

Project area include the north entrance of Ankara, Esenboğa protocol way and the gecekondu around it. The project area was determined by enacting the Law numbered 5104[37]. By this law, Housing Development Administration of Turkey and Greater Ankara Municipality were with the dirty in order to develope the physical and environmental views of the area, and provide healthier settlements. The partners in charge of the project are Greater Ankara Municipality, TOKI and TOBAŞ.

According to 73rd article of the new municipality law, the other urban transformation projects are on the agenda of the Greater Ankara Municipality as follows:

- Ulus Historical City Urban Transformation Project: (213 ha). This transformation Project was not directly composed of the housing areas, however due to the negative impacts and damages on buildings in Ulus, it deserves to take place among the transformation projects.
- 50th Year Park Urban Transformation Project (116 ha)
- Mühye 902 Urban Transformation Project (157 ha)
- Yakup Aptal-Karataş Village Urban Transformation Project (3635 ha)
- Keçiören Urban Transformation and Development Project
- Şirindere Urban Transformation Project (Çankaya)
- Etlik-Kasalar Urban Transformation Project (Keçiören)
- Ovacık Alümünyumcular Urban Transformation Project (Keçiören)
- Eskişehir Higway Lodumlu Urban Transformation Project (Çankaya)
- Nasrettin Hoca Urban Transformation Project
- Göksu Urban Transformation Project

After 1990s, the south western and southern parts of Ankara are more developed areas as to the other part of the city. Better urban services and lower densities attract people especially high income groups to these areas, which are generally

[37] North Ankara Entrance Urban Transformation Law dated 04.03.2004

developed by housing cooperatives. Çayyolu is one of the most important projects developed in south-western part of the city, initiated by a major housing project undertaken by TÜRKKONUT with support of the Greater Ankara Municipality.

The other villages such as Alacaatlı, İncek and Dodurga were urbanised rapidly especially with the luxurious villas for high income groups.

Gölbaşı is another important housing development area in this part of the city after the second half of the 1990s. By being joined to the boundaries of the Greater Ankara Municipality in 1991, the urbanisation gained an important speed there.

Urban expansion through the south-western and southern parts of Ankara has continued by the 2000s. Beytepe 3rd Stage Development Project, Angora Evleri Project, in the boundaries of the Çankaya Municipality, Yenikent and Çayyolu Development Area (İlko Konutları) in the Yenimahalle Municipality are some examples of the large scale housing projects after 2000s. The boundaries of urban expansion have even gone beyond the boundaries of Greater Ankara. Temelli Yenihisar Villakent Project is one of these projects which had exceeded the boundaries of Greater Ankara Municipality until the Greater Municipality Law was enacted in July 2004 and municipal boundaries were enlarged.

5.3. The Composition of Housing Supply in Ankara by the end of the 1990s with regard to Construction and Occupancy Permits and Building Attributes

In the last two decades, the urban space in Ankara has been reshaped by a process of suburbanisation. It’s useful to mention about the actual formation and current situation of housing supply in Ankara with regard to the construction and occupancy permits to expose the dynamics guiding the urban sprawl and the decentralization.

5.3.1. Housing Production After 1990s

Being the second most populated city of Turkey after Istanbul, the increase of urban population did not come to an end in Ankara; its population is still increasing at rates. When looked at the urban population in the last two decades, the rate of urban population has increased regularly and it reached to 92.7% in 2007 . In addition, the rate of urban population increase was 22% between the years 1990-2000, whereas the number of individuals living in Ankara (urban) reached 3540522 by the end of 20th century; on the other hand, the rate of urban population increase was 16.9% between 2000-2007 and the number of individuals living in Ankara (urban) reached 4140890 as to 2007 population census (Table 5.1). Besides, the increase in rate of urban population is higher than the increase in the rate of total population in Ankara according to both 2000 and 2007 census results. In accordance with the increase in population, there has been an increase in the number of residential buildings and dwelling units (Table 5.2). The big difference between the number of residential buildings and dwelling units show that more apartments[38] were built than the single houses[39] in 1984-2000 period.

Table 5.1: Population change in Ankara in 1990-2007 period

	Population in 1990	***Population in 2000***	***Population in 2007***	***% of Population Increase in following periods***	
				1990-2000	**2000-2007**
Ankara	3236378	4007860	4466756	**21.4%**	**11.4%**
Ankara-Urban	2836802	3540522	4140890	**22.2%**	**16.9%**
% of Urban Population	**87.6%**	**88.3%**	**92.7%**		

Source: TSI, www.tuik.gov.tr/nufus_sayimi/2000tablo3.xls, last accessed: April 2008

[38] Apartment relates to multi-story residential buildings covering more than two dwellings.
[39] Single house relates to 1-2 story residential buildings

Table 5.2: The increase in the number of residential buildings and dwellings in the 1984-2000 period in Ankara (within the boundaries of the Greater Ankara Municipality)

Years	*The number of residential buildings*	*% Change*	*The number of dwelling units*	*% Change*
1984	203984	49 %	561953	76%
2000	304837		986865	

Source: TSI, www.die.gov.tr/nufus_sayimi/2000tablo3.xls, last accessed: April 2008

When looked at Figure 5.9, it's seen that there has been a fluctuation in housing production in the Ankara Provincial Centre. Within the context of housing production, the effects of 1994 and 2001 crisis were seen in the following years. The fluctuation started in 1994 and reached its bottom level in 2002. Then, housing production started to recover itself by some government interventions and it reached its top level in 2005.

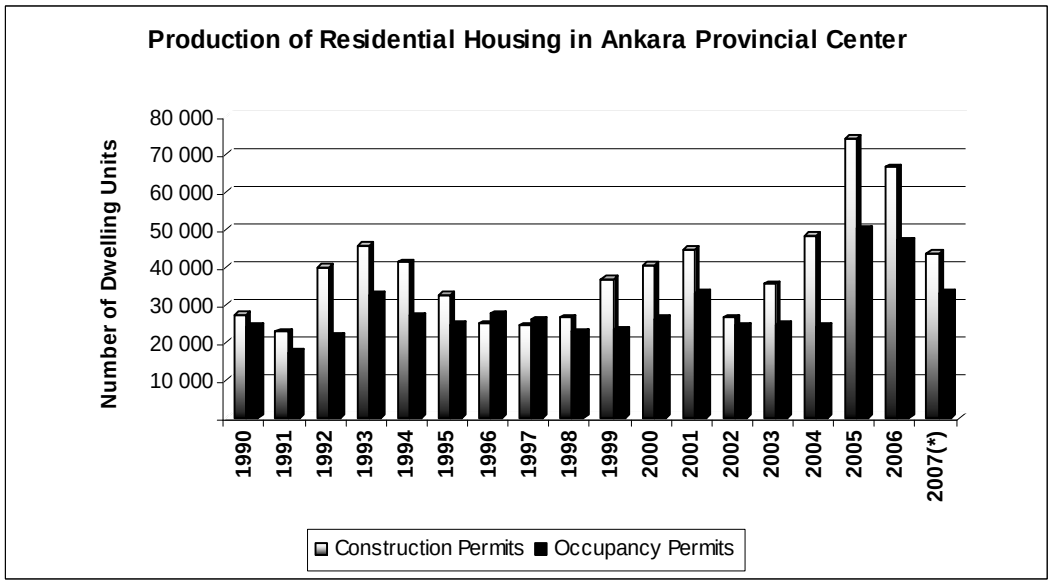

Figure 5.9: Production of residential housing according to the construction and occupancy permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

5.3.2. Construction and Occupancy Permits Analyses

In this part, housing supply within the context of construction and occupancy permits and building ownership in Ankara Provincial Centre will be analysed.

According to Figure 5.10, the decrease in housing production started after 1993 and reached its bottom level in 1996-1997 period, after that date, it started to increase; however due to the effects of 2001 crisis it reached to the second bottom level in 2002. The recovery period started after that year and the production in both residential buildings and dwelling units accessed their top levels in 2005. Other important point is the difference between the number of residential building and dwelling units. The big difference between them is an indicator of building mostly high rise apartments in Ankara Provincial Centre in that period. This difference increases more in recent years.

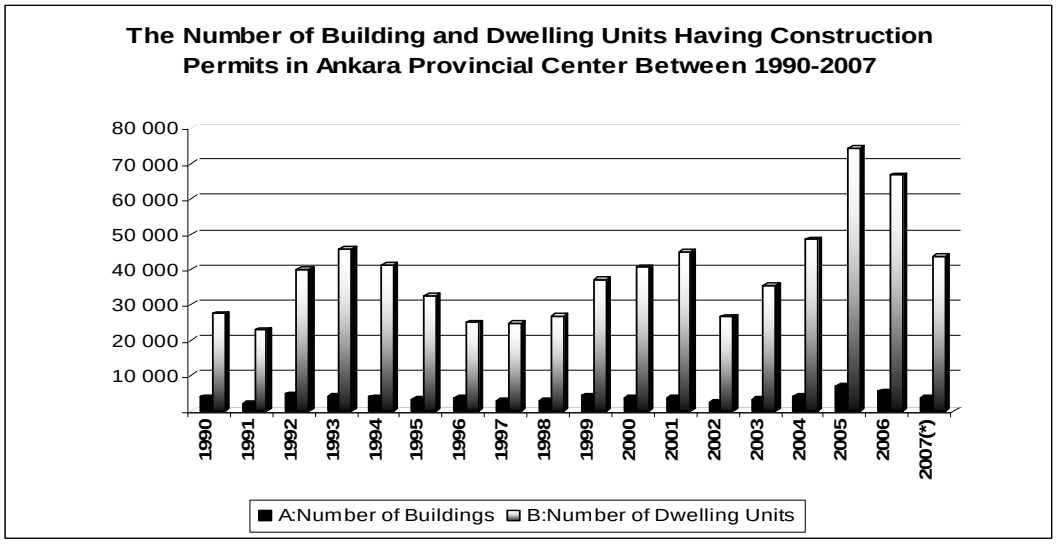

Figure 5.10: Housing production according to construction permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

In Figure 5.11, the number of residential buildings and dwelling units are shown according to occupancy permits. The number of dwelling units according to construction permit reached over 40000 in 1993 before economic crisis of 1994 while the number of dwelling units that are issued occupancy permits reached over 4000 only in the same year. The second lowest occupancy permits were

taken in 1994. After that date, it increased to the number of 5000, there was a decrease between the years 1996-2000 and after the second economic crisis in 2001 the number of dwelling units that were issued occupancy permits decreased again. In 2005, it reached to the top-level.

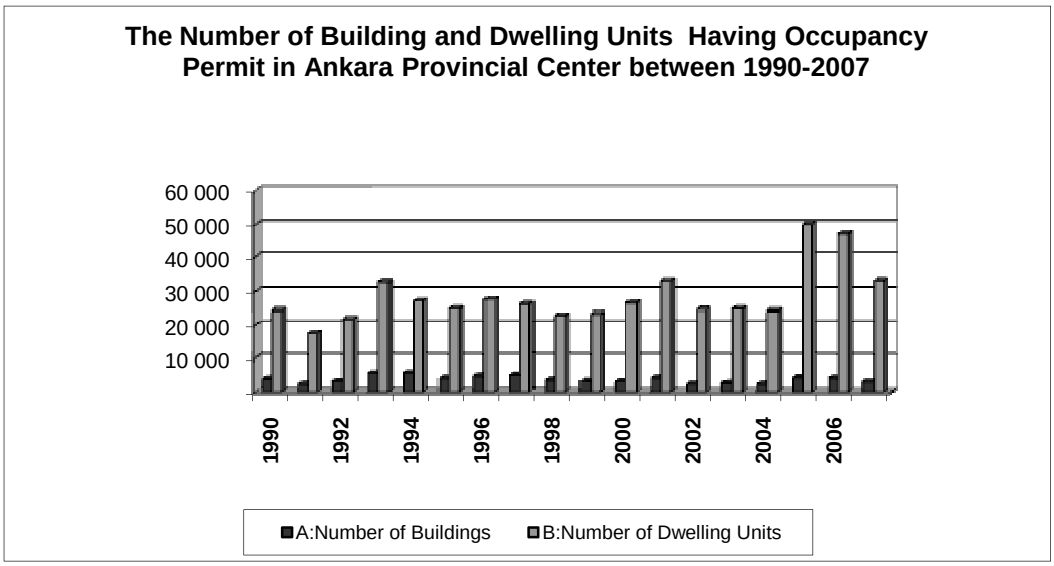

Figure 5.11: Housing production according to occupancy permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The shares of building ownership status in the years between 1990-2007 are denominated in Figure 5.12. The private sector has played an important and dominant role in housing production. The rise of private sector has especially seen after the 2001 economic crisis in the housing market. The number of dwelling units in 2005 reached its top level with dwellings over 60000. The cooperatives were effective between the years 1992-2001. The effect of cooperatives which was felt ambiguous after 2001 economic crisis started to move slightly. On the other hand, the lowest noticeable effect in housing production was made by the public sector at that period compared to the other sectors.

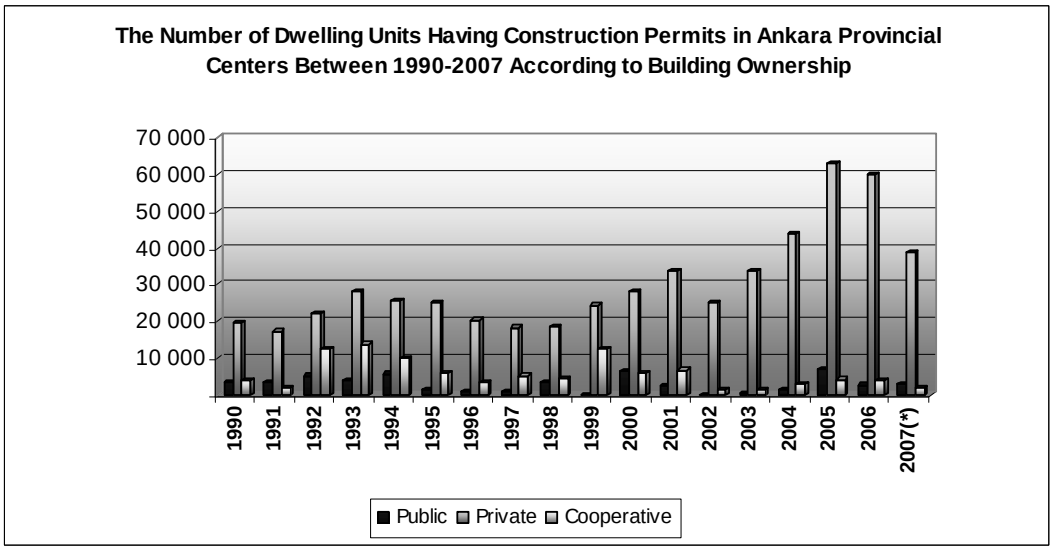

Figure 5.12: The number of dwelling units according to building ownership in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

In Figure 5.13, the share of public sector is shown. The most effective years of public sector in housing production of Ankara Provincial Centre were the years between 1990-1994. It reached its highest level (16%) in 2000. In recent years, the share of dwelling units produced by public sector has accessed to the rates of 1993, 1995 and 2001's.

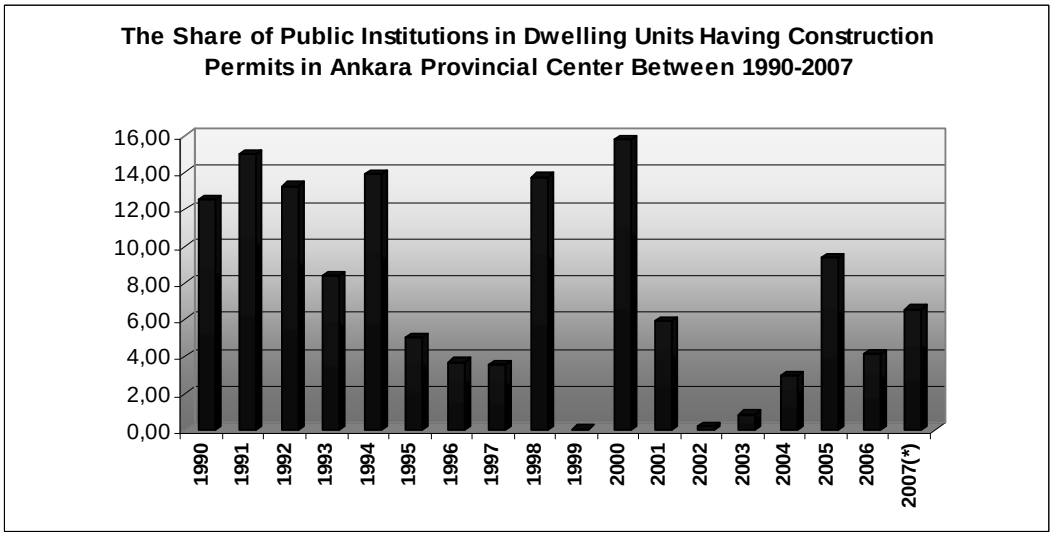

Figure 5.13: The share of public sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

When looked at the private sector, it is effective nearly in all years beginning from 1990 to 2007. Economic crises were not also effective on the private sector so much. The lowest share of the private sector was in 1992 with the percentage of 50. The share of the private sector in the years between 1996-2001 was over 60 percent and in recent years beginning from 2002 its share has been over 80 percent (Figure 5.14).

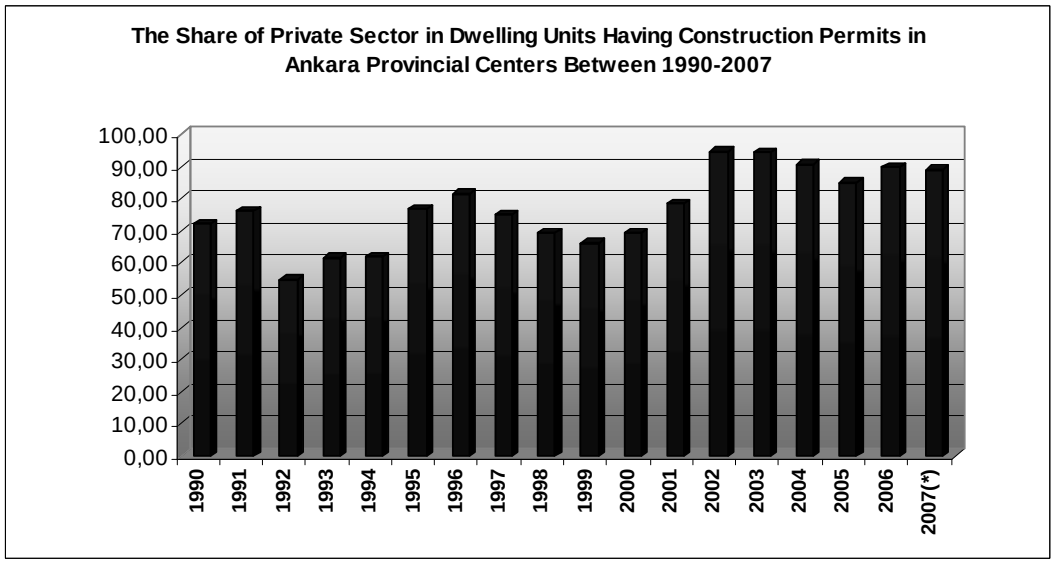

Figure 5.14: The share of private sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

Lastly, the share of cooperatives was effective in the years between 1992-1999. The highest level of their share was reached in 1999. The main reason of the decrease in time is decreasing finance provided for the Mass Housing Funds. In the recent years, the effect of cooperatives can not be felt as it was before. The share of cooperatives has been nearly 5 percent between the years of 2002-2007 (Figure 5.15).

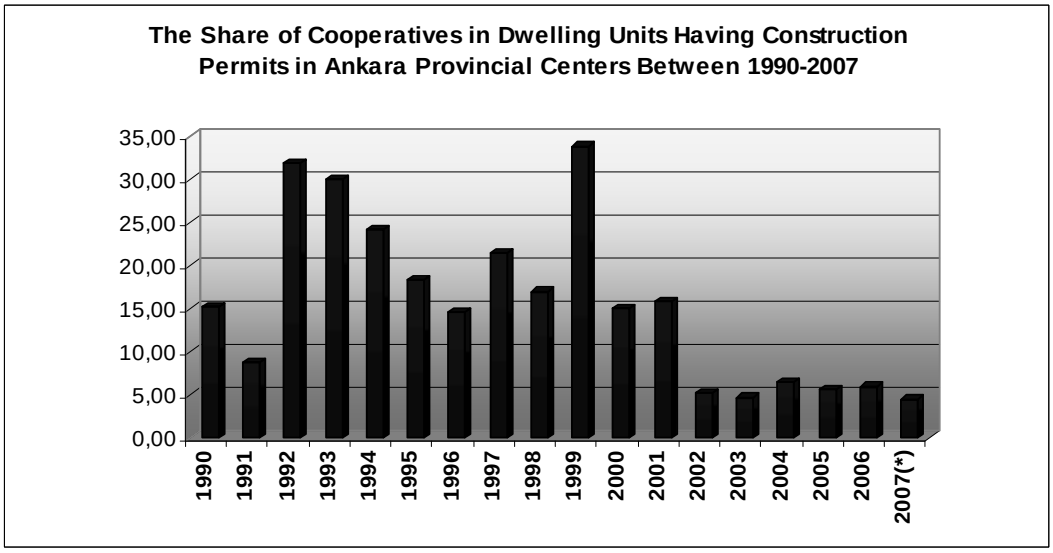

Figure 5.15: The share of cooperatives in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

5.4. A Critical Review of (Sub)Urban Development in Ankara

By the proclamation of Ankara as the Capital of Turkish Republic, the development activities started to be very intensive between1923-1940. Demographic movements, socio-economic conditions, planning decisions and some external factors made important impact on the urbanisation of Ankara.

The construction activities were divided into three spheres: the construction of new public buildings, housing and commercial buildings and infrastructure buildings. During the early years of the Republic, the government made various efforts to solve the housing problem of the rapidly growing city. In this period, the ratio of private sector in housing production increased rapidly since the private sector was supported by government policies of that period.

Housing cooperatives were established to overcome the housing problem, one of the most important aims of the establishment of cooperatives is to take credits from public funds and own a dwelling unit as soon as possible. As growing demand for housing could not be met by individual production and cooperatives,

this caused to yap-satci housing production and accelerated the process of apartments (Akın, 2007:255).

The city was encountered the increasing urban population as a result of the rural to urban migration. Insufficient housing supply results in increasing in housing prices as a result, the migrants could not afford these houses, therefore unauthorized housing units started to increase, first around the city centre, later in the fringe named as *gecekondu*. As from the end of 1940s, the urban periphery was invaded by those gecekondu areas. Concurrently, the Amnesty Laws enacted two times legalized these illegal developments, instead of preventing them. When came to the second half of the 1950s, there was a rapid expansion towards to north-south axis (Figure 5.16).

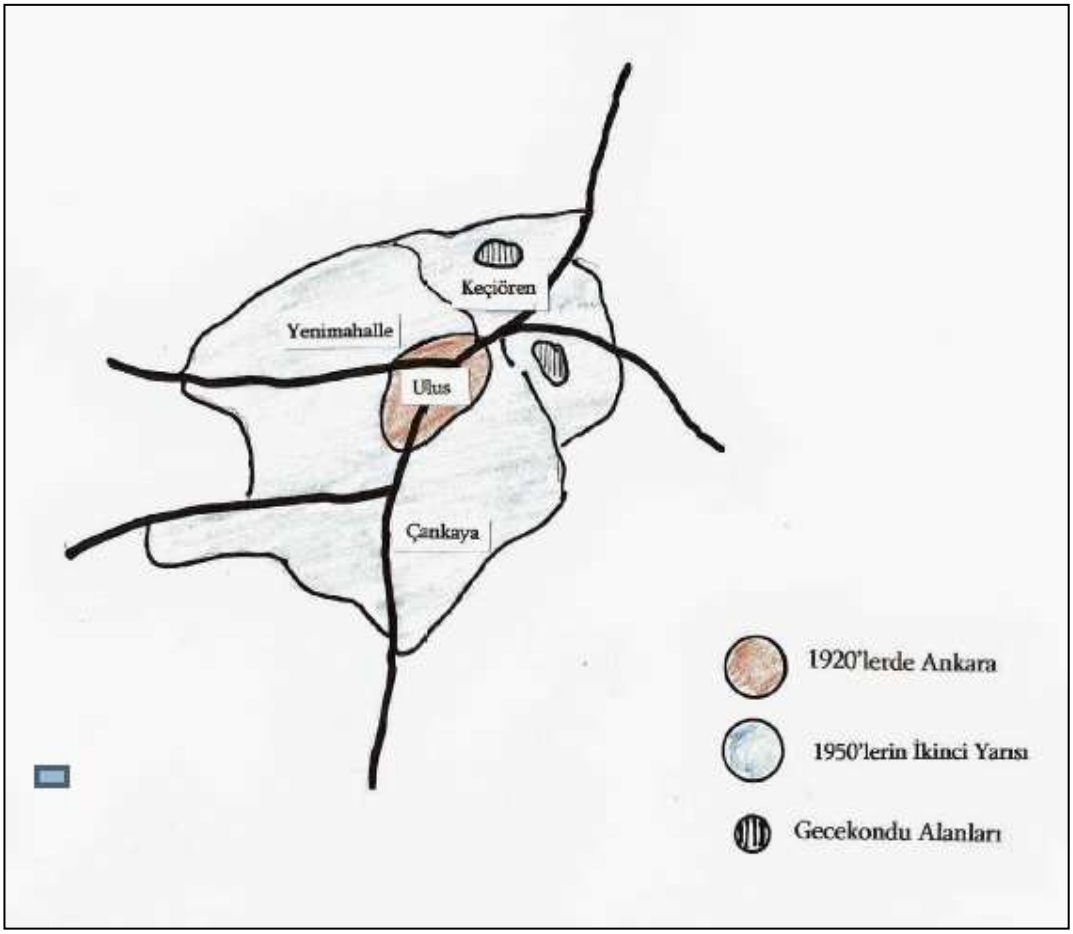

Figure 5.16: Housing development area of Ankara in1923–1954
Source: Akın, 2007

In the meantime, apartment blocks increased especially after the enactment of the Condominium Law[40] in 1965. Both increasing density and the illegal developments at the urban fringe gave rise to declining city centre, increasing congestion, inefficient urban services, inadequate infrastructure facilities and increased air pollution. Regrettably, the planning process and attempts in that period could not be sufficient to prevent the expansion of the periphery in an illegal way.

By giving an important emphasis to the upper-scale planning, Ankara Metropolitan Plan Bureau was founded in 1969 in order to deal with the urban core and urban periphery's problems. After preparing a comprehensive analysis, a new master plan bringing to a new vision and giving to the urban development a new direction was made. In the meantime, housing cooperatives were encouraged as an alternative to yap-satci housing production. By these attempts, the mass housing projects started to ascend towards to the end of 1970s. In addition, Mass Housing Projects were initiated at the outskirts of the city by either cooperatives or house building firms. These projects aim to provide affordable housing units for the middle income groups. As a result, at the end of 1970s, some new settlements aroused in the east-west axis by the orientation of the master plan in addition to the north-south axis development differently from the previous period. The spatial formation model of Ankara shifted to a development model by large scale projects. High-density housing areas, gecekondu areas, many sub-centres and mass housing projects starting in the urban periphery result in the city to acquire a new form (Figure 5.17).

As from the 1980s, by the effect of globalization, large scale housing areas built by large capital building firms were articulated in the city space. Urban development continued by being added on the urban periphery. Therefore, urban agglomeration and congestion in the urban pattern came to being. Urban development areas were also produced by yap-satci small capital builders. The urban renovation concept has only been thought as an urban transformation project which is applied in gecekondu areas in Ankara. The aim of the urban

[40] Kat Mülkiyeti Kanunu, Law No: 634

transformation is not only to improve the physical structure of the city but also to give importance to the economic and social dimension of the city. However in Turkey, the socio-economic dimension has been disregarded in most of the urban transformation project and only physical pattern has been taken into account.

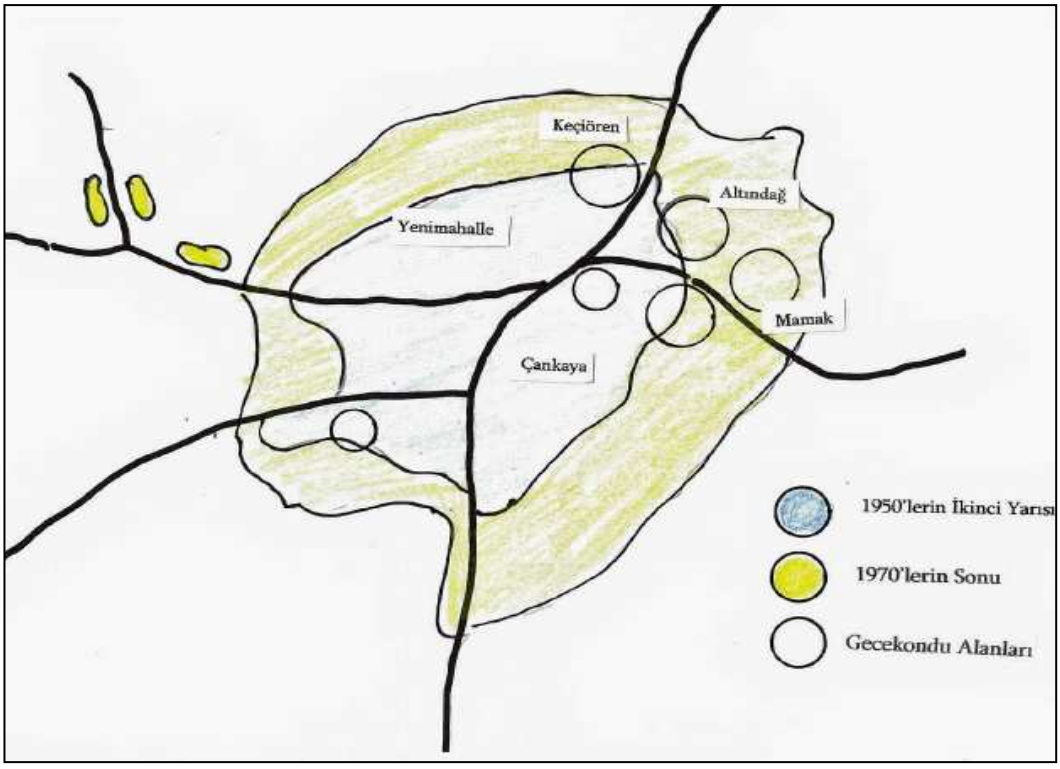

Figure 5.17: Housing development area of Ankara in 1954–1980
Source: Akın, 2007

After the mid-1980s, decentralization movement and building mass housing projects speeded up. The locational choice of the people for urban development showed difference. The north-western development of 1970s shifted towards the south-western part development especially along the Eskişehir Highway and in Gölbaşı. Çukurambar and Çayyolu are the examples of urban transformation and urban growth compatible with the spatial differentiation of the city. There has been a high-density physical transformation in Çukurambar Housing Areas by transforming the existing gecekondu areas into the high-rise blocks. On the other hand, new housing areas along Eskişehir Highway and Ümitköy/Çayyolu Housing Areas have been opened to low-rise house building and high-rise apartment blocks were also produced in mass housing settlements.

Ankara have been transformed and also grown up. Particularly after the second half of the 1990s, the urban fringe has been expanded with luxurious housing estate developments which became popular among the high-income people. In such areas, private cars have essentially constituted daily commuting. Providing a well-functioned public transport system is difficult and could not be efficient for the newly built sites scattered on a large area.

Therefore, the new housing areas which are articulated as blocks to the urban peripheries of the city, trademark houses, the low life-standard housing areas which are transformed from old gecekondu areas to the high-rise apartments, enormous shopping centres, poor distress areas where the capital never comes for not being profitable, and urban lands which are open to the speculation have composed the new form of Ankara (Figure 5.18) (Akın, 2007:262).

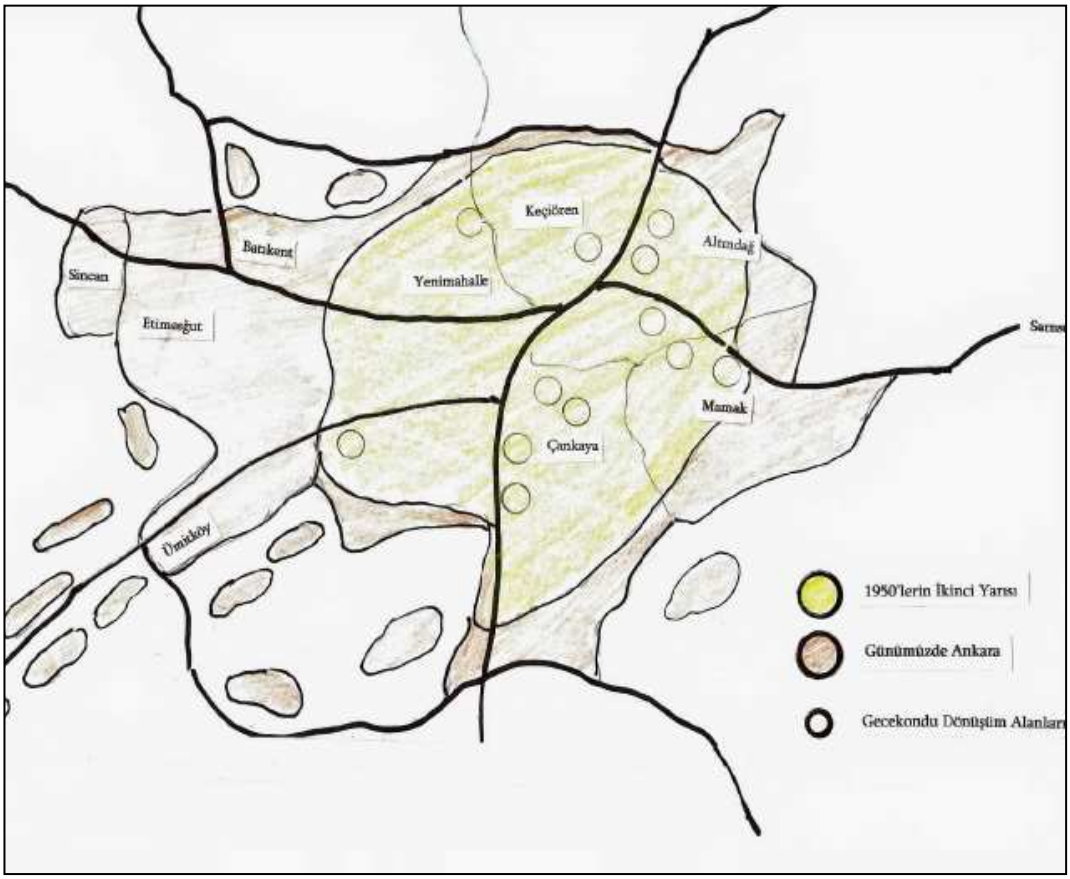

Figure 5.18: Housing development area after 1980'den to present
Source: Akın, 2007

CHAPTER 6

(SUB)URBAN HOUSING DEVELOPMENT ON WESTERN DISTRICTS OF ANKARA: THE CASE STUDY IN ETIMESGUT AND SINCAN

As stated in the previous chapter, Ankara has experienced a fragmentation of urban space, especially in the following years of 1980s. The fragmented pieces of the city are unauthorized built areas, which gain legal status with laws, unauthorized built areas which are illegal with the new migrants, legal residential districts both in the inner city and at the outskirts of the city. In the previous period of urban expansion pattern of Ankara, concentration of upper-middle classes was in the inner city, and lower class unauthorized built areas were at the outskirts of the city, the expansion of upper-middle and middle class residential districts have been towards outskirts of the city. While all these developments on the housing pattern of Ankara were eventuating, lower-middle and middle class sub) urban movement can not be disregarded. The western corridor of Ankara is not only the outskirt settlements where the upper and upper-middle classes choose but also some parts of the western corridor particularly Sincan and Etimesgut are preferred by middle and lower-middle income groups. Because the land price and as a result the houses are cheaper when compared to the other suburban settlements in the western and south-western part of the city. The residents living in those settlements are getting benefit from the advantages against being far away from the city centre by more environmental facilities, lower densities and better urban services and comfortable life-styles when compared to centrally located neighbourhoods.

In that sense, it is useful to indicate the current situation of the housing market in Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities with regards to the construction and occupancy analyses.

In this section, (sub) urban housing developments of middle or lower-middle income classes in Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities will be focused on, considering the hypotheses. In that context, the study comprises of two major parts: the (sub) urban development in Etimesgut Municipality and (sub) urban development in Sincan Municipality.

Before analysing those two major parts, it is important to reveal the population and building densities of Etimesgut and Sincan by comparing spatial variation of the built environment in the Ankara Provincial Centre. Then, (sub) urban development in the boundaries of Etimesgut Municipality and Sincan Municipality will be investigated within the context of construction and occupancy permits as well as different housing provision types from each quarter of districts. Then, concluding hypotheses which are questioned in the chapter 7 will be put at the conclusion part of this chapter.

6.1. Evaluation of Population and Building Densities of Etimesgut and Sincan by Comparing Spatial Variation of the Built Environment in the Ankara Provincial Centre

In the first part, it will be useful to look at the population and building density of Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities after 1990s (Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2) in order to understand current formation of those municipalities. To this end, housing and population densities will be shown by thematic maps made by using GIS[41] techniques with those of TSI data variables.

[41] Geographical Information Sytems (GIS), Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri (CBS)

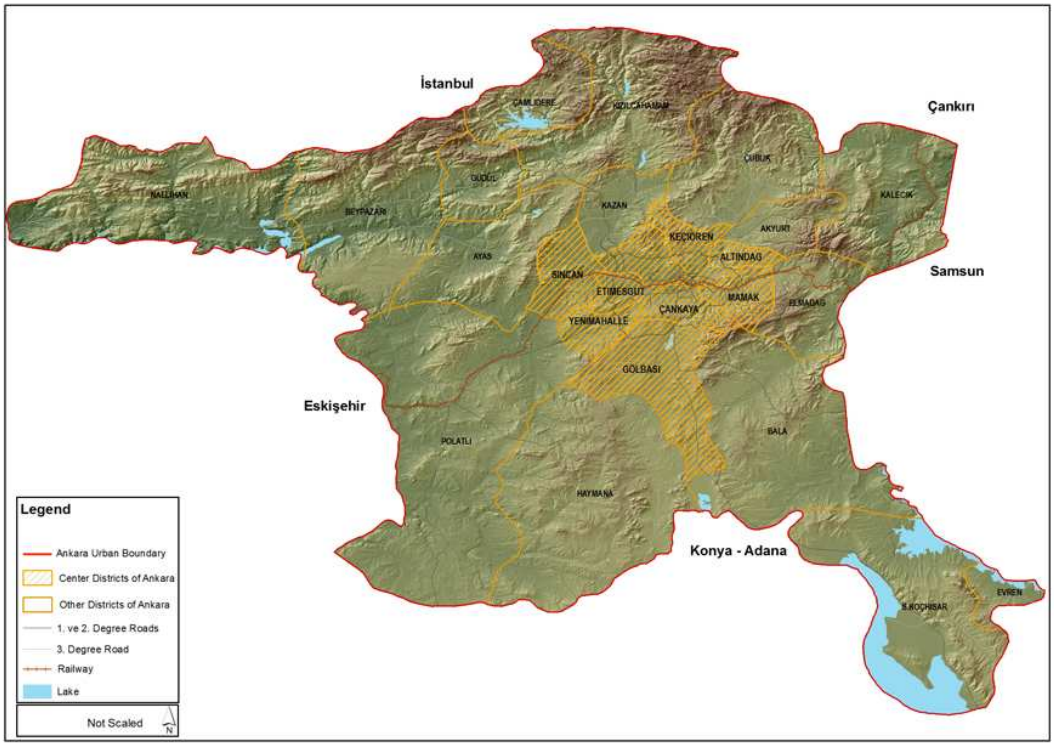

Figure 6.1: The topographic map of Ankara Province with its provincial districts

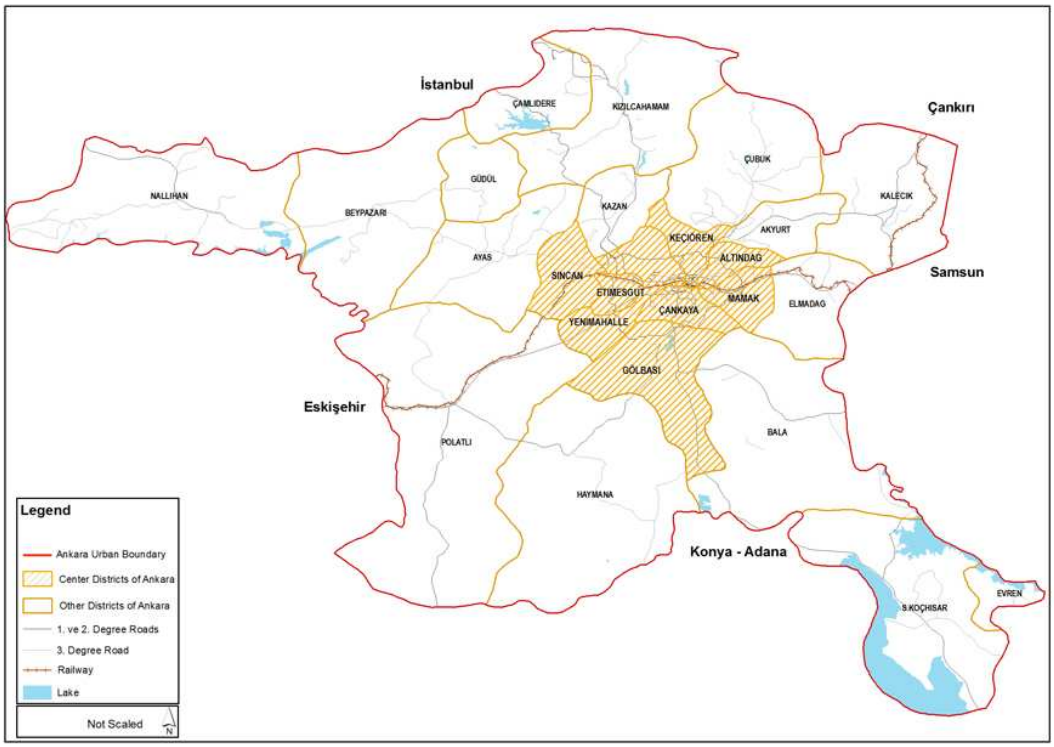

Figure 6.2: The placement of etimesgut and sincan districts in the boundaries of Ankara Provincial Centre

A research of population and building densities in the Ankara Provincial Centre reveals that there are certain regions which show completely different composition within general structure of the city. The population of Etimesgut and Sincan Districts in 2000 and 2007 are shown in Figure 6.3- 6.4.

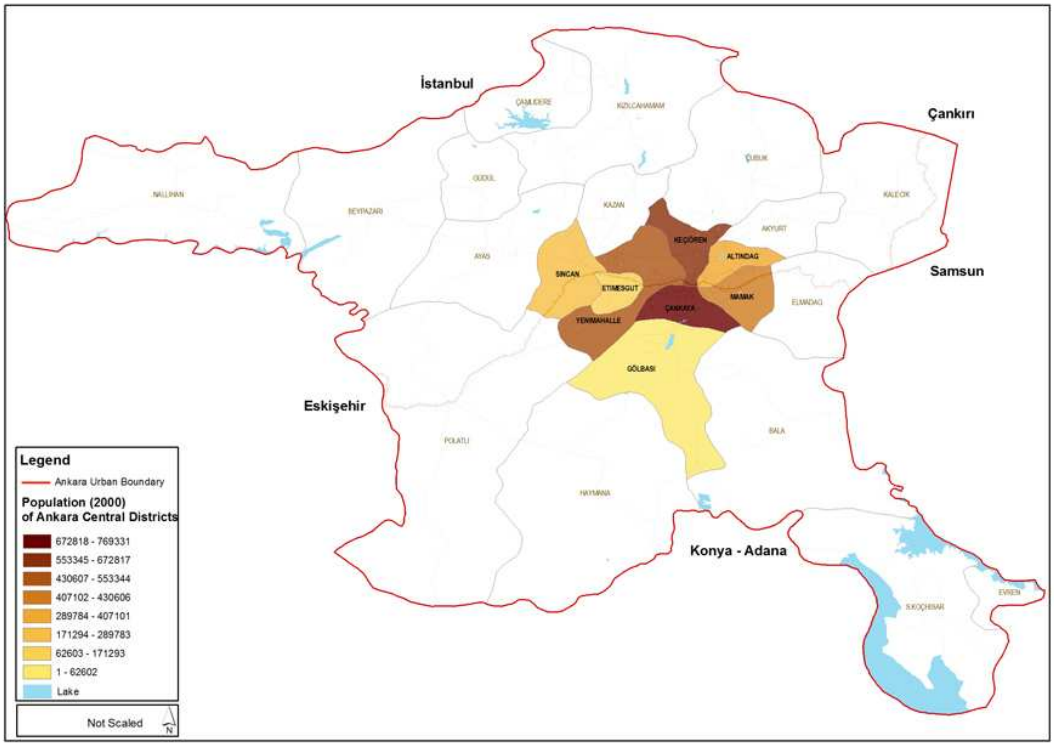

Figure 6.3: The map of population 2000 of Ankara Central Districts

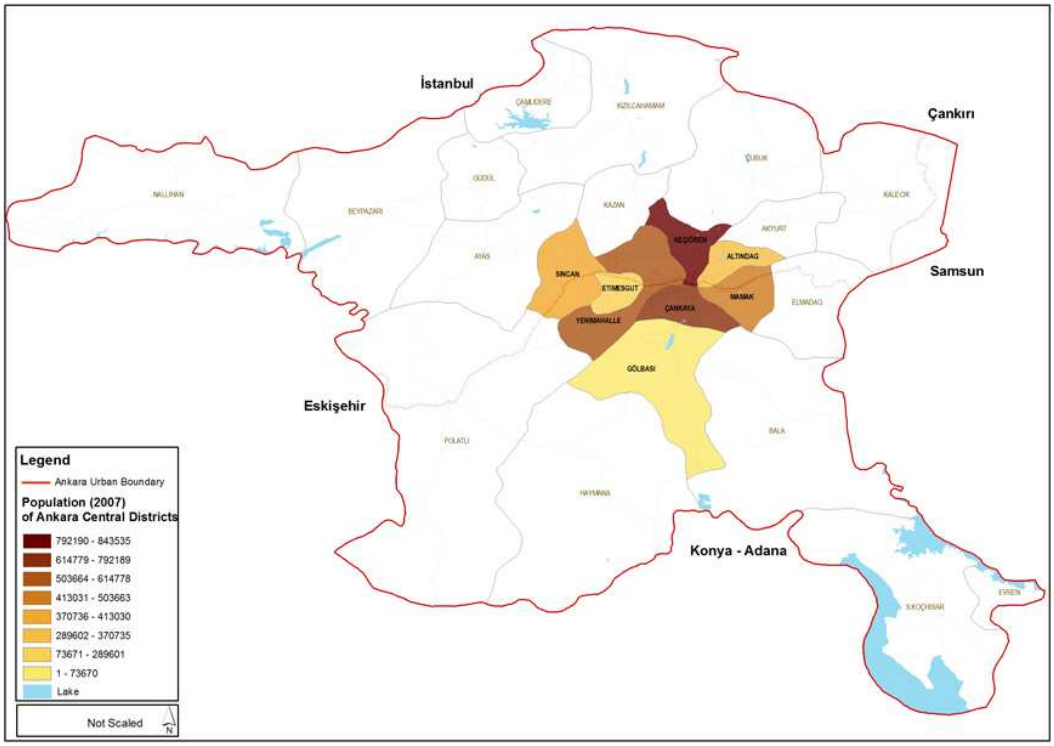

Figure 6.4: The map of population 2007 of Ankara Central Districts

Considering districts by gross density categories of persons per hectare[42] in Figure 6.5-6.6, Sincan remained nearly same 2000 and 2007 while the density of Etimesgut has increased in time. Since the population density analyses above made by GIS techniques compose the total area of districts including non-residential and inconvenient areas, the ratio of persons per hectare is quite low. In spite of this, it is important to show these analyses in order to compare the density of Etimesgut and Sincan with other districts of Ankara Provincial Centre.

[42] Gross density of persons per hectare is calculated by dividing 2000 and 2007 population census data of districts to total area of districts (including non-residential and inconvenient areas

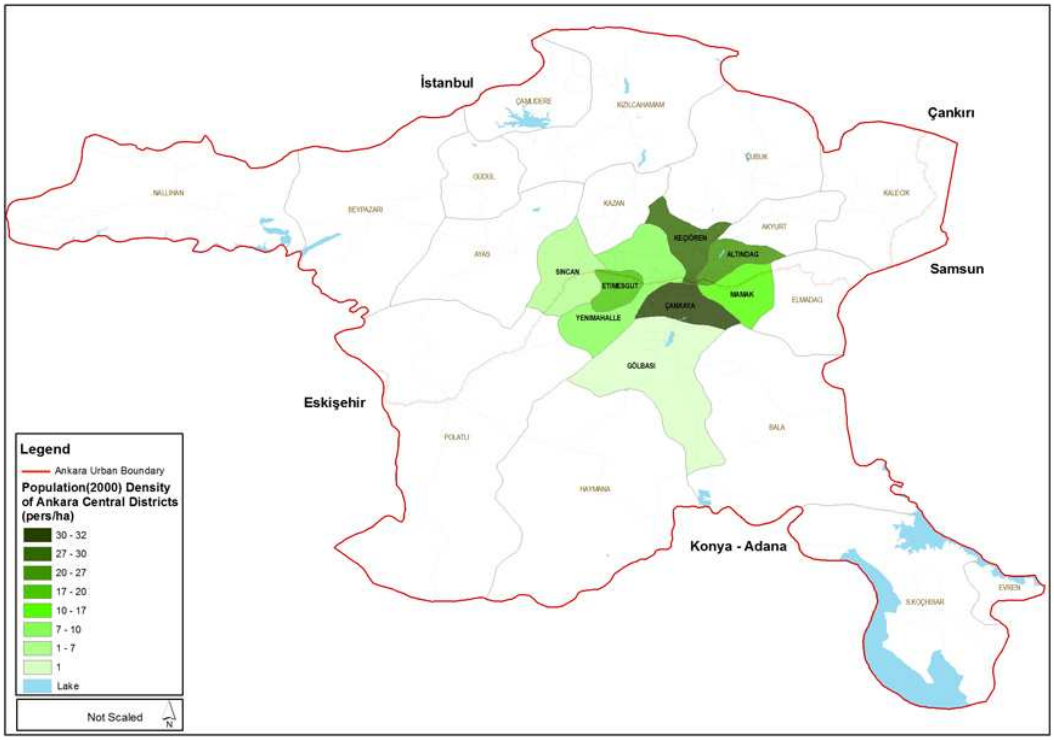

Figure 6.5: Distribution of districts in the Ankara Provincial Centre borders with respect to gross density categories of person per hectare (2000)

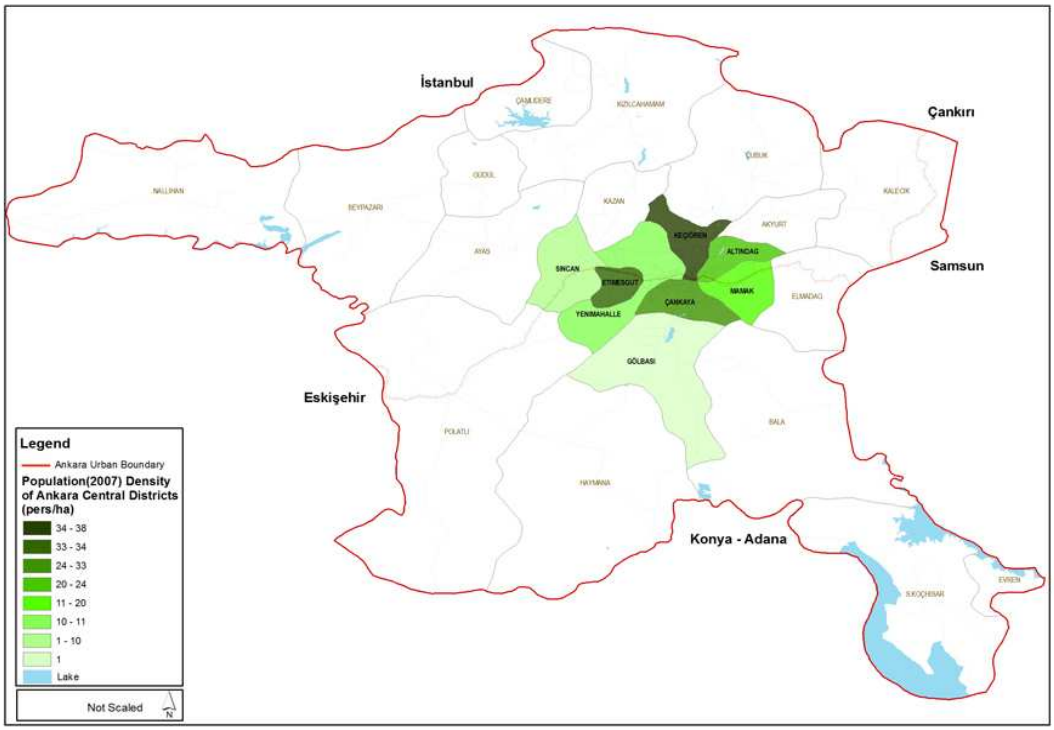

Figure 6.6: Distribution of districts in Ankara Provincial Centre borders with respect to gross density categories of persons per hectare (2007)

Apart from the population densities, it is important to reveal the building densities Number of dwelling units of each districts is shown in Figure 6.7-6.8. In Figure 6.8, it is an approximate number of dwellings units because subtraction from the stock since year 2000 and uncompleted dwellings that have begun to be built after 2000 are not included.

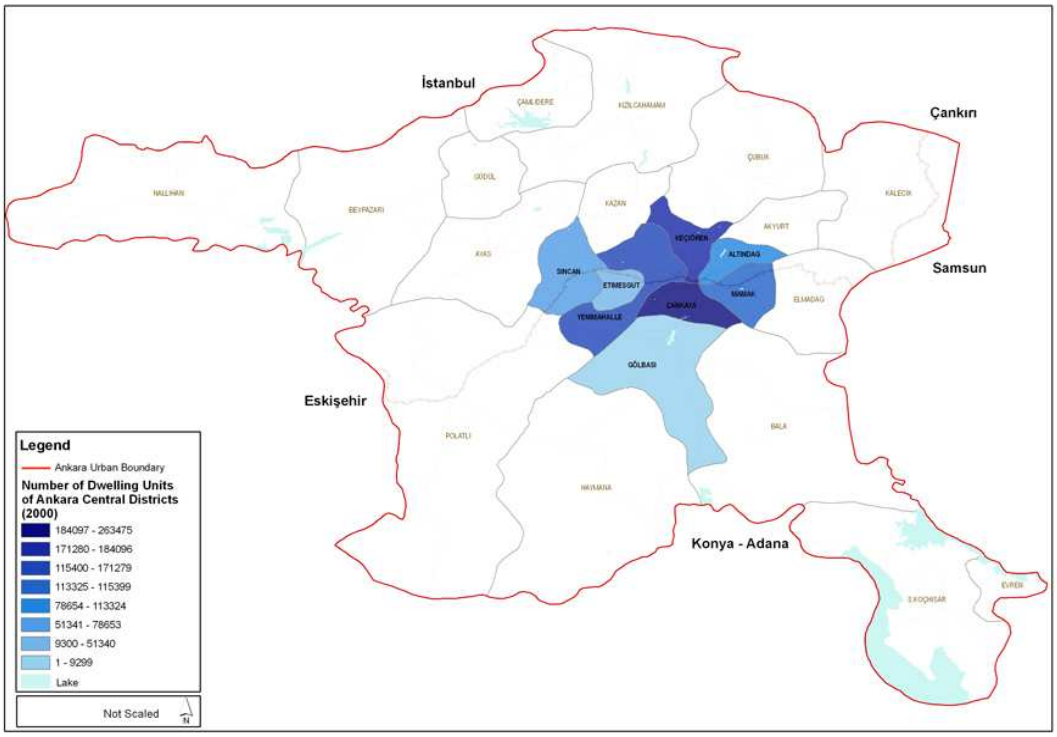

Figure 6.7: Number of dwelling units in Ankara Provincial Centre (2000)
Source: TSI, Building Statistic 2000

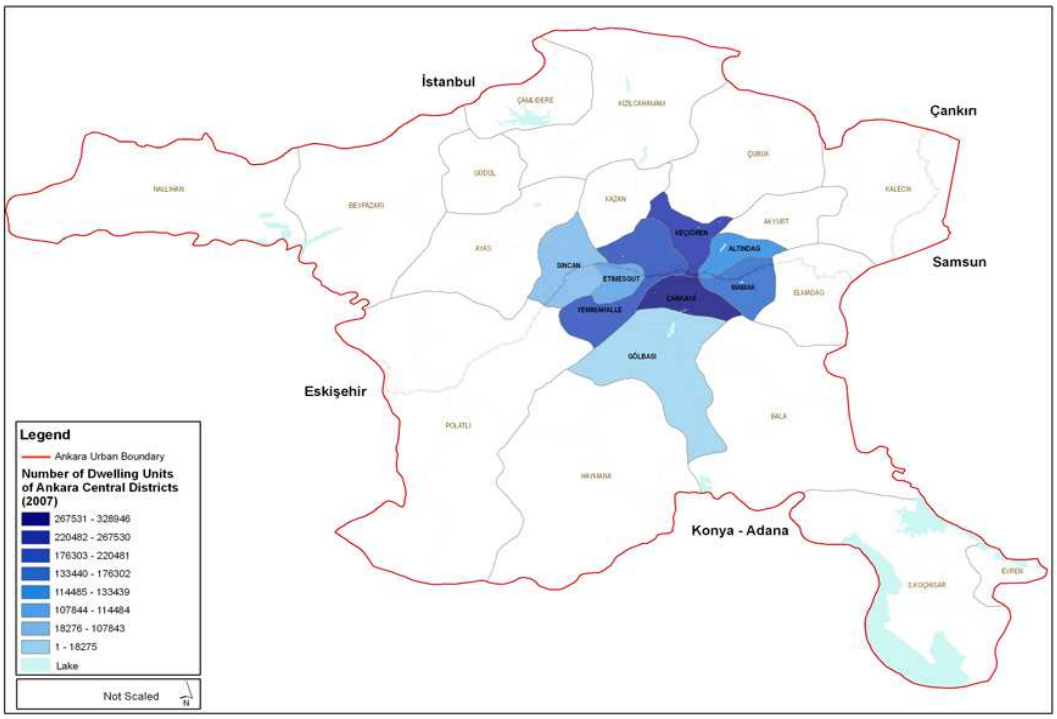

Figure 6.8: Number of dwelling units in Ankara Provincial Centre (2007)
Source: TSI, Building Statistic 2000[43]

In addition, in Figure 6.9 and Figure 6.10 number of dwelling units of quarters are summed up and divided to the total area of each district to find gross density of dwelling units according to 2000 and 2007. It can be clearly seen that there are slightly increase of densities.

[43] Number of Dwelling Units in 2000 plus construction permits between 2001-2007.

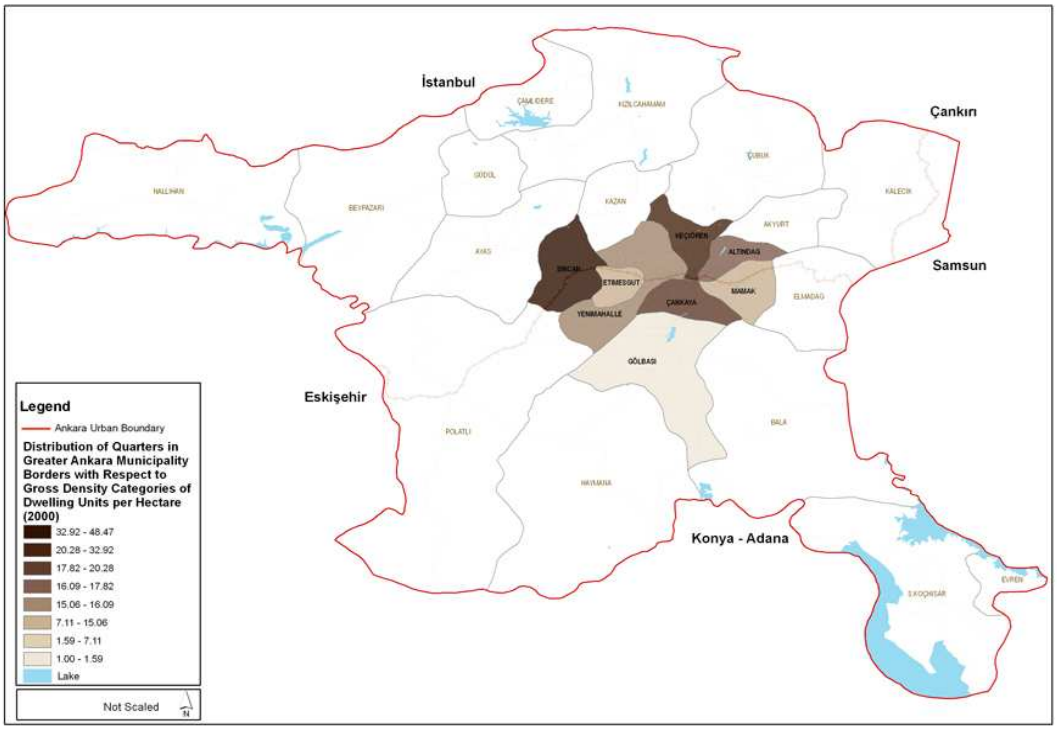

Figure 6.9: Distribution of districts in the Greater Ankara Municipality borders with respect to gross density categories of dwelling unit per hectare (2000**)**
Source: TSI

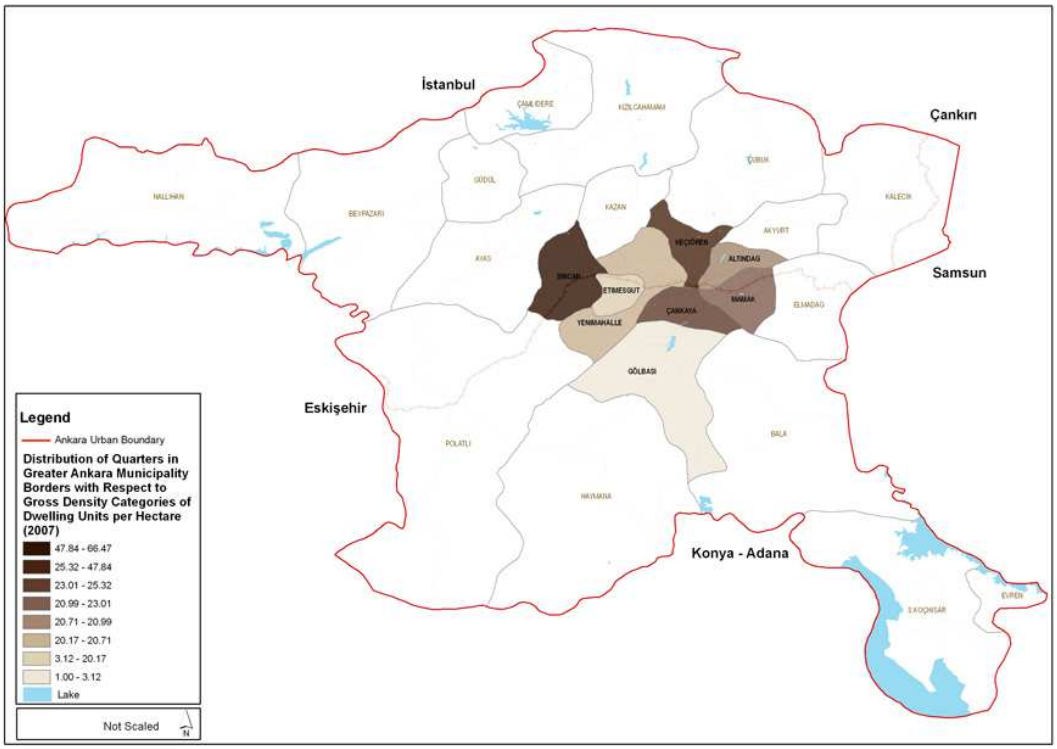

Figure 6.10: Distribution of districts in the Greater Ankara Municipality borders with respect to gross density categories of dwelling unit per hectare (2007)
Source: TSI

As a result, the distribution of quarters within Ankara Provincial Centre borders with respect to the number of people per dwelling unit according to 2000 and 2007 is indicated in Figure 6.11 and Figure 6.12. According to Figure 6.11, the number of people per dwelling unit in 2000 is between 2,92 -3,93, while this number is between 3,59-3,65 in Sincan. In 2007, the number of people per dwelling unit in Etimesgut has been decreasing, the number of people per dwelling unit in Sincan has been increasing even these rates are composed from the first 9 months of 2007.

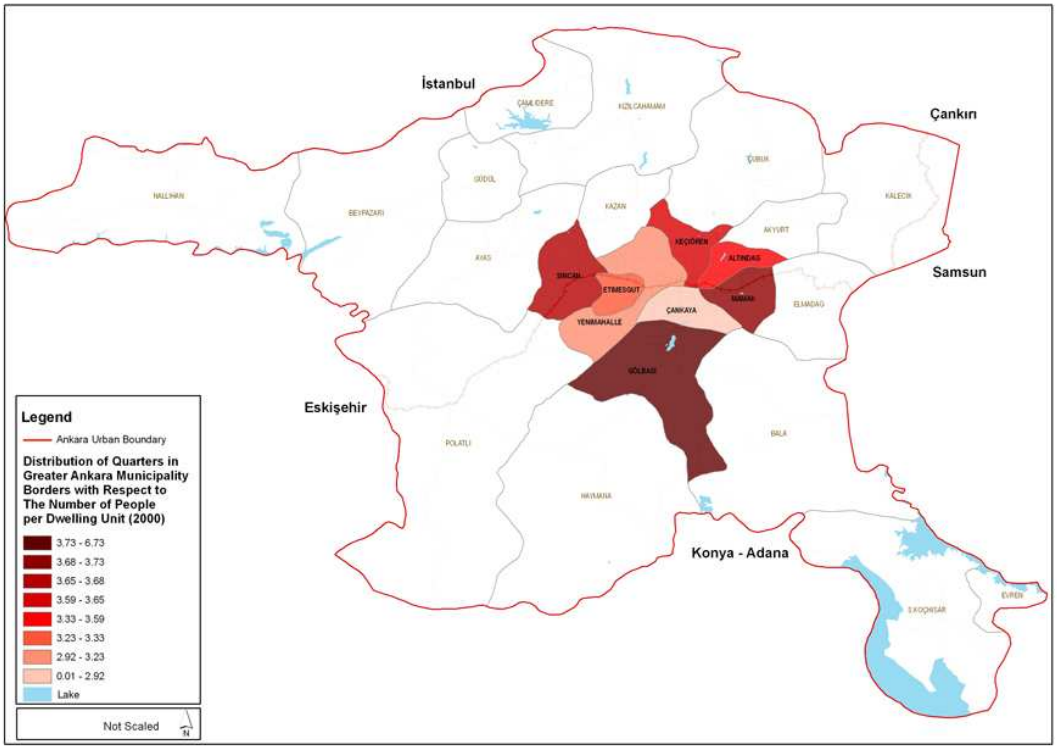

Figure 6.11: Distribution of districts in Greater Ankara Municipality borders with respect to the number of people per dwelling unit in 2000
Source: TSI

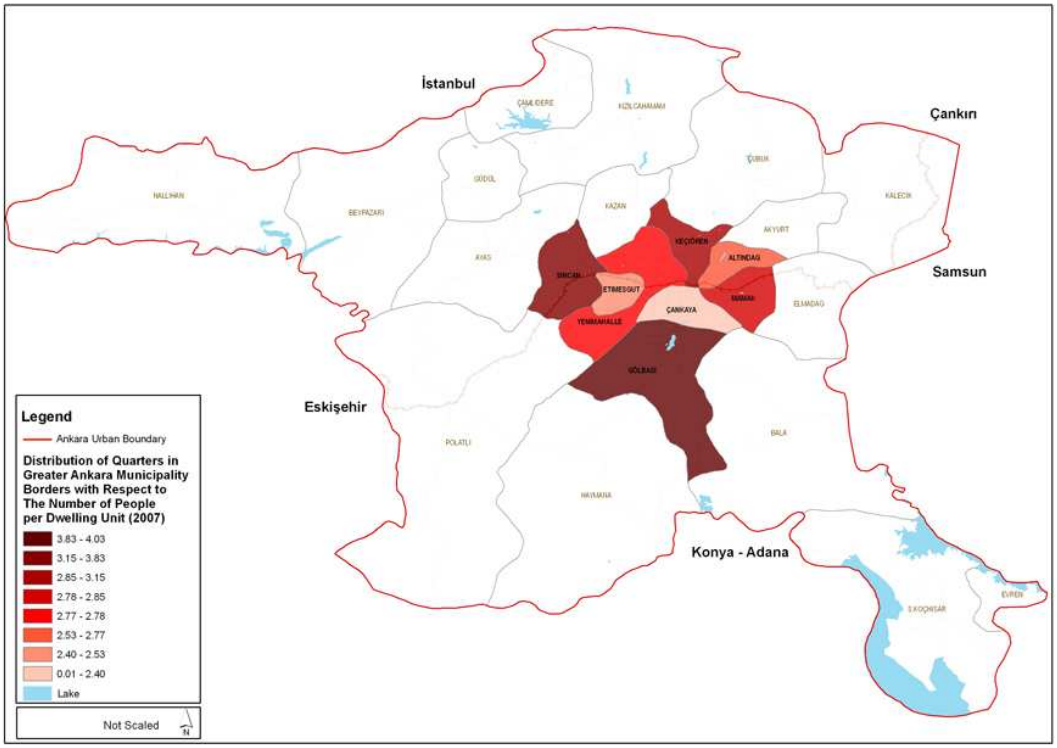

Figure 6.12: Distribution of districts in Greater Ankara Municipality borders with respect to the number of people per dwelling unit in 2007*
Source: TSI
* Dwelling unit numbers have composed the first 9 months of 2007.

6.2. (Sub) urban Housing Development of Middle and Lower-Middle Class Households in Etimesgut

In this part, (sub) urban housing development in the boundaries of Etimesgut Municipality will be analysed in two parts. Firstly, the construction and occupancy permits analyses will be researched according to the statistics obtained from Turkish Statistical Institute. Secondly, the selected housing areas which have different housing types in the boundaries of Etimesgut Municipality will be focused on. Before passing onto construction and occupancy permits analyses, it is useful to mention about the general view about the Etimesgut District.

Etimesgut is one of the districts within the boundaries of the Greater Ankara Municipality (Figure 6.13). The two tier municipal organization was established

in 1990, before this date it was within the boundaries of the Yenimahalle Municipality.

When looked at the ratio of urban population in Etimesgut, it still continues to increase. According to population census 1990, it was 98.8%; in 2000 it reached 99.02%. Urban population increased by 142% in 1990-2000 while the number of individuals increased from 69960 in 1990 to 169615 in 2000. According to the last population census made in 2007, the number of individuals living in urban areas reached 289601, while urban population increased by 70.8% in Etimesgut between the years of 2000-2007. (Table 6.1)

Table 6.1: Population change in Etimesgut in 1990-2007 period

	Population in 1990	***Population in 2000***	***Population in 2007***	***% of Population Increase period(per year)***	
				1990-2000	**2000-2007**
Etimesgut	70800	171293	289601	**141%**	**69,6%**
Etimesgut-Urban	69960	169615	289601	**142%**	**70,8%**
% of Urban Population	**98,8%**	**99,02%**	**100%**		

Source: TSI, www.tuik.gov.tr/nufus_sayimi/1990-2000 tablo1-2.xls, last accessed: April 2000

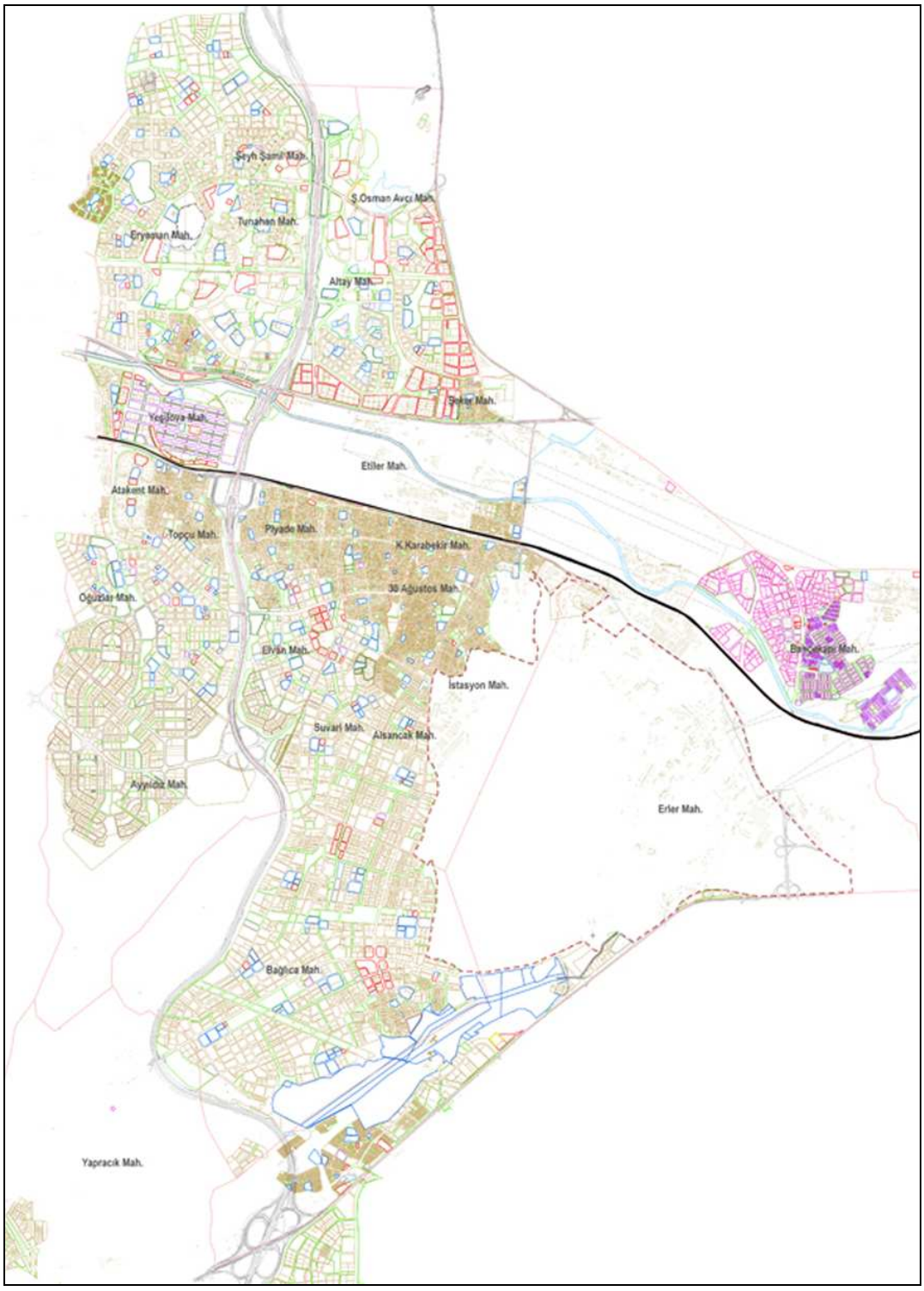

Figure 6.13: The development plan of Etimesgut
Source: Etimesgut Municipality

6.2.1. The Composition of Housing Supply in Etimesgut with regards to Construction and Occupancy Permits

In this part, the housing supply within the context of construction and occupancy permits and also, building ownership in the boundaries of Etimesgut Municipality will be analysed.

Figure 6.14 indicates the number of building and dwelling units having construction permits between 1990-2007. The number of building and dwelling units increases continuously between 1991-1994. The effect of 1994 crisis was felt sharply in the following two years, as 1996 was the year that the lowest number of dwelling units was built. Increase in number of dwelling units starting in 1997 continued until 2000. First noticeable increase after 2001 economic crisis started in 2004, the year of 2005 was the year that the highest number of dwelling units were started to be built in that period. After 2005, there was a decrease in housing starts. The important point which should be taken into account is that there was a big difference between the number of buildings and dwelling units. This big difference shows that there were more apartment building starts in Etimesgut Municipality in that period.

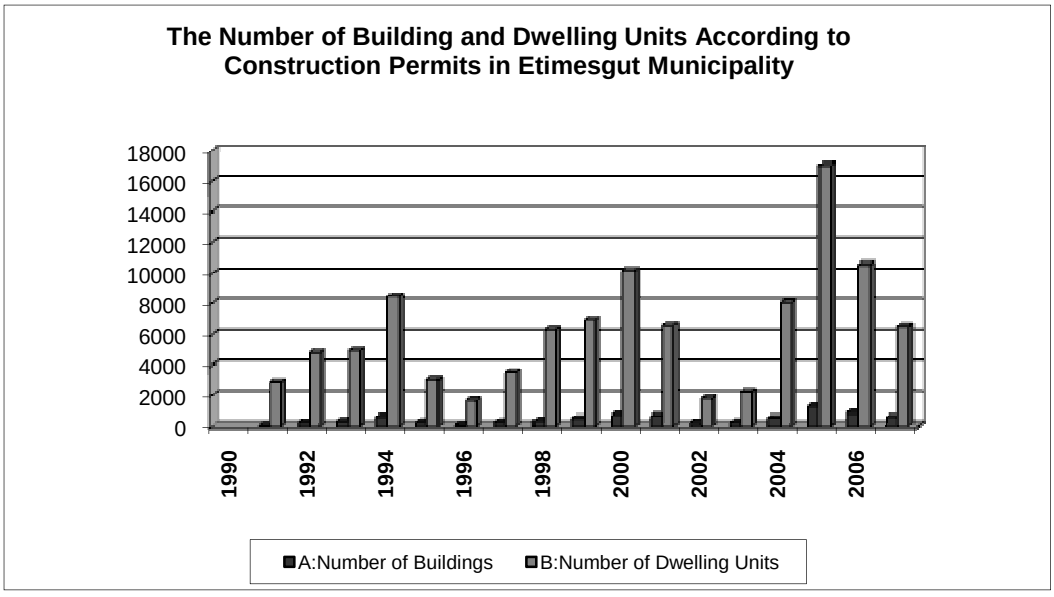

Figure 6.14: Housing production according to construction permits
Source: TSI

In Figure 6.15 the number of buildings and dwelling units according to occupancy permits is shown. This figure exhibits some differences from Figure 6.14. The lowest number of dwelling units was built in 1994 which was the year of crisis. The number of dwelling units reached its top level in 2005 with nearly 9000 dwelling units. It is a well known fact that until a legislative change three years ago, the number of occupancy permits had been almost half of the construction permits, as many completed dwelling units were used without applying for occupancy permits.

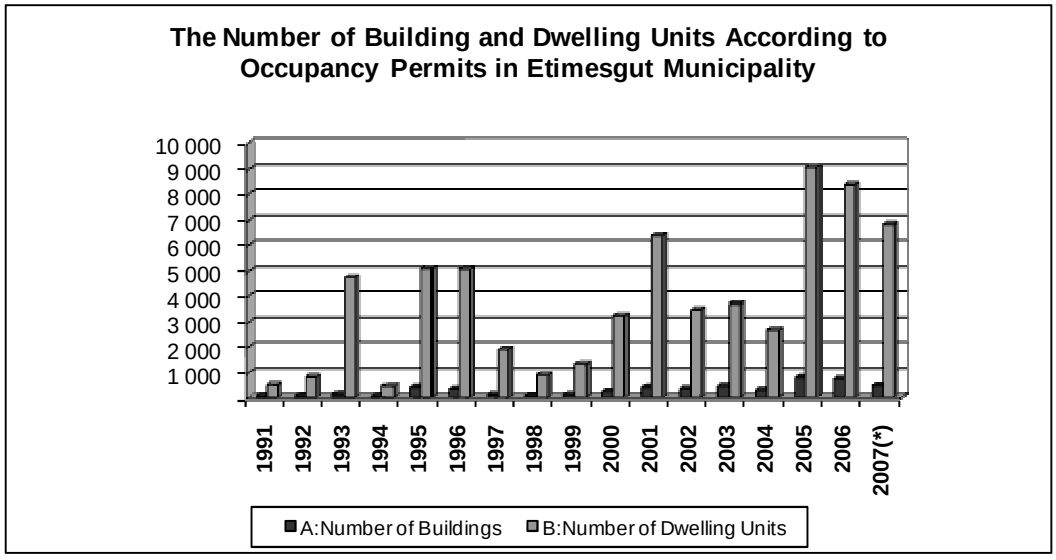

Figure 6.15: Housing production according to occupancy permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The number of dwelling units according to building ownership is indicated in Figure 6.16. The effect of public sector was felt more in housing sector in Etimesgut in 1991-1994, and there was little or no effect of cooperatives in that period. High share of the public sector should be due to the Eryaman Project of HDA as about 8.000 dwelling units were began to be built in the 1991-1993 period. After 1994 crisis, public sector has not been effective on housing production between the years of 1995-1997. The effects of 2001 crisis were felt in all three sectors. The private sector produced 10.000 dwelling units in 2005. The decrease in the volumes of all three forms of provision indicated themselves after 2005.

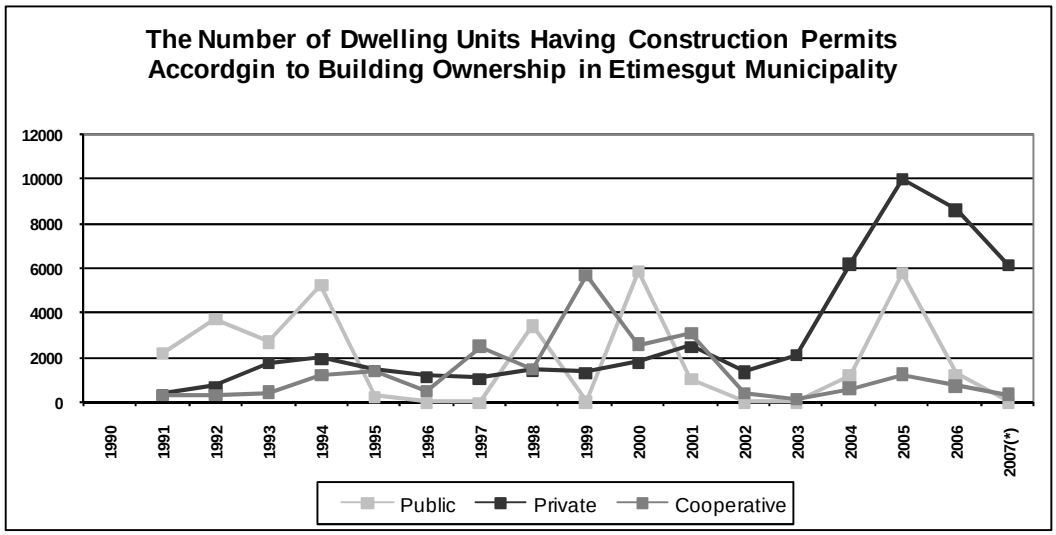

Figure 6.16: The number of dwelling units according to building ownership
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

According to Figure 6.17, the share of public sector was almost 80 % in the years of 1991-1992. These rates were the highest between 1990-2007, after that date it decreased noticeably and between the years 1996-1997 public sector did not produce any dwelling units. The fluctuation continued until the 2001 crisis, the period between 2002-2003 was another dead years of the public sector in housing production. Increase in housing sector after 2003 continued until 2005 and then it started to decrease until nowadays.

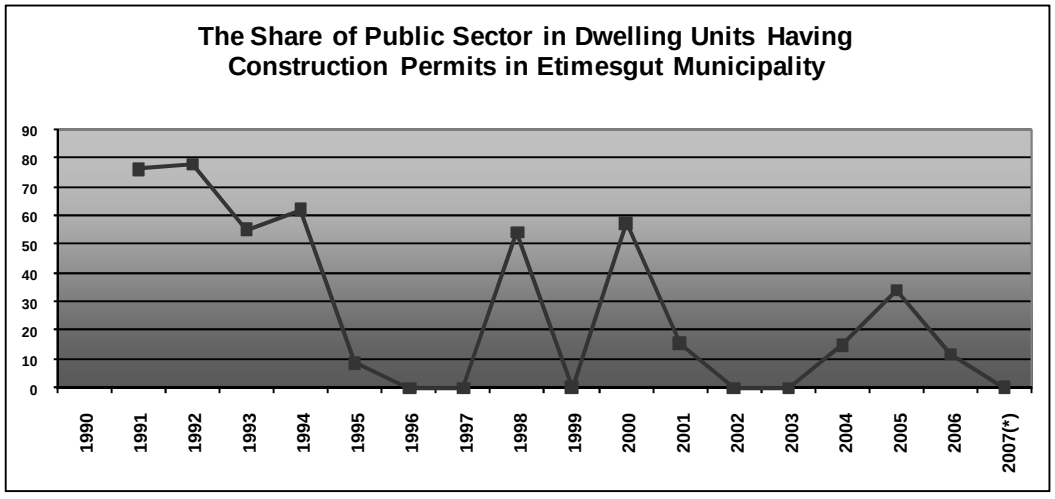

Figure 6 17: The share of public sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The share of the private sector shows an exponential increase during the course of the years. The share of private sector remained under 20% in 1991-1992. Between 1994-1996 it increased significantly and reached 70% in 1996. The big decrease in the private sector's share started in 1996 and it reached to its second bottom level with the rate of under the 20%. The impacts of 1994 and 2001 crisis were not felt in the private sector, on the contrary the share of the sector increased after that crisis. The highest level of the private sector was in 2003 with the percentage of over 90. Although the share of private sector decreased after 2003, it started to increase again after that date (Figure 6.18). The share of the private sector in Etimesgut appears to be related Eryaman Project of HDA, as well as Elvankent and other public sector projects.

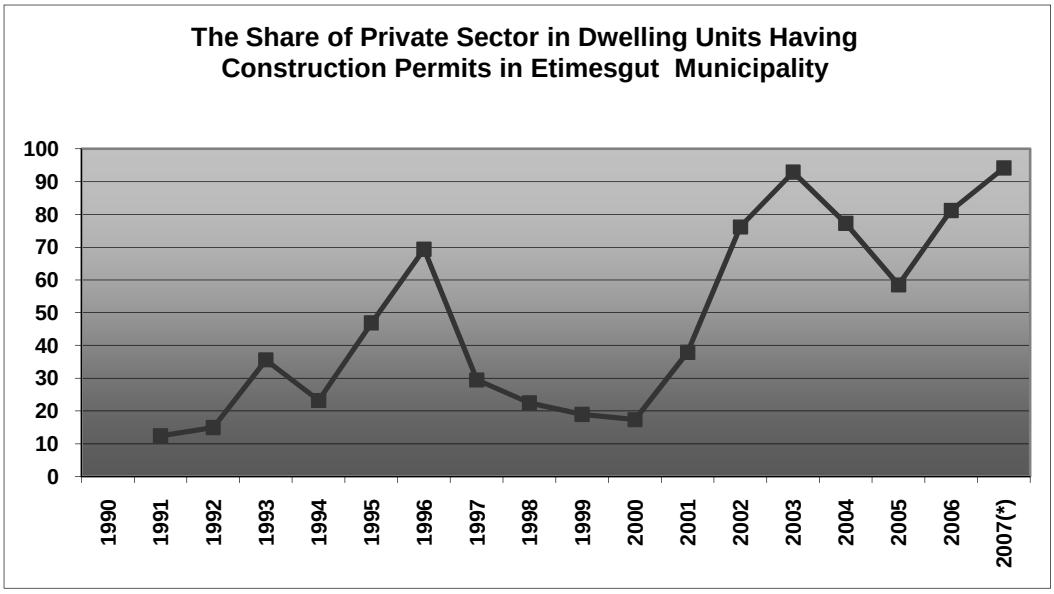

Figure 6.18: The share of private sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

Lastly, the share of cooperatives is shown in Figure 6.19. The effects of cooperatives started to be felt after 1994. The years between 1994-2001 were the golden-years of cooperatives in the housing sector. It reached its highest level in 1999 with the ratio of over 80 %, and the second highest level was in the 1997 with the ratio of 70 %. In the recent years, the effect of cooperatives has nearly been nonexistent, as the ratio of this sector has remained under 10% since 2003.

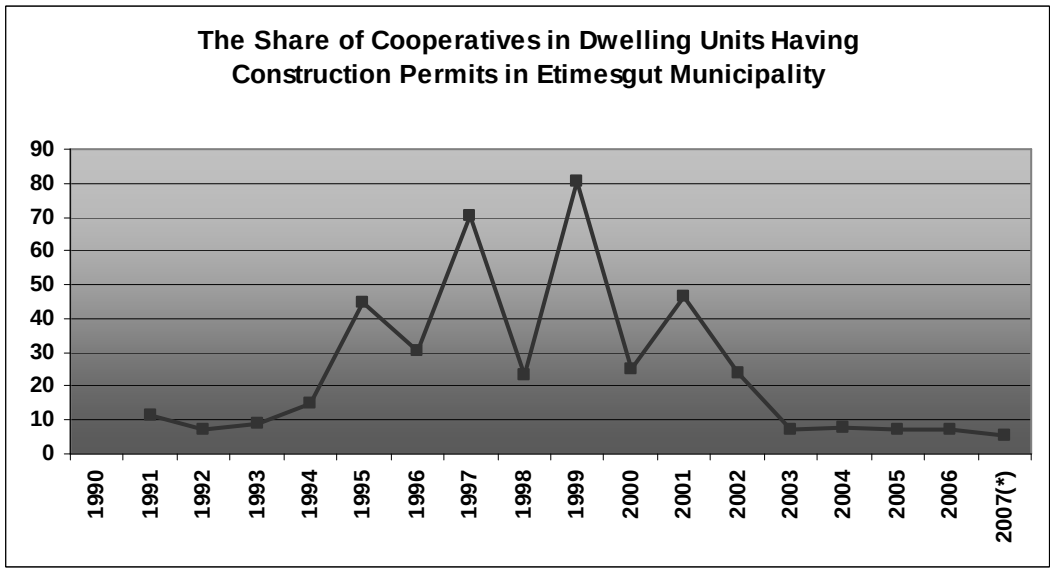

Figure 6.19: The share of cooperatives in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

6.2.2. Housing Stock According to Different Types of Housing Provision in Etimegut Municipality

In this part, different housing types from Etimesgut regarding the residents which are searched in the questionnaire will be focussed on. There have been 22 quarters of the District. Eryaman, Elvankent, Erler, Güzelkent and Elvan quarter are the areas where mass housing projects built. Most of the big scale housing projects in Altay, Elvan and Eryaman quarters have been built by the housing cooperatives and Prime Ministry Housing Development Administration of Turkey (HDA). These mass housing projects have made Etimesgut a magnet for these types of mass housing provision. Apart from the mass housing projects built by the public sector and housing cooperatives, house building by the private sector is dominated by yap-satci producers. HDA has been producing houses in Eryaman in stages.

In order to fulfil these different housing provision types, it will be useful to focus on the sampled quarters of Etimesgut for the questionnaire survey. A total of, 4 quarters were sampled in Etimesgut. These quarters are Atakent quarter which compose Emlakbank houses, which were produced by hand of the public sector, Topçu quarter, which are composed of houses built mostly by housing

cooperatives and the private sector, Piyade quarter, where mostly private sector built houses and lastly İstasyon quarter, mostly private sector built quarter.

6.2.2.1. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Atakent Quarter: Emlakbank Evleri

Atakent is one of the sampled quarters located in Etimesgut District. Emlakbank houses which are produced by the public sector are located in Atakent. Apart from public sector houses, the effect of housing cooperatives especially private ones is affected on the housing pattern. The questionnaire was also applied in areas close to Emlakbank Evleri in order to analyse the household features living in those houses. In Figure 6.20, the placement of Atakent, selected housing areas with their main and substitute avenues are indicated[44].

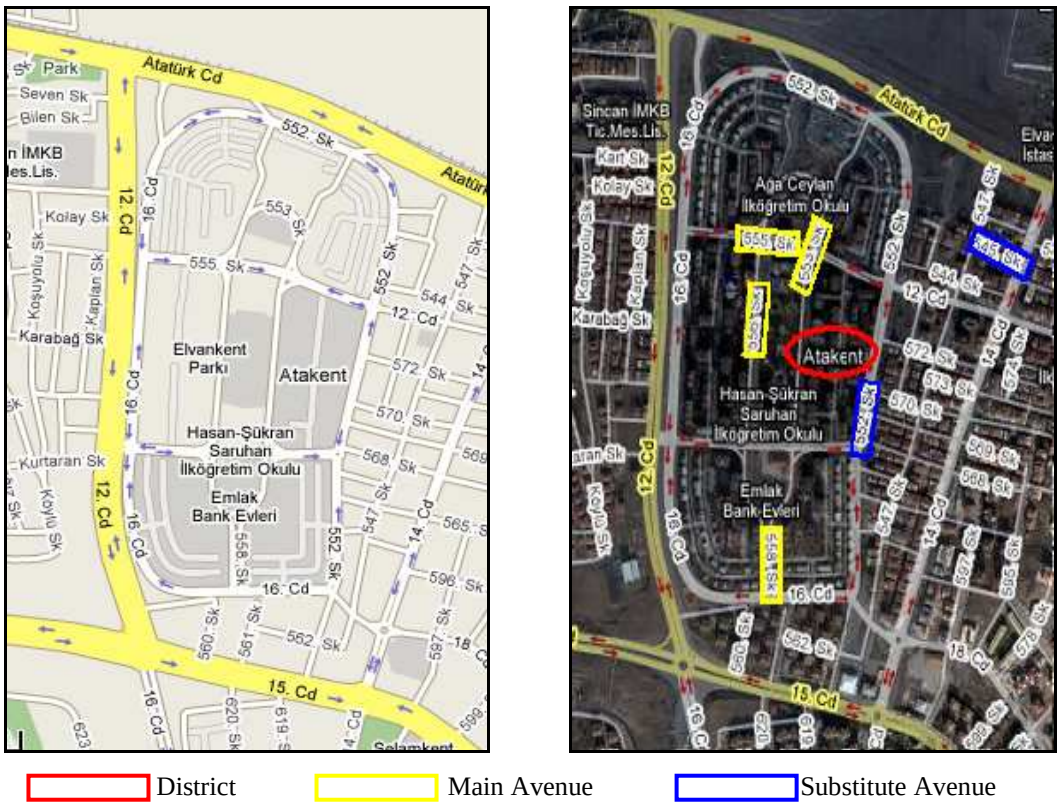

Figure 6.20: The location of Atakent District and the selected areas from Atakent

[44] Main and substitute refer to location of main and substitute samples of dwelling units for the interview survey.

There are also housing estates such as Başlangıç 91 Sitesi, Elvan TK 1 Houses, Elvan TK 2 Houses in addition to Emlakbank Evleri built by the public sector. The low-rise and yap-satci housing patterns are also seen in Atakent even if they constitute quite a little amount in the stock of whole quarter (Figure 6.21-22-23).

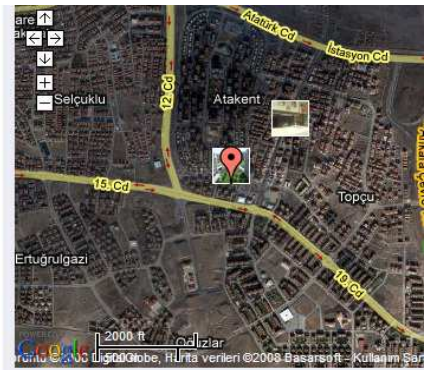

Figure 6.21: Başlangıç 91 Sitesi from Atakent
Source: http://maps.google.com/

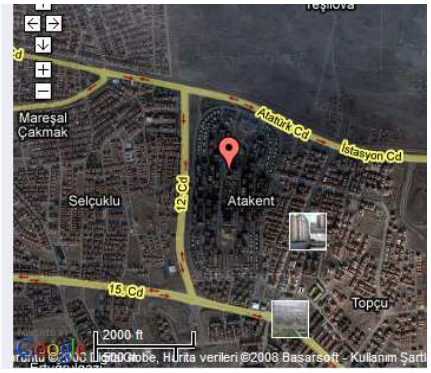

Figure 6.22: Elvan TK1 Houses from Atakent
Source: http://maps.google.com/

Figure 6.23: ElvanTK2 Houses from Atakent
Source: http://maps.google.com/

Figure 6.24: Emlakbank Houses from Atakent
Source: Etimesgut Municipality

Figure 6.25: Low-rise housing types produced by housing cooperatives from Atakent

Figure 6.26: Low-rise houses produced by housing cooperatives from Atakent

Figure 6.27: Yap-satci housing provision from Atakent

6.2.2.2. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Topçu District

Topçu is another selected quarter of Etimesgut (Figure 6.28). There are examples of different housing types in Topcu stated below, such as apartment dwellings which are mostly built by yap-satçı and sites which are produced by housing cooperatives.

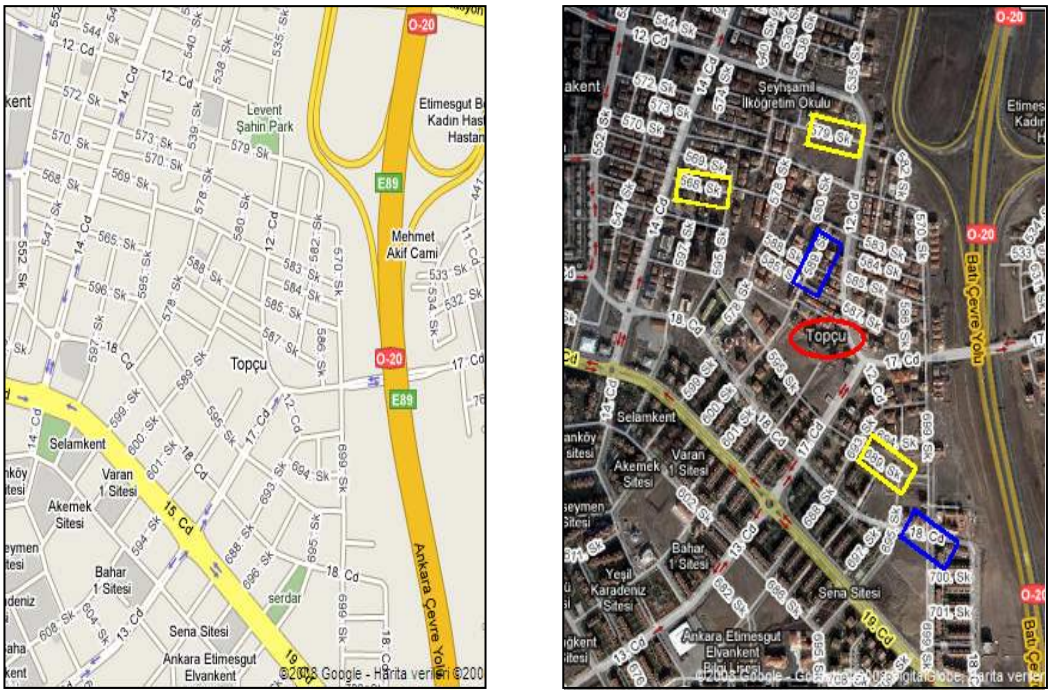

Figure 6.28: The location of Topçu District and the selected areas

Figure 6.29: Yeniay Sitesi from Topçu District

Figure 6.30: Yap-satçı type of housing from TOPCU District

Figure 6.31: Yap-satçı type of housing from TOPCU District

Figure 6.32: Sites from Topçu

Figure 6 33: Sites from Topçu

6.2.2.3. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Piyade District

Piyade is another selected quarter of Etimesgut. It is located near to Şeker Factory and Etimesgut Municipality-Hospital of Gynaecological Diseases. In Figure 6.34, the location of Piyade quarter and the selected avenue for the questionnaire are shown. Yap satçı houses are more preferable in this quarter rather than the housing cooperatives or mass housing projects.

...District Main Avenue Substitute Avenue

Figure 6 34: The location of Piyade District and the selected areas from Piyade

Figure 6.35: A general view to Piyade District from 9th Avenue
Source: http://maps.google.com/

Figure 6.36: Types of houses from Piyade

Figure 6.37: Types of houses from Piyade

6.2.2.4. Housing Types from the Boundaries of İstasyon District

İstasyon is the last quarter selected for the questionnaire from Etimesgut Municipality (Figure 6.38). There are both individually built and yap-satci houses in İstasyon. Moreover, Huzur Sitesi can be given as an example to the "Site" type of house located from the boundaries of İstasyon quarter.

Figure 6.38: The location of İstasyon District and the selected areas from İstasyon

Figure 6.39: Housing types from İstasyon

Figure 6.40: Housing types from İstasyon

Figure 6.41: Huzur sitesi from İstasyon

6.3. (Sub) urban Housing Development of Middle and Lower-Middle Class Households in Sincan

In order to figure out the current situation of housing supply in Sincan, it is important to present some facts about the existing stock. In this part, (sub) urban housing development in Sincan Municipality will be explained in two parts. Firstly, construction and occupancy permits analyses will be made according to the statistics obtained from Turkish Statistical Institute. The recent Building Census, 2000 of the Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI) provides a useful data for these analyses. Secondly, the selected housing areas having different housing types in the boundaries of Sincan Municipality will be explained by using data such as the use of buildings, owner of buildings, etc. Before passing onto construction and occupancy permits analyses, it is useful to mention about the general view about the Sincan District.

Sincan is also another district within the Greater Ankara Municipality (Figure 6.42). The communal organization was established in 1956 as a municipality. Sincan became a district in 1983 and then, it included in the boundaries of the Greater Ankara Municipality in 1988.

Urban population in Sincan was increased by the effect of (sub) urban development in the western corridor. According to the population census of 1990, the ratio of urban population was 90.01%; it reached 92.44% in 2000. In the last population census made in 2007 it was nearly 95%. Furthermore, the rate of urban population increase was 194% for the period of 1990-2000 while the number of individuals reached from 91.016 in 1990 to 267.879 in 2000. On the other hand, the rate of urban population increase is 46.4% in between the years of 2000-2007 whereas the number of individuals reached 392260 in 2007 (Table 6.2).

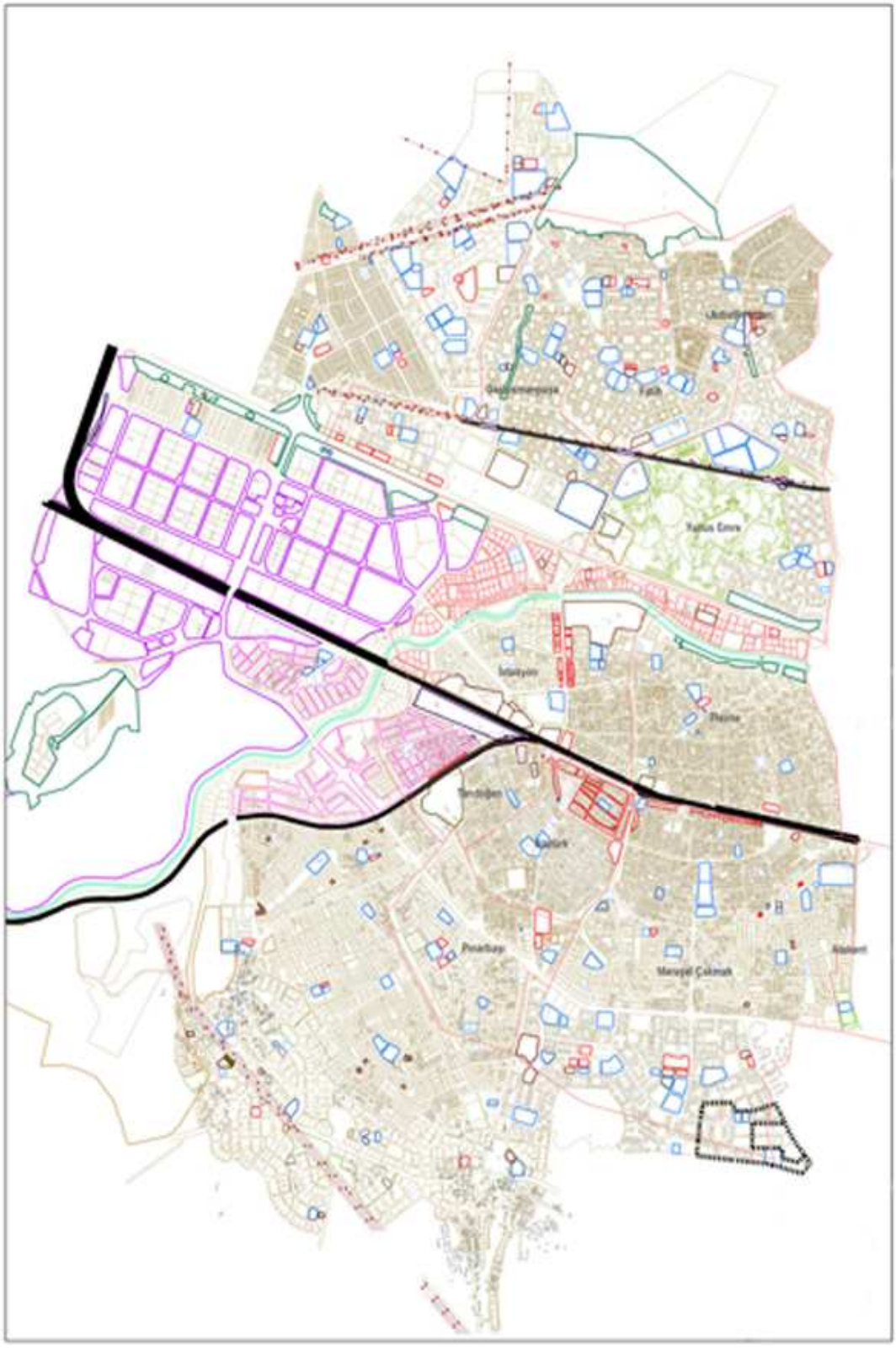

Figure 6.42: The plan of Sincan
Source: Sincan Municipality

Table 6.2: Population change in Sincan in the 1990-2007 period

	Population in 1990	***Population in 2000***	***Population in 2007***	***% of Population Increase period***	
				1990-2000	**2000-2007**
Sincan	101118	289783	413030	**186%**	**42,5%**
Sincan-Urban	91016	267879	392260	**194%**	**46,4%**
% of Urban Population	**90,01%**	**92,44%**	**94,9%**		

Source: TSI, www.tuik.gov.tr/nufus_sayimi/1990-2000 tablo1-2.xls, last accessed: April 2008

6.3.1. Composition of Housing Supply in Sincan with Regard to Construction and Occupancy Permits

In this part, housing supply within the context of construction and occupancy permits and also, building ownership in the boundaries of Sincan Municipality will be analysed.

Figure 6.43 indicates housing production according to construction permits in Sincan Municipality. The number of dwelling units that the construction permits was given reached its highest level in the years of 1992-1993. By the effect of 1994 crisis, it started to decrease. This decrease continued during four years. In the following three years starting with 1999, the number of dwelling units remained under 4000. The impact of 2001 crisis was felt sharply in housing production, at the meantime the number of dwelling units reached its bottom level in the four years period during the 2001 crisis. 2002-2003 were the years that fewer than 2000 dwelling units were built. Although the sector started to awaken in 2004, there were also decreases after 2005.

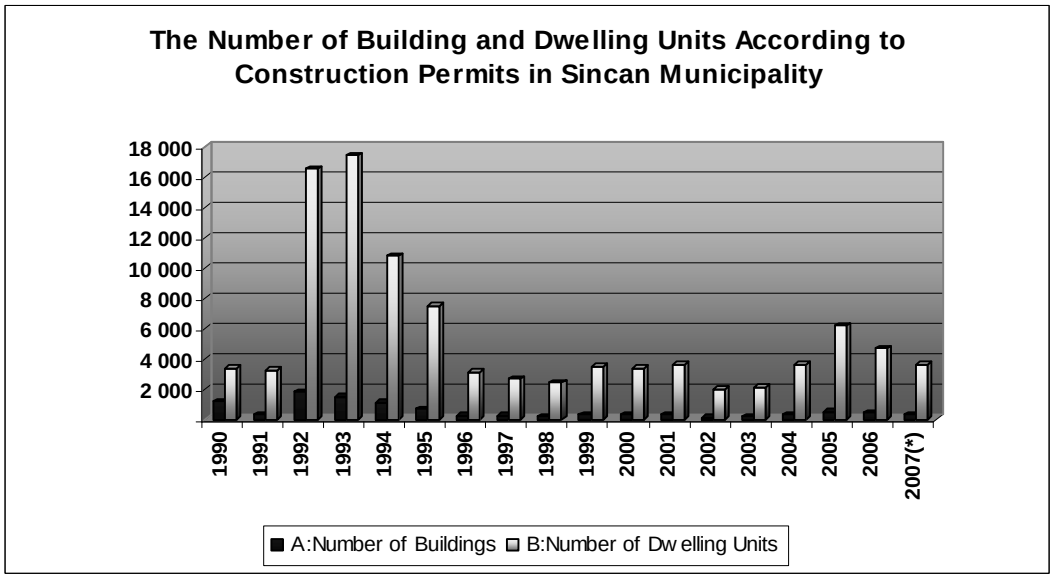

Figure 6.43: Housing production according to construction permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The number of building and dwelling units according to occupancy permits in the same period is indicated in Figure 6.44. Unlike the construction permits the number of dwelling units did not reach its highest level in the years of 1992-1993, however the occupancy permits was taken for over 5.000 dwelling units in the period of 1993-1995. The effect of 1994 crisis was felt after 1995 and the number of dwelling units reached its second bottom level in 1998 with almost of 2.000 dwelling units. The 2001 crisis impacted the number of dwelling units having occupancy permits also. The number of dwelling reached its highest level in 2005. The number of occupancy permits given to dwelling units began to decrease after 2005 and it was over 6.000 in 2006.

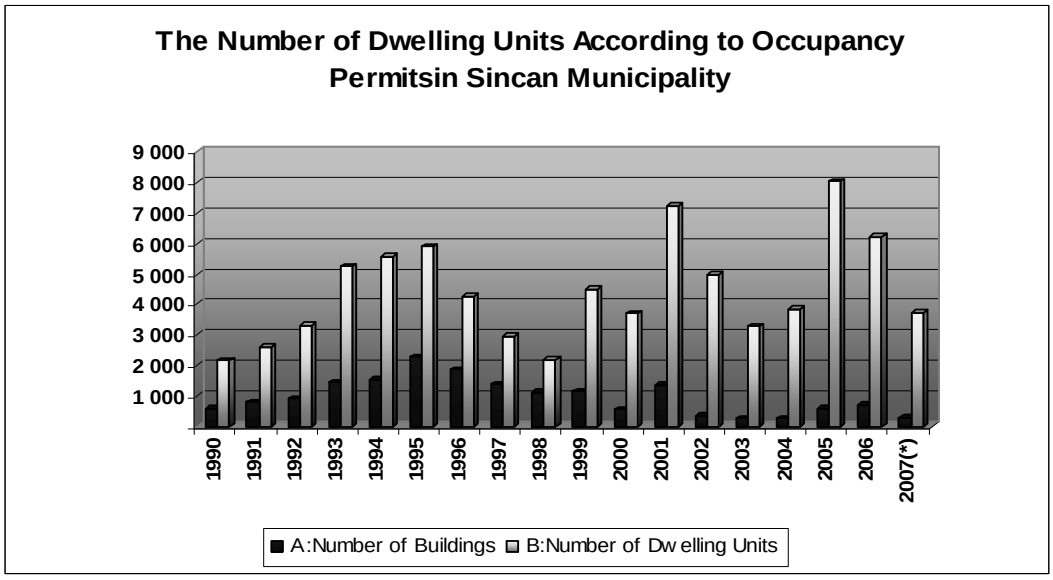

Figure 6.44: Housing production according to occupation permits
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

After looking into construction and occupancy permits analyses, it is useful to express the building ownership in Sincan Municipality. In Figure 6.45 the number of dwelling units according to building ownership is shown.

To begin with, the highest level of the dwelling units was built in 1993 and 1994 by the public sector. After the 1994 crisis, public sector did not make any investment for housing production in Sincan Municipality. The number of dwelling units made by the public sector was zero in the years between 1995-2007 period.

On the other hand, the rise of the private sector in housing production began in 1991. In 1993, 6000 dwelling units were produced by the private sector. By the effect of 1994 crisis, the number of dwelling units started to decrease and reached its bottom level in 1997-1998. The 2001 crisis made a bad effect on the housing sector and also on the number of dwelling units produced. After 2003, it started to increase and it reached its highest level in 2005. After that date, the decrease showed itself.

The impact of cooperatives in Sincan can not be overlooked. The most important impact of cooperatives was eventuated in the years of 1992 and 1993. After 1993, it started to decrease. After 2002, it declined much more than the previous years by the effect of the 2001 crisis.

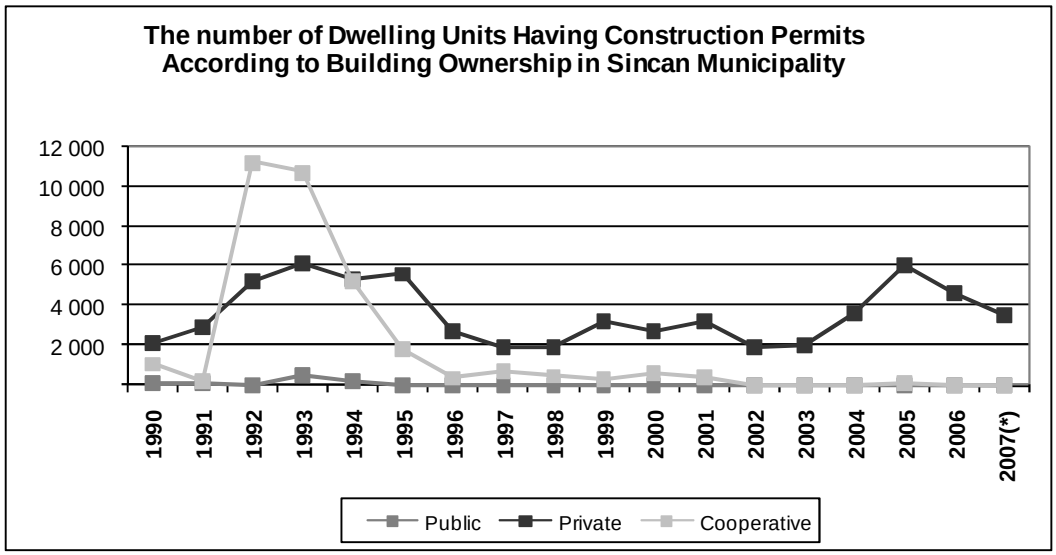

Figure 6.45: The number of dwelling units according to building ownership in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The share of those sectors are analysed in the following figures. First of all, the share of the public sector in total number of dwellings is shown in Figure 6.46. The highest level of public sector was in 1990 with 152 dwelling units in a total of 3394. In 1991, it was nearly 3%. 1993 was the year of the second highest level of housing production with over 3% with 554 dwelling units in total 17457 dwellings. By the effect of the 1994 crisis, it decreased. The number of dwelling units produced by the public sector was almost zero in 1992 and after 1995.

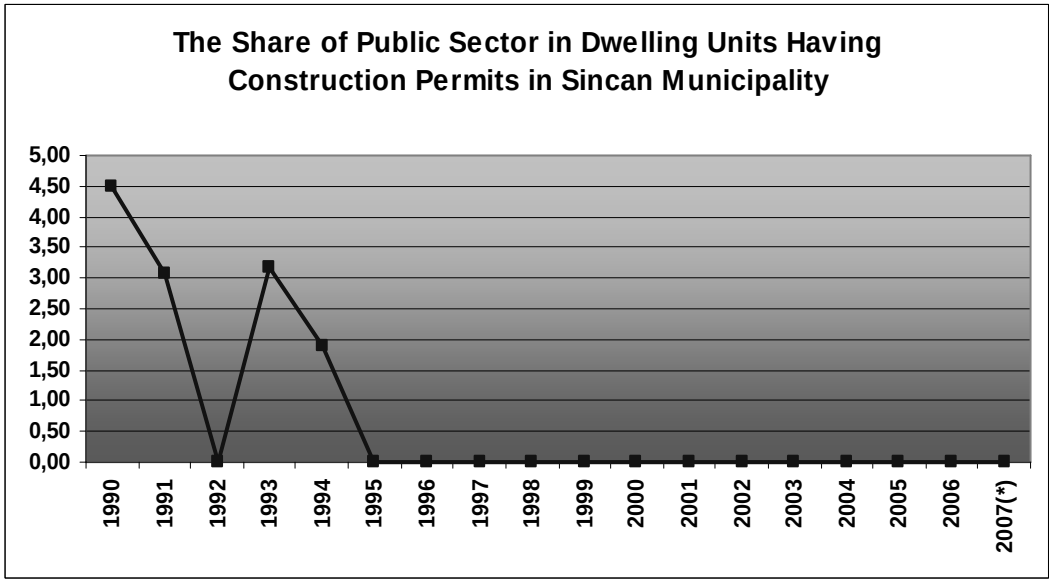

Figure 6.46: The share of public sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The share of the private sector was considerably in high level. In 1991, it was nearly 90%. After 1994, it started to increase in total sector. There was a fluctuation in the share of private sector in between 1995-2000, it remained nearly 100% after 2001 (Figure 6.47).

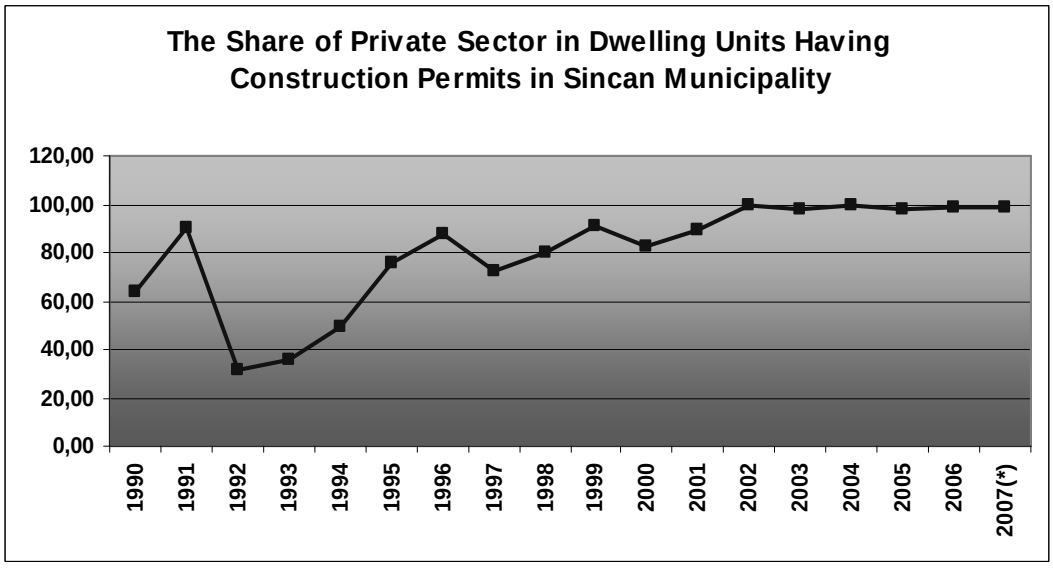

Figure 6.47: The share of private sector in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

The share of cooperatives showed a fluctuation starting with 1990 until 2002. It started with 30%; it reached its highest level of 70% in 1992 with 11260 dwelling units in the total number of 16533. After that date, it started to decrease. By the effect of 2001 crisis, the level of dwelling units produced by cooperatives was in a low level. Because the number of dwelling units built by cooperatives was so little in between 2002-2007, it is shown nearly 0% in Figure 6.48.

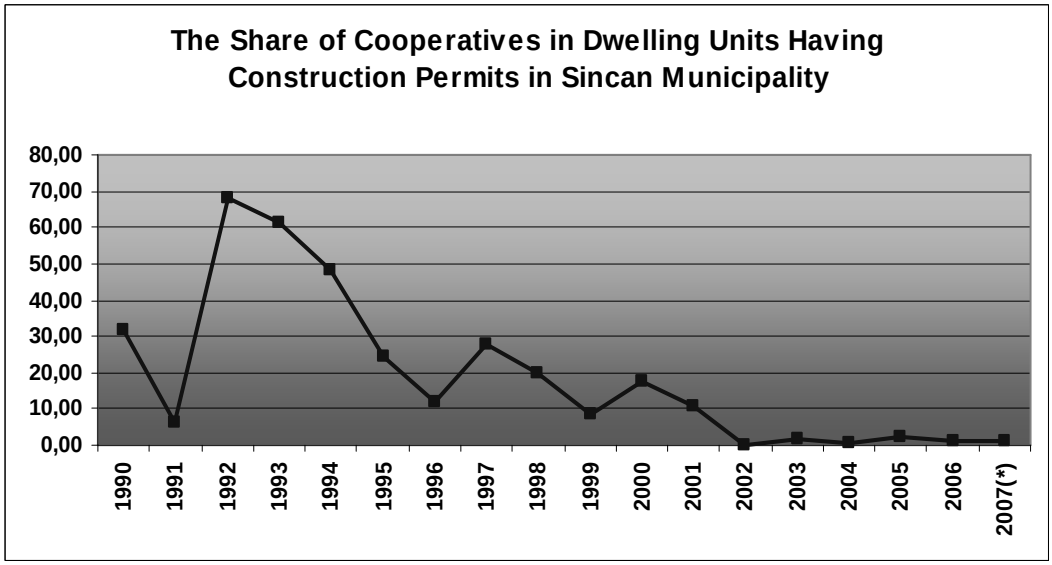

Figure 6.48: The share of cooperatives in 1990-2007
Source: TSI
(*) First 9 months are included

6.3.2. Housing Supply According to Different Types of Housing Provision in Etimegut Municipality

In this part, different housing types from Sincan residents which are searched in questionnaire are living will be investigated. The district is composed of 35 quarters. Since the building of the "Ankara First Industrial Zone" was completed in 1990, the population of the district increased after that date. As a result of this population increase, housing pattern of Sincan has also changed by increasing dwelling units produced especially by housing cooperatives. Particularly, Second Gecekondu Preventation Area was formed a new shape after the housing cooperatives houses which were built in that area. Apart from the housing cooperatives' houses, there have been other housing provision types such as

individually built and yap-satci housing provision in the district. In order to sight these different housing provision types, it is useful to focus on the sample quarters of Sincan Municipality which are analysed in the questionnaire. For questionnaire, 5 sample quarters were selected from Sincan and 135 households were asked this questionnaire. These quarters are Andiçen Quarter, Mareşal Çakmak Quarter, Selçuklu Quarter and Ertuğrulgazi and Osmanlı Quarters.

6.3.2.1. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Andiçen Quarter

Andiçen is one of the selected quarters for the questionnaire. There are generally apartment dwellings and most of them were individually built or yap-satçı provision types. As coming near to Osmanlı quarters, apartment dwellings with 4-5 stories made by housing cooperatives have also been seen (Figure 6.49).

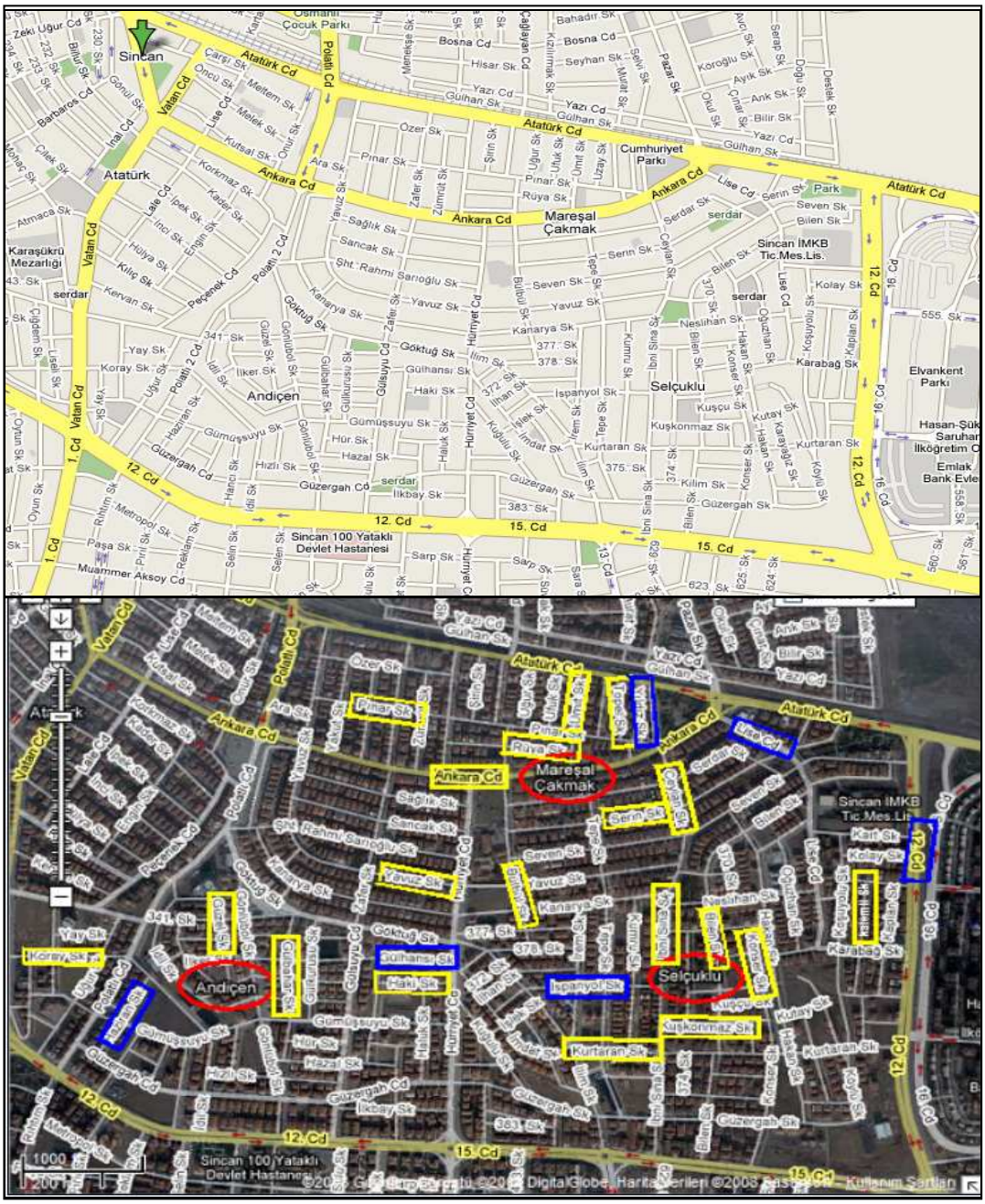

Figure 6.49: The location of Mareşal Çakmak, Andiçen and Selçuklu Quarters and the selected areas from those quarters

Figure 6.50: A general view from Andiçen Quarter
Source: http://www.panoramio.com/photo/3399872

Figure 6.51: Housing types from Andiçen quarter

Figure 6.52: Different housing pattern of Andiçen Quarter

Figure 6.53: Different housing pattern of Andiçen Quarter

Figure 6.54: Housing types produced by housing cooperatives in the Andiçen Quarter

6.3.2.2. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

Another quarter from Sincan is Mareşal Çakmak. The location of Mareşal Çakmak and also the selected avenues for the questionnaire are indicated in Figure 6.49 above. There is predominantly yap-satci housing provision in this quarter. Most of the houses are apartment housing units having 4-5 storey or more storeys.

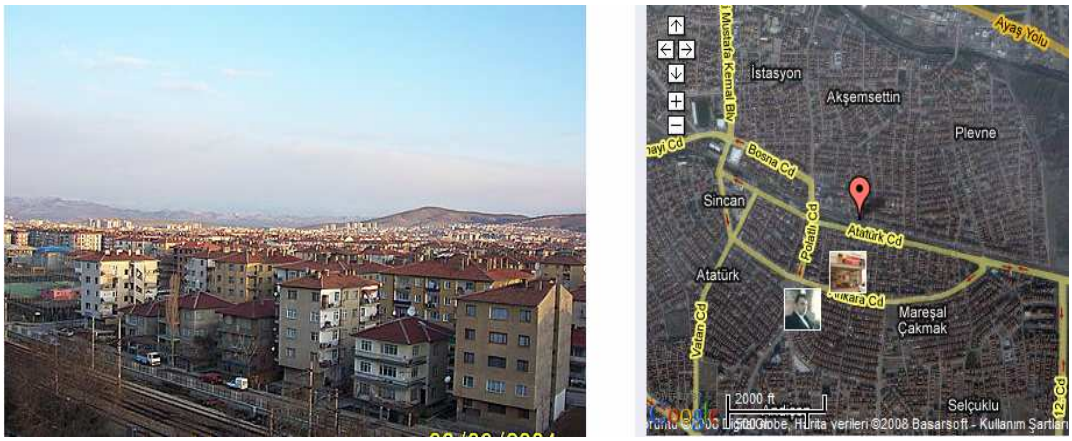

Figure 6.55: A general view to Mareşal Çakmak Quarter
Source: http://maps.google.com/ http://www.panoramio.com/photo/2492230

Figure 6.56: Housing types from Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

Figure 6.57: Housing types from Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

Figure 6.58: Housing types from Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

Figure 6.59: High rise apartment houses from Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

Figure 6.60: High rise apartment houses from Mareşal Çakmak Quarter

6.3.2.3. Housing Types from the Boundaries of Selçuklu Quarter

Selçuklu is another quarter which is shown in Figure 6.49 above in the previous part. The selected housing areas for the questionnaire are also seen in this figure. The housing cooperatives' efficacy has been more prevalent in Selçuklu than in the other quarters shown in Figure 6.49 (Andiçen and Mareşal Çakmak).

Figure 6.61: Houses produced by housing cooperatives from Selçuklu Quarter

Figure 6.62: Houses produced by housing cooperatives from Selçuklu Quarter

Figure 6.63: Houses produced by housing cooperatives from Selçuklu Quarter

6.3.2.4. Housing Types in the Boundaries of Osmanlı Quarter

Osmanlı quarter is located near to Sincan 100.Yıl State Hospital. Location of the quarter and the selected housing areas with their avenues are shown in Figure 6.64. The quarter comprises some part of the Second Gecekondu Preventation Area. As a result most of the houses have been built by housing cooperatives in this quarter.

Figure 6.64: The location of Osmanlı and Ertuğrulgazi quarters and the selected areas from those quarters

Figure 6.65: Avrasya Sitesi from Osmanlı District
Source: http://www.panoramio.com/photo/3554574

Figure 6.66: A general view to Osmanlı Quarter

Figure 6.67: Housing cooperatives from Osmanlı Quarter

Figure 6.68: Housing cooperatives from Osmanlı Quarter

6.3.2.5. Housing Types in the Boundaries of Ertuğrulgazi Quarter

The last selected quarter of Sincan for the questionnaire is Ertuğrulgazi Quarter. Its location was shown in Figure 6.64 above. Ertuğrulgazi quarter also constitutes the other part of the Second Gecekondu Preventation Area. As similar to Osmanlı quarter, most of the houses in that area were predominantly built by housing cooperatives.

Figure 6.69: A general view to Ertuğrulgazi

Figure 6 70: Types of housing from Ertuğrulgazi
Source: http://www.panoramio.com/photo

Figure 6 71: Mavidoruk Sitesi from Ertuğrulgazi District
Source: http://www.panoramio.com/photo/4555029

Figure 6 72: Karacılar Gözde Sitesi from Ertuğrulgazi District
Source: http://www.panoramio.com/photo/5493124

6.4. Concluding Hypotheses

In the first chapter, a general deduction is represented considering (sub) urbanisation and both demand and supply sides of housing in a theoretical framework. In the third and fourth chapters, (sub) urbanisation in developed countries and Turkey are discussed. In the fifth chapter, Ankara case is focussed on pursuant to the explanation of third and fourth chapters in terms of planning decisions and housing development within the context of (sub) urbanisation. After discussing the planning context of Ankara and considering the special characteristics of suburban housing development in Ankara, as well as analysing suburban housing developments in Etimesgut and Sincan with regards to

construction and occupancy permits, GIS analyses and also features of housing stocks, following hypothesis are developed which will be questioned according to the questionnaire results which will be issued in chapter 7.

- H_o: Urban fringe developments should have better urban services and environmental facilities when compared to the centrally located neighbourhoods.[1]

- H_o: Households choosing housing at the urban fringe especially in Sincan and Etimesgut Municipalities' boundaries are expected to be from the middle and lower-middle income groups.[2]

- H_o: Households living at the urban fringe in Sincan and Etimesgut Municipal boundaries are expected to use mostly public transportation in commuting.[3]

- H_o: Households prefer outskirts developments because of accessibility advantages to work and urban services. [4]

- H_o: Households are expected aiming to reduce commuting distance when they are choosing their residences.[5]

- H_o: Households are expected to pay lower prices or rents for housing in that location.[6]

- H_o: Households who rely on public transportation are expected to make a trade off between lower housing price and rent with greater commuting time. [7]

- H_o: Households who use their own cars in their commuting are expected aiming to economise in operating (fuel) costs by choosing vehicles that are advantageous in that respect. [8]

CHAPTER 7

EVALUATION OF THE HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

In this part, the results of the questionnaire which aims to reveal the dynamics pulling people from city centre to the urban fringe and expose those households' life standard considering their characteristics, also investigate their features of using the urban services and the houses will be evaluated. It was designed in order to understand social, economic and cultural profiles of the households and also define the push and pull factors that drove them to these outskirts areas of the city.

The questionnaire was applied to 200 households living in dwelling units in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities. The field research was arranged to learn about social characteristics of residents, their level of income, education and also features of using the urban space, moreover; to reveal the level of integration of its residents with the city life and to test the validity of the hypotheses.

The household questionnaire survey was carried out to reveal the features of using the urban service and their houses of the people living in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan with respect to household attributes. The questionnaire survey was made among 200[45] households, 65 of total 200 households are from the boundaries of Etimesgut Municipality, while the 135 of them are from Sincan

[45] The selection of samples and the execution of interviews were undertaken by 'Veri-Araştırma A.Ş.', on contract with the Scientific Research Projects (BAP) of coordination unit of METU. The names of selected districts from Etimesgut Municipality are: Atakent District, İstasyon District, Piyade District, Topçu District; The names of the distrcits from Sincan Municipality are: Andiçen District, Ertuğrulgazi District, Mareşal çakmak District, Osmanlı District, Selçuklu District.

Municipality. The numbers of households living in the selected districts are perceived according to the registered voter. The Table 7.1 shows the number of households selected according to the registered voters and also indicates the names of streets from this selected district for each municipality.

Table 7.1: The selected districts and the number of households and streets for each municipality

Province	***Municipality***	***Quarter***	***Number of HH****	***Number of Streets***
Ankara	Sincan	Andiçen	20	4
Ankara	Sincan	Ertuğrul gazi	20	4
Ankara	Sincan	Osmanlı	25	5
Ankara	Sincan	Selçuklu	30	6
Ankara	Sincan	Mareşal Çakmak	40	8
Ankara	Etimesgut	Atakent	20	4
Ankara	Etimesgut	İstasyon	15	3
Ankara	Etimesgut	Piyade	15	3
Ankara	Etimesgut	Topçu	15	3
Total			**200**	**40**

As it's stated above, the questionnaire aimed to demonstrate general characteristics of the households, their features of using urban services and their houses, their residential preferences, commuting activities, trade-offs in housing choice and the level of their satisfaction from their residences, urban environment and urban services. The outcomes are quite informative and expository to understand the household rationality, deduct a rough categorization of individuals, and demonstrate the dynamics that pull them from the city centre to urban fringe. Before passing into the evaluation of the questionnaire's outcomes, it is helpful to look at the assumptions and the hypothesis of the study.

Households living in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan have some common attributes. As it was stated in the previously hypothesis, these households are expected to be from the middle or lower-middle income groups [2]. They are also expected to use public transportation in commuting [3]. Furthermore, they are expected to prefer outskirts developments for accessibility advantages of work and urban services [4] and they are also expected to aim reducing commuting distance while they are choosing their residences [5]. In addition, it is expected to be tried out that they pay lower prices or rents for housing in that location [6].

Households are expected to make a trade off between lower housing price/rent with greater commuting time [7].

In order to investigate the validity of those entire hypotheses mentioning above, the questionnaire will be analysed under the six topics. These are households' characteristics and their features of using urban services, reasons to motivate them to go to the urban fringe, work place and commuting customs, household's acquisition of their dwellings, their opinions about their houses and explanatory acquirements about their residences.

7.1. General Characteristics of the Households

The outcomes show that most of the households (56%) are tenant while only 75 of them (38%) are living in owner status and a small part of them (6%) are living in their relative's house without paying any rent (Figure 7.1).

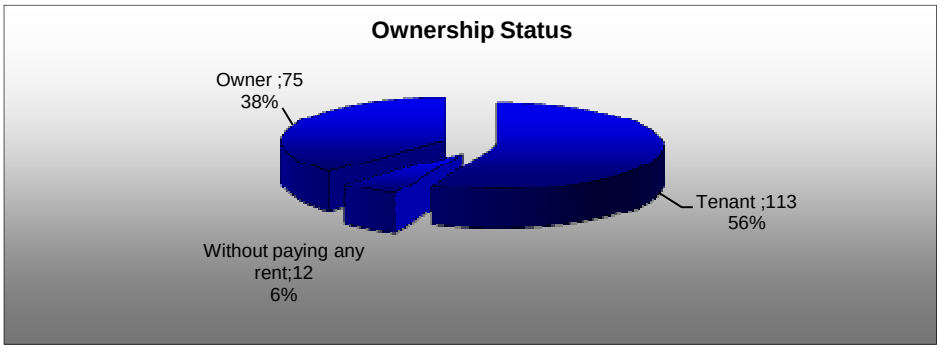

Figure 7.1: Ownership status of the households

30 of 75 households (40%) bought their houses from the previous owner of the house, 13 of them (17.5%) bought from a contractor, and 11 of households (14.7 %) got their houses from contractor in return to their lands (Figure 7.2).

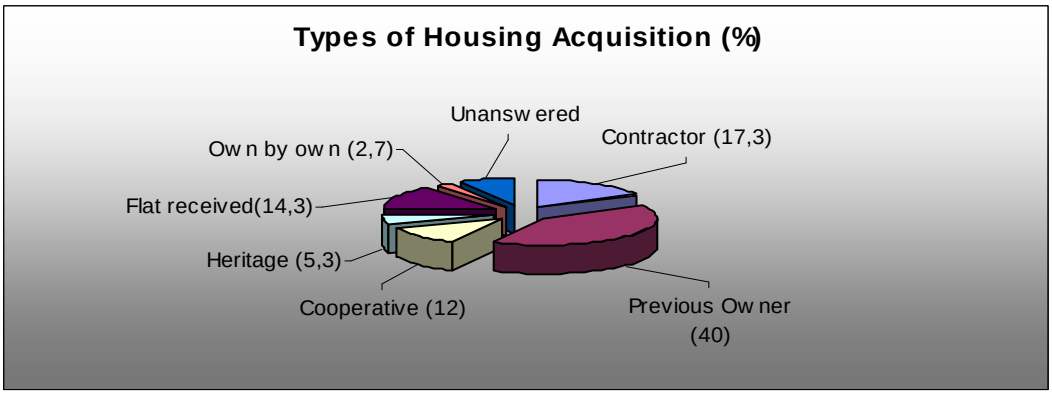

Figure 7.2: Types of housing obtaining of households

Apart from these, most of the households' monthly rents are between 300YTL and 350YTL (Figure 7.3) while the most of the houses' sale value are between 51 000 and 70 000 (Figure 7.4).

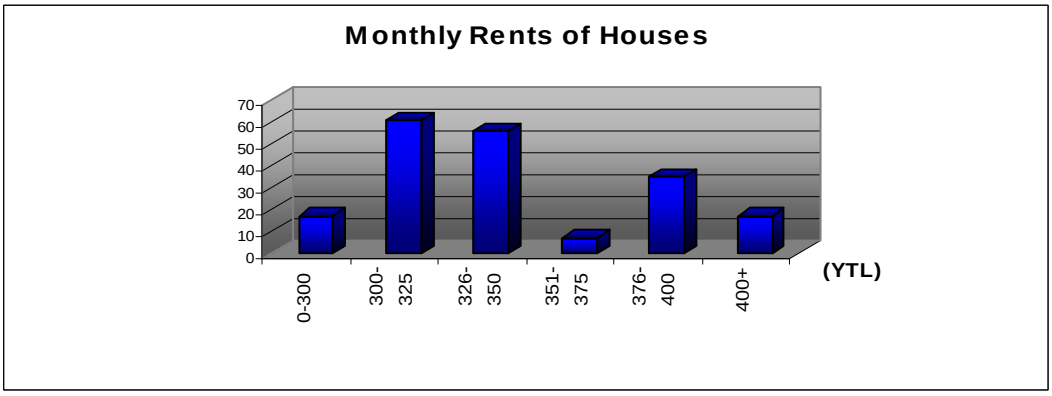

Figure 7.3: Monthly rents of the houses

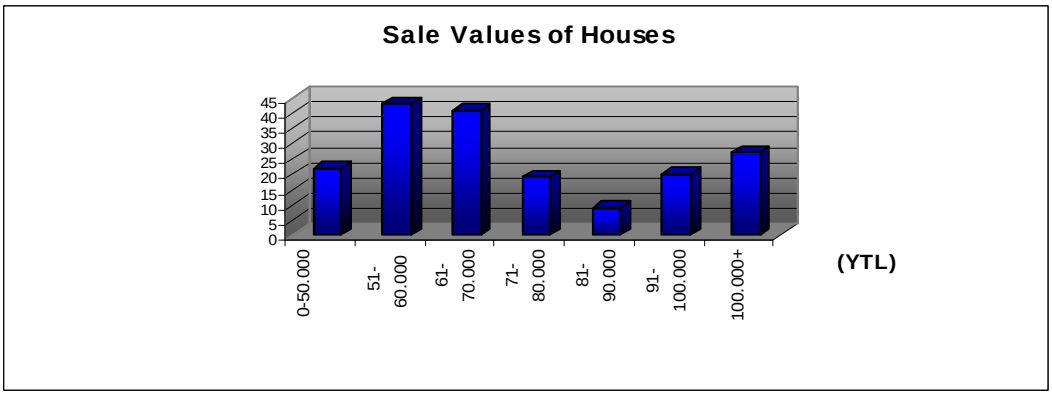

Figure 7.4: Sales values of the houses

Moreover, 69,5% of the households answered that it's the first house that they live and 59,7% of the households were living in an apartment dwelling while 32,4% were living in an detached house in their previous dwelling (Figure 7.5). The previous houses of 122 households were in Ankara, and 12 of them were living in Sincan, 10 of them were living in Etimesgut, 9 of them from Keçiören, 7 of them from Batıkent and Mamak, 5 of them from Tuzluçayır, Dikmen and Etlik, 4 of them from Seyran and Kurtuluş, while the rest of them have come from the other locations[46].

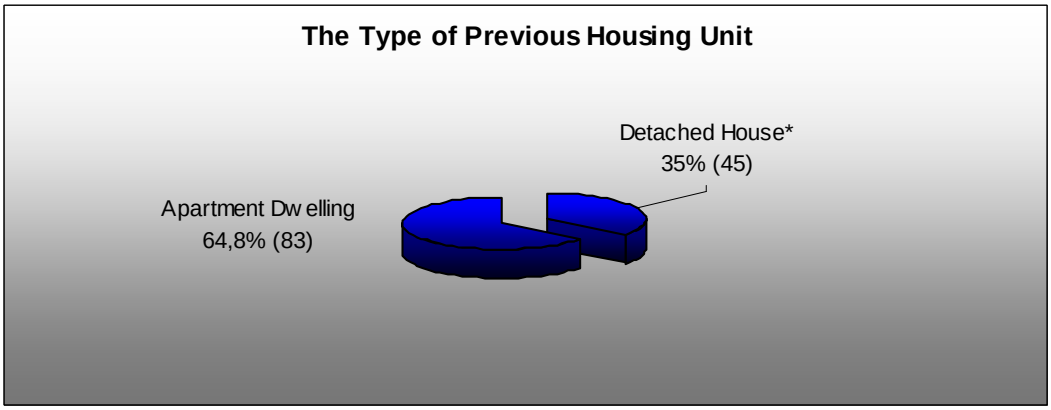

Figure 7.5: The type of the previous housing unit of households
*Probably most of detached houses were gecekondus

Family sizes are generally ranging between 3 and 4, while 31 of total households live single and 48 of them are couples and 36 of them live together with 5 and more people (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Household sizes

Number of Persons in the Household	*Number of Housing Units*
1 person	31
2 people	48
3-4 people	85
5 and more	36
Total	**200**

[46] The whole locations of the households' previous house can be seen in the Appendix E

The number of houses which have children is 108 while the number of children equals to 208. In 41 houses there is one child and in 42 houses there are 2 children while 17 of them have 3 children and 8 of them have 4 and more children (Table 7.3).

In addition, there is one child in 34 houses, 2 children in 34 houses and 3 children in 10 houses and 4 children in 2 houses who are going to school. Most of those children are going to elementary school and 15 of the elementary school students' school is in Etimesgut, while 16 of them go to Sincan for elementary school. On the other hand, 23 of them go to high school and 12 of them are university students (Table 7.4). In the aggregate 128 of the children are not going to school, 80 of them are students.

Table 7.3: Number of children in households

Number of Children in the Household	***Number of Housing Units***	***Number of Children***
1 child	41	41
2 children	42	84
3 children	17	51
4 and more	8	32
Total	**108**	**208**

Table 7.4: Number of children with regard to their education

Education of the children	***Number of the children***
Not studying	128
Studying	75
Elementary school	40
High school	23
University	12
No response	7
Total	**208**

Most of the places of schools are in Etimesgut and Sincan. 26 children are going to Sincan for school, 23 of them are going to Etimesgut. 5 university students are studying out of Ankara[47] (Table 7.5).

[47] They are studying in Anadolu university (Eskişehir), DokuzEylul university and Ege University(İzmir), Ataturk University (Erzurum), and in universities in İstanbul and Kıbrıs

Table 7.5: The placement of the school of the children

The placement of school	*Number of the children*
Sincan	26
Etimesgut	23
Güneşli	3
Sıhhiye	2
Balgat	1
Beşevler	1
Kocatepe	1
Kızılay	1
Batıkent	1
Anıttepe	1
Cebeci	1
Gata	1
Seyran	1
Emirler	1
Gazi mahallesi	1
Eskişehir	1
Izmir	1
Erzurum	1
Istanbul	1
Kıbrıs	1
Yanıtsız	10
Total *	**80**

* 128 of them are not studying.

After analysing the ownership pattern and family sizes; it's useful to show the other indicators that help to reveal the socio-economic status and features of using urban services. Household's education level, employment status, occupation, car ownership, income level and their professions are some of these indicators. To begin with, education levels appear to be over the average since 32% of the household heads have an undergraduate degree and 68 of them (33%) finished high school at least. The graduate level is quite low since only 3 household head have a graduate degree (Figure 7.6).

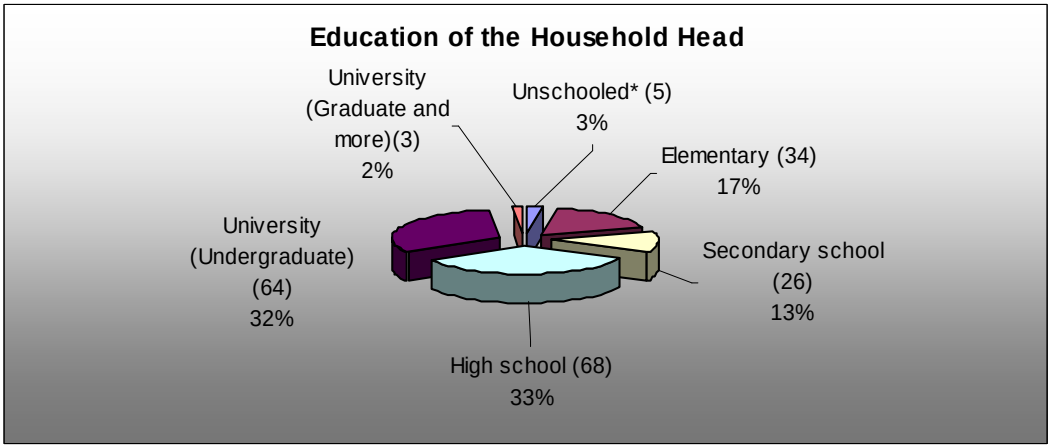

Figure 7.6: Education of the household
* The people under this category could also be in the status as the grant from the elementary school.

The education level of the household head's spouses is lower than the household head, 36% of them finished the elementary school only, and then they never go to school (Figure 7.7).

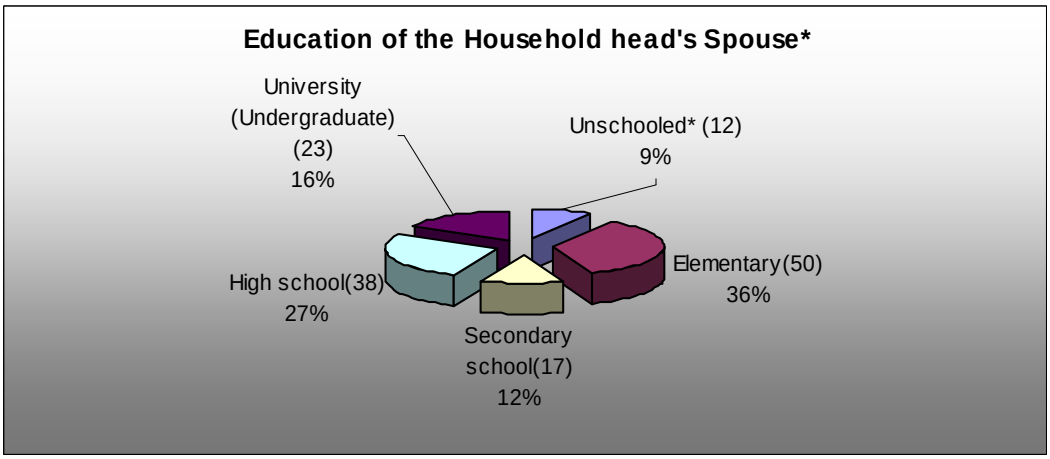

Figure 7.7: Education of the household head's spouse
*This question is answered by 142 household's spouse

Another indicator is employment status and occupation. The questionnaire results show that at least one household is working in 178 houses, while the total number of working population of households is equal to 225 (Table 7.6).

Table 7.6: Working population

Number of Working Individuals of the Household	*Number of Housing Units*	*Working Population*
No working household	22	
1 person	131	131
2 people	41	82
3 people	6	12
Total	**200**	**225**

Another finding about employment status is that 80.4% of the active working people have been working as wage or salary earner (Figure 7.8). Moreover, 41.4% of total 384 people are not working because of the retirement, unemployment and being housewife. 128 (33%) of those people are housewife while only 31 of them (8%) are retired.

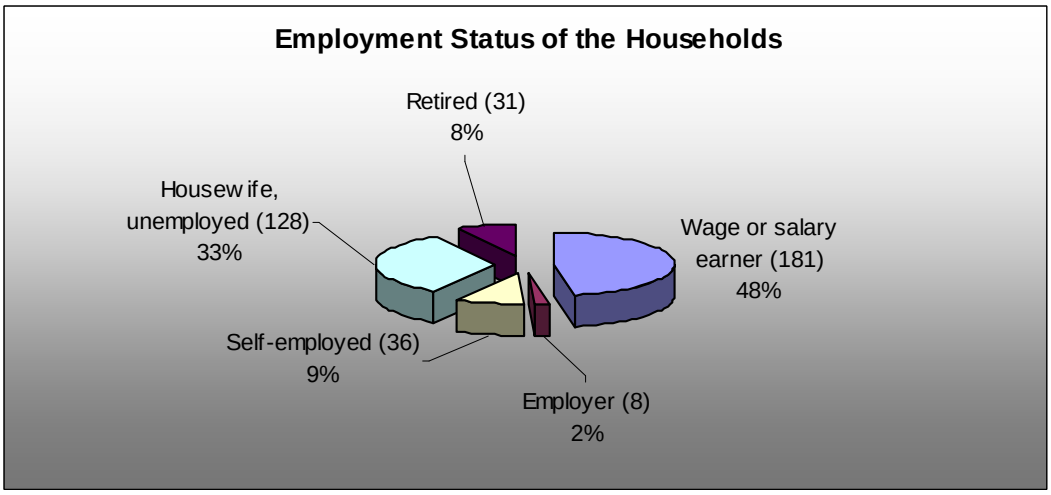

Figure 7.8: Employment status of the households

Another finding is related to household heads; in general, the household head is the working person in most of the houses. According to Figure 7.9, 129 of the household heads (64%) are working as a wage or salary earner, 6 of them (3%) are employed, while the self-employed of them are equal to 26. The largest professional group is civil servants and administrative personnel while 128 of households are housewife and unemployed and 31 of them are retired. The households working as technical staff such as doctor, lawyer, and architect and city planner comprise the 14.7% of working population.

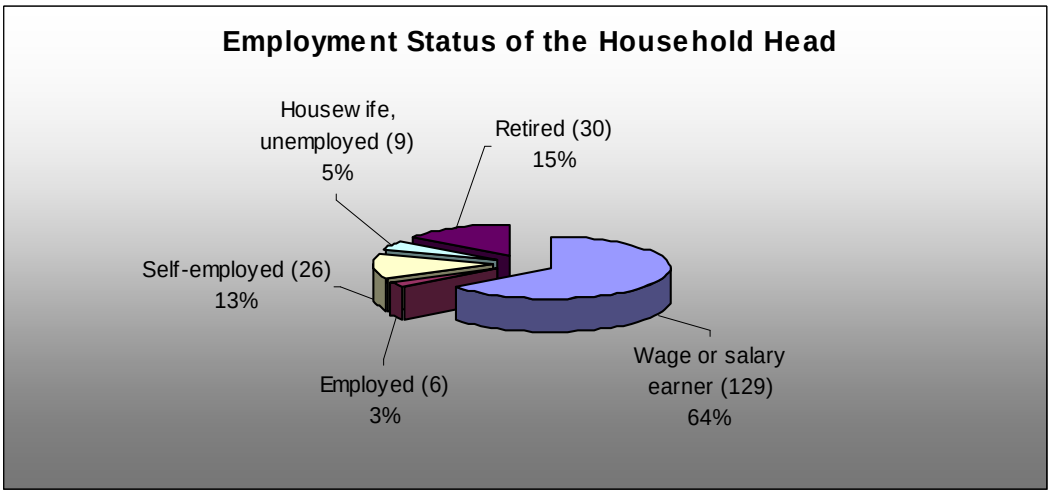

Figure 7.9: Employment status of the household head

The number of regular employees (that covers civil servants and other wage owners) seems to dominate the others among the working population, since 63.5% of household heads and 10% of spouses are working in that status.

Household heads are generally working as civil servants or administrative staff (26%) while 25 of them (13%) in professional occupation groups. The number of unemployed and retired ones is 39 (19%) (Figure 7.10).

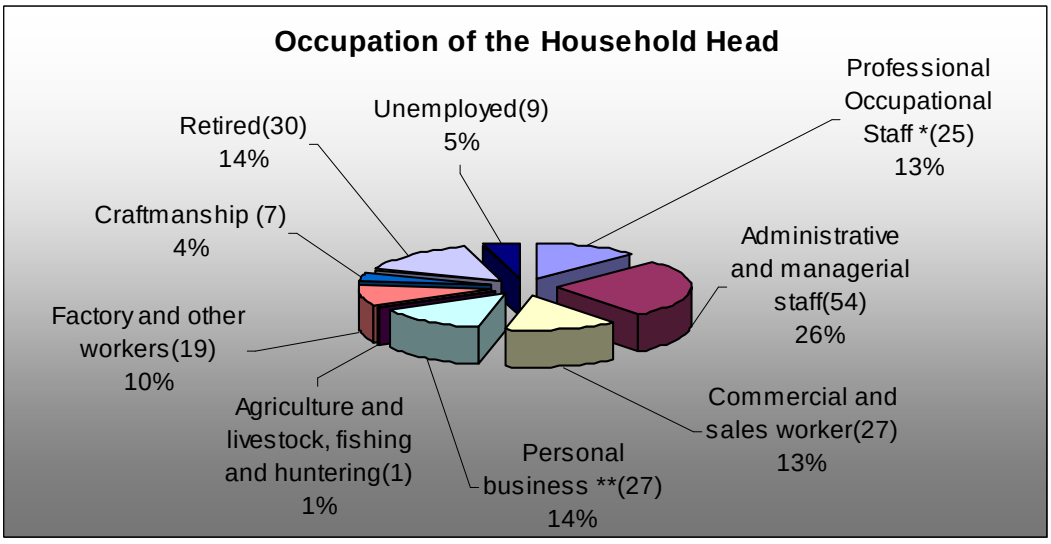

Figure 7.10: Occupation of the household head
* Professional staff: Engineer, architect, doctor, city planner and etc.
** Personal business: Hotel, restaurant, hairdresser, cleaner and etc.

The ratio of unemployment is quite high among the spouses; but among the employed ones, 14 % of them are working as a wage earner in 142 houses. In other words, 9 of them are working as civil servant and administrative staff while 8 of them in professional occupation groups such as engineer, architect, doctor and only a few of them are working as commercial and sale staff (Figure 7.11 and Figure 7.12).

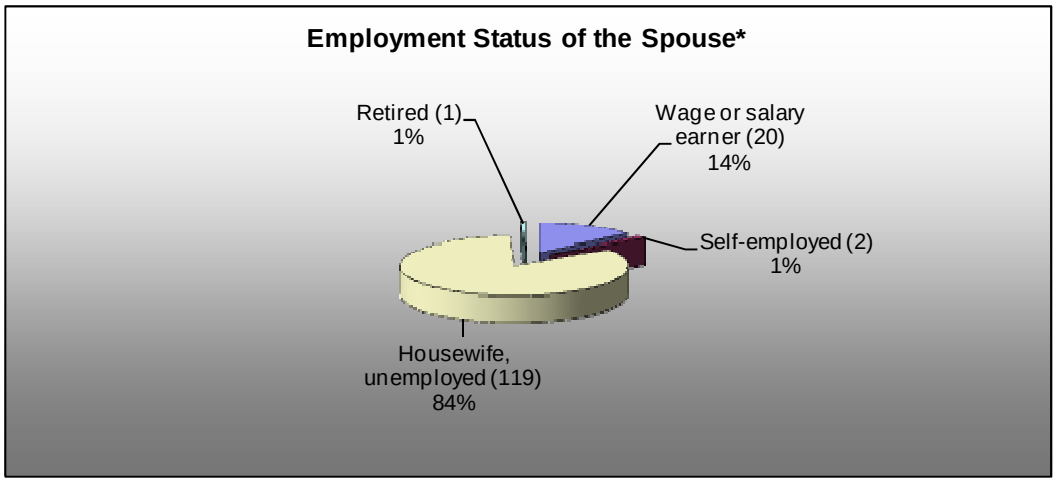

Figure 7.11: Employment status of the spouse
* This question is asked to total 142 households.

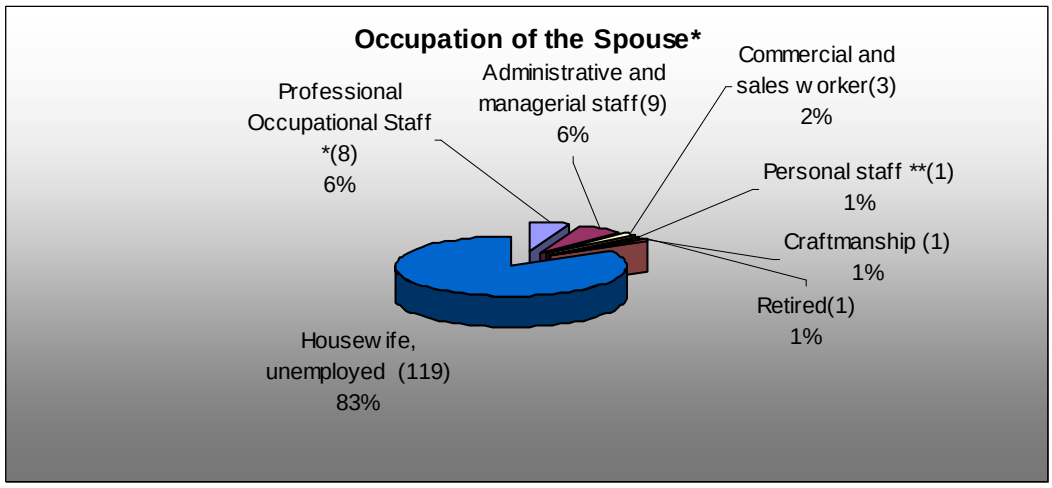

Figure 7.12: Occupation of the spouse
*This question is asked to total 142 households.

As it's stated above, the unemployment rate of housewife is quite high (84%). This high rate in unemployment could be associated with the education level of the household head's spouse. In other words, the fact can be explained as the 75%

of the housewife have completed their education up to high school and half of them have just finished the elementary school. This huge amount of inadequate education level could be the reason of unemployment of housewives in those houses.

In accordance with the education levels and employment status of the households, monthly incomes are relatively low[48]. Since 78 % of the households' monthly incomes are under 2.000 YTL, while 33% (66 households) of the households' monthly incomes are changing between 1200-1599 YTL only 1% groups' monthly incomes are over 5.000 YTL (Figure 7.13). Those values demonstrate that most of the households choosing Etimesgut and Sincan are from middle or lower-middle income groups (Hypothesis 2).

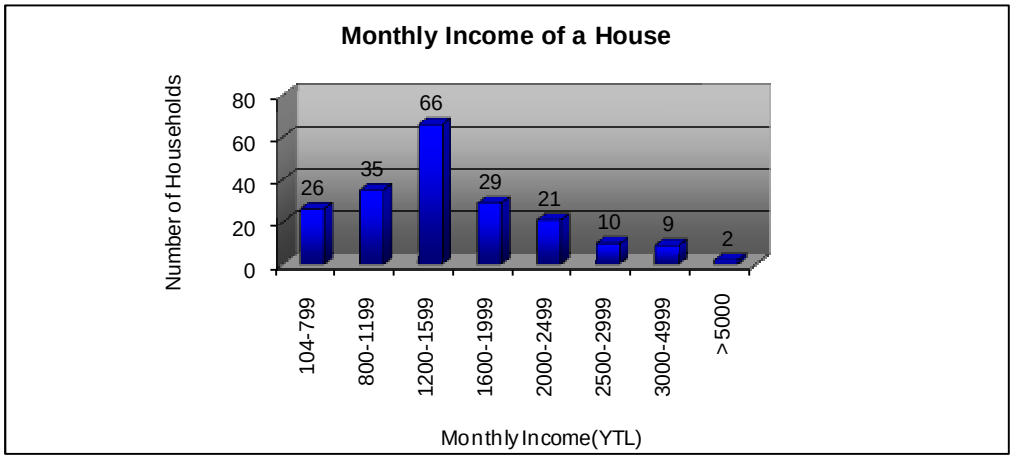

Figure 7.13: Monthly income of households

In terms of living far away from the city, the level of car ownership is expected to be high. On the other hand, in these types of urban fringe where middle and lower-middle income households locate, the level of private car ownership is expected to be low while the use of public transport is quiet high. The outcomes confirm that argument since 81% (164) of households do not have a private car while 35 of them have maximum one private car, only 1 of them has 2 cars. 19 of the cars are owned by households who live in Sincan, while 17 of them belong to people who live in Etimesgut. When taking into consideration that the 65 of the

[48] 2 household did not answer their monthly incomes

households is selected from Etimesgut while the rest is from Sincan among 200 households who responded the questionnaire, the number of the car owned should be greater in Sincan than in Etimesgut (Figure 7.14). The result indicates that car ownership is higher in Etimesgut than Sincan. Considering the car ownership per 1000 people, the number of car ownership per 1000 people in Etimesgut and Sincan is quiet low (46[49]) compared to Turkey average (approximately 100 cars per 1000 people).

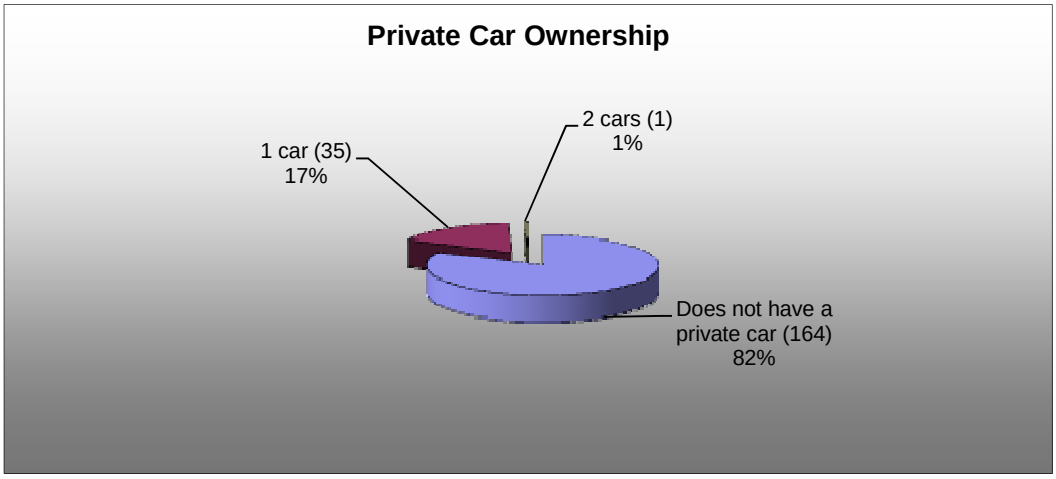

Figure 7.14: Private car ownership of households

34 of the cars are private/passenger car, while only 2 of them are commercial car. 13 of the households' car are Renault and Fiat. 20 of the households having cars use benzene as fuel, while 5 of them use diesel and 10 of them use liquefied petroleum gas (LPG). As it's stated above, car ownership is at very low level in Etimesgut and Sincan, also most of the households have home produced cars and 15 of them use economical fuel (Hypothesis 8), which is diesel or LPG. As a result, it's expected that they use public transportation in commuting. The results related to commuting will be discussed in detail while mentioning the location of the workplaces and commuting of working household members.

Among the interviewed households, only 20 of them have more than one housing unit; 13 of them have only one more housing unit from the one that they live,

[49] The car ownership per 1000 people is calculated by taking the household size as 4 for Etimesgut and Sincan.

fewer of them have more than 2-3 housing units (Table 7.7). Most of the other houses are in Etimesgut, Sincan and Yenimahalle (Table 7.8).

Table 7.7: The number of housing unit that households have

	Number of households
No more housing unit all but they live	180
More housing unit than one	20
1 more housing unit	13
2-3 more housing units	4
No response	3
Total	**200**

Table 7.8: The locations of the other houses

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Etimesgut	3	1,5
Sincan	2	1,0
Yenimahalle	2	1,0
Batıkent	1	0,5
Elvankent	1	0,5
Natoyolu	1	0,5
Izmir	1	0,5
Adapazarı	1	0,5
Yozgat	1	0,5
Noresponse	10	5,0
Total	**200**	**100,0**

7.2. The Reasons that Motivate the Households to Move to Etimesgut and Sincan

Households' preferences about their residences show differences among people. It's aimed to learn the reasons which motivate them to move from city centre to urban fringe. By the aid of this study, those reasons will be revealed together with their locational considerations and the level of their satisfaction from their residences.

To begin with, 88% of the households were living in Ankara previously, while 12 % of them came from other provinces (İstanbul, İzmir, Adana, Çankırı, Yozgat, Çanakkale, Çorum, Konya and and 1% of them came from abroad, Kıbrıs) (Figure 7.15).

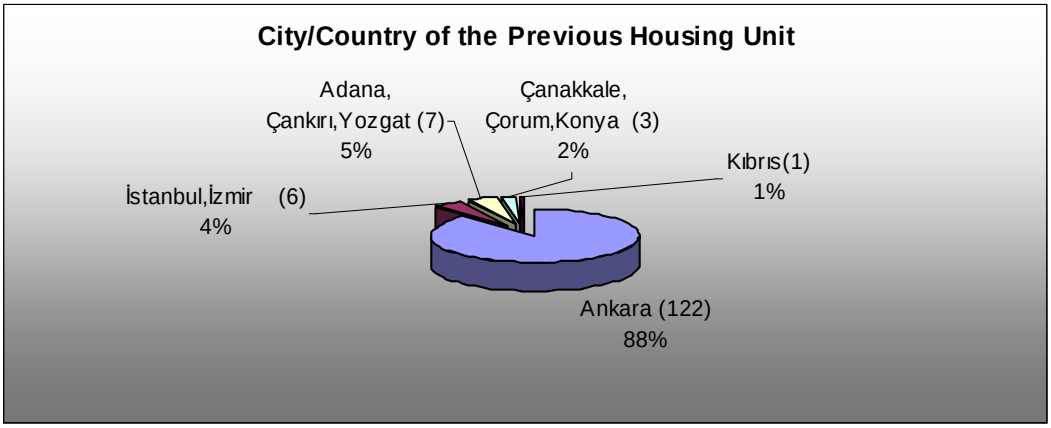

Figure 7.15: City/country where the previous housing unit is located

Only 11% of the households who moved from different districts to Etimesgut and Sincan changed their residences within the same district. The most important movement within the city was from Keçiören-Batıkent-Mamak. In fact, the second major group (10.5% of households) moved from Cebeci, Etlik, Tuzluçayır and Dikmen to Etimesgut and Sincan (Figure 7.16).

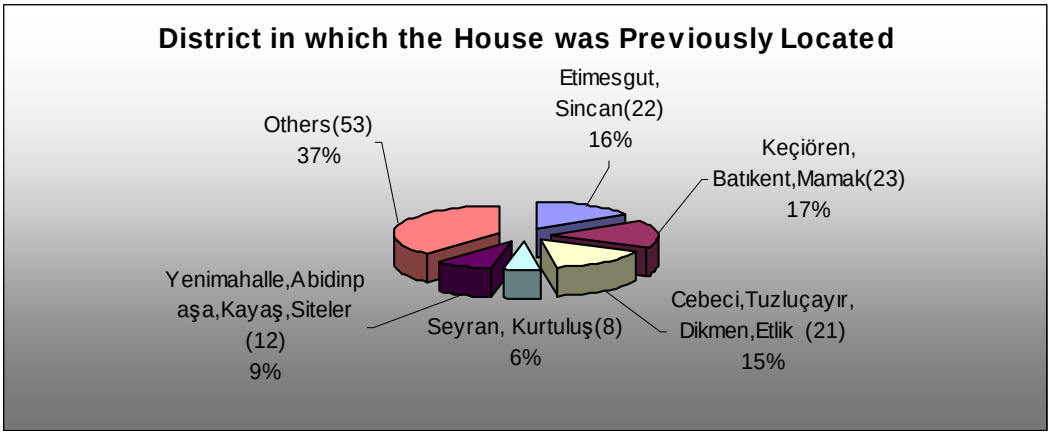

Figure 7.16: Location of previous housing units in Ankara

After analysing previous housing units and location of households living in Etimesgut and Sincan, it is worth mentioning the reasons that motivate them to move from previous location to Etimesgut and Sincan. In this regard, households were asked to mention two most important reasons affecting their residential preference. As to the results, households consider the price of housing as the most important reason. Secondly, being close to the working area, thirdly, being

purchased of the housing unit and fourthly, being close to the relatives and friends. Households also choose their residential area for being accustomed to live there. Some of them choose there since it is close to their children' school. A small number of them attach importance to quietness, availability of parks and recreational and sports areas while a few of them appreciate the privacy, comfort and confidence, parking garage, accessibility of transportation as the most important reason (Table 7.9).

Table 7.9: The most important reasons that motivate them to move in such places

Ranking	***The reasons of choosing that environment for living****	***Frequency***	***Valid Percentage (%)***
1	Appropriate price of the house	95	47,5
2	House is close to the work place	70	35,0
3	Purchasing the house	47	23,5
4	Close to the relatives and friends	46	23,0
5	Be accustomed to live in that district	17	8,5
6	Close to the children's school	12	6,0
7	Opportunities such as green areas, playgrounds and sport areas	6	3,0
8	The environment is quiet and peaceful	5	2,5
9	Not paying rent	4	2,0
10	Households did not agree with the previous neighbourhood	2	1,0
11	The land is there	2	1,0
12	Private site	2	1,0
13	Comfortable and confident	2	1,0
14	Parking lots	1	0,5
15	Own house	1	0,5
16	Easement of access	1	0,5
17	Not answered	2	1,0
	Total	**200**	**100,0**

*There is more than one answer for this question

Apart from the reasons of choosing that environment for living, the reasons of moving to that house were asked to the households, the outcomes are similar with the reasons of choosing the environment for living as stated above, but with a different ranking. Most of the households find the price/rent of the house as appropriate. Secondly, many of the household's reasons is they purchased the house there. The large size of the house is another important reason to move in. Being close to the workplace comes as the fourth important reason of the households. Ease of access to public, private and the service vehicle is also important for the households since it was mentioned 20 times. Being close of

housing to the children's school and the prestige of the estate and more qualified environment are the other reasons that many of the households mentioned much more times. Moreover, some of the households think that their house's location is a central place and their house is close to shopping centres, while being owner of the land of the house is an another reason. Some of the households find the opportunities such as green areas, playgrounds and parking lots as the other reasons of moving in their houses. Buying the house as an investment property, having a central heating system and some private reasons which are not mentioned in the questionnaire are also important for their residential choice but ranked at lower levels (Table 7.10).

Table 7.10: The reasons of moving into the house of the households

Ranking	***Reasons that Motivate the Households to Move that House****	***Frequency***	***Valid Percentage (%)***
1	Appropriate price/rent	102	51,0
2	Purchasing of the house	56	28,0
3	The large in size	54	27,0
4	Being close of house to the workplace	54	27,0
5	Ease of access (close to the bus station of the metro, public buses and minibuses)	20	10,0
6	Being close of house to the children's schools	13	6,5
7	Prestigious of the house and more qualified environment	12	6,0
8	being close to the family of the households	9	4,5
9	The house is a central place and close to the shopping centres	8	4,0
10	Being the owner of the land of the house	7	3,5
11	the opportunities such as park, playgrounds and parking lots	5	2,5
12	Investment property	1	0,5
13	Having a central heating system	1	0,5
14	Private reasons	1	0,5
15	Not answered	2	1,0
	Total	**200**	**100,0**

*There is more than one answer for this question

7.3. Evaluation of the Workplaces and Commuting

As it's stated in the previous part, being close to the workplace is the second most important consideration of the households while making their residential decision (Table 7.9). Such an outcome shows the accuracy of the hypothesis [5] which

proposes that households are expected aiming to reduce commuting distance when they are choosing their residence. Most of the households may probably think they should be reducing commuting cost by choosing residence close to their workplace.

Location of the workplaces is important to figure out the commuting activity in the city. According to the outcomes, most of the households' workplaces are located either at the CBD or on the western parts of the city In fact, 67 of the households' workplaces are in Kızılay-Bakanlıklar (30%), 50 of them work in Sincan, while 39 of them work in Etimesgut (40%). In other words, 40% of the households work in the same neighbourhood with their residence. 14% of the households' workplaces are at Eskişehir or Istanbul Highways, at Eryaman, Batıkent and Ostim which are relatively close compared to the other workplaces in the CBD. 6.4% of them are working in Ulus and Sıhhiye while 2 of them are working out of Ankara (Figure 7.17).

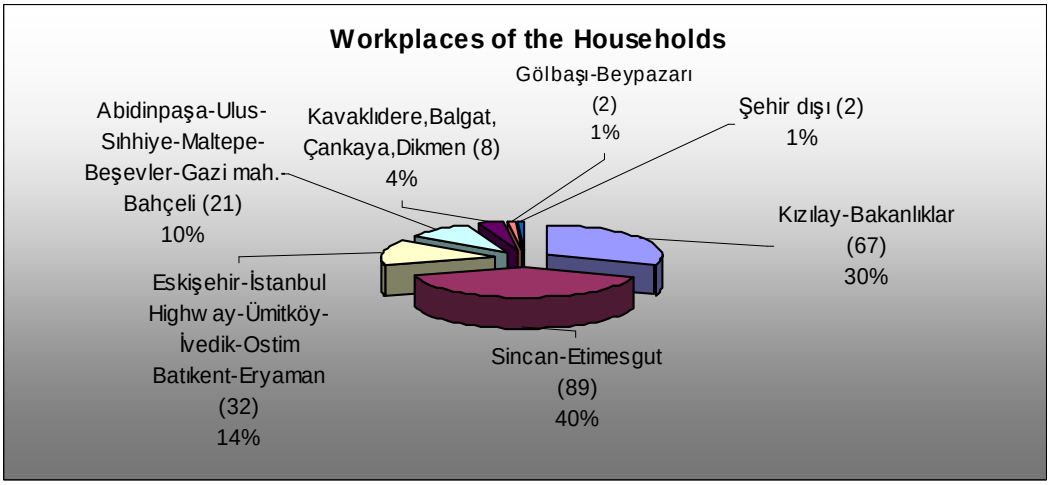

Figure 7.17: Location of the workplaces of the whole working households

When looked at the household heads' workplaces, it shows similarities with the whole household members' workplace location. Most of the households heads' workplaces are located in the same district with their residence (36%) while Kızılay-Bakanlıklar are taking place as the second preferred workplace by 44

households (28%). 21 of them (13%) are working along Eskişehir Highway, Ümitköy, Istanbul Highway, Ostim and İvedik (Figure 7.18).

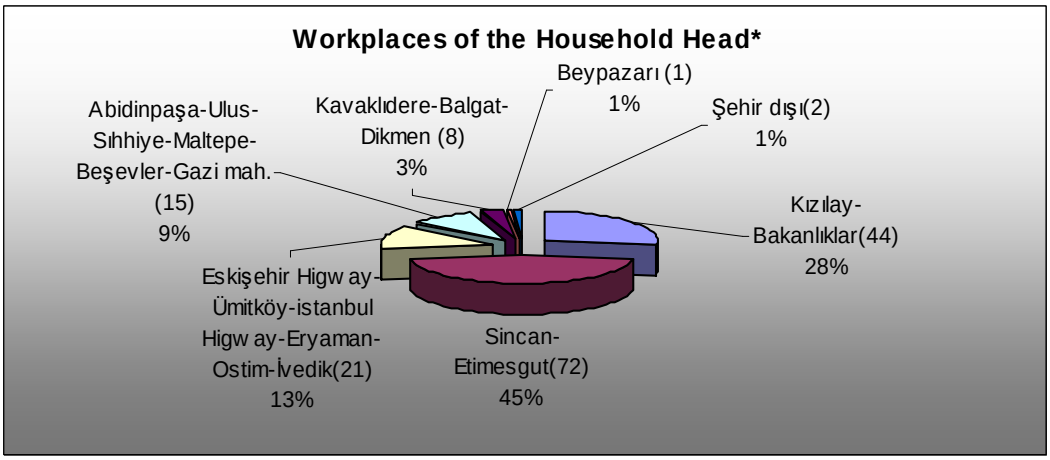

Figure 7.18: Workplaces of the household head
* This question was asked to 161 households.

Among the spouses, the percentage of the working ones was quite low, 119 of 142 household' spouses are housewives and not working while 1 of them is retired and 22 of them are working in a workplace. The 17 of working spouses are going to Kızılay-Bakanlıklar for work, 7 of the spouses are working in Etimesgut and 1 of spouses' workplace is located on the Eskişehir Highway (Figure 7.19).

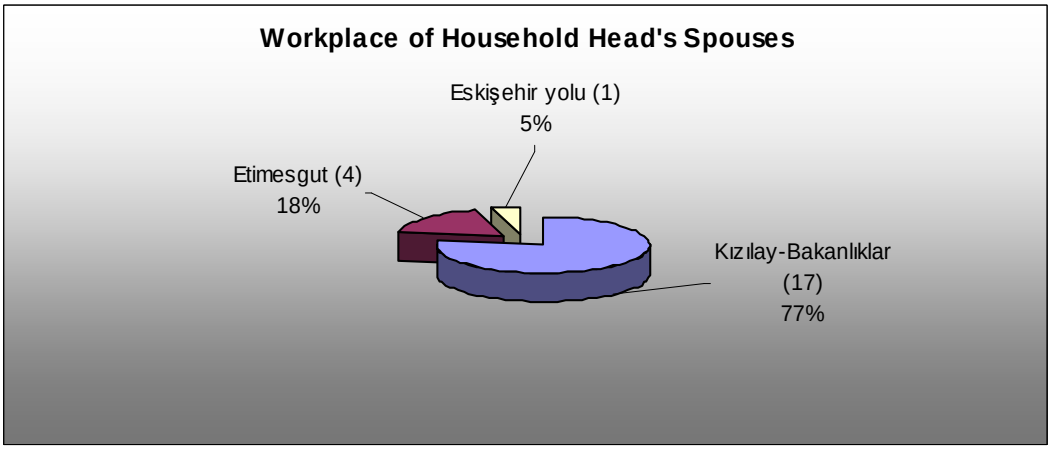

Figure 7.19: Workplace of household head's spouses

After mentioning the location of the workplaces, it is important to give some details about the commuting behaviour of the households[50]. Among the total of 278 households, 66 of them (24%) walk to their work, 36 of them (13%) use private car while most of the households (45%) use public transport and 16% of them use service buses to go to their workplaces or schools. The outcomes also reveal that most of the household heads and their spouses use public transport in commuting (Figure 7.20).

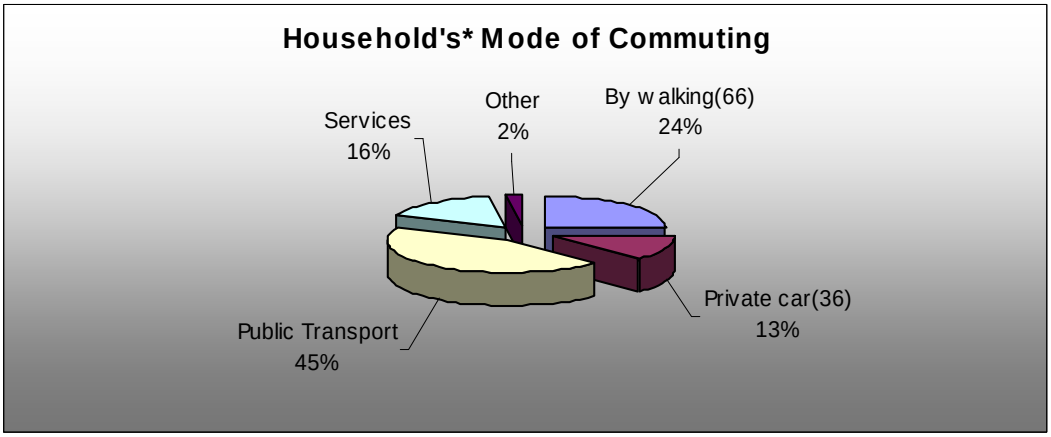

Figure 7.20: Household's mode of commuting
* Households comprise household head, spouse, child and others.
**7 of households did not answer this question among 278 households.

Among the household heads, 33% of them use public buses and minibuses, 22% of them go to work by walking, 12 of them use services while only 20% of them use private car (Figure 7.21). Similarly, most of the spouses (50% of total working spouses) use public transport, 18% of them go to their workplace by walking, 18% of them use services provided by their workplaces while the usage of their own car remains 14% for commuting (Figure 7.22).

[50] Public transport comprises public buses, public minibuses, and local railway. As the local railway is also included into the public transportation, the ratio of the railway is not indicated. Service Buses refer to the buses or minibuses provided by work places.

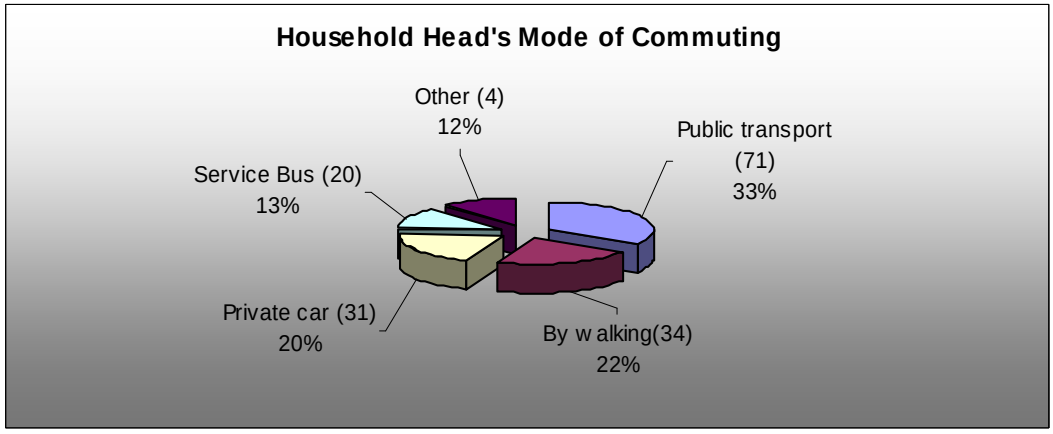

Figure 7.21: Household head's mode of commuting
* This question was answered by 161working household heads.

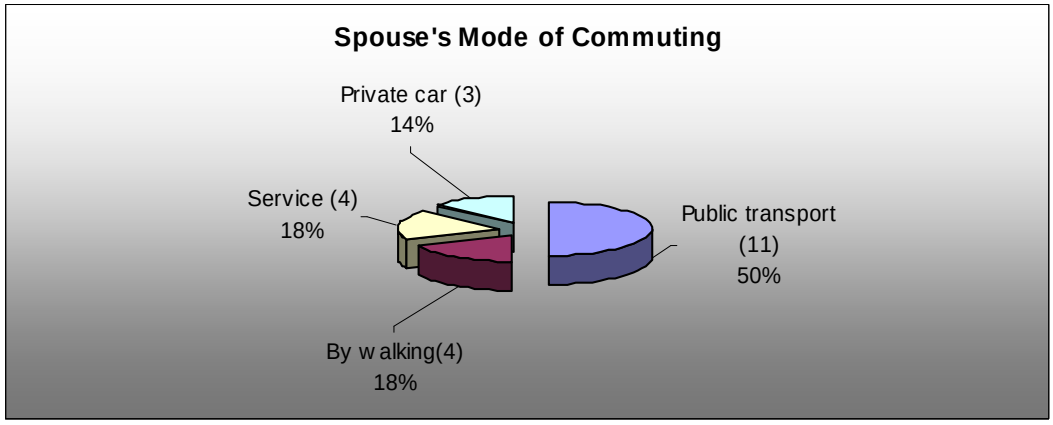

Figure 7.22: Spouse's mode of commuting
* This question was answered by 22 working household head's spouses.

High share of pedestrian journeys (18%-24%) indicates that being close to workplace is an important criterion in choosing households' residence.

Apart from the mode of commuting, it is important to reveal the commuting distances of the household which are changing due to location of the work places since one way commuting may take about 50 or more minutes for some households. However, among the interviewed households, most of theirs one-way commuting is between 10 minutes and 30 minutes. Only 67 persons out of 234 spend more than 40 minutes for one way commuting (Figure 7.23).

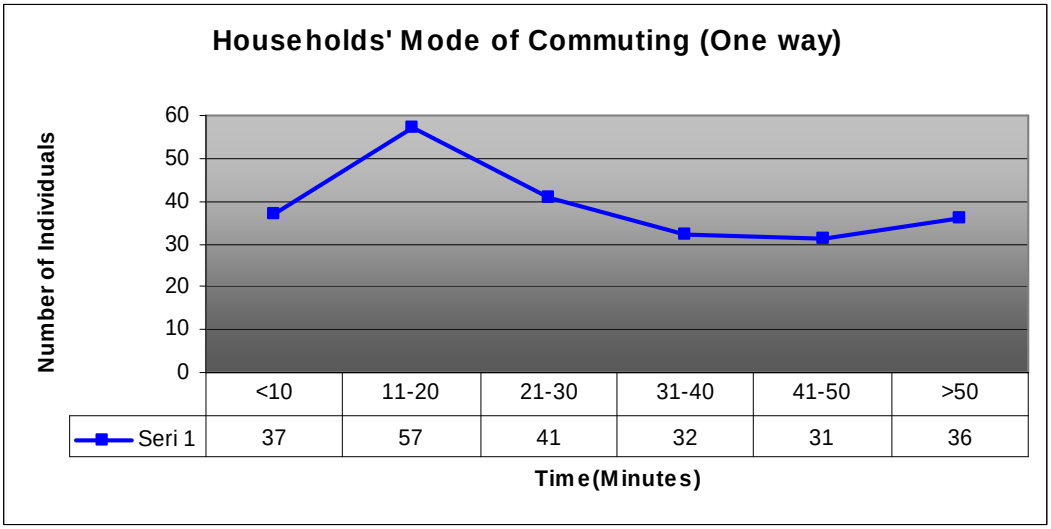

Figure 7.23: Household's one way commuting time
*38 households did not answer this question in 272 households.

Household head's one way commuting is generally between 10-30 minutes while the spouse's commuting time approximately takes up time between 20 minutes and 40 minutes (Figure 7.24 and Figure 7.25).

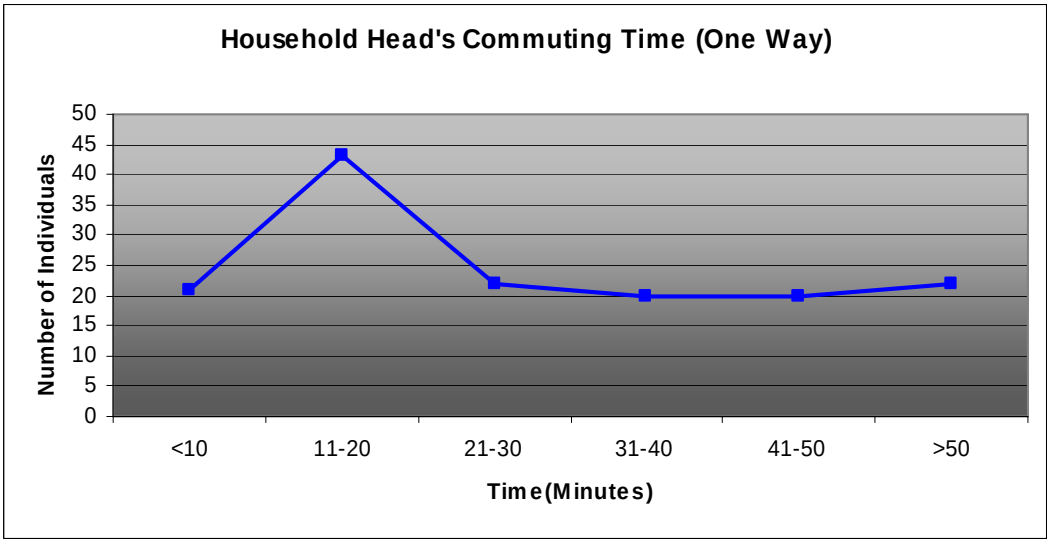

Figure 7.24: Household head's one way commuting time
*13 household heads did not answer this question in total 161 household heads.

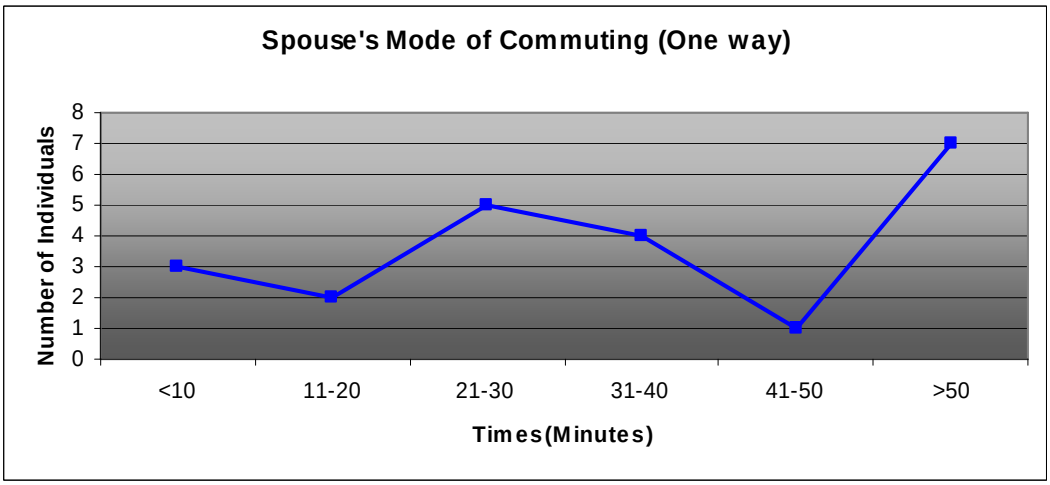

Figure 7.25: Household head's spouse's one way commuting time

Indeed, analysis shows that there is a relation between monthly incomes and commuting modes of the household heads. Household heads, whose monthly incomes are under 2000YTL use public buses and minibuses, service vehicles of their workplaces, in addition some of household heads whose working place is close to their housing unit prefer to walk. Those household heads earning 2000YTL - 3.000 YTL generally prefer public transport while the use of private car is relatively higher than the other groups whose monthly income are less than 2000YTL. On the other hand, the household heads whose monthly incomes are more than 3000YTL usually prefer to use their private car. The rest of them only use public buses in their commuting (Table 7.11). It can be argued easily from these findings that the use of private car increases with income.

Table 7.11: The correlation between mode of commuting and monthly income

Mode of commuting/ monthly Income of household head	***104-799 ytl***	***800-1199 ytl***	***1200-1599 ytl***	***1600-1999 ytl***	***2000-2999 ytl***	***3000 ytl and more***	***No response***	***General***
Unemployed, retired or housewife	57,7%	8,6%	21,2%	6,9%	9,7%	,0%	100,0%	**19,5%**
Walking	7,7%	14,3%	22,7%	41,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	**17,0%**
Private car	7,7%	5,7%	12,1%	13,8%	25,8%	63,6%	,0%	**15,5%**
Public buses	7,7%	22,9%	25,8%	20,7%	51,6%	36,4%	,0%	**26,5%**
Public minibuses	11,5%	17,1%	10,6%	3,4%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	**9,0%**

Services	3,8%	28,6%	6,1%	10,3%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	**10,0%**
Other	3,8%	2,9%	,0%	3,4%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	**2,0%**
No response	,0%	,0%	1,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	**,5%**
Total	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0%**	**100,0 %**

Another relation is between occupation of the household heads and commuting modes. Professionals (engineer, doctor, lawyer and architect) and commercial and sale workers usually prefer to use public transport but also the usage of private car is at the highest levels in those groups of household heads. On the other hand, clerical workers (including civil servants) generally use service buses and public buses-minibuses for commuting, only 13% of them use private car whereas 31.5% of them go to work by walking (Table 7.12).

Table 7.12: The correlation between the mode of commuting and occupation of the household heads

Mode of commuting/ occupation of the household head	***Professionals (doctors, engineer, lawyer)***	***Clerical workers and civil servants***	***Commercial and sale workers***	***Other***	***Unemployed, house wife retired***	***No response***	***General***
Unemployed, retired or housewife	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	**19,5%**
By walking	8,0%	31,5%	18,5%	18,5%	,0%	,0%	**17,0%**
Private car	32,0%	13,0%	22,2%	16,7%	,0%	100,0%	**15,5%**
Public buses	52,0%	22,2%	51,9%	25,9%	,0%	,0%	**26,5%**
Public minibuses	4,0%	11,1%	,0%	20,4%	,0%	,0%	**9,0%**
Services	4,0%	22,2%	3,7%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	**10,0%**
Other	,0%	,0%	3,7%	5,6%	,0%	,0%	**2,0%**
No response	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,9%	,0%	,0%	**,5%**
Total	**100,0%**	**100,0%**	**100,0%**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**

Furthermore, it is important to reveal daily commuting expenditure of the households together with made choice. As it's seen from the Figure 7.26, many of the households (44% of them) did not have any commuting expense since they either use service buses of their workplaces (including civil servants) or commute by walking. 30% of them expend 3 YTL while 14% of them disburse only 1YTL for commuting.

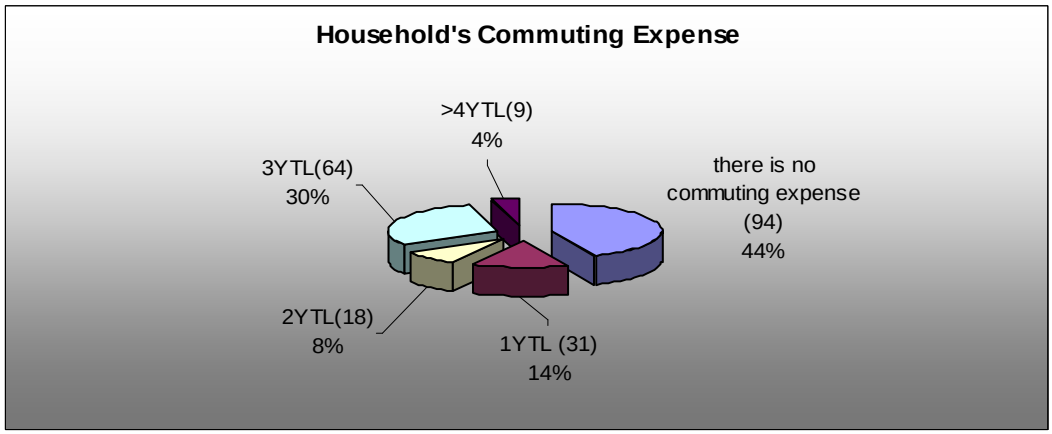

Figure 7.26: Household's daily commuting expense
*This question was answered by 272 households.

In addition to daily commuting of households' and their expense of commuting, locational distribution of children's schools is also important for the daily inner-city activity. In accordance with Figure 7.27 which the location of the children's schools is demonstrated, more than half of 80 school children are going to their schools which are located within their neighbourhoods or close to their neighbourhoods. As it's stated in the previous part, after Etimesgut and Sincan, the CBD[51] is the other place where the schools are located mostly. Furthermore, four children is going to schools located in Eskişehir, Izmir, Erzurum, Istanbul and one child goes to school abroad (Kıbrıs).

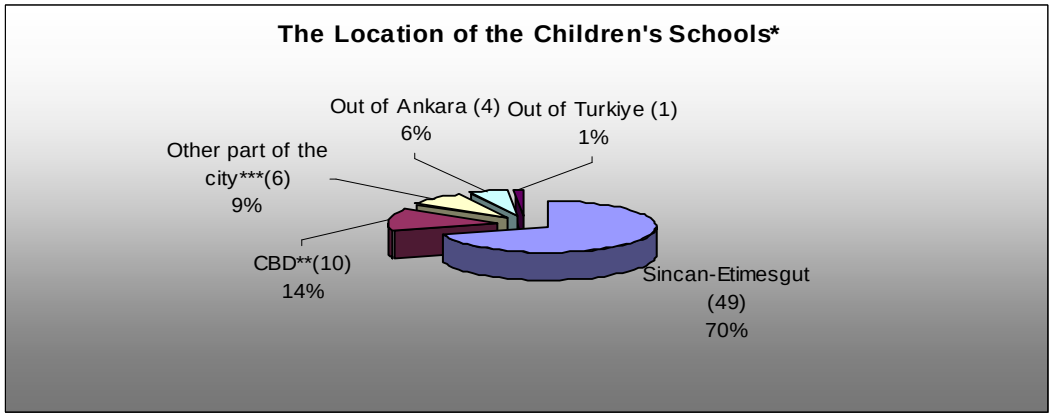

Figure 7.27: The location of the schools of the children
*10 households did not answer this question.

[51] CBD: Sıhhiye, Beşevler, Kocatepe, Kızılay, Anıttepe, Cebeci Other part of the city: Balgat, Batıkent, Gata, Seyran, Emirler, Gazi mahallesi

Consequently, it is clear that workplaces of the households are generally located at Sincan-Etimesgut or Kızılay-Bakanlıklar. This predicated that most of the households aim to reduce the commuting distance when they are choosing their residences and also they prefer housing at the fringe because of the accessibility advantages of work as it's stated in hypothesis [4] and [5]. By way of addition, most of the children's schools are located within the same district of their homes or in the neighbouring districts. Furthermore, the usage of public transportation is quite high among the other transportation systems and this result supports the hypothesis [3]. Therefore, low commuting time and expense for most households indicate that hypothesis 7 which suggests a trade off between lower housing price/rent with greater commuting time is not supported [7]. Households appear to reduce their commuting cost by using public transportation and service buses of the work places as well as by walking to walk from their nearby dwellings. Mainly, the households whose income level is better than the others especially professionals and those working in the service sector use their private cars for commuting.

7.4. Acquisition of the Houses

It's asked to the households if they are owner occupier or tenant in the house that they live in. The results which are stated in the previous part show that 113 of the households (56%) are tenant. Moreover, 75 of them (38%) are owner of the houses while 12 of them (6%) live in the houses without paying any rent since the house is their relative's house. The high ratios of tenants in Etimesgut and Sincan constitute a different situation from Turkey and Ankara, since average homeownership ratios of Turkish urban settlements and Ankara are much higher than that of tenants.

There is a relation between monthly incomes and the ways of acquiring the houses. For instance, the highest income groups bought the units from house builders in general. The lowest income groups are usually tenants, on the other hand, the owners whose income levels between 1600-3000 bought their houses

from previous owners. The rate of the cooperatives are at the lowest rates between the households whose income is less 3000YTL while the rate of cooperatives among the ones whose income is over 3000YTL is zero (Table 7.13).

Table 7.13: The correlation between the way of acquiring the house and the monthly income of the households

The way of acquiring the house/monthly income of the households	***104-799 ytl***	***800-1199 ytl***	***1200-1599 ytl***	***1600-1999 ytl***	***2000-2999 ytl***	***3000 ytl and more***	***No response***	***General***
Tenants/ without paying any rent	42,3%	68,6%	71,2%	58,6%	58,1%	54,5%	50,0%	**62,0%**
From previous owner	30,8%	17,1%	7,6%	24,1%	16,1%	,0%	,0%	**15,5%**
From builder	3,8%	5,7%	3,0%	6,9%	6,5%	36,4%	,0%	**6,5%**
By cooperatives	,0%	2,9%	6,1%	6,9%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	**4,5%**
Other	19,2%	5,7%	7,6%	3,4%	9,7%	,0%	50,0%	**8,5%**
No response	3,8%	,0%	4,5%	,0%	3,2%	9,1%	,0%	**3,0%**
Total	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**	**100,0%**	**100,0%**	**100,0%**	**100,0%**	**100,0 %**	**100,0 %**

In addition most of the households have been living in their residences between 1-5 years. The number of the households who live in their houses less than 1 year is 44, between 5 and 10 years is 40, more than 10 years is 31 (Figure 7.28). Furthermore, most of the households who are tenants or living in their houses without paying any rent live in their houses less than 5 years, while 21 of them live more than 5 years and 4 of them live more than 10 years. Many households living 1 to 5 years and for 5-10 years asserted that they bought their houses from the previous owners.

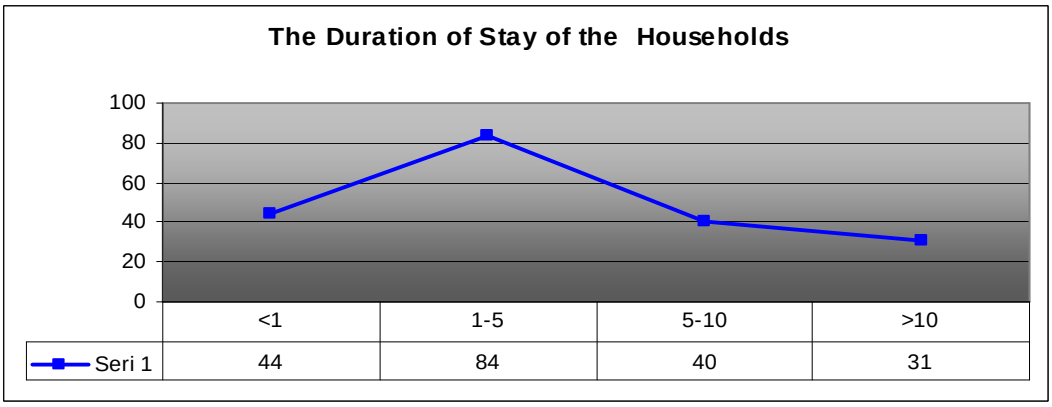

Figure 7.28: The duration of stay of the households in their houses

7.5. The General Features of the Houses

Households change their residence due to various reasons. One of the most important reasons is the features of the houses. In this part, the important features of the houses will be analysed according to the questionnaire results. The outcomes shows that most of the houses (60%) located in Etimesgut and Sincan are independent apartment houses, while 24% of them are 1-2 storey licensed dwelling units and the 16% of them are the site (Figure 7.29). Among the houses, most of the apartments are 5 or more storey. The number of apartment houses with 3-4 storey is 58 while the number of 1-2 storey dwelling units are 10 (Figure 7.30).

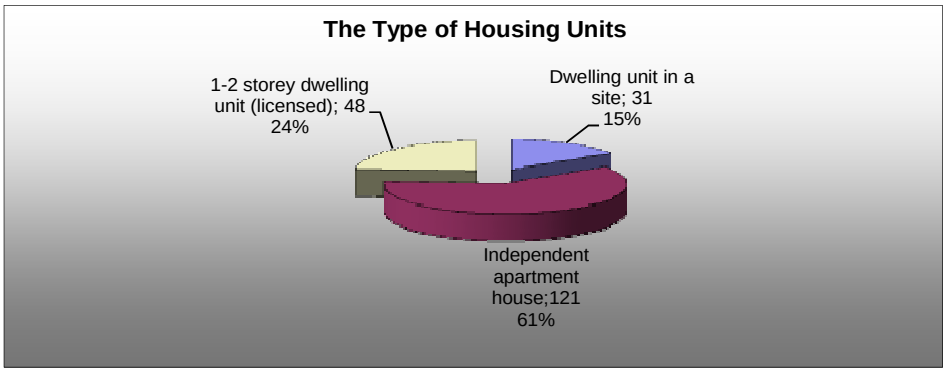

Figure 7.29: The type of housing units

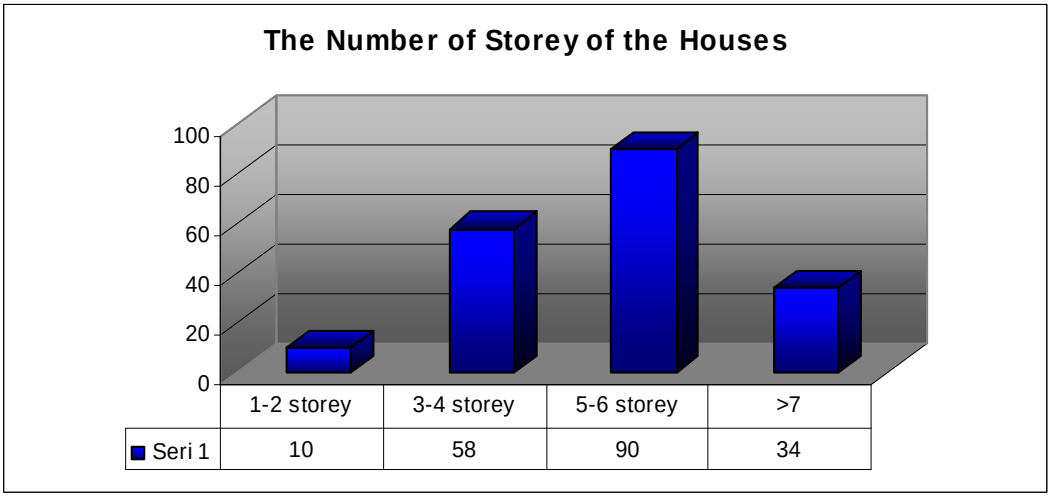

Figure 7.30: The number of storey of the houses
*8 households did not answer this question.

According to the outcomes, most of the houses (in which 141 of total 200 households') were built after 1990 in Etimesgut and Sincan together with gaining a municipal status (Figure 7.31).

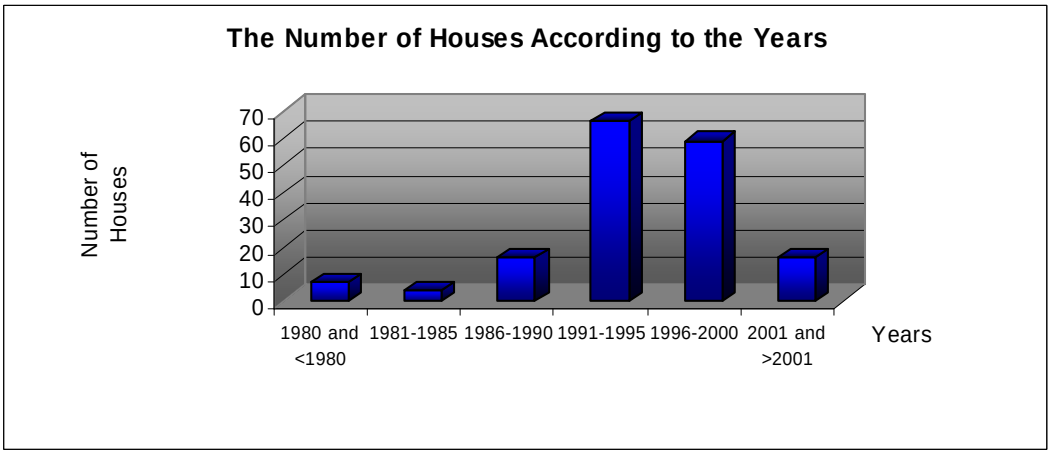

Figure 7.31: The number of houses between 1980 to nowadays
*32 households did not answer this question.

Among the interviewed households, 61 of them (31%) mentioned that this house is the first one that they have lived in Ankara. Most of those houses have 2+1 rooms and only a few of them 1+1 rooms (Figure 7.32 and Figure 7.33).

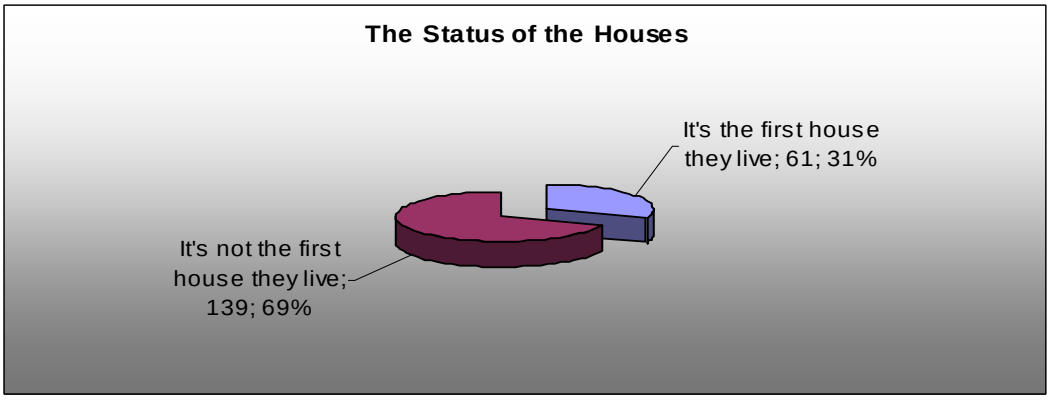

Figure 7.32: The status of the houses

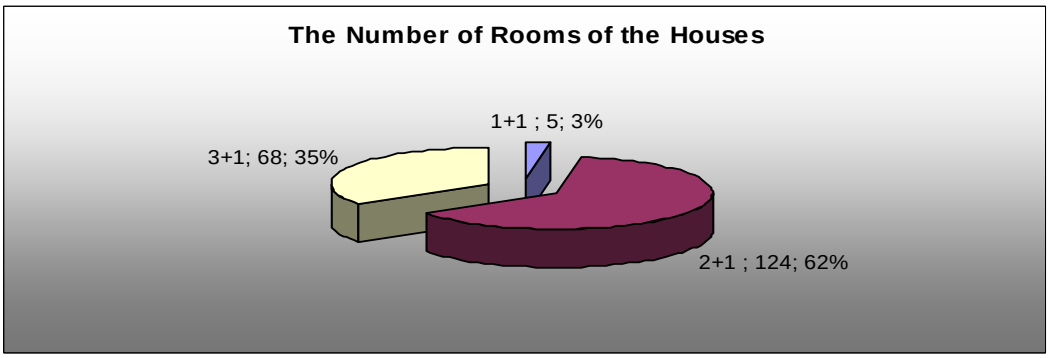

Figure 7.33: The number of rooms of the houses
*3 households did not answer this question.

Apart from these, one of the other important features of the houses is floor and plot areas. Actually, houses are large enough since 95 of the houses' floor areas are between 100-120 m², 22 of them are greater than 120 m² while the rest of them (75 of them) are smaller than 100 m² (Table 7.14). Most of them have 3+1 rooms. It is interesting that there is no dwelling unit with more rooms. This can be interpreted as the limitation of demand for housing in these areas.

Table 7.14: Floor area ratios of the houses

	Floor Area of the House (m²)		
	< 100 m²	**100-120** m²	**>120** m²
Total Number of Houses	75	95	22
%	37,5 %	47,5%	11%

*8 of the households did not answer this question. The percentage of these households is 4% which is not included in the table.

On the other hand, plots are also large in size since 56 of them are 251-500 m², 25 of them between 500-1000 m² while 21 of them under 250 m² (Table 7.15).

Table 7.15: Plot areas

	Area of the Plot that the House is Located on (m²)			
	<250 m²	**250-500** m²	**500-1000** m²	**>1000** m²
Total Number of Houses	21	56	25	1
%	10,5%	28%	12,5%	0,5%

*97 households mentioned that they did not know the exact area of the plot, so they did not answer this question.

Most of the houses have a drainage system, 64.5% of them have a garden, 41% of them can use a depot while 26% of them have a parking garage, and 27.5% of them have a private garage for their car. The houses having the central hot-water system and central heating constitute 40% of the total 200 households, and the 17.5% of the households use elevator (Table 7.16).

Table 7.16: The features of the housing units

The features of the houses	***Number of the households***	***Valid Percentage of the households (%)***
Bathroom in the house	200	100,0
Kitchen in the house	200	100,0
Toilet in the house	200	100,0
Sewerage system	197	98,5
Central heating	80	40,0
Elevator	35	17,5
Parking garage	52	26,0
Garden	129	64,5
Private garage	55	27,5
Room of management	25	12,5
Depot	82	41,0
Total	**200**	100,0

The number of households paying monthly contribution for the management (and heating) expenses of their house is 162 among 200 households. 60% of the households' contribution is under 20 YTL while 25 of them is between 20-50 YTL and the number of households who pay money over 50 YTL is only 13 households. 153 of the contribution comprise only cleaning work, 147 of the

households' contribution comprehends also lighting of apartment, electricity, water and etc., 125 of the households' contribution comprise the door-keeper's expense and only 15 of their contribution comprise the fuel costs also (Figure 7.34 and Figure 7.35).

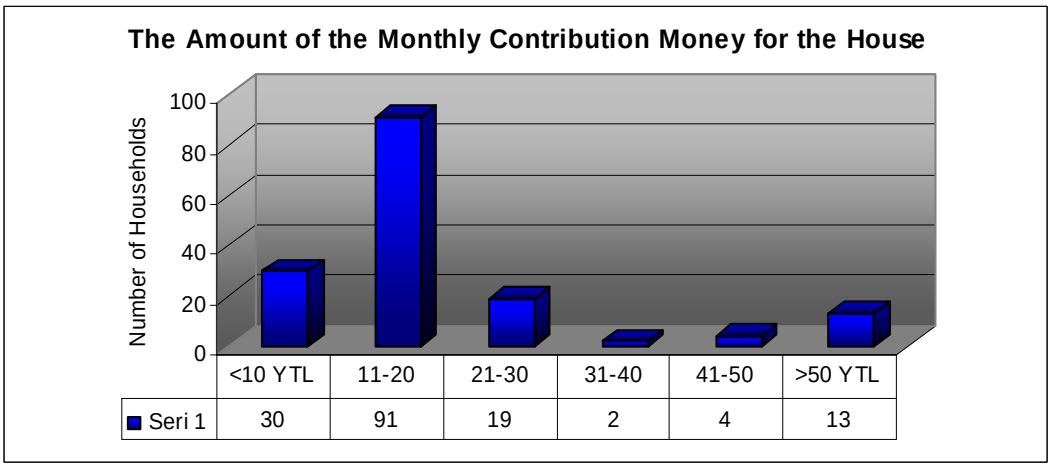

Figure 7.34: The amount of the money paid for the contribution for the house
* 3 households did not answer this question.

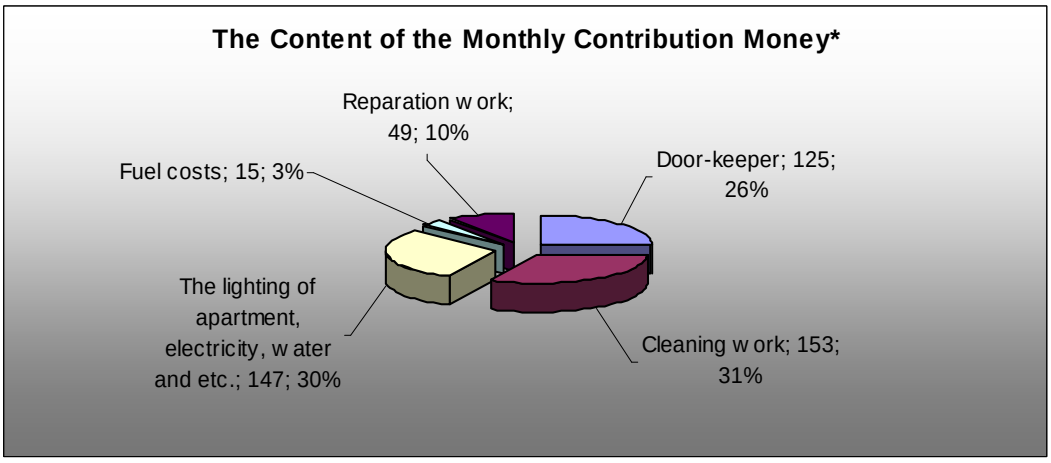

Figure 7.35: The content of the contribution money of the households
*This question comprises the 162 households who are paying contribution.

After mentioning some general features of the houses, it is important to talk about the other features such as outlook of the building, quality of the building, quality of the building entrance and lastly the usage of the ground floor.

To begin with, most of the buildings (54.5%) have a slightly and quality outlook, while the 42% of them have an old and decrepit outlook (Table 7.17).

Table 7.17: The external of the building

	Number of households	*Valid percentage* ***(%)***
New outlook/well kept	109	54,5
Old outlook/ unkept	84	42,0
No response	7	3,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

When looked at the quality of the building and entrance of the building, most of the households agree that the quality of the building is at the intermediate level. 32% of them say the quality is good, 16% of them think that the quality of the building is very good, and 45% of them find the quality of the building is medial, while only 4.5% of them think that the quality of the building is in a bad situation (Table 7.18).

Table 7.18: The quality of the building

	Number of households	***Valid percentage*** ***(%)***
Very good	32	16,0
Good	64	32,0
Medial	90	45,0
Bad	9	4,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

On the other hand, 50% of the households say that the entrance of the building is well-qualified and 47% of them are poor quality. (Table 7.19)

Table 7.19: The quality of the entrance of the building

	Number of households	***Valid percentage*** ***(%)***
Well-qualified	100	50,0
Poor quality	94	47,0
No response	6	3,0
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Lastly, the usage of the ground floor is relatively low. The households having workplace or store on the ground floor compose 72% of total 200 households (Table 7.20).

Table 7.20: The usage of the ground floor

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
In use	39	19,5
Not in use	144	72,0
No response	17	8,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

7.6. Households' Opinions about their Houses and the Level of their Residential Satisfaction

In order to reveal the households' opinions about their houses and also learn the level of satisfaction about their residence, the best and the worst sides of living in their houses were asked to mention to the households in the questionnaire. It was also asked if they want to move to another house and if so, whether they will actually move in 6 months time. Apart from these, the households' features of using urban services will be discussed according to the outcomes of the questionnaire.

The outcomes resemble with the previously mentioned reasons which motivate them to move in their houses, but the ranking is different a bit. Households firstly specify that the best side of living in their houses is quietness and tranquillity of the environment and then they see appropriate price/rent of the houses as the second best side of living in their houses. They also find the opportunities such as easement of access to the work place and schools and being close to the friends and relatives as well as getting well with neighbours as the other most advantageous sides of their houses. The intimacy comes as the sixth floor while living in a comfortable environment with green areas, playgrounds and parking lots is also important for the households since it was mentioned for 25 times. However, having their own house, closeness to the shopping centre and market

areas, the size of the houses and the prestige of the estate which are the other most important motivations for their residential choice ranked at the lower levels, which can be explained as either the households' opinion have been changed after moving or these items have not contented them enough (Table 7.21).

Table 7.21: The best sides of living in these houses

Ranking	*Best Sides of Living in Etimesgut and Sincan*	*Frequency*	*Valid Percentage (%)*
1	The quietness and tranquillity of the environment	111	55,5
2	The price/rent of the house is appropriate	76	38,0
3	Easement access to the workplace and schools	61	30,5
4	Being close to the friends and relatives	35	17,5
5	Getting well with the neighbours	32	16,0
6	Intimacy	26	13,0
7	Living in a clean and comfortable environment with green areas, play grounds and parking lots	25	12,5
8	The house is their own house	14	7,0
9	Being close to the shopping centre and market areas	12	6,0
10	The size of the house is large as to the apartment houses	11	5,5
11	Prestigious	6	3,0
Total		**200**	0,5

* One household did not answer this question and there is more than one answer for this question, so the total is not equal to 200.

When came to the worst sides of living in that houses , the difficulty of going and coming to the workplace comes as the first worst side by the answer of 60 (30%) households. Being far away to the shopping centre and market areas appear to be the second most important problem for the households. Some of the households think that the place gives them the feeling of loneliness and insecurity. Moreover, many of them mentioned that the services such as rubbish collection, assurance of the drinking water, postal services and etc. are inadequate, while 20 of them asserted that they did not get well with their neighbours. 16 of the households find the expenditure of the houses is too high. Lack of play grounds, parking lots and the heating problem are the other worst sides ranked at the lower levels. Additionally, 7 of the households find the interior design of the houses unpractical while lack of parking garage was mentioned for 6 times as a disadvantage. On the other hand, it is important to mention that 43 households think that the house does not have a negative side, which means they are quite satisfied with their houses (Table 7.22).

Table 7.22: The worst sides of living in these houses

Ranking	*Worst Sides of Living in Etimesgut and Sincan*	*Frequency*	*Valid Percentage (%)*
1	The difficulty of going to and coming from the workplace	60	30,0
2	There is not any negative side	43	21,5
3	Distance to the shopping centres and market areas	43	21,5
4	Feeling of loneliness and insecurity	29	14,5
5	lack of urban services (rubbish collection, assurance of the drinking water, postal services)	23	11,5
6	They do not get well with the neighbours	20	10,0
7	The expenditure of the houses are high	16	8,0
8	There is no parking lot, playgrounds around the environment	10	5,0
9	The problem of heating	9	4,5
10	Interior design of the building	7	3,5
11	Parking garage problems	6	3,0
Total		**200**	**100,0**

* One household did not answer this question and there is more than one answer for this question, so the total is not equal to 200.

When it is asked if they want to move to another house, only 20 households mentioned that they want to move. 9 of them said that they want to change only their house without changing their district while another 10 households mentioned that they want to move to another district[52] .

When it's asked to households why they want to move, being far away from the living area and not liking the environment's appearance are the most important reasons for the households in order to change their residence. Furthermore, having a larger house, being far away from the workplace, moving to their own house, insecurity problem, not getting well with the neighbours, not being satisfied from the district are the other reasons for households to move another house (Table 7.23).

[52] 3 households want to move to Batıkent, one each household to Esat, Kızılay, Bahçelievler and Çankaya). Furthermore, only one household denoted that want to move to another city (Antalya)

Table 7.23: The reasons of the households who want to move from their house

The reasons of moving in	*Frequency*	*Valid percentage (%)*
Being far away from the living place	2	5,0
Do not like the environment	2	10,0
Having a larger house	1	10,0
Being far away from to the workplace	1	5,0
To move to their own house	1	5,0
Insecurity	1	5,0
Not getting well with the neighbours	1	5,0
Not satisfied from the district	1	5,0
No response	10	50,0
Total	**20**	**100,0**

Among these 20 households who want to move to another house, 12 of them asserted that they will actually move to another house within the following 6 months time[53]. The reasons of those households who will be move in the following 6 months time is more or less the same with the reasons of the households who want to move. Having a larger house, assignation, distance to the city centre, and the demand for living in a house with a kombi boiler, moving to their own house, insecurity and unsatisfied with the structuring of the district are the reasons of moving of the households who will move to another house within the following 6 months time (Table 7.24).

Table 7.24: The reasons of the households who will move from their house in following 6 months time

The reasons of moving in	*Frequency*	*Valid percentage (%)*
Having a larger house	1	8,3
Assignation (change of workplace location)	1	8,3
Distance to the centre	1	8,3
Demand for living in a house with the kombi boiler	1	8,3
To move their own house	1	8,3
Insecurity	1	8,3
Not satisfied with the structuring of the district	1	8,3
No response	5	41,7
Total	**12**	**100,0**

In short, it can be argued that in spite of the foregoing reasons above cited such as having a larger house, distance to the work place and all the others, most of the

[53] 7 of them will stay within the same district but change their house, 4 households will move to Batıkent, Esat, Seyran and Abidinpaşa, 1 will move to another city.

households are satisfied with their houses and the urban environment.Actually, 90% of them do not want to move to another house while 43 households think that their houses do not have any negative side.

7.7. Households' Features of Using Urban Services

In this part, the features of using urban services of the households and their satisfaction about these services will be tried to be revealed. In the questionnaire, households were asked to mention about their satisfaction level about infrastructure opportunities, transportation infrastructure, adequacy of parking areas, green areas, parks, playgrounds, whether the distance to the school, health and shopping centres is efficient or not, relationships with their neighbours and the landscape of the area. In addition, it was asked to assert their ideas about regular building structuring, distance to the buildings or things which make the noise pollution, security, and the opportunities of the public transportation and the level of satisfaction from municipal services.

To begin with, the infrastructure facilities were asked to the households, more than half of the households (52.5%) find the infrastructure facilities are adequate and 6% of them find very adequate. On the other hand, the percent of the households who find inadequate and very inadequate is 22.5% while the percent of households find the infrastructure facilities "either adequate or inadequate" is 16.5% (Table 7.25).

Table 7.25: The infrastructure facilities such as water, sewerage, electricity

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	7	3,5
Inadequate	38	19,0
Either adequate or inadequate	33	16,5
Adequate	105	52,5
Very adequate	12	6,0
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

The percent of the households who are satisfied from the infrastructure of access is 53.5% (adequate and too adequate) while 22.5% of the households are not satisfied. The percent of households who find out the means of access "either adequate or inadequate" is 21% (Table 7.26).

Table 7.26: The infrastructure of access

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	4	2,0
Inadequate	41	20,5
Either adequate or inadequate	42	21,0
Adequate	92	46,0
Very adequate	15	7,5
No response	6	3,0
Total	**200**	**100,0**

When asked to households the adequacy of the parking areas, 43% of them find out the parking areas are "adequate" and " too adequate" while 27% of the households find out the parking areas "inadequate" and "too inadequate" and 27,5% of them answered this question as "either adequate or inadequate" (Table 7.27).

Table 7.27: The parking areas

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	6	3,0
Inadequate	48	24,0
Either adequate or inadequate	55	27,5
Adequate	78	39,0
Very adequate	8	4,0
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

The adequacy of the green areas satisfied 41.5% of the households while 28.5% of them do not think that the green areas are enough for their housing areas. On the other hand, the playgrounds and the sport areas are found enough by 36.5% of the households, 34.5 % of the households are not satisfied from the adequacy of the playgrounds and sport areas. Many of them find the efficiency of these areas either adequate or inadequate (Table 7.28 and Table 7.29).

Table 7.28: The green areas and parks

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	8	4,0
Inadequate	49	24,5
Either adequate or inadequate	55	27,5
Adequate	76	38,0
Very adequate	7	3,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Table 7.29: The playgrounds and sport areas

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	11	5,5
Inadequate	59	29,5
Either adequate or inadequate	52	26,0
Adequate	63	31,5
Very adequate	10	5,0
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Most of the households (41.5%) of them think that their house is close enough to the schools and the other health centres. On the other hand, the percent of the households who contradicts is 23.5%. Furthermore, the percent of the households who find the shopping centres are close enough to their house are 47% while the others who find the shopping centres are far away from their house is 26% (Table 7.30 and Table 7.31).

Table 7.30: The closeness to the schools and health centres

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	6	3,0
Inadequate	41	20,5
Either adequate or inadequate	64	32,0
Adequate	69	34,5
Very adequate	13	6,5
No response	7	3,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Table 7.31: The closeness to the shopping centres

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	5	2,5
Inadequate	47	23,5
Either adequate or inadequate	49	24,5
Adequate	81	40,5
Very adequate	13	6,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

It is also important to figure out the neighbourliness relationship of the households. More than half of the households get well with their neighbour while the percent of households who do not get well with their neighbour is 22.5%. The percent of the households who answer this question as "either adequate or inadequate" is 21.5% (Table 7.32).

Table 7.32: The neighbourliness relationship

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	13	6,5
Inadequate	32	16,0
Either adequate or inadequate	43	21,5
Adequate	81	40,5
Very adequate	25	12,5
No response	6	3,0
Total	**200**	**100,0**

The outlook of the housing areas are adequate for 28% of the households, 34% of the households find the view of the house inadequate. Apart from this, 41% of the households think that there is a planned settlement, and 25.5% of the households maintain the contrary (Table 7.33 and Table 7.34).

Table 7.33: The outlook of the house

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	20	10,0
Inadequate	48	24,0
Either adequate or inadequate	71	35,5
Adequate	50	25,0
Very adequate	6	3,0
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Table 7.34: The planned structuring of the buildings

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	20	10,0
Inadequate	48	24,0
Either adequate or inadequate	71	35,5
Adequate	50	25,0
Very adequate	6	3,0
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Another feature of the using of urban services is the distance to the buildings which make noise and pollution. As answer to this question, half of the households assert that their house is far enough from these types of buildings which make noise and pollution while 19.5% of them maintain the contrary (Table 7.35).

Table 7.35: The distance to the buildings those make noise pollution

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	7	3,5
Inadequate	32	16,0
Either adequate or inadequate	56	28,0
Adequate	81	40,5
Very adequate	19	9,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

Moreover, 32.5% of the households find their residences enough secure, 42% of them do not find secure enough, while 42% of them do not find secure enough and 22.5 of them say that the security of their residences is "either adequate or inadequate" (Table 7.36).

Table 7.36: Security

	Number of households	***Valid percentage (%)***
Very inadequate	14	7,0
Inadequate	70	35,0
Either adequate or inadequate	45	22,5
Adequate	51	25,5
Very adequate	14	7,0
No response	6	3,0
Total	**200**	**100,0**

When the opinions of the households about the municipal services and the opportunities of the public transport were asked to mention, most of the households find the municipal services are adequate and efficient, while 31.5% of the households find inadequate or too inadequate. The percentage of the households who answer to this question as "either adequate or inadequate" is 35.5% (Table 7.37).

Table 7.37: The municipal services

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	19	9,5
Inadequate	44	22,0
Either adequate or inadequate	71	35,5
Adequate	56	28,0
Very adequate	5	2,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

All the same, the opportunities of the public transportation were asked, 44% of the households think there is sufficient public transportation to their residential settlements while 31% of them say the contrary. On the other hand, the households answer this question as "either adequate or inadequate" is 22.5% (Figure 7.38).

Table 7.38: The opportunities of the public transportation

	Number of households	*Valid percentage (%)*
Very inadequate	19	9,5
Inadequate	44	22,0
Either adequate or inadequate	71	35,5
Adequate	56	28,0
Very adequate	5	2,5
No response	5	2,5
Total	**200**	**100,0**

7.8. Review of the Household Questionnaire

In conclusion, the survey questions the validity of the previously stated hypotheses for the residents of Sincan and Etimesgut. The hypotheses of this study are stated as:

a) Households choosing housing at the urban fringe especially in Sincan and Etimesgut Municipalities' boundaries are from the middle or lower-middle income groups [2].

b) Households living at the urban fringe of Sincan and Etimesgut Municipality are expected to use the public transportation in commuting [3]

c) Households prefer outskirts developments because of accessibility advantages of work and urban services [4].

d) Households are expected aiming to reduce commuting distance when they are choosing their residences [5].

e) Households are expected to pay lower prices or rents for housing in that location [6].

f) Households who rely on public transportation are expected to make a trade off between lower housing price and rent with greater commuting time [7].

g) Households who use their own cars in their commuting are expected aiming to economise in lower operating (fuel costs) [8].

In fact, the outcomes of the questionnaire have highly compatible results with these hypotheses, which can be explained in sequence as follows:

a) Households choosing housing at the urban fringe in Etimesgut and Sincan Municipalities' boundaries are generally from the middle and lower-middle income groups. In fact, 33% of the households' total income level is between 1200-1599 YTL, 30,5% of their income is less than 1200 YTL, while 30% of their income is between 1600-2999 YTL, the others' income is more than 3000 YTL [2].

b) The use of public transportation is high among the households. 45% of the household heads generally use the public buses and minibuses and the local train in their commuting. In addition, the use of public transport is higher in Sincan (51%) compared to Etimesgut (29%). Walking is another important mode in commuting by the ratio of 21% among the household heads. On the other hand, the 50% of the household heads' spouses use public transportation in commuting while the ratio is 75% in

Sincan and 20% in Etimesgut. The important percentage of the household heads' spouses in Etimesgut use service vehicles or prefer walking in commuting [3].

c) The accessibility advantages to workplaces and urban services are also important for the households who prefer to live in those areas. The number of households who work is 225, while 159 households do not work. Most of the employed households (39.6%) work in Etimesgut and Sincan, the ratio of the households who work in Kızılay-Bakanlıklar is 30%.

Among the household heads, most of their workplaces are in the boundaries of Etimesgut or Sincan Municipalities (36%) or at nearby settlements while only 22% of them work in Kızılay-Bakanlıklar. When came to household head's spouses, the high proportion of them (84.5%) are housewife, unemployed or retired. Among the employed household head's spouses, most of their workplaces are in Kızılay- Bakanlıklar (77.3%), while the rest of them (22.7%) work in Etimesgut and Eskişehir Highway. The important thing that is taken into account here is that most of the household head's spouses work Kızılay- Bakanlıklar however the amount of money they paid for commuting is low since most of them are civil servant who work in these places and go to work by services.

When households mentioned the factors that motivate them to move to their houses in Etimesgut and Sincan, being close of houses to the workplaces and schools of children, ease of access to work takes place in the first rankings with high percentage. This is also an indicator of the accessibility advantages of work.

The accessibility advantage to urban services is another criterion for households who prefer living in those places. According to the questionnaire results, most of the households are satisfied from the infrastructure and public transportation opportunities and means of

access to the residence, and think that there is enough parking and green areas and 70% of them also think that there is enough public transportation for commuting. Furthermore, being close to schools, health and shopping centres and availability of building structure are the other factors for households in preferring these areas for settlement. However, the problem of insecurity and being far away to the social and cultural facilities are less recognized issues for the households who take no notice of these compared to the other services mentioned above. [4]

d) Households try to reduce their commuting distance when they are choosing their houses. The findings which are mentioned above also support this hypothesis. As it's stated before, most of the household heads work is in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan or at nearby settlements. This situation is different for household head' spouses since most of the working spouses go to Kızılay- Bakanlıklar for work. However, the number of working household head's spouse is very low[54], and they commute by service vehicles free of change. Therefore, this hypothesis is valid for most of the working household members since they choose their houses in order to reduce commuting distance [5].

e) The price/rent of the houses is quiet low when compared to the other settlements at the fringe in Ankara, such as Çayyolu. Households were asked to answer the price of their house. The results show that most of the houses (42%) are bought between the price of 50000-70000YTL, the percentage of the houses which is bought under 50000YTL is 11%. 23% of the houses are bought between 70000-100000YTL. Monthly rents price change between 300-350YTL (58.5%), as 8.5 of them are under 300YTL and 21% of them are between 350-400YTL [6].

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f) Most of the household who use public transportation or service which appear not making a trade-off between lower price/rent of the houses with greater commuting time as 61.5 of the household heads' one-way

[54] Only 22 household head's wives are working in 142 of them

commuting take up to 30 minutes since these household heads most probably work in the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan or at nearby settlements. On the other hand, 38.5% of the household head go to their work in 30-50 minutes or more. Among the household heads' spouses, most of their duration to work take between 11-50 minutes which is quite high (54.5%) and 31.8 of the spouses' one-way commuting time is over 50 minutes since most of spouses' work places are in Kızılay-Bakanlıklar. Consequently, these findings would not suggest this hypothesis for most households [7].

g) The use of the private car ownership is quite low since the number of private car owners is 36 in total 200 households. Among these users, most of them (52.8%) use benzene as a fuel, while the number of households who use diesel fuel or LPG is 15 (41.7%) Nonetheless the number of private car ownership is quite low. In that sense, questionnaire results show differences with this hypothesis since the number of benzene users is higher than the diesel fuel and LPG ones. It is necessary to emphasize that the more number of private car ownership, the more households could be the users of diesel-fuel or LPG in order to reduce the commuting cost since most of them prefer to use the other transportation modes such as public transportation or service vehicles in their commuting [8].

Apart from these hypotheses, other findings of the questionnaire are also worth mentioning. To begin with, most of the households (56.5%) are tenants, while 37.5% of them are the owners and 6% of them have been living in their house without paying any rent since the house is their relatives. 15% of the households bought the houses from the previous owner, 6.5% of them bought from the builder of the house, 5.5% of them owned the houses as flat received from contractor in return to land while 4.5% of them acquired the houses by means of cooperatives, 2% by means of inheritance and only 1% of them built their house.

Then, most of the households (59.7%) were living in apartment dwellings before. Previous housing units were mostly located in Etimesgut, Sincan. Keçiören, Batıkent, Mamak, Cebeci, Tuzluçayır, Dikmen, Etlik, Seyran, Kurtuluş are the other locations which they live before coming to these housing units. Furthermore, the schools of children are located within Etimesgut and Sincan, or close neighbourhoods. Therefore, it can be concluded that the households do not have a strong connection with the centre, and most of them establish relationships with the urban services at their present location.

In addition, most of the household heads (66%) have a high school or university degree (undergraduate), however among the household heads' spouses who have a university degree is quite low (16.2%). Most of them have finished the elementary school (35.2%), and the second highest ratio in school degree is the high school (26.8%) among household heads' spouses.

Most of the household heads (27%) are working as administrative and managerial staff. The percentage of the households who are working as commercial and sales worker is 13.5% and 13.5 of them are working in private works (hotel, restaurants and hairdresser and cleaning works). The percentage of the household heads who are working as scientific, technical and professional staff is 12.5%. The ratio of retired is 15% and the ratio of not working household heads is 4.5%. Among household heads' spouses, the ratio of not working (83.8) spouses is quiet high. Most of the working ones are working as civil servant and administrative staff (39.1%) and professional staff (34.8).

Apart from these findings, households mentioned the factors that motivate them to move to their houses in Etimsegut and Sincan in the questionnaire also. It is obvious that they considered 'appropriate price and rent', 'purchasing of the house', 'the large in size', 'being close to the workplace', 'ease of access', being close to the children's schools', ' prestigious and quality of the house' primarily when making their residential decision. 'Being close to the family of the households' is ranked 8th important item since it is mentioned by 9 households. Also 'the placement of the house is close to shopping centres', 'being the owner

of the land of the house', the opportunities such as park, playgrounds and parking lots' are the other reasons in lower rankings in order to choose that houses.

Furthermore, households are asked to indicate the best and the worst sides of their houses. Actually, they think that 'quietness and calm environment', 'appropriate price/rent', 'ease of the access to the work places and children' schools, 'being close to the relatives and friends', 'getting well with neighbour', 'intimacy' and 'quality of environment' and 'opportunities such as green areas, playgrounds and sport centres' are the advantages of their living environment. On the other hand, most of them find difficult going and coming to the workplace. Moreover, some of them think that their house is far away to shopping centres and market areas. 'Feeling of loneliness and insecurity', 'lack of urban services such as rubbish collection, assurance of the drinking water and postal services', 'not getting agree with the neighbours' are the difficulties of their living environment.

Nevertheless, after considering all the advantages and disadvantages, only 20 households mentioned that they have a desire to move to another house. In other words, 180 households are satisfied with their residences. Indeed, 43 of them mentioned that there is not any negative side of their house. Thence, it can be argued that households' residential satisfaction is quite high and they prefer to live in their residences since lower price/rent houses, closeness to the working places and schools, quietness and calmness environment, intimacy, prestigious and also better urban services.

In conclusion, after mentioning the overall hypothesis and the other findings emphasized in the questionnaire, it can be deducted that the facts support the accuracy of the hypotheses in general. Households who were questioned in the survey have some common characteristics and attitudes which can be considered as the representative of the households living in Etimesgut and Sincan at the urban fringe.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

In the process of development of Ankara, urbanization and (sub) urban housing development have played important roles in terms of their economic, social, political and spatial aspects. A theoretical framework for urban economic and historical process of suburbanization is put forward. Then, urban fringe of Ankara, especially western parts of the city within the boundaries of Etimesgut and Sincan districts where lower-middle and middle income groups locate are focussed on since this suburbanization movement is different compared to suburbanization movements of developed countries.

Firstly, theoretical background of suburban housing development is discussed, and spatial variation of housing production and consumption is explained through an urban economic approach. At that point, urban land use theories which explain the relationship between housing and urban land are stated. Theories suggest that land prices decrease with distance from the city centre and economic rationality of households and house builders are also figured out by these theories.

Demand side of the housing sector is households and they are expected to spend their incomes on housing and all other goods and services. Residential choices of households are affected directly by the location of housing units, as moving from the city centre increases transport costs, which causes a decrease in their net incomes. However, households pay attention to urban services and environmental facilities, availability of using urban services, structural attributes of housing units

and accessibility advantageous to work when they choose their residential settlements within their budget constraints. Households living in the city centre suffer and complain about the congestion, pollution and crime of the city centre. However, they spend less for transport costs. On the other hand, households living at the urban fringe used to consume more housing and enjoy better urban environment and urban services, quietness and calm. Nonetheless they have to pay more for transportation costs, both in monetary and time costs, because of being far away from the city centre. In addition, lower and lower-middle income households among the households who live close to the city centre may prefer to live at the urban fringe due to some economic and spatial reasons differently from the high and higher-middle income groups' suburban location. Majority of the reasons of moving them from city centre to urban fringe, such as better environment and urban services, are also considered by middle or lower middle income groups, but they also prefer to live in those settlements since the price of houses are lower, their workplaces are close to their residential location, and location of schools of their children are close to their house. In this study, middle and lower-middle income groups' suburban movement is explained within all these aspects.

The primary agent on the supply side of the housing sector is house builder. They aim to use less land and produce more houses in order to maximize their profit at the city centre. On the other hand, land becomes cheaper and more abundant at the outskirts as price of land decreases with increasing distance from the centre. Consequently they substitute cheap land for non-land inputs and produce lower density housing.

Both households and house builders make impacts on housing development. In that context, (sub)urban development at urban fringe attract people because of some advantages such as better urban environment and services, privacy, quality of houses, cheaper land as a result lower price of housing unit. Nonetheless this type of housing development at the outskirts has some disadvantageous such as monotony, boredom, monetary and time costs of transportation for the residents.

Apart from the urban economic framework, historical process is important in order to understand (sub) urban way of life. Suburbanization movement in developed countries derived from a reaction against the crowded, dirty and unhealthy cities of industrial revolution. First suburban residents who moved from congestion city centre to new residential areas at the urban fringe are high-income and middle-income groups. By decentralization of retail and industry, outskirts of the city became urbanized areas. By becoming suburbs as urbanized areas, the metropolitan system emerged. As a result the new definition “regional urbanism” came to order. Anymore, the network between cities, suburbs, towns and villages defined as the “urbanized regions”.

Urbanization process of Turkish cities showed differences when compared to the developed countries. The process of industrialization was experienced in Turkish cities about 50 years later and it brought some problems along with. One and most important of these problems is mass migration from rural to urban. Because of inadequate housing supply and limited existing stock, housing demand was not met. New comers could not afford houses from the existing stock. Hence, *gecekondu* areas emerged at the periphery of cities. Unauthorized settlements brought various urban problems. Increasing urban density and inadequate urban services are some of these problems. The drawbacks of this type of housing provision have continued up to now.

The amnesty Laws and the Mass Housing Laws were some of regulatory measures of the government in order to overcome these problems. The former aimed to regularize and upgrade the *gecekondus,* clear the gecekondu areas and prevent new ones. Unfortunately, this law resulted in further increases in urban densities and caused more problems. By this law, after 1980s, there was a transformation from single-storey gecekondus to apartment buildings. Mass housing projects and urban decentralization were encouraged by the latter regulatory attempt. Many of housing projects by housing cooperatives were supported at that period by subsidized credits that are provided in accordance to Mass Housing Laws.

Urbanization process of Ankara starts with being proclaimed as the capital in 1923. The place of Ankara was so crucial and it was the model for other cities in order to create a modern state. Although various planning attempts were experienced in Ankara beginning from the early period of the Republic because of population increase due to mass migration, populist policies and economic instability caused the city not develop in a completely planned way.

Dated from 1940s, urban periphery, particularly the northern and eastern parts of the historical centre, as well as Ulus, which is the historical centre were occupied by migrants. Unauthorized housing areas encircled the city. In 1965, by enacting the Condominium Law, urban densities started to increase. As a result of the increasing urban densities, congestion, air pollution and inadequate urban services started to become problems for the city of Ankara. For this aim, Ankara Metropolitan Planning Bureau which initiated the urban decentralization policies was established in order to relieve the congestion. Mass Housing Projects, which aim to realize the residential decentralization, were undertaken at the urban fringe with regard to the Structure Plan of the Bureau. Batıkent and Çayyolu projects were undertaken by housing cooperatives. The expansion of the city started to go through the north-western and the south-western corridors. Mass housing projects started to flourish towards the end of 1970s. Therefore, peripheral housing development have been due to urban expansion with population growth as well as attempts to find solutions for urban congestion problems

As from the 1980s, by the effect of globalization, large scale housing areas built by large capital building firms were articulated in the city space. Urban development continued by being added on the urban periphery. Therefore, urban agglomeration and congestion in the urban pattern came into being. After the mid-1980s, decentralization movement and building mass housing projects speeded up. New housing areas along the Eskişehir Highway and Ümitköy/Çayyolu Housing Areas have been opened to low-rise house building and high-rise apartment blocks were also produced in mass housing settlements. On the other hand, Eryaman Project was one of those mass housing projects of that period. By

increasing Mass Housing Projects in Eryaman and Etimesgut, those areas developed along that axis also.

Certainly, households who prefer to live far away from the city centre enjoy the advantageous of being away from the congestion, inadequate urban services and air pollution also. On the other hand, they have to afford transport costs and maintenance costs. Therefore, they make trade-offs between larger houses, privacy, liveable environment with higher transport and maintenance costs. This is true for the upper or upper middle income groups' suburban movement, middle and lower-middle income groups mainly prefer to live at the urban fringe since the price of land and housing are cheaper, being close to workplaces and there are some other advantageous of being away from the city as in the case of the higher income groups.

In order to figure out the reasons of the suburban movement of the households who are the subject of this study and from middle or lower-middle income groups, a household questionnaire was carried out in Etimesgut and Sincan. In this survey, 200 households were sampled from the registered voters' lists and particular questions were asked to test the validity of previously mentioned hypothesis.

The hypotheses state that most of the households should be from the middle and lower middle income groups. The education level of them is also supposed to be lower especially among the household heads' spouses. Moreover, the use of public transport is expected to be high. Households are expected to prefer outskirts developments because of accessibility advantages to work and urban services. Having a prestige house, high quality environment and intimacy are not expected to be the prominent factors affecting their locational choices for housing, on the contrary, the price of the house and being close to workplaces is expected to be prominent factors while they are choosing their residences. It is expected that they pay lower prices or rents for housing in that location. They are also supposed to trade off the greater commuting time for cheaper houses, and better urban services. Apart from these, house builders at Etimesgut and Sincan are expected to be generally yap-satçı.

The findings of the questionnaire survey reveal that most of the households (59.7%) were living in apartment dwellings in their previous housing. The locations of the previous housing units were mostly on the same district (Etimesgut and Sincan) and in Batıkent, Keçiören, and Mamak. In addition, tenants (56.5%) are far more than owners (37.5). These ratios are reverse of those for Turkish urban and Ankara averages. This can be interpreted that most people buy housing in those parts of the city not for their own use but to earn rental income. Another explanation would be that many of the owners are not prepared to live at a location away from the CBD and their workplaces.

Almost forty percent of the household members are housewifes, unemployed or retired. Working individuals, on the other hand, are generally civil servants and administrative staff or commercial and sale staff while the ratio of professional occupations is only 8.6%. Workplaces of households are generally located at the western part of the city (Etimesgut, Sincan, Eskişehir and Istanbul Highway) and at the CBD (Kızılay-Bakanlıklar). In addition to these, education levels are high among the household heads, 66% of them have a high school or university degree, however among the household heads' spouses who have a university degree, the ratio is quite low (16.2%) while the ratio of them who have a high school degree is 26.8%. Higher education levels and the ratio of tenants could be interpreted as educated people, many of whom are not house owners lead the movement to the fringe in Ankara.

Households do not think that "having a prestige house and high quality environment" is as important as "the price of the house", "being close to their workplace", "better transportation opportunities" and being close to their children' school since it was ranked as the 7^{th} item of the most important reasons of moving to their houses.

Many households seem to be quite satisfied with their houses since 90 of them do not want to move to another house. Actually they appreciate the opportunities of public transportation, privacy, neighbourliness relationship, parking and green areas, transportation infrastructure, as well as quality of the building and they

compensate the negative sides of living houses away from the city centre with such advantages provided by their houses and the urban environment.

Furthermore, more than half of the households acquired their houses from the previous owners, and nearly one-forth of them bought their houses from the contractor. The share of the housing cooperatives (12%) in Etimesgut and Sincan is quiet low.

Obviously, the findings are highly compatible with the before-mentioned hypotheses and quite explanatory to portray the characteristics of the households, their features of using the urban services and the houses, the dynamics of pulling people from city centre to the urban fringe, the reasons that motivate them to live in their houses and whether they are satisfied with their residences.

Therefore, it can be argued that suburban housing development in Ankara has certain characteristics. Suburban movement in Etimesgut and Sincan is quite different from the other suburban developments in Ankara, such as in Çayyolu and Gölbaşı. The households of suburban housing development in those areas are from middle or lower middle income groups and also they have better urban services when compared to the centrally located neighbourhoods. Households who prefer to live in those houses at the outskirts do not have trade off much the greater commuting and transport costs for cheaper houses, liveable urban environment and better urban services since they live close to their workplaces and to their children's school. The price of houses and being close of houses to workplaces appear to be the most significant reasons of the movement of households to Etimesgut and Sincan. Consequently, these findings indicate that spatial patterns of housing development and consumption that are observed in the cities of developed countries and being theorized in the second chapter of this study are not taking place in similar form in Etimesgut and Sincan. Besides, public transportation still needs to be improved as this causes problems related to transportation in these localities. It would be useful to make improvements particularly in rail called Banliyo System that exists there which provides low cost transportation for the districts.

Finally, it is important to mention that this study provides complementary information with the formerly studies in Topçu and Şenyel. The former study comprehends apartment houses in Ankara and the latter comprise low rise housing development in south-western corridor of Ankara especially and it includes the residential areas of moderate to upper income groups, so this study has played a supplementary role in accomplishing the study of "Housing Development in the Western Corridor of Ankara". However, various parts of the western corridor could be specialized by the further studies, for instance, Eryaman Housing Development, or Housing Development by public organizations. It can be asked if such developments lead a kind of social fragmentation and also conscious configuration. In that sense it is a guiding study for the further studies also. In order to reach a more comprehensive conclusion, similar studies with specialized focus have to be undertaken in specific parts of those areas.

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APPENDIX A

Construction-Occupancy Permits and Building Ownership in the 1990-2007 Period inTürkiye

YAPI RUHSATI

TÜRKİYE	A:Yapı Sayısı	D:Daire Sayısı
1990	109398	381408
1991	108785	393000
1992	127175	472817
1993	135281	548130
1994	132297	523794
1995	127297	518236
1996	112431	454295
1997	115308	464117
1998	105748	432599
1999	84619	339446
2000	70292	315162
2001	68514	279616
2002	36973	161431
2003	42284	202237
2004	65426	329777
2005	99457	545346
2006	99822	597797
2007*	64889	416226

YAPI KULLANMA İZİN BELGESİ

TÜRKİYE	A:Yapı Sayısı	D:Daire Sayısı
1990	89217	232018
1991	87506	227570
1992	100090	268886
1993	96694	269694
1994	95469	245610
1995	91548	248946
1996	99257	267306
1997	100446	277056
1998	86770	238958
1999	82849	215613

2000	86279	245155
2001	81568	243464
2002	37943	161374
2003	35635	162781
2004	35154	164734
2005	52471	249337
2006	62010	294278
2007*	43305	209321

BUILDING OWNERSHIP

TÜRKİYE	Public	Private	Cooperative
1990	23 300	287 378	70 730
1991	16 505	299 427	77 068
1992	20 623	329 500	122 694
1993	26 818	385 300	136 012
1994	25 313	366 701	131 780
1995	15 781	391 349	111 106
1996	18 239	332 299	103 757
1997	10 314	334 483	119 320
1998	25 379	303 034	104 186
1999	10 442	258 681	70 323
2000	31 208	222 687	61 267
2001	24 959	214 188	40 469
2002	6 761	131 598	23 561
2003	10 021	172 486	20 347
2004	18 161	285 076	27 209
2005	55 283	456 491	34 844
2006	27 771	521 115	51 501
2007(*)	24 548	367 204	27 331

* 2007 includes first 9 months

APPENDIX B

Construction-Occupancy Permits and Building Ownership in the 1990-2007 period in Ankara Provincial Center

YAPI RUHSATI

		1990	1991	1992
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	149	50	844
	D:Daire Sayısı	831	557	1 396
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	563	654	628
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 694	6 950	6 595
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı		64	261
	D:Daire Sayısı		2 900	4 780
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	113	22	42
	D:Daire Sayısı	169	70	159
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	414	371	459
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 924	4 755	5 240
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	104	101	102
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 075	1 092	1 295
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 171	315	1 833
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 394	3 241	16 533
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 361	354	491
	D:Daire Sayısı	10 297	3 242	4 065
		1993	**1994**	**1995**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	84	76	72
	D:Daire Sayısı	745	685	642
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	775	717	818
	D:Daire Sayısı	9 297	7 267	8 545
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	340	640	266
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 923	8 472	3 082
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	95	130	228
	D:Daire Sayısı	549	748	697
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	551	509	443
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 283	5 751	5 092
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	179	207	234
	D:Daire Sayısı	2 070	2 657	2 968
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 529	1 101	685
	D:Daire Sayısı	17 457	10 824	7 467
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	480	421	384
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 597	4 850	4 133

		1996	1997	1998
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	71	65	140
	D:Daire Sayısı	648	608	934
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 634	796	505
	D:Daire Sayısı	8 537	6 830	5 180
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	116	273	378
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 666	3 549	6 340
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	520	203	529
	D:Daire Sayısı	888	602	904
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	379	324	421
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 362	3 989	4 920
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	235	158	343
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 096	2 177	2 484
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	251	232	207
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 103	2 696	2 420
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	345	745	415
	D:Daire Sayısı	2 642	4 126	3 512
		1999	**2000**	**2001**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	204	137	145
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 132	1 744	1 938
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	567	663	634
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 167	7 676	8 109
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	547	774	706
	D:Daire Sayısı	7 009	10 236	6 607
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	789	334	134
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 803	1 417	775
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	553	587	695
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 922	7 464	9 206
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	269	330	412
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 794	4 591	6 945
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	299	292	299
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 537	3 348	3 651
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	987	443	652
	D:Daire Sayısı	7 597	4 118	7 612
		2002	**2003**	**2004**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	64	84	154
	D:Daire Sayısı	793	1 208	1 952
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	539	725	598
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 440	10 118	8 201
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	236	267	555
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 819	2 265	8 029
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	111	202	233
	D:Daire Sayısı	387	703	938
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	525	730	915
	D:Daire Sayısı	7 172	9 920	11 559
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	320	365	550
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 881	5 748	8 477
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	160	169	318
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 974	2 096	3 651
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	410	818	726
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 101	3 472	5 646

		2005	2006	2007(*)
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	365	325	221
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 285	4 808	3 387
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	823	765	476
	D:Daire Sayısı	9 684	10 194	5 049
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 292	903	616
	D:Daire Sayısı	17 076	10 589	6 523
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	589	524	167
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 602	2 154	1 000
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 194	1 087	665
	D:Daire Sayısı	15 307	13 928	8 878
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	827	700	472
	D:Daire Sayısı	12 431	10 591	7 239
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	541	435	314
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 190	4 676	3 604
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 309	788	703
	D:Daire Sayısı	7 648	9 702	7 903

* 2007 (first 9 months)

YAPI KULLANMA İZİN BELGESİ

		1990	1991	1992
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	77	88	60
	D:Daire Sayısı	634	994	526
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	789	569	837
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 446	5 091	6 542
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı		56	76
	D:Daire Sayısı		516	828
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	3	1	1
	D:Daire Sayısı	8	1	1
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	517	446	393
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 224	4 743	4 022
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	119	105	79
	D:Daire Sayısı	938	921	837
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	605	810	921
	D:Daire Sayısı	2 164	2 595	3 315
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 834	328	896
	D:Daire Sayısı	8 897	2 668	5 874
		1993	**1994**	**1995**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	71	74	56
	D:Daire Sayısı	767	723	482
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	883	463	398
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 902	4 913	4 298
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	138	43	409
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 735	463	5 117
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	45	63	33
	D:Daire Sayısı	161	279	246
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	413	335	457
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 070	3 679	5 249
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	427	57	60
	D:Daire Sayısı	2 175	460	645

SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 444	1 533	2 276
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 230	5 563	5 889
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	2 360	3 356	543
	D:Daire Sayısı	8 702	10 999	2 769
		1996	**1997**	**1998**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	68	182	65
	D:Daire Sayısı	670	730	657
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	678	690	1 039
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 271	6 816	8 506
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	349	123	81
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 105	1 886	918
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	105	104	243
	D:Daire Sayısı	207	244	626
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	384	360	348
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 287	4 246	3 943
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	124	137	95
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 584	1 862	1 223
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 865	1 398	1 117
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 269	2 953	2 177
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 261	2 093	675
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 173	7 311	4 831
		1999	**2000**	**2001**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	57	79	87
	D:Daire Sayısı	570	830	964
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	552	450	795
	D:Daire Sayısı	6 421	4 553	5 279
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	124	243	416
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 360	3 244	6 373
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	115	97	100
	D:Daire Sayısı	355	475	362
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	346	465	497
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 051	5 466	6 240
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	134	133	157
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 801	1 745	2 055
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	1 168	568	1 357
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 497	3 699	7 230
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	903	1 229	834
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 278	6 383	4 647
		2002	**2003**	**2004**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	81	80	79
	D:Daire Sayısı	935	917	913
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	458	733	416
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 163	6 706	5 195
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	359	459	301
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 485	3 700	2 660
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	227	108	194
	D:Daire Sayısı	638	569	811
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	408	406	453
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 387	5 258	5 876
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	147	86	171
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 943	1 134	2 282

SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	356	262	280
	D:Daire Sayısı	4 963	3 284	3 851
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	493	635	496
	D:Daire Sayısı	3 028	3 167	2 561
		2005	**2006**	**2007(*)**
ALTINDAĞ	A:Yapı Sayısı	139	149	209
	D:Daire Sayısı	1 771	1 826	2 179
ÇANKAYA	A:Yapı Sayısı	781	585	573
	D:Daire Sayısı	10 345	7 861	4 906
ETİMESGUT	A:Yapı Sayısı	806	756	484
	D:Daire Sayısı	9 097	8 357	6 852
GÖLBAŞI	A:Yapı Sayısı	159	192	129
	D:Daire Sayısı	803	947	553
KEÇİÖREN	A:Yapı Sayısı	716	908	548
	D:Daire Sayısı	9 306	11 284	7 306
MAMAK	A:Yapı Sayısı	318	324	323
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 499	4 939	4 655
SİNCAN	A:Yapı Sayısı	607	722	292
	D:Daire Sayısı	8 011	6 230	3 735
YENİMAHALLE	A:Yapı Sayısı	900	653	554
	D:Daire Sayısı	5 341	5 740	2 999

BUILDING OWNERSHIP

ANKARA Provincial Center	**Public**	**Private**	**Cooperative**
1990	3 427	19 777	4 180
1991	3 424	17 396	1 987
1992	5 322	21 970	12 771
1993	3 859	28 273	13 789
1994	5 730	25 562	9 962
1995	1 639	25 013	5 974
1996	929	20 366	3 647
1997	877	18 427	5 273
1998	3 679	18 477	4 538
1999	23	24 428	12 510
2000	6 399	28 098	6 097
2001	2 553	33 737	6 811
2002	54	25 141	1 375
2003	300	33 604	1 666
2004	1 437	43 897	3 131
2005	6 974	63 021	4 233
2006	2 779	59 957	3 971
2007(*)	2 861	38 787	1 957

* 2007 includes first 9 months

APPENDIX C

A Sample Household Questionnaire

ANKET YAPILAN KONUTA İLİŞKİN BİLGİLER

Görüştüğünüz konutun adres bilgileri:

Mahalle: [X2] .....

Cadde: [X3] .....

Sokak: [X4] .....

Apartman Adı: [X5] .....

Daire Katı: [X6] .....

Apartmandaki toplam kat adedi: [X7] .....

Konut tipi: [X8] 1 ( ) Site içinde daire 2 ( ) Bağımsız apartman dairesi 3 ( ) 1-2 katlı (ruhsatlı) ev

S1) Oturduğunuz konut hangi yıl yapıldı? **[X9]** ……..... **(Yıl)**

S2) Bu konutta kaç yıldır oturuyorsunuz? **[X10]**

1. ( ) 1 yıldan az bir zamandır
2. ( ) 1-5 yıl
3. ( ) 5-10 yıl
4. ( ) 10-15 yıl
5. ( ) 15 yıldan fazla

S3) Bu oturduğunuz konut kendinize mi ait kira mı? **[X11]**

1. ( ) Kiracıyız ----→ **S5'e geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Bir yakınımızın, kira vermeden oturuyoruz ----→ **S5'e geçiniz.**
3. ( ) Kendimize ait

S4) Bu konuta nasıl sahip olmuştunuz, kimden almıştınız? ***(Kart göster)*** **[X12]**

1. ( ) Müteahhitten, yapımcıdan satın aldım
2. ( ) Önceki sahibinden satın aldım
3. ( ) Kooperatif yoluyla
4. ( ) Miras
5. ( ) Kat karşılığı yaptırdım, arsa benimdi konut yaptırdım.

( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....

Kontrol Değişkeni [X13] 6969

S5) Konutunuzun bugünkü yaklaşık satış ve kira değeri kaç liradır? ***(Anketör dikkat, satış ya da kira değerini bilmiyorsa, çevredeki benzer konutları baz alarak tahmini bir fiyat söylemesini isteyiniz.)***

Satış değeri (YTL) [X14]	**Kira değeri (YTL) [X15]**

S6) Bu konuta taşınmanızın en önemli 2 nedeni,gösterdiğim seçeneklerden hangileridir? ***(Kart göster)*** **[X16]**

1. ( ) Konutu satın almak
2. ( ) Konutun geniş olması
3. ( ) Konutun işyerine daha yakın olması
4. ( ) Konutun çocukların okuluna daha yakın olması
5. ( ) Konutun daha prestijli ve çevre kalitesinin yüksek olması
6. ( ) Konutun ulaşımının daha kolay olması (metro, otobüs, dolmuş v.b. duraklara yakınlık)
7. ( ) Kiranın/fiyatının uygun olması
8. ( ) Park, oyun alanları, otopark gibi olanakların bulunması
9. ( ) Konutun merkezi bir yerde bulunması, alışveriş merkezlerine yakın olması

( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....

S7) Bu sizin oturduğunuz ilk konut mu? **[X17]**

1. ( ) Evet, oturduğum ilk konut ----→ **S10'a geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Hayır, oturduğum ilk konut değil

S8) Önceki oturduğunuz konut müstakil ev miydi, yoksa apartman dairesi mi? **[X18]**

1. ( ) Müstakil ev
2. ( ) Apartman dairesi

S9) Önceki konutunuz neredeydi? Hangi kent ve hangi semtteydi?

Kent: **[X19]** ..... **Semt: [X20]** .....

S10) Şu anda oturduğunuz bu konutun, toplam oda sayısını, binanın arsasının kaç metrekare oluğunu ve dairenizin/evinizin taban alanını (dairenin toplam kaç metrekare olduğunu) öğrenebilir miyim?

Oda Sayısı [X21]	**Daire Taban Alanı (m^2) [X22]**	**Bina Arsa Alanı (m^2) [X23]**
.....	.....	.....

		Var	**Yok**
[X24]	Konut içinde banyo	1( )	2( )
[X25]	Konut içinde mutfak	1( )	2( )
[X26]	Konut içinde tuvalet	1( )	2( )
[X27]	Kanalizasyon bağlantısı	1( )	2( )
[X28]	Merkezi sıcak su	1( )	2( )
[X29]	Merkezi ısıtma	1( )	2( )

S11) Konutunuzda ve binanızda size sayacağım olanaklardan hangileri var?

		Var	Yok
[X30]	Asansör	1( )	2( )
[X31]	Otopark yeri	1( )	2( )
[X32]	Bahçe	1( )	2( )
[X33]	Garaj	1( )	2( )
[X34]	Yönetim odası	1( )	2( )
[X35]	Depo	1( )	2( )

Kontrol Değişkeni [X36] 6969

S12) Oturduğunuz konut için aidat ödüyor musunuz? **[X37]**

1. ( ) Hayır, ödemiyorum
2. ( ) Evet, ödüyorum ----→**Ne kadar aidat ödüyorsunuz?** ..... **YTL [X38]**
   ----→**Aidat aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangilerini kapsıyor?**

		Kapsıyor	Kapsamıyor
[X39]	Kapıcı	1( )	2( )
[X40]	Temizlik	1( )	2( )
[X41]	Apartman aydınlatma, elektrik, su vs.	1( )	2( )
[X42]	Yakıt	1( )	2( )
[X43]	Onarım, tadilatlar	1( )	2( )
[X44]	Diğer, **belirtiniz:**		

S13) Konutunuzda nasıl ısınıyorsunuz? **(*Birden fazla yanıt alınabilir*) [X45]**

1. ( ) Merkezi ısıtmayla
2. ( ) Kombiyle
3. ( ) Doğalgaz sobasıyla
4. ( ) Kömür/odun sobasıyla
5. ( ) Elektrik sobasıyla
6. ( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....

S14) Yaşadığınız bu konut dışında sizin veya haneden birinin başka konutu var mı? **[X46]**

1. ( ) Yok ----→ **S17'ye geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Var ----→ **Kaç tane?** .....**(adet) [X47]**
   ----→ **Hangi semtte?** ..... **[X48]**

S15) Diğer konutunuz/ konutlarınız nerede bulunuyor? **(*Birden çok konut varsa, birden çok yanıt alınız*) [X49]**

1. ( ) Bu apartmanda
2. ( ) Bu mahallede
3. ( ) Bu semtte
4. ( ) Ankara içinde, başka semtte
6. ( ) Başka şehirde
7. ( ) Köyde

S16) Diğer konutunuzu/ konutlarınızı nasıl kullanıyorsunuz? **(*Birden çok yanıt alınabilir*) [X50]**

1. ( ) Kiraya verdik
2. ( ) Yazlık veya mevsimlik kullanıyoruz

3. ( ) Akraba / başkası kira vermeden oturuyor
4. ( ) Kullanmıyoruz, boş duruyor.
( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....….....

S17) Hanede siz dahil, toplam kaç kişi yaşıyorsunuz? **..... (kişi) [X51]**

S18) Bu hanenin, aile reisinin ve eşinin eğitim düzeyini öğrenebilir miyim?

	Aile reisi [X52]	**Eşi [X53]**
İlkokul terk, okumamış	1. ( )	1. ( )
İlkokul	2. ( )	2. ( )
Ortaokul	3. ( )	3. ( )
Lise	4. ( )	4. ( )
Üniversite	5. ( )	5. ( )
Lisansüstü ve üzeri	6. ( )	6. ( )

S19) Bu haneden, kaç kişi gelir elde etmek üzere bir işte çalışıyor? **[X54]**

1. ( ) 1 kişi
2. ( ) 2 kişi
3. ( ) 3 kişi
4. ( ) 4 kişi veya daha fazla
5. ( ) Çalışan yok

Kontrol Değişkeni [X55] 6969

Anketör dikkat S20, S21, S22 için 3. ve 4. çalışanlar varsa, Aile reisine göre hanedeki konumunu belirtiniz.

S20) Hanenizde çalışanlar işlerinde hangi statüyle çalışıyorlar? Ücretli-maaşlı mı, işveren mi, kendi hesabına mı çalışıyorlar?

	1. Çalışan Aile Reisi [X56]	**2. Çalışan Eşi [X57]**	**3. Çalışan ..... [X58]**	**4. Çalışan ..... [X60]**
			[X59]	**[X61]**
Ücretli veya maaşlı	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )
İşveren	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )
Kendi hesabına çalışan	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )
Ücretsiz aile işçisi	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )
Ev hanımı, işsiz	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )
Diğer, **belirtiniz:**	.....	.....	.....	.....

S21) Çalışanların meslek grubu, aşağıdakilerden hangisine uygundur? ***(Kart göster)***

	1. Çalışan Aile Reisi [X62]	**2. Çalışan Eşi [X63]**	**3. Çalışan .....[X64]**	**4. Çalışan .....[X66]**
			[X65]	**[X67]**
Müteşebbis, müdür, üst kademe yönetici (Şirket sahibi, şirket müdürü, müsteşar, genel müdür vb.)	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )
Profesyonel meslek mensubu (Mühendis, doktor, avukat, mimar, şehir plancısı vb.)	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )
Memur, idari personel vb.	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )
Ticaret ve satış personeli	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )
Şahsi hizmetlerde çalışan (Otel, lokanta, kuaför, temizlik vb. iş personeli)	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )
Tarım, hayvancılık, orman, balıkçılık veya avcılık ile ilgili işlerde çalışan	6. ( )	6. ( )	6. ( )	6. ( )
Fabrika ve diğer kuruluşlarda çalışan işçi	7. ( )	7. ( )	7. ( )	7. ( )
Zanaatkar	8. ( )	8. ( )	8. ( )	8. ( )
Emekli	9. ( )	9. ( )	9. ( )	9. ( )
Ev hanımı, işsiz	10. ( )	10. ( )	10. ( )	10. ( )
Diğer, **belirtiniz**	.....	.....	.....	.....

S22) Çalışanlar, Ankara merkezde çalışıyorsa, işyerleri nerede bulunuyor?

	1. Çalışan Aile Reisi [X68]	**2. Çalışan Eşi [X69]**	**3. Çalışan .....[X70]**	**4. Çalışan .....[X72]**
			[X71]	**[X73]**
Ulus	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )	1. ( )
Kızılay-Bakanlıklar	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )	2. ( )

Kavaklıdere	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )	3. ( )
Ostim	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )	4. ( )
İvedik	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )	5. ( )
Eskişehir Yolu	6. ( )	6. ( )	6. ( )	6. ( )
İstanbul Yolu	7. ( )	7. ( )	7. ( )	7. ( )
Sincan	8. ( )	8. ( )	8. ( )	8. ( )
Etimesgut	9. ( )	9. ( )	9. ( )	9. ( )
Diğer**, belirtiniz**	.....	.....	.....	.....

Kontrol Değişkeni [X74] 6969

S23) Hanenizde çalışanların geliri, dükkan veya daire kira gelirleri v.s. olarak düşündüğünüzde, aylık toplam ne kadar geliriniz var? **[X75]**

1. ( ) 0-400 YTL	2. ( ) 401-799 YTL	3. ( ) 800-1199 YTL
4. ( ) 1200-1599 YTL	5. ( ) 1600-1999 YTL	6. ( ) 2000-2499 YTL
7. ( ) 2500-2999 YTL	8. ( ) 3000-4999 YTL	9. ( ) 5000 YTL ve üzeri

S24) Çocuğunuz var mı? **[X76]**

1. ( ) Hayır, yok ----→ **S27'ye geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Evet, var ----→ **Kaç çocuğunuz var?** ..... **[X77]**

S25) Bu hanede okula gitmeyen ya da ilköğretim okulu, lise, üniversiteye giden çocuk var mı?

		Okumuyor	**İlköğretim**	**Lise**	**Üniversite**
[X78]	1. çocuk	1. ( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )
[X79]	2. çocuk	1. ( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )
[X80]	3. çocuk	1. ( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )
[X81]	4 .çocuk	1. ( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )

S26) Çocukların okulları hangi semtlerde?

		Semt
[X82]	1. çocuk	.....
[X83]	2. çocuk	.....
[X84]	3. çocuk	.....
[X85]	4 .çocuk	.....

S27) Size ya da hanenizden birine ait bir aracınız, otomobiliniz var mı? **[X86]**

1. ( ) Hayır, yok ----→ **S28'e geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Evet, var ----→ **Tabloları doldurunuz.**

Aracın tipi	**1.Araba [X87]**	**2.Araba [X88]**	**3.Araba [X89]**
Özel/Binek aracı	1 ( )	1 ( )	1 ( )
Ticari	2 ( )	2 ( )	2 ( )

Aracın markası	1.Araba [X90]	2.Araba [X91]	3.Araba [X92]
Marka	.....	.....	.....

Aracın Yakıt Tipi	1.Araba [X93]	2.Araba [X94]	3.Araba [X95]
Benzin	1 ( )	1 ( )	1 ( )
Mazot	2 ( )	2 ( )	2 ( )
LPG	3 ( )	3 ( )	3 ( )

S28) Buraya yeteri kadar otobüs, dolmuş gibi toplu taşıma aracı geliyor mu? **[X96]**

1. ( ) Evet, yeteri kadar var
2. ( ) Hayır, yeterli değil

Kontrol Değişkeni [X97] 6969

S29) Aile bireyleri işe/okula nasıl, hangi araçlarla gidip geliyor? ***(3. ve 4. kişiler varsa, Aile reisine göre hanedeki konumunu belirtiniz.)***

			Yürüyerek	Özel Araç	Otobüs	Dolmuş	Servis	Diğer
[X98]	Aile reisi	**[X99]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )
[X100]	Eşi	**[X101]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )
[X102]	3. kişi	**[X103]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )
[X104]	4. kişi	**[X105]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )
[X106]	5. kişi	**[X107]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )
[X108]	6. kişi	**[X109]**	1.( )	2. ( )	3. ( )	4. ( )	5. ( )	6. ( )

S30) Aile reisi ve eşi işlerine kaç dakikada gidiyorlar ve günlük ortalama yolculuk ücreti / maliyeti nedir? ***(3. ve 4. kişiler varsa Aile reisine göre hanedeki konumunu belirtiniz.)***

			Dakika	YTL
[X110]	Aile reisi	**[X111]**	.....	.....
[X112]	Eşi	**[X113]**	.....	.....
[X114]	3. kişi	**[X115]**	.....	.....
[X116]	4. kişi	**[X117]**	.....	.....
[X118]	5. kişi	**[X119]**	.....	.....
[X120]	6. kişi	**[X121]**	.....	.....

S31) Sizce bu evde oturmanın en iyi yanları neler? (En fazla 3 seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz) **[X122]**

1. ( ) Mahremiyet
2. ( ) Sessiz ve sakin oluşu
3. ( ) Rahat bir çevrede yaşamak (bahçesinin, otoparkının, çocuk parkının olması vb.)
4. ( ) Prestijli oluşu
5. ( ) Apartman dairesine göre daha geniş olması
6. ( ) Akraba ve yakınlarıma yakın olmak

7. ( ) Komşularımızla iyi anlaşmak
8. ( ) Fiyatının/kirasının uygun oluşu
9. ( ) Çarşı / pazara yakınlık
10. ( ) İşyerine ulaşım kolaylığı
( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....

S32) Sizce bu evde oturmanın en kötü yanları neler? (En fazla 3 seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz) **[X123]**

1. ( ) Masraflı oluşu
2. ( ) Yalnızlık ve güvensizlik duygusu vermesi
3. ( ) Hizmetlerin (çöp toplama, içme suyu temini, posta hizmetleri vb.) yetersiz oluşu
4. ( ) İşe gidiş-gelişin zor oluşu
5. ( ) Otopark sorunları
6. ( ) Çarşı / pazara uzaklık
7. ( ) Çevrede park, oyun alanı ve çocuk bahçesinin bulunmaması
8. ( ) Komşularla anlaşamamak

( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz:** .....

S33) Buradan taşınmak istiyor musunuz? **[X124]**

1. ( ) Hayır, taşınmak istemiyoruz ----→ **S34'e geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Evet, taşınmak istiyoruz ----→ **S33.a'dan devam ediniz.**

S33.a) Nereye Taşınmak istiyorsunuz? [X125]

1. ( ) Aynı semtte bir başka eve,
2. ( ) Başka bir semte ----→**Hangi semt?**..... **[X126]**
3. ( ) Başka bir kente ----→ **Hangi kent?** ..... **[X127]**

S33.b) Niçin taşınmak istiyorsunuz? .....**(belirtiniz)[X128]**

S34) Önümüzdeki 6 ay içinde bu evden taşınacak mısınız? **[X129]**

1. ( ) Hayır, taşınmayacağız. ----→ **S35'e geçiniz.**
2. ( ) Evet taşınacağız ----→ **S34.a'dan devam ediniz.**

S34.a) Nereye Taşınacaksınız? [X130]

1. ( ) Aynı semtte bir başka eve,
2. ( ) Başka bir semte ----→**Hangi semt?**..... **[X131]**
3. ( ) Başka bir kente ----→ **Hangi kent?** .....**[X132]**

S34.b) Taşınma sebebiniz? .....**(belirtiniz) [X133]**

S35) Konut çevrenizi size sayacağım koşullar açısından ne ölçüde yeterli bulduğunuzu belirtir misiniz? **Değerlendirmenizi 5 üzerinden yapınız. 1 çok yetersiz, 5 çok yeterli anlamına gelmektedir.**

		Çok yetersiz	Yetersiz	Ne yeterli ne yetersiz	Yeterli	Çok yeterli
[X134]	Altyapı olanakları (Su, elektrik, kanalizasyon gibi)	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X135]	Ulaşım altyapısı	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X136]	Otopark alanı	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X137]	Yeşil alan/park	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X138]	Çocuk oyun alanları ve spor	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

	alanları					
[X139]	Sosyal, kültürel tesislere yakınlık	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X140]	Okul ve sağlık tesislerine yakınlık	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X141]	**KİLİT DEĞİŞKENİ**	**6969**	**6969**	**6969**	**6969**	**6969**
[X142]	Alışveriş merkezlerine yakınlık	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X143]	Komşuluk ilişkileri	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X144]	Manzara	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X145]	Düzenli bina yapılaşması	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X146]	Gürültü ve kirlilik yayan yapılara /kullanışlara uzaklık	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X147]	Güvenlik	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X148]	Toplu taşıma olanakları	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )
[X149]	Belediye hizmeti	1( )	2( )	3( )	4( )	5( )

S36)Yaşamak üzere bu çevreyi (semti/mahalleyi) seçmenizin nedenleri nelerdir? ***(Birdençok yanıt alabilirsiniz)*** **[X150]**

1. ( ) Akraba ve dostlara yakın olmak için
2. ( ) İşe yakın olduğu için
3. ( ) Çocukların okuluna yakın olduğu için
4. ( ) Fiyatı uygun geldiği için
5. ( ) Bu mahallede/semtte yaşamaya alıştığımız için
6. ( ) Önceki konutta komşularla anlaşamadığımız için
7. ( ) Park, oyun ve spor alanları bulunduğu için
8. ( ) Otopark rahatlığı nedeniyle
9. ( ) Konut satın aldığım için
10. ( ) Diğer, **belirtiniz**

Kontrol Değişkeni [X151] 6969

Görüşülen kişinin;

Aile reisine göre yakınlığı: [X152] 1( ) Aile reisi 2( ) Eşi

Adı Soyadı: …….

Telefonu: …….

Adresi:

İlçesi:……. Mahallesi: ……..

Site adı:…… Daire no: .....

Anlayışınız ve yardımlarınız için tekrar teşekkür ederim.

Anketör adı ve soyadı: ……. **[X153]**

Anketörün Bina ile İlgili Görüşleri :

Bina görünümü 1( ) Yeni görünümlü/bakımlı 2( )Eski görünümlü/bakımsız **[X154]**

Bina kalitesi 1( ) Çok iyi 2( ) İyi 3( ) Orta 4( ) Kötü **[X155]**

Bina girişi 1( ) Nitelikli 2( )Niteliksiz **[X156]**

Zemin katta dükkan/işyeri durumu 1( ) Var 2( ) Yok **[X157]**

ANKETİ CEVAPLAYAN KİŞİ

Çalışmanın amacı konusunda bilgilendirilmiştir.

Anketi Gönüllü olarak cevaplamayı kabul etmiştir:

Tarih: .....

İmzası:.....

APPENDIX D

A Sample Plan of the Questionnaire Area

İl	Belediye	Mahalle	Hanehalkı sayısı	Sokak sayısı
ANKARA	SİNCAN	AND İÇEN MAHALLESİ	20	4
ANKARA	SİNCAN	E. GAZİ MAHALLESİ	20	4
ANKARA	SİNCAN	OSMANLI MAHALLESİ	25	5
ANKARA	SİNCAN	SELÇUKLU MAHALLESİ	30	6
ANKARA	SİNCAN	M. ÇAKMAK MAHALLESİ	40	8
ANKARA	ETİMESGUT	ATAKENT MAHALLESİ	20	4
ANKARA	ETİMESGUT	İSTASYON MAHALLESİ	15	3
ANKARA	ETİMESGUT	TOPÇU MAHALLESİ	15	3
ANKARA	ETİMESGUT	PİYADE MAHALLESİ	15	3
Toplam			**200**	**40**

ETİMESGUT ANKET YAPILAN SOKAK ve CADDE İSİMLERİ [55]			
İstasyon	**26. Sk**	Atakent	**553. Sk**
İstasyon	**Leylak Sk.**	Atakent	**555. Sk**
İstasyon	**15. Sk**	Atakent	**556. Sk**
İstasyon	Tüzün Sk	Atakent	**558. Sk**
İstasyon	39. Sk	Atakent	545. Sk
Topçu	**579. Sk**	Atakent	552. Sk
Topçu	**568. Sk**	Piyade	**432 Sk**
Topçu	**689. Sk**	Piyade	**7. Cd**
Topçu	589. Sk	Piyade	**309 Sk**
Topçu	18. Cd	Piyade	454 Sk
		Piyade	325 Sk

SİNCAN ANKET YAPILAN SOKAK ve CADDE İSİMLERİ			
Mareşal	**Yavuz Sk**	Osmanlı	**402 Sk.**
Mareşal	**Ceylan Sk**	Osmanlı	**Pırıl Sk.**
Mareşal	**Rüya Sk**	Osmanlı	**Selin Sk**
Mareşal	**Ankara Cd**	Osmanlı	**Şebnem Sk**
Mareşal	**Serin Sk**	Osmanlı	**Mimar Sinan Sk**
Mareşal	**Topel Sk**	Osmanlı	Rıhtım Sk
Mareşal	**Ümit Sk**	Osmanlı	405 Sk.
Mareşal	**Pınar Sk**	Andiçen	**Gülbahar Sk.**
Mareşal	Lise Cd	Andiçen	**Koray Sk**

[55] Koyu renkli yazılanlar ana sokak, açık renkliler yedek sokak olarak belirlenmiştir.

Mareşal	Yıldız Sk	Andiçen	**Haki Sk.**
Selçuklu	**Bilen Sk**	Andiçen	**Güzel Sk**
Selçuklu	**Bülbül Sk**	Andiçen	Gülhansı Sk.
Selçuklu	**İbni Sina Sk**	Andiçen	Haziran Sk.
Selçuklu	**Kalemli Sk**	Ertuğrul Gazi	**15. Cd**
Selçuklu	**Kuşkonmaz S**	Ertuğrul Gazi	**Hürriyet Cd.**
Selçuklu	**Kurtaran Sk**	Ertuğrul Gazi	**Selda Sk**
Selçuklu	12. Cd	Ertuğrul Gazi	**Sonbahar Sk.**
Selçuklu	İspanyol Sk	Ertuğrul Gazi	Muammer Aksoy
		Ertuğrul Gazi	Sevda Sk

APPENDIX E

Location of the Previous House of the Households

Semtler	Sayı	Tüm Kitle	Kapsam Kitlesi
Etimesgut	10	5,0	7,2
Sincan	12	6,0	8,6
Sarayköy	2	1,0	1,4
Ümitköy	2	1,0	1,4
Ovacık	1	0,5	0,7
Akdere	2	1,0	1,4
Kayaş	3	1,5	2,2
Tuzluçayır	5	2,5	3,6
Polatlı	2	1,0	1,4
Demetevler	2	1,0	1,4
Dikmen	5	2,5	3,6
Cebeci	6	3,0	4,3
Batıkent	7	3,5	5,0
Türközü	2	1,0	1,4
Natoyolu	2	1,0	1,4
Altındağ	1	0,5	0,7
Keçiören	9	4,5	6,5
Şereflikoçhisar	1	0,5	0,7
Incesu	2	1,0	1,4
Gölbaşı	1	0,5	0,7
Siteler	3	1,5	2,2
Mamak	7	3,5	5,0
Ataşehir	1	0,5	0,7
Çiğli	2	1,0	1,4
Saimekadın	2	1,0	1,4
Selçuklu	1	0,5	0,7
Menemen	1	0,5	0,7
Etlik	5	2,5	3,6
Öveçler	1	0,5	0,7
Esat	1	0,5	0,7
Balgat	1	0,5	0,7
Bakırköy	1	0,5	0,7
Incirli	1	0,5	0,7
Incesu	1	0,5	0,7
Seyran	4	2,0	2,9
Kolej	1	0,5	0,7
Bahçelievler	1	0,5	0,7

Atatürk mah	1	0,5	0,7
Çayyolu	1	0,5	0,7
Alaca	1	0,5	0,7
Yenimahalle	3	1,5	2,2
Seyhan	1	0,5	0,7
Telsizler	2	1,0	1,4
Bağcılar	1	0,5	0,7
Abidinpaşa	3	1,5	2,2
Anıttepe	1	0,5	0,7
Ismetpaşa mah	1	0,5	0,7
Merkez	1	0,5	0,7
Ege mah.	1	0,5	0,7
Kurtuluş	4	2,0	2,9
Şanlıkışla köyü	1	0,5	0,7
Osmanlı	1	0,5	0,7
Yıldız	1	0,5	0,7
Avcılar	1	0,5	0,7
Çankaya	1	0,5	0,7
Araplar	1	0,5	0,7
Kıbrıs	1	0,5	0,7
Toplam	**139**	**69,5**	**100,0**
Soru kapsamı dışında kalan kitle	**61**	**30,5**	
Kitle Toplamı	**200**	**100,0**	