

EFFECTS OF URBAN TOURISM ON THE HISTORICAL URBAN SPACE
WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF URBAN REVITALIZATION: THE CASE OF
HAMAMÖNÜ, ANKARA

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OF HAMAMÖNÜ, ANKARA**

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ABSTRACT

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Cities have been under pressure depending on the requirements of the time and culture of life; in other words, cities have taken shape in the process from the early period until today. Two centuries ago, the rise of industrial society rapidly changed the structure of cities; has turned them into world workshops. Thus, cities have become physically transformed, socially segregated or excluded and economically developed, becoming part of today's “global” life. In the global race, the most important actor discovered in the cities in recent years has been urban tourism. The effects of urban tourism on cities are mostly felt in historical areas. Urban revitalization, one of the conservation methods, is used as a tool in the development of urban tourism and transforms cities. In this context, this study examines the contribution of revitalization projects implemented in Hamamönü to urban tourism.

Keywords: Tourism, Urban Tourism, The Tourist- Historic City Model, Urban Revitalization, Hamamönü

ÖZ

KENTSEL TURİZMİN TARİHİ KENT MEKANI ÜZERİNE KENTSEL YENİLEME ÇERÇEVESİNDE ETKİLERİ: ANKARA HAMAMÖNÜ ÖRNEĞİ

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Kentler zamanın gereklerine ve yaşam kültürüne bağlı olarak baskı altında kalmış; başka bir ifade ile erken dönemden bugüne kadar kentler süreç içinde biçim kazanmıştır. İki asır önce, sanayi toplumunun yükselişi, şehirlerin yapılanmasını hızla değiştirirken; onları dünya atölyelerine dönüştürmüştür. Dolayısıyla şehirler, fiziksel olarak dönüştürülmüş, sosyal olarak ayrıştırılmış veya dışlanmış ve ekonomik olarak gelişmiş, bugünkü “küresel” yaşamın bir parçası haline gelmiştir. Küresel yarışta, son yıllarda ise kentlerde keşfedilen en önemli aktör kentsel turizm olmuştur. Kentsel turizmin kentler üzerine etkileri en çok tarihi alanlarda hissedilmektedir. Koruma yöntemlerinden biri olan kentsel yenilenme kentsel turizmin gelişmesinde bir araç olarak kullanılmakta ve kentleri dönüştürmektedir. Bu kapsamda, bu çalışma Hamamönü’nde gerçekleştirilen korumaya yönelik uygulanan projelerin kentsel turizme olan katkısını incelemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Turizm, Kentsel Turizm, Tarihi- Turistik Kent Modeli, Kentsel Canlandırma, Hamamönü

Dedicated to my lovely Erkim Emrecan

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Aim of the Study

Cities that have begun to decompose economically, become culturally alienated and socially polarized, change over time, becoming the centers of production while becoming the center of consumption. The cities, which are supported by new technologies and connected to each other in the face-to-face or mediated markets, have become the centers where ideas, goods and services are bought and sold together with abstract money and produced and consumed together (Madanipour, 2004). Therefore, cities show different characteristics due to their reaction to this change. In other words, it has formed its own reactions within the framework of the physical field developing in different directions; the socio-cultural and economic structures of societies have differentiated cities from other cities.

These changes in production and consumption also affect urban economies. While cities have competed with each other within economically invisible boundaries, they have recognized the increasing trend in tourism over the last decade. Varied and rapidly changing tourism preferences have been reflected to the city through spatial differences in order to contribute to the city economy in a global context. This process also affected the transformation of urban area in terms of saving money and people. While the city is changing in this way, the production of spaces that compete with each other in terms of design stands out in terms of the identity of the city. Urban spaces become commodities and become the domain of different practices.

Cities increase their ties with tourism by developing strategies to highlight their existing values and original characters which are specifically historic urban spaces. In order to open their own pasts to the global market in the context of urban tourism;

urban revitalization is a tool for the tourist-historic city. Thus, after revitalization, these areas have become both economic and cultural focal points. To interfere with the negative effects of urban tourism, as Lichfield (1988) defined the mismatch between the services offered by the fabric of the historic quarters and the contemporary needs and sustaining the peculiar identity of historic urban quarters for the future can only be achieved by revitalization strategies; physical revitalization and functional restructuring. The city of Ankara made an important tourism moves in order to take part in this global race and brought the city of Hamamönü back to the field and increased the economic, social and spatial value.

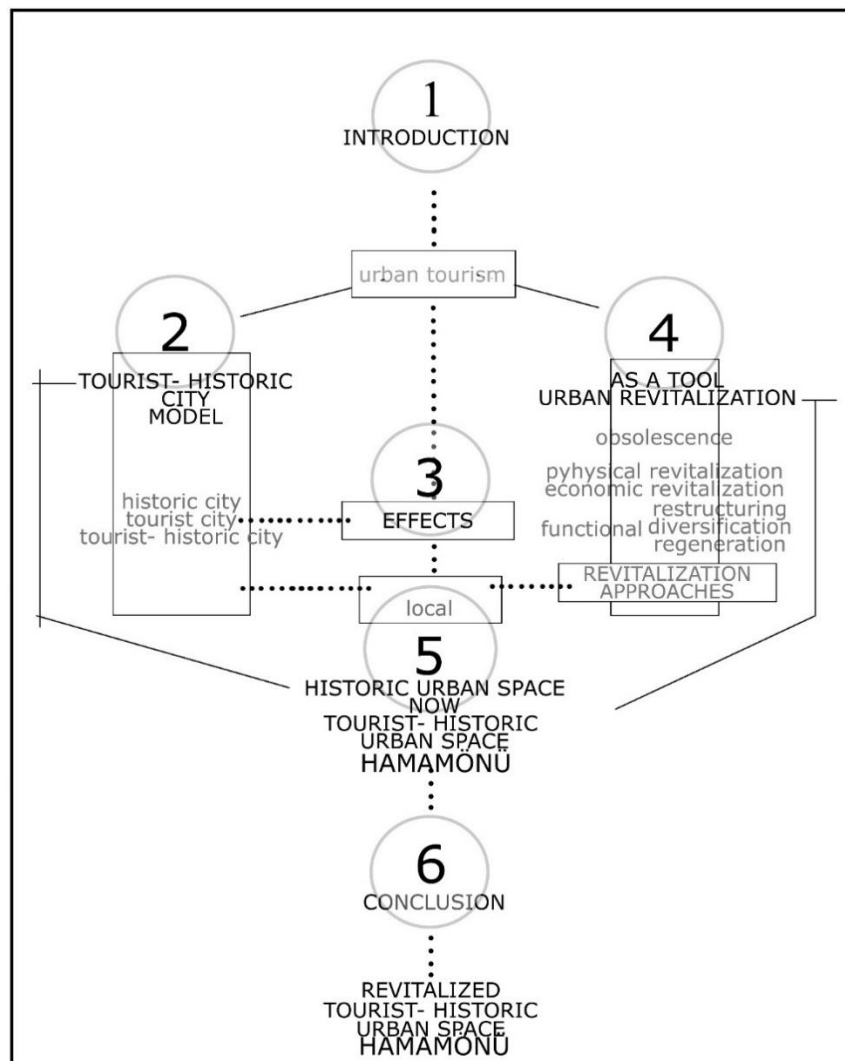


Figure 1.1. Structure of the Thesis

To sum up, the aim of this study is to examine the fact that tourism attracts people to cities as a tool in the global world, where borders have been removed, cultural similarity and spatial unification have started, and how money and human circulation has effects on historical urban areas is observed in Ankara Hamamönü case. The scope of the study is the Hamamönü where the effects of urban tourism on the historical urban space within the framework of urban revitalization will be observed.

1.2. Methodology

The main material of the study was located within Hamamönü, the boundaries of the Altındağ District of Ankara Province. The reasons for choosing this particular area are;

- Despite its fires and looting, it still has the urban fabric that bears the traces of history
- To gain Hamamönü as a value to the city after the revitalization works applied
- Ability to observe how the value emphasized by revitalization activities causes functional changes in the area over time
- Being attractive in terms of urban tourism

can be said. As an auxiliary material, written and visual documents such as researches on tourism and urban tourism, urban revitalization, conservation methods and university thesis, articles and journals can be listed.

The study includes a qualitative method consisting of research, analysis and synthesis stages. The research section, which started with the literature review, was screened and used to provide a specific framework after passing the necessary filters. It was not only a field study, but also whether the findings observed in the field coincide with the literature. The observations made in the field constitute the synthesis part and lead to the conclusion.

1.3. Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 1, the introductory section states the definition of the problem, aim and scope of the study, methodology and the structure of the thesis.

In the second chapter, theoretical background, the study is examined in respect to urban tourism. First things first, tourism and urban relation are defined and also the concepts of urban tourism, chronologically, takes place. After giving concepts, specifically the tourist- historic city model is defined in details.

Third chapter consists of the effects of urban tourism. Economic, spatial, and socio-cultural impacts of urban tourism are analyzed and moreover within the scope of the tourist- historic city concept, the effects are specified at chapter 3.

Chapter 4 introduces the urban revitalization as a tool for urban tourism in the historic areas with the sample examples from different countries. In this chapter, theory and the actual implementation analyzed and common features and differences have been outlined.

Chapter 5 puts forward study to the case stage. Historical and spatial development of Ankara and Hamamönü are described. Moreover, applied projects and current situation evaluation are included. Apart from history and project, fieldwork gives a frame about Hamamönü in this chapter.

In the sixth chapter or the conclusion part gives a brief summary of the study by providing a final discussion for the concept namely urban revitalization as tool for urban tourism at the urban historical areas.

CHAPTER 2

URBAN TOURISM: BRINGING UP A MODEL

Tourism is a twentieth century phenomenon. You cannot put it aside. One must accept it as a phenomenon that exists, good or not so good. Millions of people travel. One cannot stop them. They will come, so let them be used as a source for development.

Kuban 1978, 84, in Orbaşlı 2000, 3

In this section, the concepts of globalization and tourism which will form the basis of the research are examined and urban tourism which is one of the tourism types is emphasized. In addition, the effects of urban tourism on urban sites and conservation methods in urban sites are discussed.

2.1. Tourism and Urban Relations

Major events in urban past- the birth of railroads, the rise of manufacturing, WWII, and the decline of manufacturing- carved a path for the development of urban leisure and travel for recreational purposes (tourism), and for business. International trade and commerce require the creation of entertainment outlets. Convention centers and exhibitions are often regarded as a prerequisite of travel, whether recreational or for business, to urban areas. Business travel not only necessitates appropriate visitor sites, as those attending conventions seek a recreational environment, perhaps to entertain potential customers, but also helps establish related markets and networks. In the last few decades, the explosion of this international industry gave countries and cities across the globe the opportunity to promote themselves with the hope of attracting the accompanying expenditures of large volume of visitors.

Tourism; it is a commodity, produced at the place where it is consumed, on a local scale, with local people presenting local culture, local cuisine and local attractions, while at the same time being affected by global processes and creating a global / local dilemma (Cooper, 2008). Tourism is seen as an activity at the local level that affects the wider processes of not only enlarging cities, but also restructuring them, and this process includes culture, social comfort and spaciousness as well as its economic aspect. As a result, cities assume new and distinguishable identities: the city as a market participant, the city as a democracy, or the city as an entertainment venue. Therefore; it would not be wrong to state that consumption changes production and tourism is the main driving force for modern urban development and urban policy.

The competition of the cities' values, cultures and originalities with their local regions, causes various inequalities in the urban area in terms tourism. In cases where fair steps are not taken in the distribution of rights; urban segregation, poverty, gentrification. In particular, the activities that make up the supply and supply factor aim to increase the importance of urban tourism and to present the old and outdated areas of the city to the market through various revitalization, renovation and transformation projects, thus creating new rents. Urban tourism has led to serious rent increases in many countries, and that the increase in rent is not shared equally within society as a result of different economic and political approaches, and the narrow incomes of society are excluded. Transformed areas have started to welcome both money and people based on urban tourism (Uzgören, 2018).

Much of the consumption is due to local features such as architectural order, urban landscape, aesthetics of the city, cafes and art galleries that complement the city's unique charm. According to Maitland and Newman (2009a), tourism has become an integral part of the transformation of many cities in recent years, and thus, the new direction of spatial economic development is a determining factor. Because tourism has a more economic impact on the city than other sectors (Ashworth and Page, 2011). The return of middle-class people to the city centers, changes in the current consumption structure and daily life style, and the processes that attract more attention

of the inhabitants and workers are indicative of the impact of tourism on the city (Maitland and Newman, 2009).

As Meethan (2004) points out, there has been a shift away from mass consumption and mass marketing, and towards flexible consumption and niche marketing. Places have actively sought to become places of consumption, none more so than in urban tourism market. The urban environment itself becomes a commodity to be bought and sold, a commodity to be consumed. As Paddison (1993) argues, the inflexibility of cities is a problem, with their regeneration requiring long lead times. As the outcome of large-scale investments in social capital and infrastructure, their renewal is an attenuated process requiring huge investments of money and expertise. It would seem, however, that measures of financial performance are problematic, often lacking context.

Efforts to transform neighborhoods into popular tourism districts must focus on consumption, a direction that raises questions about the legitimacy of both the environment and the experience. Understanding the dynamics of tourism precincts necessitates placing their investigation within the broader context of sociology of tourism. There are four elements that must be considered: (1) the tourist; (2) relationship between tourist and locals; (3) the structure and functioning of tourism systems; and (4) the social and environmental consequences of tourism. Decisions by local actors to produce these locales for economic development purposes must strive to maintain a balance between the demands of the visitor, which often focus on comfort, with a desire to ensure the protection of the historical and cultural components of the given environment (Spirou, 2010).

The rise of globalization had a considerable impact on urban centers. The outflow of jobs and capital from cities that traditionally relied on manufacturing to locations abroad meant that new economic development strategies had to be explored and instituted. The emergence of recreational and business visitors fit the entrepreneurial strategies that local official pursued. The growth of the tourism industry within a

restricted global environment also expanded international travel, encouraging cities to look at foreign visitors as an additional source of revenue. In order to maximize the effectiveness of tourism, cities also market themselves as destination centers and work hard to alter their image. This process proves to be a complicated proposition since it poses numerous challenges. It often requires extensive and sustained investments in marketing campaigns, physical infrastructure, and the quest for staging major events that offer the desired visibility. Furthermore, the effectiveness and cost benefits of these practices remain questionable.

Globalization also has an impact on the tourist life in a city. The consumption behavior of indigenous people varies according to their own experiences; that is, the size of a city and many tourist attractions make it possible for the people in the city to behave like tourists. Therefore, the differences between leisure and working space, recreation and business activities and leisure and working hours are eroded and the gap between residents and visitors and tourist and non-tourist activities is eliminated (Maitland and Newman, 2009a).

With these findings regarding the inclusion of tourism in the scope of entertainment and cultural consumption, the diversified preferences of consumers create pressure to create new spaces for free time in cities and to create objects to increase the reasons and options of increasing competition between cities. Modern museums, stadiums, congress and cultural centers, amusement parks, organization of large events, revitalization of all neighborhoods and neighborhoods are a few tools to increase the attractiveness of tourists in cities. In this race, cities are trying to be unique in the fields of innovation and creativity with the necessity of differentiation from global scale and dynamics from local scale. As Maitland and Newman emphasize, being distinguishable in economic racing is the most important feature for cities.

Urbanization and tourism movements appeared around 4000 years ago. While the increase in urbanization and increase in tourism activities, the development of tourism has some effects on cities. Tourism has an accelerating effect on urbanization of rural

areas. Visits to cities provide significant economic benefits. The social and political effects of a city's economic growth are also emerging. Tourism affects not only large cities but also small and medium-sized cities. This effect is the most common in the hospitality industry, hotels and restaurants. When the tourism sector applies innovative strategies to provide a good view of the city, it can provide income and added value to residents. Infrastructure investments, promotion and protection activities contribute to both tourists and the local community. Cities are constantly growing, while tourists offer the products they need. Urban tourism benefits the city in terms of regional development, environment and employment (Şarkaya İçellioğlu, 2014).

Nevertheless, within an increasingly globalized environment, travel growth and its extended economic benefits are basis for which cities would revise their direction and search for revival opportunities. The ensuing competition will intensify their efforts for needed revenues. By the latter part of the 20th century, these conditions will trigger massive public and private urban investments- not seen since the late 1800s and early 1900s. The globalization of tourism and business travel has meant that cities must intensify their planning efforts. The redevelopment of urban spaces around culture is evident in cities around the world. Cities across the world have turned to culture and globalization has helped drive the rapid expansion of travel whether for business or pleasure.

As destinations seek to reinvent and redefine themselves in the market for cultural and heritage tourism, they develop services industries based on tourism and leisure production and consumption in urban areas, as a response to the restructuring of capitalism. Mullins' (1991) concept related to tourism is useful as it assists in developing the following typology of urban tourist destinations:

- Capital cities
- Metropolitan centers, walled historic cities and small fortress cities
- Large historic cities

- Inner-city areas
- Revitalized waterfront areas
- Industrial cities
- Seaside resorts and winter sport resorts
- Purpose-built integrated tourist resorts
- Tourist-entertainment complexes
- Specialized tourist service centers
- Cultural/art cities.

The pursuit of tourism as an urban development strategy clearly affects local employment patterns. Specifically, job growth opportunities, as well as the mix of economic sectors and workforce attributes, are increasingly connected to consumption and lifestyle experiences. Many analysts have highlighted the growth of low-paying, part-time, and otherwise marginal work in the visitor and hospitality sectors. However, restructured spatial landscapes and the widespread participation in leisure and entertainment activities can also attract an in-demand workforce with wide-ranging locational options. Richard Florida's (2005) creative class reinterpreted the urban development precepts, the leisure preferences, workplace culture, and ultimately the local value added produced by the creative class drives contemporary urban growth. Florida (2005) argues that cities must begin to invest in the lifestyle amenities that people really want and use often investments in amenities like urban parks, for example, last for generations.

As it is clearly stated above, thanks to the developments in the communication sector and technological developments, ease of transportation has been provided and traveling from one place to another has become easier. Tourism has become a part of our lives with data such as the effect of media on daily life styles and increase in welfare level. The impact of tourism in cities is abstract and concrete, and the most

obvious that can be measured differently are spatial changes. This study aims to examine the effects of tourism on the historical area, which is a specialized area rather than the impact on the whole city. Therefore, the city, tourism and heritage are intertwined and need to be addressed together. Ashworth and Turnbridge (2000) addressed this issue in their work. With this approach, in this study, as it can be seen from the figure 2.1, urban tourism, which is a sub-component of tourism, will be discussed together with urban heritage, which is a sub-component of a heritage. First of all, it is useful to start by studying urban tourism and later the model that they developed.

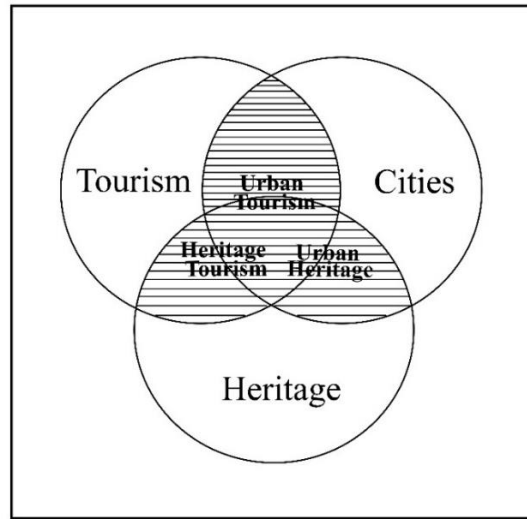


Figure 2.1. The relation between tourism, urban and heritage

2.2. Urban Tourism

The etymological root of tourism has been for more than thousands of years and is mainly based on military, religious and commercial travel. Today, tourism is a sector that includes sociological, economic, cultural and even political dimensions. Therefore, tourism is problematic in terms of area and definition. Although there is a wide variety of definitions and explanations proposed in the literature, it is subject to different interpretations. It is suggested that there is no widely accepted definition of tourism/ tourists and different definitions serving different basic purposes are proposed (Tataroğlu, 2006).

Tourism covers planning, psychology, history and geography, sociology, business, education fields. Each branch has an approach from its own framework and proves that tourism is not just a simple traveling-seeing-entertaining activity (Bora, 2006). In order to give an example, sociological approaches do not see tourism as merely a leisure activity; on the contrary, it can be argued that tourism cannot be separated from economic, social, cultural and political conditions and that these factors create and change tourism. Tourism is considered a complex set of social and cultural activities that touches the functioning of social and cultural systems and affects the fabric of everyday life and the formation of communities (Shaw and Williams, 2004).

Studies to determine the concept of tourism date back to the end of the 19th century. The authors, who touched on the subject from different directions, made different definitions. The first definition of tourism was introduced in 1905 by Guyer-Feuler. According to him, tourism is described as increasing need towards weather change and relaxation, the desire to recognize attractive beauties nurtured by nature and art. It is defined as a modern age-specific event based on the belief that nature gives people happiness and which enables nations and communities to come closer to each other as a result of the development of trade and industry and better dealings with each other. (Kozak and Kozak, 2014). Even in the first definitions of tourism, there is a desire to move away from people and a demand for spatial change. However, the place where tourism is made is accepted as if it is nature. Another definition was made by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and includes travel and accommodation activities for more than one year for leisure, work and other purposes outside the daily environment of individuals (Gönençer, 2009).

People are at the center of the tourism activity. Therefore, psychological satisfaction is the basis of the action. Likewise, the definition of tourism by M. Meyer is psychological displacement activity that arises from the desires of each person to escape (Kozak and Kozak, 2014). While defining tourism, variables such as duration of travel, purpose of travel and type of accommodation are available. In this case, it is possible to make a common and inclusive definition as follows:

Tourism, not to permanently settle outside people's permanent housing, is to earn money and not pursue either a political or military purpose; in a free environment, business, curiosity, religion, health, sports, recreation, entertainment, culture, gaining experience, snobby (imitation) or friends and relatives visit, to participate in congresses and seminars, for reasons such as personal or collective travels, it is a consumption event, a social event, a whole service and cultural industry that includes business and relations that occur in places where the accommodation exceeds 24 hours or which arises from the accommodation of the place for at least one night (Doğan, 2006: 11).

As a result, due to the innovations that occurred after the Industrial Revolution, the individual began to move due to reasons such as resting, having fun and wandering, and this necessitated the need to define this activity. In line with the mentioned definitions and criteria, the definition of the concept of tourism has been discussed for years. A single definition cannot be made due to its relationship with different disciplines and sectors. While it is taken from the economic point of view as a sector or industry, it is considered by environmental scientists in terms of its spatial dimension and its effects on space, while sociologists place human behaviors at the center of their research and definitions.

According to the classifications made, the place, time and participant variables of the tourism activity are decisive in the type of tourism. However, there is one issue that needs attention. Whether it is for cultural purposes or for business purposes, tourism is an urban space. Most of the mentioned tourism types take place in the urban areas. The increase interest in urban tourism is due to behavioral changes that make cities the centers of culture and relaxation where people eat, shop and spend time (European Commission, 2000). Tourists prefer to stay for a few days, offering flexibility and diversity in their travels, where sports, cultural and social activities, events and shopping take place. Tourists come to cities for cultural activities, exhibitions, museums, monuments, historical values and places. Socio-demographic changes such as the increase in life expectancy and disposable income, and the shortening of

working time attract people of different ages, languages and social groups to cities (Florida, 2005). Therefore, the importance of urban tourism, which gained importance after 1980s, is increasing every day.

Urban tourism research is a new field of study. Since the late 1980s, after Ashworth (1989) first analyzed the phenomenon of urban tourism as a different field of research, many scientists added new dimensions and theoretical contributions to this broad field of research. However, a double neglected has occurred who is interested in the study of tourism have tended to neglect the urban context in which much of it is set, while those interested in urban studies have been equally neglectful of the importance of the tourist function of cities. As Ashworth (2003) defines;

“The imbalance does still exist. However, previously I found this difficult to understand and felt it should be remedied by a more balanced approach within tourism through the development of the study of urban tourism. Now I accept that the imbalance is quite intrinsic to the nature of tourism studies and the nature of cities.”

Even though more studies are now appearing in the academic literature, it does not suggest that urban tourism is acknowledged as a distinct and notable area of research in tourism studies. Thus, urban tourism needs the development of an extended body of theories, concepts, techniques and methods of analysis within tourism or the place of tourism within form and function of cities (Ashworth, 1992). The phenomenon of urban tourism has important and divisive implications for the pursuit of both social science and management. Whilst in practice the phenomenon of urban tourism unites people, place and consumption, their synthesis in the academic arena of conceptualization and research is extremely problematic.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization defines tourism as an economic and social phenomenon that drives people (tourists) who are outside their normal environment and travel for no more than one consecutive year for leisure, work and other purposes. This definition specifies the nature, purpose, timeframe, actors and activities of tourism. Researchers agree that urban tourism is a complex phenomenon,

composed of several groups of activities and linked to many factors (Ashworth and Page, 2011; Pearce, 2001; Daskalopoulou and Petrou, 2009).

The European Commission (EC), also, defines urban tourism as; “a range of tourist resources or activities offered to visitors in or from cities”. In some of the forms of urban tourism, attention is paid to “location and it analyzes urban tourism as tourism in urban space (Law, 1993; Pages, 1995; Selby, 2004). However, one aspect of the phenomenon of tourism shows that urban tourism needs more than a location-based definition. As Ashworth and Page (2011) pointed out, adding the city to the name tourism as adjective only has activity in a spatial context, but does not define or limit this activity on its own. In the cities, tourists can go to museums, take an interest in the architecture of the city, and also benefit from the services not only found in the cities. Thus, it is concluded that urban tourism is a complex phenomenon in which the city expresses not only the tourism objective but also a range of activities.

It is stated that tourism is among the many social and economic forces in the urban environment (Edwards et al., 2008). It includes an industry that manages and markets a variety of products and experiences to people who have a wide range of motivations, preferences and cultural perspectives and participate in a dialectical relationship with the host community. It covers mostly urban visits; urban tourism is a special type of tourism, which includes neighborhoods of historical and architectural value, participating in cultural and artistic events (festivals, concerts, exhibitions and fairs) and covering various lifestyles.

Two typologies developed within the tourism literature to acknowledge the significance of individual motives for visiting urban destinations. According to Blank and Petkovitch (1980) the motives for visiting urban areas can be classified as below:

- Visiting friends and relatives
- Business/ convention visitation
- Outdoor recreation activities

- Entertainment and sightseeing activities
- Personal reasons
- Shopping
- Other factors

Besides Blank and Petkovitch classification, Page (1995a) identified a broader range of motivations for visiting urban areas:

- Visiting friends and relatives
- Business travel
- Conference and exhibition attendance
- Educational reasons
- Cultural and heritage tourism
- Religious travel
- Hallmark events attendance
- Leisure shopping
- Day trips

These motivations show that urban tourism is not basically composed of sight-seeing functions. City and the services that providing iconic sights, shopping areas, landmark cultural institutions or historical places have been recognized totally urban tourism. To attract tourists, the natural beauties, cultural elements, entertainment, food and shopping facilities of the city as well as infrastructure services such as telecommunication transportation and accommodation must be sufficient. While some regions attract tourists with their natural beauties, some regions continue their tourism activities with the artificial attraction they have created. For example, Dubai, figure 2.2, a small fishing and port town in the early 1900s, developed its economy with the

presence of oil in its land in the 1970s and managed to attract the attention of the world with man-made artificial islands, skyscrapers and huge shopping malls (Gönençer, 2009).



Figure 2.2. Dubai
(<https://www.goibibo.com/destinations/intl/dubai/>)

As explained before urban tourism is a multifaceted phenomenon. Ashworth and Page (2011) introduce a framework to analyze this complex phenomenon. In their framework, shown at figure 2.3, urban tourism research covers several ‘subthemes’ such as; transport and infrastructure, management and planning, cultural agendas, sustainability, typologies of tourist cities, urban regeneration, visitor perception and satisfaction. They argue that understanding urban tourism demands a wider social science approach, particularly in the field of urban studies. Scholars have usually focused on one or two aspects urban tourism and analyzed, for example, mega events designed to attract tourists. The point of view of this urban tourism studies analyzing urban tourism as a socio-economic and cultural phenomenon. Therefore, in order for the cities to be preferred by tourists, the image of the city should become attractive. Physical interventions such as revitalization/ renewal projects, rebuilding unused sites, making old buildings reusable and improving the physical environment of the whole city are the effects of urban tourism in urban space.

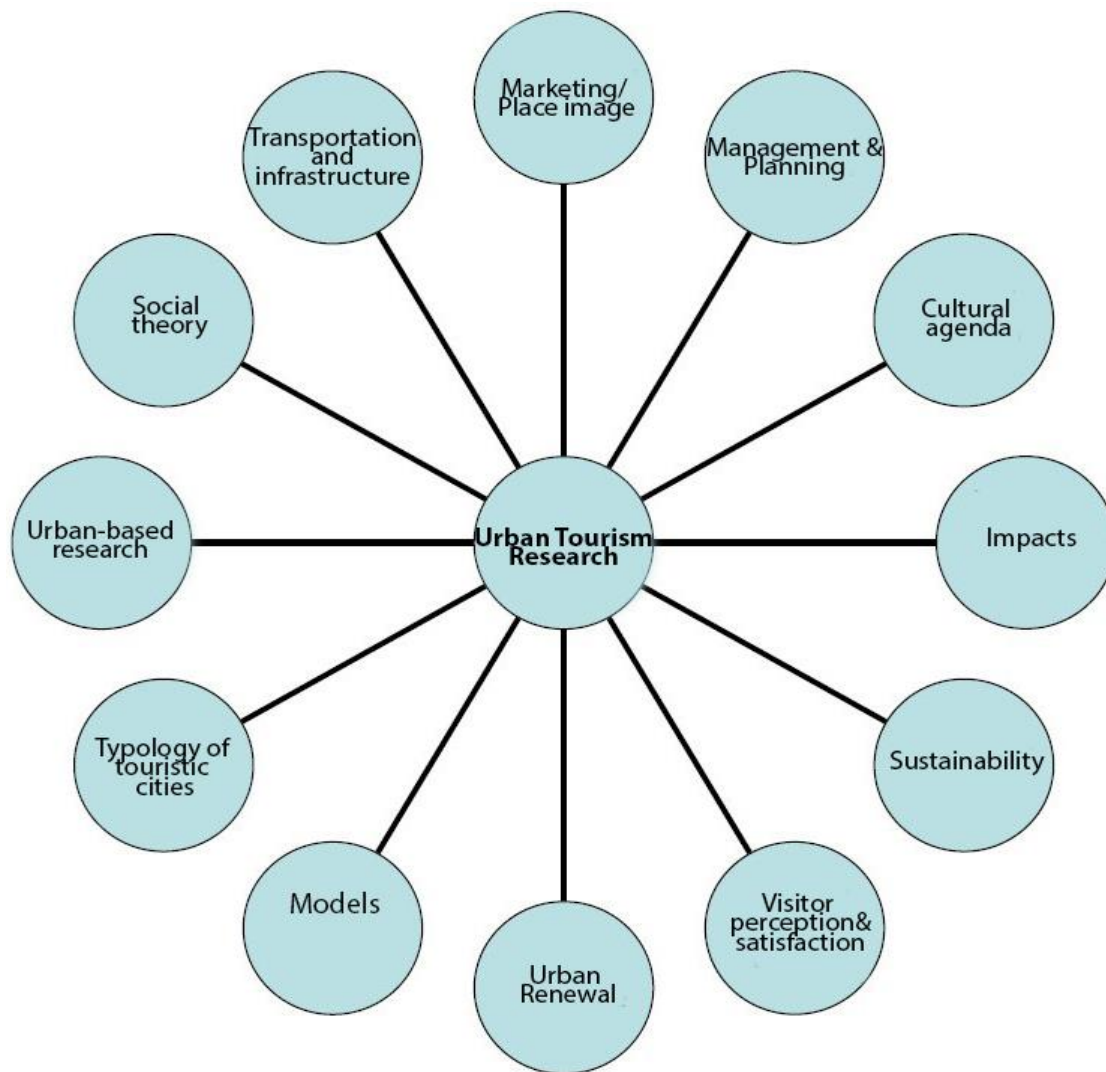


Figure 2.3. Sub-components of Urban Tourism Research

Burtenshaw et al. (1991) discuss the concept of functional areas within the city, where different visitors seek certain attributes for their city visit for example the historic city, the culture city, the night-life city, the shopping city, and the tourist city. So, city is a multifunctional area which complicates attempts to identify a definitive classification of users and the areas/ facilities they visit.

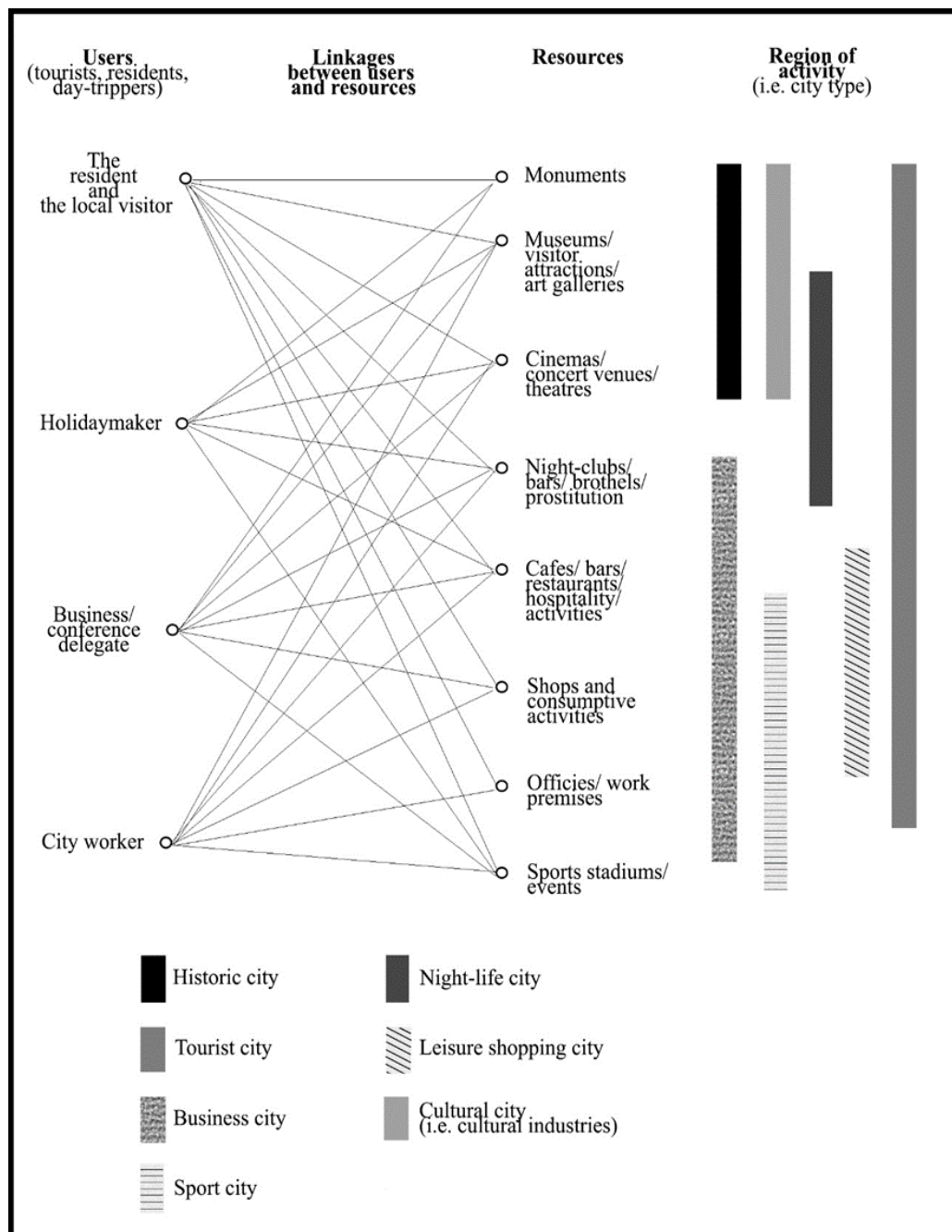


Figure 2.4. The concept of functional areas within the city

Interest in urban tourism within the tourism literature has developed in recent years. Authors such as Page (1997), seek to consider a framework for the analysis of the tourists' experience of urban tourism. According to Pearce (2001), the increased academic interest in urban tourism is related to the growth of tourism in cities (Selby,

2004). Each study approaches urban tourism from a different perspective and tries to explain its relationship with the city. For example, Ashworth and Tunbridge (1990) put forward the concept of historic tourist-historic city, and for the first time in the framework of urban tourism, they defined a wide range of works from cultural heritage to planning and management, conservation and marketing. Burtenshaw et al. (1991) explained how urban residents and users (tourists) approach the city in a different and sometimes contradictory way; similarly, Urry (1990) developed a terminology 'tourist gaze' based on leisure consumption and Featherstone (1991) focus on tourist consumption and tension between local people and visitors. Moreover, Mullins (1991) defines types of tourism cities by using the term 'tourism urbanization' and Garreay (1991) tried to explain edge cities developments as centers for services consumption.

Studies conducted in the 1990s expanded the scope of urban tourism research in a different manner. While Law (1992) framed urban tourism and its contribution to economic regeneration, Fainstein and Gladstone (1999) established connections between urban tourism and urban transformation/ conservation. Urry (1995) and Judd (1999) focus on changes in the physical environment and the creation of tourism-oriented spaces. Mentioning tourism-oriented spaces, Hannigan (1998) developed 'fantasy city' term. Moreover, Parlett et al. (1995), while analyzing the effects of urban tourism, Roche (1992) first mentioned the link between urban tourism and mega events. Paddison (1993) and Bramwell and Rawding (1996) connected to the marketing and branding of the city with the development of urban tourism to show the relation between place branding, marketing and urban tourism.

Literature studies on urban tourism continued to increase in the 2000s and gained several new dimensions. For example, Page and Hall (2002) tried modelling tourism in the post-modern city. Mommaas (2004) explained cultural clusters and the post-industrial city. Gotham (2005) defined how urban tourism is a catalyst for gentrification, while Florida (2005) discussed the phenomenon of urban tourism in the context of creativity and the concept of "creative class. Mordue (2007) tried to define the relation between tourism, urban governance, public space and the city. Edwards,

Griffin and Hallyar (2008) searched for an agenda for Australian urban tourism and developed a new terminology 'urban tourism precinct' (Figure 2.5).

According to Edwards et al. (2008), tourism precincts are dynamic and undergo many changes in the design process. Drawing from ethnicity, sports, even history, these settings evolve as they aim to develop distinctive identities. However, there are two key issues that pertain to their advancement. First, they must be continually updated to remain attractive and relevant and this often means considerable public and private investment. Second, districts must endeavor to attract locals and outsiders. Tourist districts are the principal building blocks of urban tourism. Drawing on a unique historical past, or concentrating new entertainment or sports complexes, these spaces have become the destination spots that enable cities to upgrade or even transform their national and international identities. Local governments often work very closely with major corporations and local development interests to take a leading role in shaping the new visitor-oriented districts. A key aspect of building this type of city is the development of the physical infrastructure needed to transport, entertain, and provide accommodation for visitors. These expenditures do not simply help cities meet their economic development goals; in many cases they result in the thorough-going spatial reorganization of downtowns, outlying neighborhoods, and public facilities. Quite commonly, expanded downtowns and other reconstituted tourism zones, which were once physically dilapidated, with construction of some uses like convention centers, parks.

As it can be seen from the concepts that have been mentioned above and also stated by Ashworth and Page (2011:1), urban tourism debates have been ongoing by different disciplines and perspectives.

“Urban tourism is an extremely important, world-wide form of tourism: it has received a disproportionately small amount of attention from scholars of either tourism or of the city, particularly in linking theoretical research to tourism studies more generally. Consequently, despite its significance, urban tourism has remained only imprecisely

defined and vaguely demarcated with little development of a systematic structure of understanding.” However, the purpose of this study is to look for the effects of it on the historic urban areas and the tools to use urban tourism appropriately.

Author (s)	Year	Contribution
Ashworth	1989	Urban tourism: imbalance in attention
	2003	Urban tourism: still imbalance in attention
Ashworth and Tunbridge	1990, 2000	The Tourist- Historic City
Urry	1990	Tourist Gaze
Burtenshaw et al.	1991	Users of the city (tourists, residents and leisure visitors)
Featherstone	1991	Tourist consumption and tension between local people and visitors
Garreau	1991	Edge Cities as centres for services consumption
Mullins	1991	Tourism Urbanization
	1994	Class relations and tourism urbanisation
Law	1992	Urban tourism and its contribution to economic regeneration
	2002	Urban Tourism synthesis
Roche	1992	Mega-events and micro-modernization: on the sociology of a new urban tourism
Getz	1993	Tourism Business District
Paddison	1993	City marketing, image reconstruction and urban regeneration
Dear	1994	Postmodern human geography: a preliminary assessment
Parlett	1995	Analyzing the effects of urban tourism
Page	1995	Urban tourism as a system
Castells	1996	The rise of the Network City
Zukin	1996	The culture of cities and postmodern environment
Mazanec and Wöber	1997, 2009	Management of cities for tourism
Thrift	1997	Cities without modernity, cities with magic
Gladstone	1998	Tourism urbanisation in the USA
Hannigan	1998	Fantasy City
Dear and Flusty	1999	Engaging postmodern urbanism
Judd	1999	Changes in the physical environment and the creation of tourism-oriented spaces
Fainstein and Gladstone	1999	Connections between urban tourism and urban transformation / conservation
Page and Hall	2002	Modelling tourism in the post modern city
Mommaas	2004	Cultural clusters and the post-industrial city
Beedie	2005	The adventure of urban tourism
Gibson and Kong	2005	Cultural economy
Gotham	2005	Urban tourism as a catalyst for gentrification
Florida	2005	Phenomenon of urban tourism in the context of creativity and the concept of “creative class.
Mordue	2007	Tourism, urban governance, public space and the city
Edwards, Griffin and Hallyar	2008	Research agenda for Australian urban tourism
		“Urban tourism precincts”
McNeill	2008	The hotel and the city

Resource: Ashworth and Page (2011) and modified by writer

Figure 2.5. Selected theoretical and conceptual contributions to the study of urban tourism

The interest that increasing in urban tourism predicated onto two important sources: the urgent need to regulate or coordinate the negative effects of frequent visits to historic cities; and the urgency of restructuring of the post-industrial areas. City planners, decision makers, mayors have adopted strategic urban political economic plans in the frame of urban tourism. urban tourism has become important dynamic aspect of city planning (Hayllar et al, 2008).

Urban tourism and cultural tourism are closely related due to the fact that the city produces culture. The attractiveness of cultural assets, interesting buildings, historical sites, music culture, performances, theater, exhibition, festival and literary culture and the combination of entertainment, the presence of recreational products and services for tourists make a city attractive and affect its choice as a destination. The city is a product of culture with material and spiritual dimensions, and it also produces and presents different, diversified, different, old and new consumer products and services with a particular emphasis on culture (Kurtuluş Kıvanç, 2011).

The development of the tourism sector in general and the prominence of a field of activity such as cultural tourism, lead to the emergence of cultural understanding based on differences, and the protectionism activities that develop in parallel to this, gaining economic value and discussing the concept of heritage. With the spread of the awareness that natural and cultural heritage cannot be seen as the existence of a single country in the globalized world and that it is the common heritage of humanity, cultural-heritage-development-tourism relations have been questioned more and national and international treaties have started to be cared more. The interest in the cultural industry has paved the way for the development of tourism activities in the world and being an important economic sector and further discussion of the concepts of cultural heritage and cultural economy (Emekli, 2018).

The importance of urban tourism is thought to be determined for each city based on its content and attractiveness, which affects urban spaces. By examining the texture, traditional, local and cultural characteristics of the city, it is observed how the city

integrates with the phenomenon of tourism and how urban spaces emerge as touristic products. In this context, the arrangement of the city centers, the restoration and recovery of the historical parts of the city help to highlight the identity structure of the city as a touristic product.

The most important issue, here, is the improvement in tourism in cities. It is important to give functions of tourism to urban texture, urban spaces and historical buildings without losing their real structural and aesthetic features. Thus, it is possible to adapt the region with new uses given to the historical cultural heritage (housing, workplace, educational units, commercial complexes, hotel groups, and congress exhibition halls). For example; the most positive effect of urban tourism in Portugal was the restoration of old buildings. Cuba, as the country that increased the number of tourists made the first effort to restore buildings in Havana. After the restoration, the establishment of tourist functions in the appropriate historical structures turns them into a separate tourism attraction. Restoration of historic buildings such as Safranbolu, Beypazarı in Turkey positive impact of tourism in the historic town and positive impact of tourism can be given as examples. (Doğan, 2006). Such examples of changes have required an evolution to be brought about each case's presentation to keep up their uniqueness and attractive to visitors.

In heritage-based tourism, as a city adapts to new economic and regulatory conditions, so the functions and uses of its spaces change (Burtenshaw et al., 1991; Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Page & Hall, 2003). Tourism is a relatively recent 'layer' added to an already established environment, sharing city spaces with other functions of a historic city. In addition, they have employed these projects as means of reviving their image, reversing chronic physical deterioration and/or generating increased revenue capabilities. Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) have developed a model that explains the relation between heritage as a source, tourism as an activity and the city as place.

2.2.1. The Tourist-Historic City Model

At the center of this study, intersection of tourist, historic and city takes place. Every city has a history and for every monument there is a story; thus, the potential seems to be unlimited. Many tourism movements in a historic city take advantages from this potential historic environment, without paying for this added value to the tourism services (Pearce and Butler, 1999). The tourist- historic city concept is about the past and the future characteristics of urban which are intrinsic in the modern city. This is neither a history of cities nor an account of urban tourism Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) add. The term historic does not specify the history of urban development, same as tourist does not imply the rise of tourism industry 'the golden horde'.

The heart of our concern is in the junction of touristic, historic and city. Of course, not all tourism is concerned with historic resources, nor are such resources inevitably or invariably concerned with tourism, and both can be located in rural as well as urban situations. However, the justification of this book rests upon three axioms, namely that tourism in its various forms has played, and continues to exercise, a critical role in the development of such resources; while conversely that historical resources form an equally critical part of a growing tourism industry; and that the symbiosis of the two has become a major activity of cities. (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000, 3)

The tourist-historic city is or can be viewed as;

1. both a form and a function. It is particular sort of urban morphology but also, and increasingly, an urban activity.
2. both a particular type of city and specialized morphological-functional region within a city
3. both a particular use of history as a tourism resource and a use of tourism as a means of supporting the maintenance of the artefacts of the past and justifying attention to the historicity of cities.

Although the tourist- historic city is not point a certain area, it has some borders that composes from the historic city and the tourist city which are explained below.

2.2.1.1. The Historic City

The input of the historic city is “*urban form from the past that have survived into the contemporary city*” (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 9). According to Ford (1978), the historic city is bridge between past, present and future and adds “*our cities should provide visible clues to where we have been and where are we going*”. The historic city phrase is described in two distinct ways: in one, historic city means the city as a whole contrast to modern, like ‘steel’ or ‘textile’ town. The other refers a specific, distinguishable district compared to modern districts. Both of these explanations look different from each other; however, at the same time, they need each other to define themselves (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). Consequently, the concept of the historic city as a characteristic urban district, composes from definable morphological, functional and perceptual features.

Ashworth and Tunbridge developed an evolutionary model, figure 2.5; that composes from different phases and varies according to city size. the model that is examined and explained is valid for medium-sized cities. The first one explains the ‘original city’ which covers all urban functions. The following phase, second one, represents a growth of urban towards outwards in all direction so the center will be the oldest part. The birth of the historic city can be found in the third phase as a result of two processes: the first one is the reassessment of the heritage based on historical architecture that leads conservation policies. These policies will be applied a part of the original city that depends on the condition of relict structure and pressure on it for redevelopment.

The second process is related the historic city and central functions of the town. The key issues here is that due to the physical environment, after introducing the conservation policies, there will be some constraints about commercial enterprises. The easy they reach the original city, the easy they may change the cadastral pattern

and transportation routes. to sum up, there will be commercial pressures to migrate out, consequently abandoned or underused areas occur. The last, fourth, phase involves the partial separation of the central business district (CBD) and the historical city at inverse directions for future growth. The historic district and the CBD are partly divided, due to the fact that some commercial businesses can benefit from the historic city. At this stage, the historic city spreads into the original city more (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000).

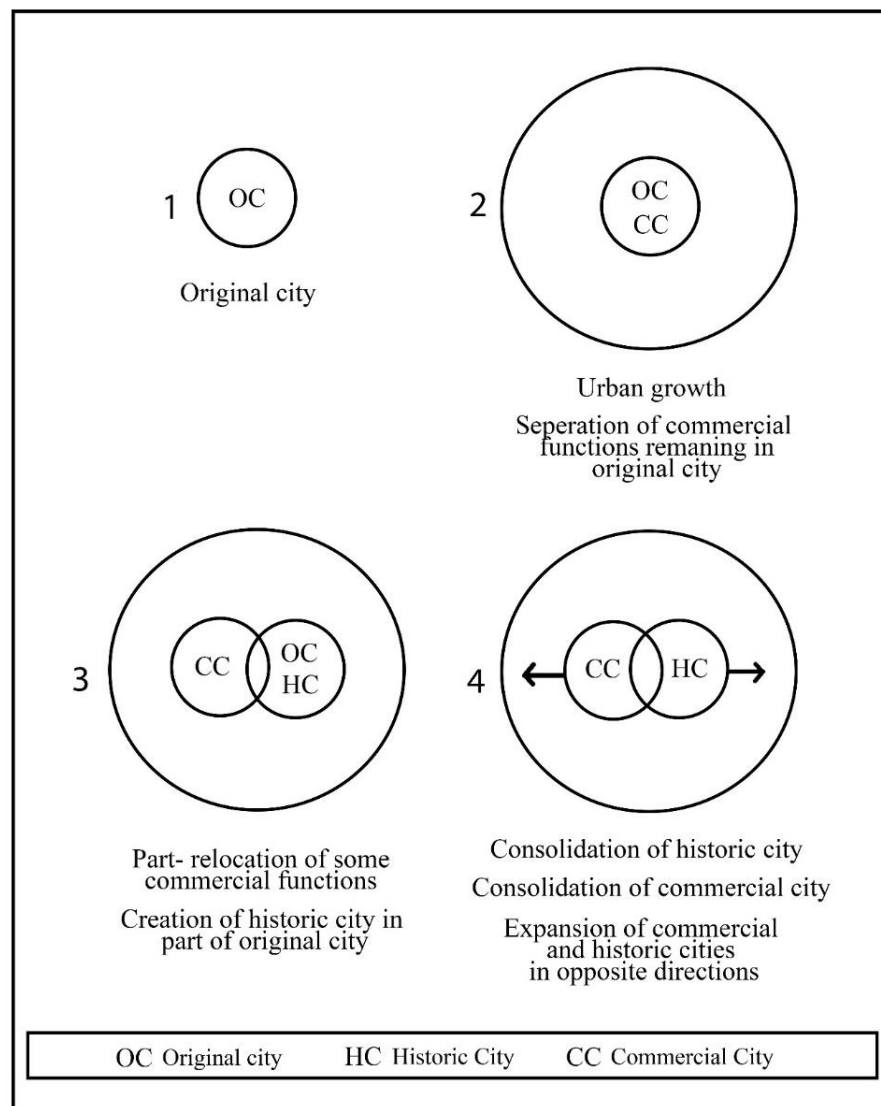


Figure 2.6. Evolutionary model of the historic city

It can be inferred from the model, in time original city becomes historic city due to the physical growth and time requirements. Commercial city is formed opposite directions from the original/ historic city to meet these needs. Thus, consolidation of commercial city occurs. Although these changes occur, one strong implementation is the conservation strategies of the original cities. It is the base of the model, otherwise there won't be any tourist-historic cities.

2.2.1.2. The Tourist City

Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) have linked three study area: tourism, heritage and city. This chapter focuses on the relation between tourism and the city in terms of tourist-historic city model. The tourist city concept relies upon two assertions that cities are important to tourism and that tourism is important to cities. The tourist city is not an extraordinary city, or even a homogeneous and special monofunctional area in cities. It is a model of clustered functional associations that generally define the regionalization of tourism activities in cities. Ashworth and Tunbridge defines the tourist city as a normal life whereas Judd (1999) defines tourist city as tourist bubbles that means a specialized area creating for the purpose of tourism while other part of the city is not open for the strangers *'envelop the traveler so that he/she only moves inside secured, protected and normalized environments.*

Components of the tourist city model are accommodation, catering and attractions. In this framework, the capacity of accommodation, service quality or other aspects of it are not at the center; whereas commercial accommodation has a greater importance for tourism services. The functional and spatial relationships between accommodation and other tourism elements have to analyzed. To make it clear, accommodation in the historic center probably has powerful functional relationships with the facilities and attractions of the historic and central commercial city whereas accommodations at urban periphery has poor relation with other tourism elements. The next one is catering, bars, taverns, cafes, restaurants that serve tourists and locals at the same time; moreover, catering services have different spatial distributions and relation with other

facilities. The last category, the most heterogenous one, is attractions. It has power to shape the direction of tourism facilities different from hotels and catering services. They are the supporters of the tourism but the attractions, historic one in this framework are more relevant, themselves, attract visitors. The distribution of tourist-historical sites is not the same as that of either the historical resources or heritage sites and buildings (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000).

In order to synthesize tourism facilities into a model, for medium size towns, figure 2.7 has been developed by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000). Tourists comprehend that, spatially, there is a restricted tourist center, which equal to a small portion of the total area of the commercial city and the historic city. The model of touristic city, locational, shows that the touristic city overlaps both the commercial city for touristic shopping or entertainment and the historical city for selected touristic facilities.

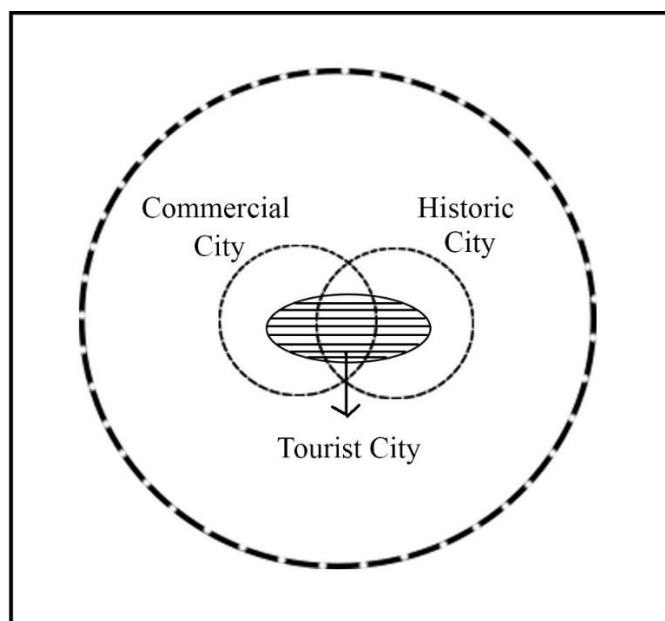


Figure 2.7. The location of the tourist city

The model shows that the central business district, the touristic city and the old town have been spatially and functionally overlapped. According to Ashworth and Tunbridge, this intersection occurs before or after the implementation of conservation

policies in the original city, then the commercial city shifts from the preserved original city or the historic city. Consequently, tourism city is formed in a part of the modern commerce city of and a part of the historical city.

2.2.1.3. The Tourist-Historic City

The tourist-historical city model, which is produced from the combination of concepts, is necessarily constructed by overlapping the spatial patterns of historical and touristic cities in the wider context of other urban functions. Tourist-historical city can be defined as the overlap area between historical and touristic cities; it is part of the city where historical monuments and combinations are actively used for tourism and is also a base for attracting visitors with non-historic activities (figure 2.8).

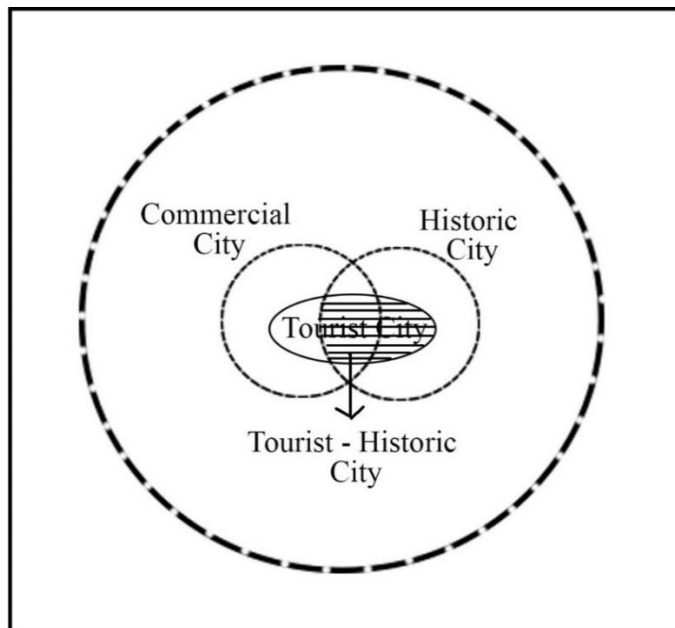


Figure 2.8. The location of the tourist- historic city

Although this overlap area shows the currently used tourist-historic city, excluded parts of the historic and tourist cities carry potential sources for expansion of the tourist- historic city. According to Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), the tourist-historic city is not a disarticulated part of the functional area such as a shopping or office district and cannot be confined morphologically to the buildings and areas of the

conserved city. The model of the tourist- historic city consists upon the four phases. At the first phase, central business district, commercial city, is located at the center of the original city. Second phase demonstrates the effects of conservation implementations. After policies related historic area, the commercial district moves out of the historic city. At the third phase, overlapping occurs between commercial city and historical city. Intersection of these, tourist city is formed, mentioned figure 2.5.

The last, fourth, phase represents the result of the expansion that happens due to the increase in tourism demand. The historic city responds by enlarging the protection cover out of the core of the original city due to the force of spreading of the tourist-historic city. The expansion of the historic city is directed in the opposite direction to the expansion of the central business district, because in the central business district, restructuring takes place rather than preservation. For that reason, the expansion takes place towards the built areas, because the expansion force is not that high in the built areas compared to commercial areas (figure 2.9).

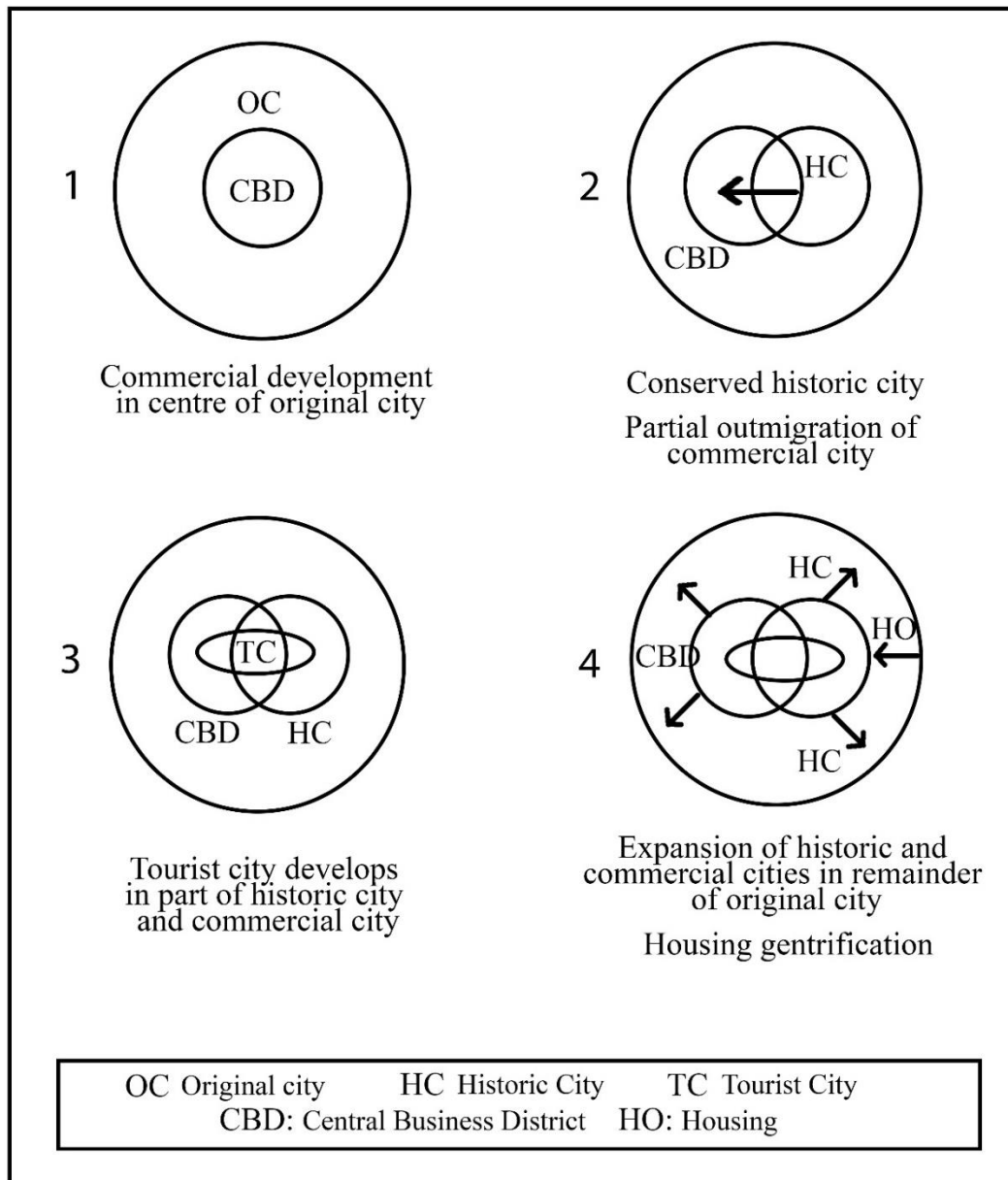


Figure 2.9. Tourist- historic city model

To sum up, Ashworth & Tunbridge emphasize that the tourist-historic city “*does not exist in isolation but in a series of associations, whether functional or spatial, with other urban activities, thus the tourist- historic city must be occupied and populated by its uses and users*” (2000: 5). The tourist-historic city has emerged as an integral part of the multifunctional city and continues to exist. The most prominent feature of

the area is that the tourist-historic city is equipped with a historical atmosphere, depending on the preservation of its texture, public urban design features emphasizing a chosen atmosphere and the marking of historical associations. The historical continuity of the morphology of the area allows the address itself to transmit associations of credibility and reliability for a long time. This association will be a valuable proof of activities that based on the transfer of these attributes to potential customers. Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000: 108) explains that situation as:

“The most attractive feature of these areas to many commercial enterprises is the presence of people and of other activities. The former are potential customers, the latter may be the customers, suppliers or mutually dependent partners in the production of a package of goods and services for joint consumption.”

The tourist- historic city covers some specific functions related to area and building in terms of historicity which can be classified in four categories (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 110):

1. services provided directly to individual customers, usually in person, which includes such clusters of related activities as leisure shopping, arts/ crafts/ antiques, catering and both private and public personal services
2. services provided indirectly, and normally impersonally, to consumers
3. services offering culture, the arts or entertainment, whether ‘live’ or not, to ‘live’ audiences
4. housing

The first one is the services provided directly to individual customers, usually in person, which includes such clusters of related activities as leisure shopping, arts/ crafts/ antiques, catering and both private and public personal services. To make it specify, with the high potential of visitors/ consumers, probably pedestrians, face-to-face services takes place in this historical surrounding. Facilities, somehow, related to directly history or because of the historic atmosphere are presented themselves mostly traditional and aesthetic tastes. Limitation due to the physical conditions of area or

inflexibility of interior division can be deterministic for the uses such as restaurants. Such land uses as modern arts and handicrafts, antiques and bric-a-brac are suitable for the tourist- historic cities. Firstly, low-rent and secondly small workshop areas have intertwined with the cultural attribute of the tourist- historic cities. Marais in Paris, flea market location such as Amsterdam's Waterlooplein can be examples of these historical and cultural facilities. Except from these facilities, personal facilities such as medical, dental, legal, financial services are also benefited from the location and reputation of the tourist- historic city.

The second one is services provided indirectly, and normally impersonally, to consumers such as consultants and architects. *"Motives also often include historicity-related factors, such as psychic satisfaction in the character of the area or building, a perceived professional appropriateness of a restored buildings and an appreciation of the value of the area's amenities to employees"* (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 120). The next one is the services offering culture, the arts or entertainment, whether 'live' or not, to 'live' audiences which is highly hard to define due to its diverse nature. In this category, there has been a wide range from cinema, theatre, opera houses to free street entertainments and events. The relation between cultural facilities and local urban revitalization has been identified as *'centerpiece for urban growth strategies'* and linked between conserved buildings which are especially historically associated.

The last, fourth, function is housing that is indisputable the most supreme user of the place in the tourist-historic city. It reflects the success of conservation letting an increase in the ratio of domestic buildings within the conserved stock. Therefore, although tourism and other service activities seem to dominate historical urban land use, this is often a fallacy that is encouraged by the most visible areas. In terms of contribution to land use, unlike economic impacts, housing is the only possible use of large areas within the historic city. However, there is a contradiction of maintenance the original use as residential use after renovation/ conservation due to the economic rent.

The necessity of residential function to save the historical city from vacancy is the most practical solution. There is a dilemma that has to be mentioned: *“the housing function makes a major contribution to the historic city but the historic city makes only a minor contribution to the city-wide housing function”* (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 127) which means everyone supports the preservation of historic buildings but a minor part is willing to live in it. Because of the economic benefit of commercial uses is higher than residential uses, in the tourist- historic cities there is a competition called ‘*home against hotels*’ or ‘*heritage inn*’ tradition. Housing-tourism fashion may result as stress for historic cities like traffic and park problems or footfall in the environment. So, the residential use leads the rehabilitation of the area and joining into the tourist-historic resource.

The tourist- historic city exists together with the multiple functions as a mix of residential, commercial or cultural complex. It won’t be wrong to say it doesn’t carry one particular aspect; it composes of different synergies: the tourist city, the shopping city, the culture city and may other cities. Therefore, there is a fundamentally unstable balance condition, since each of the functions living in preserved forms has its own specific demands on the area and its historical characteristics that do not necessarily conform to each other or to its conservation goals. So, multiplicity of goals and objectives, variety of functions, needs a sophisticate organization and management approach which shapes the tourist- historic cities (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000).

The city has experienced a period of urban revitalization since the 1970s. In previous years, the viability of the city center was greatly influenced by the extremely rapid suburban growth. The revival of interest in the city was due to a number of reasons or more or less re-evaluation of its cultural, economic and environmental potential. *“The revitalization of the inner city is often associated with the rediscovery of the tourist-historical potential, but certainly not just with it; the inner city was rediscovered as a place to live, work and recreate”* (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 205). The renewed

competition for access to opportunities of the inner city has created pressure on less meritorious land use, low-income housing and facilities.

To conclude, the model that is developed by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000: 302) can be summarized by their words:

“The tourist- historic city offers the possibility of obtaining a new economic stimulus in the inner areas of cities by using existing urban structures and services, and even turns to advantage the relict features abandoned in the economic collapse of other industries. It offers the chance of generating a new set of amenity values again based principally in the inner city, and upon the essentially urban features of a dense and varied physical form and a varied intermixed set of functions. Finally, it involves focusing attention upon the history, beauty, and entertainment qualities of the city. The promotion of these attributes to visitors can also provide a new source of identity and civic pride among residents, city managers and entrepreneurs”

CHAPTER 3

3. EFFECTS OF URBAN TOURISM ON THE CITY

*“When I think of art I think of
beauty. Beauty is the mystery of life.
It is not in the eye it is in the mind.
In our minds there is awareness of
perfection.”*

Agnes Martin

Urban tourism requires a significant spatial reproduction. In this context, the main objective of urban tourism policies is to create an environment suitable for tourism from the rising sectors of the economy by revitalizing the physical environment with the cooperation of public and private sectors and thus contributing to economic and social renewal. The urban transformation aimed at tourism has been enriched with practices related to the quality of urban life and the preservation of cultural heritage and has become a process with economic, environmental, social, cultural, symbolic and political dimensions. There are three main impacts of urban tourism: economic, spatial and socio-cultural.

3.1. Economic Impacts

International tourism is defined as an invisible export that provides foreign currency inflow to the national economy by increasing business volume, household income, employment and state income. For many countries, tourism is an important sector for their economic progress. The development of tourism has positive effects on national and local economic activities. Tourists make significant contributions to revenues, sales and profits, tax revenues and businesses while visiting tourist attractions (Sağıroğlu, 2016). According to Ashworth and Page (2011), the economic effects of tourism on the city are more dominant than other social, political or environmental

effects, whether positive or negative. Therefore, it is not surprising that most of the tourism research is focused on examining its economic impact (Uysal, 2015).

In the thesis of Sağıroğlu, Ardahaey (2011) divided the economic effects of tourism into three separate groups: direct, indirect and induced. Direct effects; transportation, accommodation, food and beverage, entertainment and retail trade. Accordingly, when tourists spend their money on primary tourism sectors, their spending has a direct impact on income, imports of goods and services, government revenues and employment. The indirect economic effects of the tourism sector are the second factors that affect the other sectors retrospectively. For example, as the number of tourists in tourism destinations increases, so does the need for accommodation. With an increasing number of hotels, pensions and guesthouses, it indirectly encourages the production of other sectors in the region such as construction, infrastructure, agriculture, textiles and carpentry. As a result, tourism creates direct business volume in hotels, restaurants and shops, as well as indirect employment in other sectors such as construction, food or textile, where goods and services are provided.

It is a fact that urban tourism creates new investments and employment opportunities; however, economic impacts are not always positive. In the tourism sector, there is a seasonality factor that causes fluctuations in the number of tourists in cities. Therefore, the job opportunities provided by the tourism sector are seasonal. In addition, cities which are economically dependent on tourism sector may face seasonal unemployment problem. In the tourism season, although the tourism sector employs unskilled workers to specialized workers, these job opportunities are low-paid or uninsured (Sarioğlu, 2016). Unskilled or semi-skilled labor, which can easily be changed due to the nature of the tourism industry, creates temporary imbalances in the urban economy, especially in cities where tourism is one of the largest sources of income.

Another negative impact is the increase in tourism in the region and the increase in demand for scarce resources. Investments in tourism have led to an increase in land

and property values and as a result triggered the struggle for land ownership. The increase in housing, service and goods costs (first in tourism regions, then in the city) are other negative consequences for local people (Uysal, 2015). As demand for scarce resources increases, so do their prices. Due to the fact that salaries do not increase parallel to this increase, local people are affected negatively. Building and land prices close to city centers gain value after conservation projects and tourism developments. With the increase in land and housing prices, land competition for other economic uses becomes more evident. As the prices of basic goods and services are guided by the purchasing power of the visitors, local people cannot meet their basic living needs in the city centers (Sarıoğlu, 2016).

Yet, another economic problem stems from the fragile nature of the tourism industry. In other words, tourism sector is the first sector to be affected by any negativity in the city. Therefore, even long-term investments in urban tourism can cause financial losses due to economic crises (Athens), natural disasters (Hurricane Katrina in New Orleans), international terrorism (9/11 in New York), and armed conflicts (Beirut) (Uysal, 2015). In addition to financial losses, cities may be the reasons for not being preferred in the global race and the time taken to break this perception makes the tourism sector an unstable position.

3.2.Spatial Impacts

The city is a commodity presented spatially for tourism. It has been marketing its natural, cultural and historical values in this sense. Therefore, urban tourism has significant spatial effects. First, it has a positive impact on the protection of heritage. Orbaşlı (2000) states that the tourism sector does not provide a direct financial resource for protection but indirectly enables the use of previously unused investment finance. Conservation, restoration and reuse of unused historical buildings also lead to other environmental improvements, such as increasing the viability of the space and enabling other small-scale economic developments. Adaptive reuse projects are one of the applications on old historic buildings. Worn, derelict and empty historical

buildings have been restored and preserved with adaptive reuse projects, which are defined as reuse of historical areas and buildings for purposes other than those originally built (Sarioğlu, 2016).

Urban renewal projects aim in order to satisfy tourists, changing the streets and neighborhoods. The authorities in the city can even use tourism as an excuse and legitimacy to transform the city. According to Edwards (2008), tourism provides incentives for the preservation of cultural heritage. Higher planning standards improve the quality of public spaces and help to develop more recreational areas for both tourists and local people (Uysal, 2015). Recently, historical texture with authentic and cultural characteristics unique to a certain period has been an alternative to standardized and uniform developed lands. Historic cities strive to discover and adapt their cultural heritage to the modern urban fabric, to protect and maintain the properties in historical neighborhoods. Efforts such as the preservation of cultural assets and the use of cultural heritage in accordance with the requirements of modern time give the old city, old buildings and places the chance to participate in lively city life. In this way, tourists and local people are allowed to be a part of the social life; contributes to the revival of cultural tourism. The development of conservation awareness contributes to markets not only spatially but also economically. Research shows that the real estate under protection has a greater economic impact than rehabilitation of new buildings, and tourism has direct, indirect and stimulated economic impacts (Sarioğlu, 2016).

The spatial effects of urban tourism are not always in the best interest of the local people. Tourism activities are distributed irregularly in cities; urban centers and certain regions usually take the lion's share. Within the geographical proximity of touristic areas, the quality of public services is of a higher standard, streets and buildings are better ranked and better protected. These areas can be historical places of cultural and architectural importance; they are cultural centers with unique lifestyles with certain ethnic groups or religious sacred places. The creation of such boundaries within the city requires a “cleaning” process if there are “undesirable” elements in the

designed tourist area. Cleaning is carried out by gentrification policies and urban renewal projects. The renewed projects under the leadership of tourism lead to displacement of people and resettlement in the neighborhoods of economically and socially vulnerable people (Uysal, 2015).

Apart from the displaced or high cost protection methods of the inhabitants, Orbaşlı (2000) examined the characteristics of the historical cities and stated that there is an overcrowding problem in the historical touristic cities under tourist pressure. It is claimed that the pedestrian density in these regions causes pressure on local government services and negates local lifestyles. At this point, it is seen that the tissue is damaged in the historical areas visited by a relatively high number of tourists, and that the inevitable end of tourism development, the heritage resources are eroded and depreciated. Historical centers consist of narrow streets, narrow corners, low overhangs and very little space for street parking. The increase in the number of vehicles also causes traffic congestion and deterioration of the historical environment. Car parking is another problem that cannot be provided in historical cities because parking is not suitable for historical texture due to both its size and character. In order to solve this problem, the existing open spaces, especially the green areas close to the historical center and the public squares are used as parking spaces. It is stated that some commercial activities and living residents prefer to move away from historical neighborhoods due to delivery, parking and access restrictions (Sarioğlu, 2016).

Apart from what is mentioned above, it is obvious that there is an adverse impact on the physical environment which occurs from the relation between urban tourism and recreational activities such as what Pearce (1978) describes ‘architectural pollution’. The promotion of urban tourism without supplying an adequate infrastructure to deal with intensifying numbers of visitor could cause a reduction in urban environmental quality. To sustain long term sustainability of a touristic destination that addressing issues below have to be considered.

The impact of tourism on the urban physical environment (Page, 1995a) can be listed as:

- The urban physical environment
 - Land lost through tourism development which might have been used for other purposes
 - Changes to urban hydrology
- Visual impact
 - Development of tourism/ leisure districts
 - Introduction of new architectural styles
 - Potential reinforcement of vernacular architectural form
 - Potential contribution to population growth
- Infrastructure
 - Potential overloading of existing urban infrastructure with the following utilities and developments
 - Roads
 - Railways
 - Car parking
 - Electricity and gas
 - Sewage and water supply
 - Provision of new infrastructure
 - Additional environmental management measures to accommodate tourists and adapt areas for tourist use
- Urban form
 - Changes to land use as residential areas are replaced by accommodation developments
 - Alterations to the urban fabric from pedestrianization and traffic management schemes which have been constructed to accommodate visitation
- Restoration
 - The restoration and conservation of historic sites and buildings
 - Reuse of the facades of heritage buildings

3.3. Socio-Cultural Impacts

Tourism sector is the sector in which the term "domestic and foreign" is used most easily. Urban tourism is a sector where different cultures, behavior models or traditional values come together, affect each other and are influenced by each other and include different scales ranging from local to global. Tourism is as effective as increasing social tolerance and the approach of people to each other. The level of human interaction with each other is important. It can lead to changes in the value systems of tourism, individual behaviors, family relationships, collective lifestyles, moral behavior, creative expressions and traditional ceremonies. Studies on how tourism affects community development and quality of life in cities focus on socio-cultural impacts such as alcoholism, drug addiction, vandalism, sexual harassment and fighting. The findings of these studies are specific to the situation due to the unique nature of culture and space (Uysal, 2015).

It can go beyond individual encounters that promote urban tourism activities; uncontrolled migration (as a result of the boom in tourism-oriented employment and opportunities) and congestion and pressure in urban infrastructure. Tourism development policies can also lead to gentrification that sets the stage for displacement, homelessness and poverty. Such problems can lead to organized social movements that challenge urban protests and ultimately tourism-led regeneration projects. The increasing interest of visitors in historical cities raises awareness of cultural heritage and the preservation of conscious or inconspicuous historical buildings. With the awareness of the community on conservation issues, the demand for local participation and protection is gradually increasing, leading to the formation of local associations.



Figure 3.1. Negative impacts of tourism to the local people
(<http://arkeofili.com/kitle-turizmi-geri-donusu-olmayan-bir-noktada>)

In the touristic region, tourism facilities and infrastructure services are being developed to meet the increasing needs. In other words, improvements in local infrastructure such as health services, airports, roads, water and sewage systems and recreational facilities are financed by the surplus from tourism revenues. Foreign exchange refunds create funds for facilities and infrastructure services in the region where tourists are located, which in any case provides a significant advantage to local people. Therefore, tourism related funds indirectly pave the way for improving the quality of life of local people. Tourism maintains the cultural identity of the host population and increases the demand for historical and cultural exhibitions. Due to tourists' interest in local culture and history, traditional local architecture, local festivals, cultural events, traditions and crafts gain importance and tourism promotes their preservation.

Orbaşlı (2000) states that tourism and tourism development is an insatiable cultural consumer. After the historical city is used for tourism purposes, the cultural heritage

is surrounded by color, various signs, parking lots, souvenir shops, restaurants and cafes. Although the monuments are preserved, the surroundings of the monuments cannot be protected. In addition, indigenous people are threatened to be a part of the tourism sector demonstration. Foreigners who know almost nothing about the culture of indigenous peoples seem to take care of them. The conflict between the identities of local people and the different cultural norms and assumptions of foreigners can lead to some social and cultural problems. According to Orbaşı (2000), one of the features of the historic city under tourist pressure is the change in the ownership order of the historical centers. Gentrification in many historical cities and historic centers is an inevitable result of most rehabilitation and conservation projects due to the superiority of the market's commercial forces. Local people are moving away from the historic center due to the increase in prices, changes in land use patterns and pressures and demands of the tourism sector. In this way, property models in historic centers are slowly changing and include an increase in retail, entertainment and entertainment uses and a decrease in residential uses.

However, it is a threat to the total collapse of the historic center, both because the local people have a traditional lifestyle and it is likely that the proliferation of commercial facilities and the presence of the entertainment and entertainment industry will not be desired by the local people. Thus, the residents of the historic center want to move out of their homes. As mentioned earlier, tourism is an inconsistent industry. In this respect, factors that affect tourists' motivation in historical centers may lose their importance in the future. As a result, historical centers are abandoned to their destiny and eventually become deserted and destroyed. In addition, globalization leads to the destruction of local cultural traditions and practices, the elimination of the uniqueness of national cultures, the loss of identity and ultimately the establishment of a homogeneous world culture. The effects can be categorized as shown at figure 3.2 modified from the work of Sağiroğlu (2016).

E c o n o m i c	Positive Impacts	provides direct/indirect trade provides local business opportunities provides foreign currency flow to the local economy rises in household income and prosperity	creation of extra tax revenue stimulates local economy by multiplier effect increases government revenues contributes infrastructural improvements rises in immovable property value
	Negative Impacts	increases seasonal unemployment low-wage and poorly paid jobs with no insurance the leakage factor of the tourism revenues rises in the prices of basic goods and services	increases in prices of land and housing disappearance of local family-run shops commercialization of tourism resources increases maintenance cost of historical asset
S p a t i a l	Positive Impacts	supports the conservation of environment and history creates financial resource for the conservation preparation of management plans and regulations diversification of land-uses	increases public awareness energy efficiency by adaptively reusing vacant areas develops the infrastructure has an active role in the city visual improvement of the appearance of the city
	Negative Impacts	exceeds the limits of carrying capacity destroys environmental resources creation of air, water, noise and littering pollution loss of urban memory	loss of natural landscape overcrowding and congestion problems degradation of historic sites and monuments using historical city as a fake themed environment
S o c i a l	Positive Impacts	increases tolerance of different cultures increases cultural exchange preservation of local festivals, cuisine, handicrafts preservation of neighborhood culture enrichment of cultural facilities	local participation and demand for conservation creation of social infrastructure; festivals, cuisine increases good-will between different countries get rid of the collapse and derelict image
	Negative Impacts	negative interaction between hosts and guests loss of diversity and homogenization of culture loss of urban memory disappearance of local family-run shops	changes in ownership patterns decrease in safety and security exclusion and displacement of local people gentrification in the residential areas uncontrolled footfall

Figure 3.2. Impacts of Urban Tourism

3.4. Urban Tourism Effects on the Tourist- Historic Cities

As it is explained above, urban tourism has many effects both positive and negative on the city. They have been discussed under three categories as; economic, spatial and social. Every field has specific positive and negative sides, can be seen the figure 3.2 separately. Throughout this study, the tourist- historic city model aimed to frame a series of change both spatial, social and economic at the same time in the light of urban tourism so, it will be better to look in detail which changes or impacts are common for city in general and for the tourist- historic city to specific.

Firstly, the tourist- historic city serves historicity and heritage which are used as resources and activating services of other markets. As positive effects; providing local business opportunities linked to money flow to the area by direct or indirect trade. Obliquely, thinking upper scale, governmental revenues will increase by extra tax revenue or other from other sources of income. Secondly, infrastructure is important input for tourism; it affects and it is affected; mutual affinity. But it is certain that, it has contribution to improvement of infrastructure. As explaining model, the tourist- historic cities are once derelict and abandoned sites, after conservation plan implementation, the infrastructures of the area has been developed. Thirdly, employment rise, immovable property gain value and household income will increase at the tourist- historic city.

Like other industries, urban tourism is subjected to larger cycles of boom and bust. Broader economic growth is likely to encourage consumption and expand the number of travelers searching for the products and experiences provided by this sector. These conditions help increase tax revenues, introduce additional jobs, and assist the private interests that can thrive and benefit within this reconstituted environment. According to Haywood (1998), it is important to understand how spending patterns relate to broader economic forces. In turn, this information can influence policy decisions. Specifically, how tourism demand is affected by the level of disposable income, the price of commodities, foreign exchange rates, deregulation, and marketing

expenditure could lead to the development of government policies and business strategies that could avert decline, and foster and generate greater tourism activity.

In one hand, there are powerful positive effects by means of economy, but at the same time, there are some negative effects such as; increase of maintenance cost of heritage assets or rise in the prices of basic goods and services. Before renewal/ conservation project, it was hard to keep commerce in this area so in long term local family- run shops disappeared. Orbaşlı (2000: 50) states that “*Tourism is a volatile industry and there is very little guarantee of its continuation at stable levels, for a variety of reasons including changing fashion*”; therefore, low-wage and poorly paid jobs with no insurance can be observed at the tourist-historic city. After becoming a touristic destination, the tourist-historic cities encounter with “*consumption of material resources*” (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000: 297) which means commercialization of tourism resources.

The most obvious effects that can be observed is spatial ones. First of all, the tourist-historic city, apart from its economic value has environmental sense and historical memory which require multi directional management strategies related tourism. With the change of perspective to conservation after 1980s, the public awareness has increased. Management plans and regulations have been implemented or have planned to be implemented to these areas. Land uses, which had not taken place before, took their place after conservation works one of them namely from Ashworth and Tunbridge work (2000) ‘heritage inn’ tradition. It may result not only functional change but also infrastructure change. The more conservation works take place the more financial resources are created with the visual improvement of the appearance of the city. The relation between tourism, historic environment, conservation and economy can be explained as a way Orbaşlı did (2000, 52):

“Tourism is potentially an important catalyst for the safeguarding of historic fabric and the initiation of conservation on an urban scale. Appreciation of the historic environment by visitors not only becomes a reason for conservation but can increase local interest in the environment. Although tourism is not a direct financial resource for conservation, indirectly it opens up previously

unavailable investment finances. The restoration and reuse of redundant buildings encourages other environmental improvements, adds life and activity to a place, provides an example of conservation, and may boost the economy to a level which will enable other small-scale improvements to happen.”

The other side of the coin says different things about the effects of urban tourism in term of ‘spatial’ on the tourist- historic cities. Intensity of visit to the area may result erosion of historic sites and monuments and destroys environmental resources. Moreover, over capacity creates air, water, noise and littering pollution. Overcrowding and congestion problems are among the most important spatial issues in the tourist-historic cities due to their urban morphology as Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000: 298) states “*The problems are well recognized, and include traffic and human congestion, with the short-term blight, refuse etc. and long-term environmental damage*”.

Moreover Orbaşlı (2000:68) also mentions this situation as: “*While tourism is a major source of income and may contribute to the costly process of preservation and conservation, large numbers of tourists are damaging heritage sites and the historic fabric of towns. It is inevitable that tourism development causes erosion, depreciating the finite heritage resource.*” The issue, here, has to be considered is a critical balance about the policies related to limit the tourist flow. It provides development until a certain level but after that point historical city is used as a fake themed environment and causes loss of urban memory. Orbaşlı (2000: 49) emphasizes tourism places are eventually ‘spoilt’ and adds “*Tourism and tourist developments are greedy consumers of the natural environment and of culture. Once it has become a tourist attraction, a small or fragile monument is often surrounded and overwhelmed by sign boards, parking facilities, souvenir shops, restaurants or cafes*”.

Much of the debate about urban tourism gentrification draws from the number of positive and negative effects of this process. For example, displacement through process increases, loss of affordable housing, loss of social diversity, and speculative property price jumps can be identified as some of the problems urban tourism gentrification brings to city neighborhoods. These criticisms are countered by positive

outcomes, which include stabilization of declining areas, rising property values, and reduced vacancy rates, increases in municipal revenues, and further investment. Regardless, urban tourism gentrification has fundamentally restructured urban areas. It breathes new life into tired and distress localities, but it also contributes to the creation of culturally monolithic environments and a general sense of sameness (Spirou, 2011).

In social manner, the tourist- historic cities ensure the conservation of neighborhood culture which encapsulates social infrastructure like festivals or local values like handicrafts, cuisine etc. Due to becoming the highlighted tourist destination, the tourist- historic city residents meet with various visitors, so that their tolerance against different culture increase, just as cultural exchange. Conservation plans help to change the image of environment. The tourist- historic cities are no more collapse and derelict areas, in fact, they are the new focal point of the whole city both enriched cultural facilities and cleared up facades.

On the other hand, the first negative impact of urban tourism on the tourist- historic cities, in social manner is loss of diversity and homogenization of culture. The model suggests different land uses as described in chapter 2 but the reality does not fit with the theory. What is fashion-consuming, the changes of functions happen in this direction. The second one is negative interaction between hosts and guests. Page (1995:142) defines residents' response to tourism as "*initially embracing, then tolerating and adjusting and finally withdrawing.*" The other ones, which are interlinked, are changes in ownership patterns, disappearance of local family- run shops and loss of urban memory. The last ones are gentrification in the residential areas and accordingly, exclusion and displacement of local people.

To sum up, history has a price and tourism seems as a clean way and easy choice for economic gain and employment creation turn out a preference development choice for local authorities. But there has to be comprehensive planning which covers not all maybe but many of the issues that we have mentioned before. The most notably

changes can be gathered physical space or it is not wrong to say spatial changes lead other changes. Changes are interdependent; any improvement made provides new facilities as describes above. The relationship developed by Law (1992) can be shown as figure 3.3. The regeneration is the inevitable strategy for the tourist- historic cities both to make the environment healthier so attractive and to make the environment more as tourist-product.

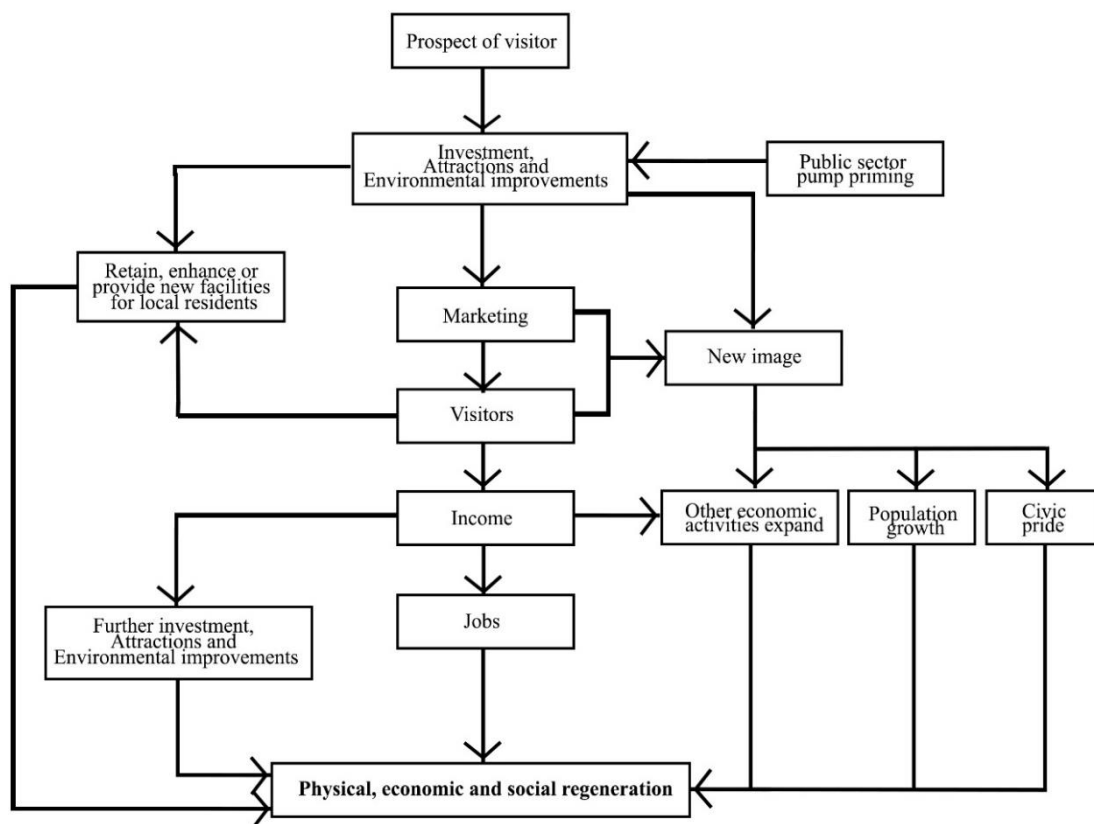


Figure 3.3. Regeneration as the strategy of urban tourism

CHAPTER 4

URBAN REVITALIZATION AS A TOOL FOR URBAN TOURISM

“History has become heritage, heritage has become an urban resource, and this resource supplies a major ‘history/heritage industry’, which shapes not merely the form but the functioning and purpose of the ‘commodified’ city.”

Ashworth & Tunbridge 2000, 2

According to Knox (1991), there are two important movements that have transformed the economic and socio-cultural structure of societies since the 1980s and they also influenced the urban renewal projects in the built environment of cities. The first among them was the transition from the Fordism (mass consumption and production) to the advanced capitalism concepts such as flexible accumulation, post-Fordism, and postmodernism. One of the important effects of postmodernism on urban space in the recent period is to reveal the differentiating features of cities. Thus, cities went to the way of designing space by originalizing their historical and cultural heritage and acting with alternative tourism strategies (Shaw and Williams, 1994). The second movement was based on a philosophical, cultural and attitudinal differentiation from the modernism to the postmodernism. By making use of these concepts, Knox reported that the new urban patterns and landscapes are created by the relationships between the demand/consumption and the supply/production.

The last quarter century has witnessed dramatic historical events, major technological innovations and extensive social and cultural changes in both the western and other parts of the world (Bauman, 2000). Decentralization, deindustrialization, and economic restructuring caused the fortunes of many urban centers to decline with accompanying population loss and social problems. At the same time, the second half

of the twentieth century gave rise to new residential and commercial settlement patterns farther away from the center. The economic prosperity that ensued resulted in the restructuring and commodification of leisure. Travel and tourism emerged as a multibillion-dollar industry and held the promise of aiding the ailing urban cores. At the same time, the perceived positive outcomes of the rapidly developing tourism industry injected urban competition, forcing cities to invest considerable resources as they sought to attract visitors and their expenditures (Spirou, 2010).

The competition of the cities' values, cultures and originalities with their local regions, causes various inequalities in the urban area in terms tourism. In particular, the activities that make up the supply and supply factor aim to increase the importance of urban tourism and to present the old and outdated areas of the city to the market through various revitalization, renovation and transformation projects, thus creating new rents. The urban revitalization emerged in the historical environment because of the changes observed in the demand and supply circuit. The changes in production also reconstructed the occupational structures. The advertising agencies, financial services, media specialists became new popular sectors for the last two decades. These sectors created a new bourgeoisie and also gained a place at the heart of the cities. The employees working at these industries moved from the suburbs to the city centers. The preservation of the old city quarters also attracts these groups and, thus, the gentrification became an inevitable consequence.

The tendencies for historic preservation, gentrification, or postmodern architecture became popular in the reformation of the built historic environment after the 1980s. These terms can be seen as the most visible reflections of the new policies of the new world order in the historic environment. Similarly, the slums, old industrial quarters, and the mostly old neighborhoods located at the city center were placed at the focus of the renewal projects of the neoliberal economy. Even though the urban renewal is not a new phenomenon that has emerged in the neoliberal era, the cities and rescaling projects became the key instruments for the entrepreneurial strategies aiming the

economic success since the 1980s. The interests of the companies are determined in accordance with these strategies put into realization by the partnership between private and public sectors (Roberts, 2000).

Table 4.1. *Strategy and partnership in urban regeneration*

Period	Urban Renewal Pattern
1950	The rebuilding of new urban uses for the replacement of old uses, the elimination of physical problems from the past and cities often based on a master plan, suburban growth
1960	Continuation of the 1950s approach. Suburban rehabilitate, peripheral growth
1970	Give priority to urban improvement and urban renewal projects Acceptance of the link between physical deterioration and social distortion, Projects focused on social problems
1980	Major schemes of development and redevelopment Flagship projects downtown and outside Cooperation with the public-private sector Visible reflections of new policies of new world orders
1990	Move toward a more comprehensive form of policy and practice more emphasis on integrated treatments Revitalization, improvement, and preservation of historical city centers or industrial and commercial centers
2000	The change in the concept of urban renewal from the “urban project” Market-led and project-based development

Resource: Carter, A., Roberts, P., Urban Regeneration. 2nd ed. 2000. pp. 44-69

4.1. Urban Tourism as Urban Change

There has been a general consensus among writers on the city that from the late 1970s onwards there has been an overwhelming need for cities to differentiate themselves in order to compete for spatial mobile capital. This has led to a dramatic surge in the contemporary significance of images and representations of the city from outside, and the packaging of the city itself. The city is often conceptualized as ‘soft’, in the sense

of having a culture and identity which is open to manipulating and change by those seeking an identity for themselves and for the city. Whilst for authors such as Harvey, this largely represents a reaction to the alienating characteristics of late capitalism, this softness has also been represented as indicative of a more fundamental potentiality of human agency in the contemporary city (Paddison, 1993).

Urban tourism consists not only of a collection of tourist facilities, but the consumption of signs, symbols and spectacle, creating aestheticized spaces of entertainment and pleasure. The manipulation of place images and the projection of a high quality of life represents a re-evaluation of urban space at local level, in response to global processes. Urban tourism, therefore, attracts considerable criticism for its decontextualization of culture and history and its use for economic and social ends. As Paddison (1993) argues that representing an insensitive approach to the city, rather than postmodernism's supposed sensitivity. In reassembling cultural references in postmodern environments, they are believed to lose any link with their original context. The way urban tourism practitioners manipulate historical and cultural legacies in order to attract capital, in the process emptying them of their original meaning.

As Zukin (1991) represents, the city has turned out a place of consumption, where spectacle and image create 'a dreamscape of visual consumption'. Despite postmodern urban populations are necessarily more flexible and mobile than the modern variety, modern landscapes attempt to recreate and stimulate a sense of place. Whether this is achieved through theme parks, festival, world fairs, waterfronts, museums, civic art or heritage centers, contemporary urban landscapes involve the paradoxical creation of a sense of place and history, to be consumed immediately. As Urry (1990) states, despite there is a humanistic impulse in the creation of the postmodern environment and culture, the speeding up of time and space can dissolve one's identity. However, the empirical evidence for massive restructuring since the beginning of the 1960s is indisputable, conceptualizing the changing culture and economies of cities is

fundamental to the postmodern debate. It is also a useful starting point for considering prevailing materialist conceptualizations of the modern city.

Shaw and Williams (1994) argue that urban areas offer geographical concentration of facilities and attractions that are conveniently located to meet both visitors and residents needs alike. But the diversity and variety among urban tourist destinations has led researchers to examine the extent to which they display unique and similar features. Shaw and Williams identify three approaches:

- The diversity of urban areas means that their size, function, location and history contribute to their uniqueness
- Towns and cities are multifunctional areas, meaning that they simultaneously provide various functions for different groups of users
- The tourist functions of town and cities are rarely produced or consumed solely by tourists, given the variety of user groups in urban areas.

This explanation reminds the concept of the tourist- historic cities multifunctionality, proper size and history. Urban tourists are not merely passive, but are involved in both the creation and consumption of contemporary forms of culture. To be the physicality of the experience which enabled visitors to use their imagination and emotions. This was an active process, with visitors using their memories and previous knowledge to either accept or reject what the site offered. It has been argued that urban tourism is plagued by practical problems caused mainly by its complexity. Best-case examples of urban tourism suggest that an integrated approach to urban tourism development is essential, addressing both the demand- and supply- side, and focusing on the salient aspects of both the images and experiences of consumers. The obstacles to successful urban tourism development include the number and diversity of organizations involved and the risk of contradictory activities, the issue of political accountability, the inflexibility of cities and an ambivalent attitude towards tourism (Paddison, 1993).

The process of tourism is not one way, as a low level of satisfaction with first-hand experiences of the destination will prevent even short-term sustainability. Conversely, unfavorable images outside a city can seriously ruin even the small-scale development of urban tourism. It is precisely this paradox which bestows on place image an active role in mediating between urban tourism demand and supply. Levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction resulting from first-hand experience of the place product can be the factor of tourism place selections. It is assumed that a decision-maker initially acts upon their image of a locality which rely on mostly historicity, rather than the reality of destination. A widely accepted model of consumer decision-making consists of five stages: recognition, search, evaluation, purchase and post-purchase evaluation. Goodall (1991) describes a process whereby activities and experiences are given mental ratings by the place consumer, and according to their personal tastes and dislikes, the individual has a preferential image of their tourism place. Perception is therefore more important than reality in conditioning choice. Thus, the tourist- historic cities are easily recognized, purchased that give a chance to be chosen by mostly everyone.

Ashworth (1989) argues that despite its economic and social significance, urban tourism has been severely neglected as an area of academic research. According to Ashworth, 'a double neglected' has occurred. Those interested in the study of tourism have tended to neglect the urban context in which much of it is set, while those interested in urban studies have been equally neglectful of the importance of the tourist function of cities. This neglect is surprising, as urban tourism is significant both in economic terms and in terms of wider cultural implications for cities. To make a place attractive so tourist appreciation's can be gained, Ashworth (1989) suggesting possible explanations '*in 60 years of urban space modelling tourism is ignored*'. Within the ongoing process of spatial planning, tourism is more likely to become an issue once a market has been developed and pressures are being felt rather than it having been forecast into early planning stages. Increasingly, conservation becomes the interface between physical planning and tourism (Orbaşlı, 2000: 147).

Planning for the environment that has historic attributes contains a number of different managers, each with a dedicated set of objectives and a brief to find ways and alternatives to succeed these objectives in a certain time period (Lichfield, 1988). It would seem that considerable attention has been devoted to solve physical problems by spatial and land use approach is urban regeneration that is in the target of researchers in disciplines such as geography, planning and sociology. This may have had the effect of marginalizing tourism is rarely represented as a significant phenomenon by planners and local government officials.

The physical regeneration of collapse and derelict areas is an important benefit of developing tourism. For the purpose of developing urban tourism strategies, Jansen-Verbeke (1986) classifies tourism resources into primary and secondary. Primary elements are those which actually attract visitors, such as historic buildings, urban landscapes, museums and art galleries, concerts, spectator spots, conferences, exhibitions and special events. Secondary elements include shopping, catering, accommodation, transport and tourism agencies. As localities have embraced marketing and increasingly competed with other places to attract tourists and inward investment, there have also been significant changes in patterns of consumption and employment. Thus, it can be said that first thing is first, historic buildings are the major components of the tourism. Other fields are just supporter of the existing situation.

Cities will only intensify their pursuit of tourism activities, maintaining a competitive outlook, searching for ways to attract visitors, and capture dollars. In an effort to upgrade their services, cities will also expand their amenities. These amenities will lead to greater residential development, and depending on the nature of local leadership, some cities will emerge more successful than others in achieving their goals. Increase leisure time and lifestyle changes place tourism in the forefront as a major world industry with a significant impact on many other sectors, from transportation to sales. Urban tourism and desirable cultural amenities are also tightly linked. Whereas culture often played a secondary role in local historical economies.

Urban visitor development can fuel growth via the production of local amenities, transforming the city into an entertainment machine (Spirou, 2010).

The rise of urban tourism as a development tool and a reimagining strategy has also generated its share of criticisms. First of all, it is often asserted that the city of leisure, culture, and entertainment comes at the cost of downplaying social equity concerns. From this perspective, expending resources on tourism necessarily restricts the ability of the public sector to support key services in schools, housing, and transportation. Political scientist Dennis Judd (1999) explains this position by noting that the trade-offs seem stark: beautification and flowers vs. unpaved streets; downtown amenities vs. neighborhood development; tourist infrastructure vs. adequately equipped schools; gentrification vs. displacement. The result of this direction is said to be two cities, one inhabited by the wealthy and middle-class, the other by the poor. But it has to be added, tourism developments are optional, whether it will be a tourist place or leave to its destiny.

Secondly, a more subtle objection to many forms of contemporary tourist oriented urban development concerns the loss of local “authenticity”. Indeed, the term Disneyfication has entered the popular lexicon to characterize tourist districts that offer superficial representations of ethnic markets and cuisines, gritty street environments, or other ostensibly unique urban experiences. What critics have in mind is the marketing of carefully designed “spaces of consumption” whose surface detailing mimics the appearance of classic urban spaces. Many tourist places resemble each other in the framework of urban tourism it doesn’t matter whether it is a historical place or not. The urban experience that is sold via such spaces is an experience appealing to prosperous local residents and visitors.

Lastly, it has been argued that travelers become progressively exposed to homogenous settings, the result of a replication of culture that disguises itself as traditional tourism. In their quest to reimage themselves and benefit from the economic development possibilities, cities utilize the urban history and culture they possess and haphazardly

convert it into an attraction. Both the physical environments and the experiences that comprise the tourist visit lack rationality and are part of a fragmented postmodern way of life. As it endeavors to construct exclusivity, urban tourism development slips into banality. City streetscapes become subjected to similarly prescribed methods and outcome is a culture of serial reproduction, tourist bubbles, or McDonaldization. For example, the concept of McDonaldization has received extensive attention because of its applicability to tourism (Hall and Page, 2006).

The restructuring that follows the promotion of urban tourism as an economic development tool also generates conditions of gentrification and displacement which were handled as the negative effects of urban tourism previous chapter. This spatial transformation is accompanied by changes in the social composition of the residents, a process that receives extensive coverage by sociologists and other social scientists. Urban tourism gentrification is comparable to other types of gentrification, since its general effects relate to remarking both commercial and residential areas. The infusion of entertainment and leisure activities introduces a consumption environment that in turn necessitates the formation of appropriate production processes to meet the increased demands. The genesis of these consumption demands and visitor desires do not just happen. Rather, they are part of the dynamic nature of the built environment within which the quest for growth brings about spatial and socioeconomic changes (Spirou, 2011).

4.2. Urban Change as Urban Revitalization

During the 1990s, small or large, urban, suburban, and ex-urban, all types of cities, set the tourism agenda. These cities had fund billions of dollars to rearrange their environments and promote themselves to visitors in chasing of tourism as a means of economic growth. In the process, city centers not only exposed physical transformation, but also tried residential investment as new living places emerged in dilapidated quarters. In addition to the physical standing out of central cities, the political dynamics of city center development exposed to change. The importance of

urban centers gained as hearts of consumption condensed in the last 30 years and the converting of tourism and entertainment spaces brought about the calibration of political actors, coalitions, and the styles of municipal leadership.

It is accepted that whole over the world, historic urban quarters have a special place in the cultural and historical heritage of any country, since they are coherent entities, which are clearly identified by their traditional character and architectural value. Historic urban quarters in many towns appear in all continents, and show the accomplishment of an important cross section of the globe's cultures. Historic districts have grown considerably in recent decades; moreover, the rise of the historic preservation movement helped the growth of these districts. Many cities utilize their historic status to track tourism. Most of the historic cities have starts to the renewal of public spaces to emphasize the city's heritage via the recreation of the city center by reclaiming and showcasing its historical past (Paddison, 1993). Heritage does not just mean old buildings. Simply, heritage represents the things that are wanted to be kept. However, as Glasson et al. (1995: 20) defines the situation:

“Public definition of heritage is still largely dominated by highly educated professionals with expertise in fine art, architecture, engineering, literature, music or design whose professional future is underpinned by generating an academic, problem-based, literature on the subject. This often places the professional at considerable remove from the visitor's need.”

Moreover, Tunbridge and Ashworth (1996) have also defined five features of the expanded meaning of heritage:

- A synonym for any relict physical survival of the past
- The idea of individual and collective memories in terms of non-physical aspects of the past when viewed from the present
- All accumulated cultural and artistic productivity
- The natural environment
- A major commercial activity, e.g. ‘the heritage industry’.

With certainty, a major overlap can be told between these diversified conceptions of heritage. Nevertheless, Tunbridge and Ashworth's (1996: 3) point of view is:

“There are intrinsic dangers in the rapidly extending uses of the word and in the resulting stretching of the concept to cover so much. Inevitably precision is lost, but more important is that this, in turn, conceals issues and magnifies problems intrinsic to the creation and management of heritage.”

Ironically, the uncertainty about what constitutes heritage is occurring at a time when heritage has assumed greater importance because of its relationship to identity in a constantly changing world. The formulation of what constitutes heritage is intimately related to wider political, social, economic and technological changes which appear to reflect postmodern concerns over the end of certainty and the convergence between cultural forms which were once seen as separate aspects of everyday life (Hall and Page, 2006).

The cultural heritage, hence the historic urban quarters, are increasingly threatened with destruction, not only by the traditional causes of decay, but also by changing social and economic conditions, which aggravate the situation with even more formidable phenomena of damage or destruction. As mentioned by Cohen (1988), it has also been recognized that if historical assets are not well compounded in daily life, protection enthusiasm would fail and urban centers would continue to empty: the past would simply become both a cultural stumbling block and burdensome to the public. Correctly integrating the historical elements into daily life inevitably also needs for a positive change. Recognition of the value of historic urban quarters as capital stock- in addition to their intangible aesthetic value; architectural and environmental quality; value as a part of cultural heritage; value for the continuity of the memory of cities/community- plays a crucial role in the changes in attitudes towards the protection/conservation of these areas.

Based on these arguments, it can be stated that the changing attitudes in protection of historic urban quarters has their source from two main issues: first one is change in the general meaning and essence as regards the protection of these areas: these changes

have been reflected in many international documents and declarations and constitute the backbone there of. Second one is changes in the meaning of 'historic urban quarters', which are generally located at the core of cities, as a result of the changing production processes of globalized economies: the internationalization of the world economy, fueled by the growth of trade, the development of information technology and the increasing mobility of capital and labor, has spurred the fragmentation, dispersal and re-organization of productive activities (Walks, 2001).

The change in general meaning and essence of the concept of the protection historic urban quarters, and their significance as part of a larger urban area, calls by all means, for a change in attitude, as also stated by Tiesdall et al. (1998, 22):

“Historic urban quarters should be considered as a part of an economic dynamism; they are rarely autonomously functioning zones and they usually have a symbiotic relationship with the rest of the city. They must, therefore, be considered within the context of the city as a whole, and their conservation has to be considered, not as a straightforward and restrictive concern with preservation, but as a concern with revitalization and enhancement.”

Whenever a historic area is considered as a part of the economic dynamism, it should be able to compete with the rest of the city. This would not be possible without it being revitalized.

When considering conservation and revitalization in such a relationship- protecting the cultural heritage together with the consideration of economic, social, and cultural factors that shape the historic environment- there will be a need for an area- based approach. With this type of approach an historic urban quarter would be assessed as a totality, since, beside the buildings that are worth being preserved, there are also many mundane/ neutral buildings. Not only buildings of course, as stated by Ashworth and Turnbridge (2000): *“Current and future land uses, traffic circulation and, not least, the demographic and social composition in such areas become involved in conservation issues”*. The strategic objectives of an area-based revitalization project for an historic urban quarter are very proper to the wider strategy for developing the historic/cultural and economic profile of the city in which this area is located, as well

as strengthening the area's competitiveness and broader role as a nucleus of activity in the city.

In any historic urban quarters, the buildings are constructed, or the man-made environment is created in accordance with the needs and requirements, and within the overall framework of the prevailing socio-economic, cultural and political conditions in a country in general, and/or city in particular, at any point in time. Changes in these conditions, as well as the variance in developing needs and expectations through time, would result in a mismatch or conflict between the capability of building/ group of building or the area. This mismatch, which is named as 'obsolescence', as aforementioned, leads such an area deep into the process of deterioration and decay.

'Obsolescence', which is defined by Lichfield (1988) as: "*the mismatch between the services offered by the fabric of the historic quarters and the contemporary needs*". In daily life, what is faced in historic areas are symptoms of this process, which are simply addressed as problems of the area. It is possible to identify buildings in poor conditions; non-contemporary sanitary conditions; insufficient parking spaces; uses (activities) move to more accessible districts of the cities; narrow roads; buildings used for other, less suitable purposes; changes in the pattern of ownership; changing social composition; decreasing attractiveness; high number of incompatible uses; increasing vacancy rate as the symptoms of deterioration and decay, which an historic urban quarter faces. In fact, these 'problems of the area' are reflections of obsolescence. As a result; the common features and outcomes of urban decline with respect to obsolescence can be listed as;

Tiesdell (1998: 22-26) categorizes dimension of obsolescence as under seven heads which are;

- Physical Obsolescence
- Functional Obsolescence
- Image Obsolescence

- Legal and Official Obsolescence
 - Locational Obsolescence
 - Financial Obsolescence
 - Economic Obsolescence
- **Physical Obsolescence:** Any property is subject to deterioration, which does not attract any investment means lose its value in time. This loss makes any property fragile and that is concluded as obsolescence. The reasons of depreciation of the property by referring the heritage can be listed as; weather conditions, natural disasters like earthquakes, flooding, man-made damage like fire, traffic vibration and poor maintenance (Tiesdell, et.al, 1998).
- **Functional Obsolescence:** This type of obsolescence originated from the mismatch of the existing function and the use of areas for both individual buildings and urban structures. In terms of buildings, the structure may be insufficient for existing standards such as sanitary, air conditioning or other technical infrastructure features. In addition, the function of the building can be abundant in the sense that many factory buildings or floors with artisans may be subject to functional aging. In terms of urban texture, the narrow streets of traditional urban centers and historic neighborhoods may not be adapted to motor traffic, or parking spaces may be insufficient to maintain functional sustainability; therefore, the intercity competition of domestic districts in the quarter.
- **Image Obsolescence:** There may be a change in the perception of images of buildings or neighborhoods. Since the area can be regarded as an old temperature, it can be said that the overcrowded and dense structure of the old city centers, noise and pollution may cause “outmoded” (Tiesdell, et al., 1998). Moreover, image obsolescence can be explored by not suggesting modernity as the main argument of image aging. Decreasing the readability values of the quarter image by creating new ones can also cause the image obsolescence.

- **Legal and Official Obsolescence:** In historic city centers, strict protection measures or the ignorance of the authorities in terms of the legal system can be defined as the legal obsolescence of the region. Strict measures in building facilities or zoning planning can lead to such obsolescence (Tiesdell, et al., 1998). Furthermore; large-scale redevelopment projects without adequate funding or investment planning can also lead to official ignorance and historical obsolescence.
- **Locational Obsolescence:** It is caused by the local role or location of the building or region. Access to complementary uses and the market are the main determinants of the attractiveness of the region. Therefore, shifting of the market and inadequate transportation may cause local obsolescence. This type of obsolescence is not limited to the urban area, because it can result from the fixation of a particular place due to changes in a broader accessibility scheme, labor costs and changing the economic structure of the country (Tiesdell, et al., 1998). Changing the city center may cause the old central area to age. Historic urban areas are fragile in terms of local obsolescence because other new districts of cities generally have a greater competitive advantage in terms of adapting to economic dynamics.
- **Financial Obsolescence:** Decrease in land values, buildings and other fixed assets or ignorance of the taxation system may result in financial aging in historic city centers. Since fixed capital is depreciable over time, significant depreciation is acceptable. However, material inefficiency can lead to waste before the end of the physical life of the building or area (Tiesdell et al., 1998).
- **Economic Obsolescence:** This type of obsolescence is also referred as relative obsolescence since economic obsolescence is not an absolute concept but rather a comparative situation with respect to other buildings and areas. It occurs since the cost of investment in the historical quarter is generally higher than alternative areas (Tiesdell, et al., 1998). This type of obsolescence is also called relative obsolescence, because economic obsolescence is not an absolute concept but a comparative situation in terms of other buildings and areas.

In the historical quarter, the cost of investment is usually higher than in alternative areas (Tiesdell et al., 1998). Thus; common characteristics and consequences of urban dilapidation may be examined under 9 (nine) categories. These categories are poverty and unemployment, segregation and overcrowding, vacancy and decrease in ownership rates, disinvestment and economic decline, changing land use, decline of public education, decline in social infrastructure, population loss and instable population, high crime rates.

Determining the type and degree of obsolescence of historical urban areas, which is not taken into account when defining the problem, is essential for the deciding the type of conservation. Because most of the problems that cannot be detected - such as discordant uses; vacancy; overcrowded; decreasing ownership rate; aging of the population; population instability; an increase in the number of housing occupied by non-local people; high crime rates; lack of adequate facilities; unattractive abandoned areas - take their roots from different types of obsolescence. This list of problems may be extended depending on local conditions. Without understanding the origin/s of these many problems, any intervention policy that will be developed to preserve and revitalize a historic urban neighborhood can be useless.

Revitalization, simply, can be defined as: "the process by which the mismatch between the services provided by the structure of historical neighborhoods and the contemporary needs can be reconciled" (Tiesdell et al. 1998). The mismatch might have its source in the physical fabric, or in the economic activities within the fabric. These two different types of mismatch entail different measures towards revitalization:

- Physical revitalization: adaptation of the physical fabric to contemporary requirements through various modes of renewal.
- Economic revitalization: utilization and purposeful occupation of the improved/ enhanced building stock (through physical revitalization) to sustain

revitalization in a long-term perspective, and to enable the area to compete with the rest of the city.

Depending on the degree of mismatch and the internal/external dynamics that a specific historic urban quarter faces, three different types of modes of renewal in terms of economic activity, that will be referred to as strategic approaches in this study, can be pursued:

- Functional restructuring: changes in occupation with new uses or activities replacing the former ones.
- Functional diversification: keeping the existing uses to some extent and introducing some new ones.
- Functional regeneration: existing uses remain but operate more efficiently or profitably (Tiesdell et al., 1998).

The physical space and social space are at the core of the revitalization of historical urban quarters. Tiesdell et al (1998) supports that the revitalization of physical fabric as well as putting into action of uses of buildings and spaces is necessary. Physical revitalization which can be called as “make-up effect” may ensure a positive addition in short term. Nevertheless, productive utilization of the private realm demands economic revitalization also. But it can be said that physical revitalization has also an important role due to the fact that it creates appeal and maintenance of the public realm. With inadequate investment, unhealthy physical environments can cause negative perceptions and additionally weaken the economic condition with a cyclical decline. Tiesdell, et al., (1998) supports that investment in physical structure will help prevent the vicious circle of negative image and socioeconomic decline. Physical actions can attract inward investments and promote existing commercial activities and residential use in economic competition with a better image.

In addition, historical urban quarters are fragile to locational obsolescence that it requires to develop competitive advantage for that location relative to other areas. New

uses or activities replacing the former ones by functional restructuring are an option to make the area economically and physically competitive. Alternatively, functional regeneration that means keeping the existing uses in more efficient ways can improve competitiveness. Functional diversification by bringing new uses to area which is able to harmonize and support the existing economic character of the quarter may also help to eliminate the locational obsolescence (Tiesdell, et.al., 1998).

4.3. Urban Change-Revitalization: Sample Projects

For various reasons, conservation and revitalization of the historic urban quarters in other words, the tourist-historic cities are desirable. Revitalization helps the improvement of the dilapidated condition namely mismatch of the uses and fabric results as obsolescence. Different modes of revitalization can be implemented regarding to needs of the area such as a physical revitalization or functional restructuring. Three important examples will be examined according to diversity of approaches adopted. The first one is Marais, France, the second one is Bologna, Italy and the last one is Antalya, Turkey.

4.3.1. Marais, France

The Marais is the first conservation area in France (Tiesdell et al, 1998; Doratlı, 2000), the first plan produced between 1965 and 1967 by the architects L. Arretche, B. Vitry, M. Marot and M. Minost (Kain, 1978). The legislation allows limited intervention to the area or the buildings without any permission, no new construction or alteration the appearance of building would take place *“to ensure that the district’s picturesque historic character would be conserved and enhanced, formal approval was required from the State for all future changes to buildings in or bordering the secteur. Moreover, the State was given absolute power to enforce any demolition or preservation of any building or part of any building”* (Ellis, 1990: 28 cited in Tiesdell et. al, 1998: 104).

Marais, before the revitalization projects, was in a demolished position with old and unsanitary condition buildings. The area was in poor hygienic condition physically, dwellings were under standards means uncontemporary condition functionally and residents left the area to live better conditions; to suburbs. So, the first plan, figure 4.1, based on physical rehabilitation and restoration of the quarter's historic environment, prior to cut away the accretions, additions and overbuilding of the 19th century and return the Marais to its eighteenth-century state that courtyards, squares and gardens of famous Plan Turgot (Kain, 1978; Tiesdell, 1998).

However, it would mean clearance not just physically, also socially. This destruction was later postponed and what follows changes to the plan took a less fixed physical approach to revitalization with provisions that respected and recognized Marais' vibrant atmosphere and social mix. *“The aim was not just to physically rehabilitate thousands of buildings but also to stabilize and preserve the traditional demographic mix of the area. Furthermore, a more flexible approach was adopted towards curettage in order to encourage small businesses to remain in the area”* (Tiesdell, et al., 1998: 106).

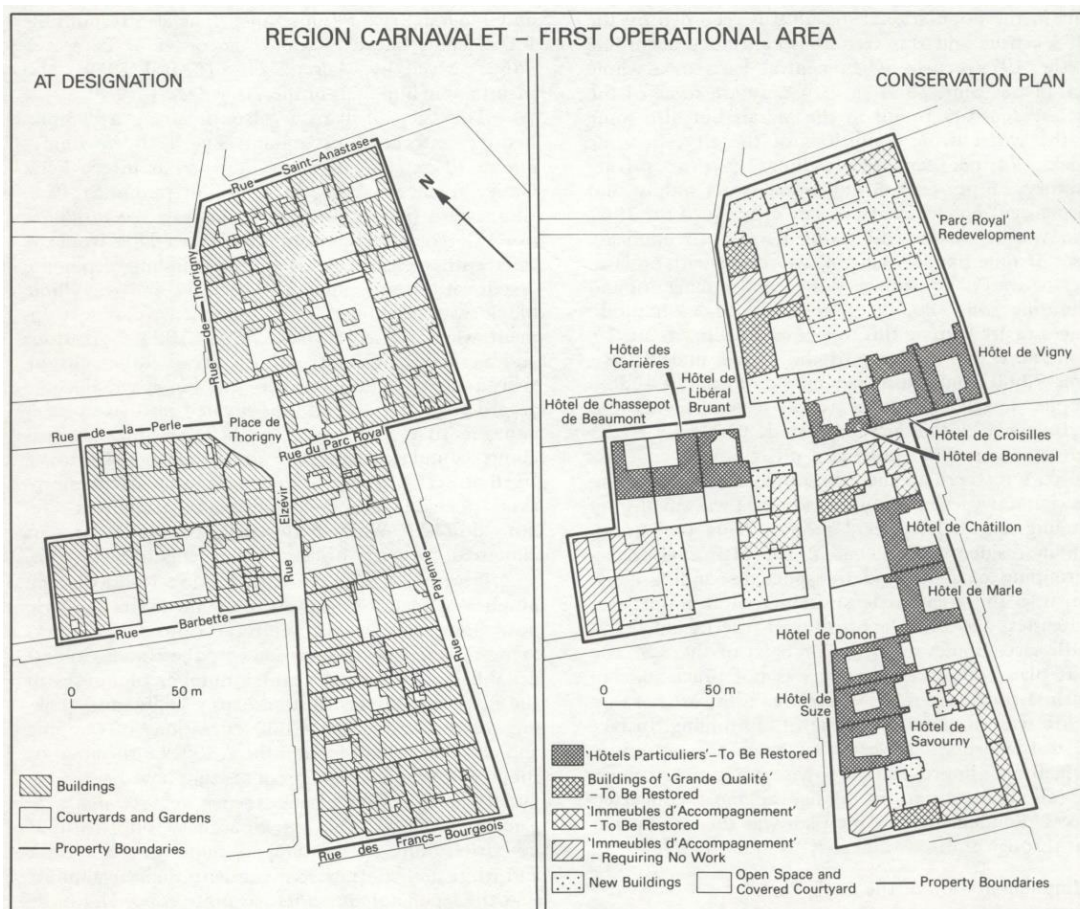


Figure 4.1. First operational area at Marais

4.3.2. Bologna, Italy

The second example belongs to central Bologna, Italy, same as Marais, crowded and substandard conditions dwellings took place. Same as Marais, bigger part of the population moved out to suburbs and rest of indigenious; many families had lived there for generations. Nevertheless, young population chose to leave the area due to the poor physical conditions although the area located in the historic core.

In 1969, Bologna accepted a comprehensive, long term programmed of development via the adoption of a new master plan for the city, figure 4.2. The primary aim was the total rehabilitation and restoration of the substantial built fabric of the city, together with the sufficiently knitted social services and equipment, and, creation of a more

habitable environment. Moreover, in addition to well integrate transport and land-use patterns, the entire revitalization process was connected to the continuation of the pre-existing functional and social pattern. This plan aimed to create alternative development to the new speculative development and suburban development so as to speak keeping the development inside the city (Tiesdell, et al., 2000).

Due to the range of the plan, covered thirteen areas, the implementation has become overbuilt and unattractive for private investment. The authorities suggested a plan to nationalize property in the central city, rehabilitate with public funds and according to that use it as public housing. The first plan which was detailed submitted in 1972. Nevertheless, due to the inadequate government fund, the plan did not work out, especially, homeowners contested the action. A revised plan was released in 1973, nationalization remained for vacant dwellings and that were at risk; however, the authorities change the plan to one of government assistance and prioritized a long-term covenant to save tenants from eviction or increasing rent. But they could not save the composition of social life which changed during the renovation time due to the reducing family housing and increasing quantity of flats resulted more students and single households (Dorath, 2000).

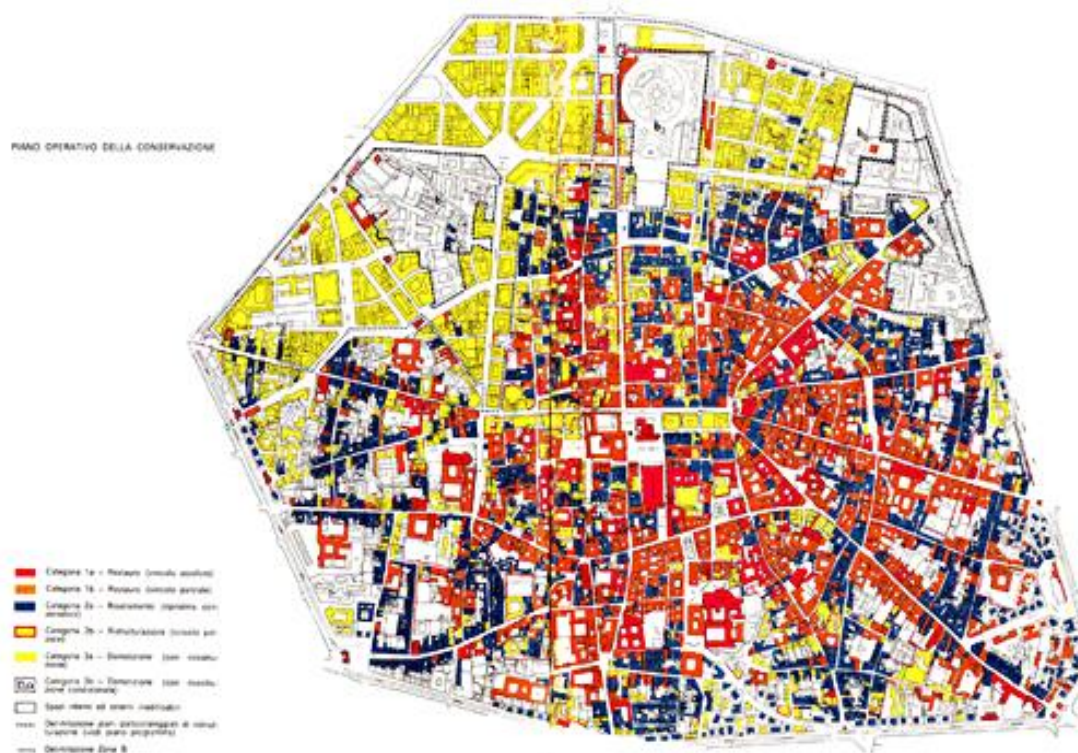


Figure 4.2. Urban Conservation Plan of Bologna
(http://www.fredmussat.fr/e-proceedings2_dec09/mirror_of_modernity_bravo.htm)

4.3.3. Antalya, Turkey

The last example is Antalya whose inner castle area's conservation project has been prepared by, a team consisting of Gönül Tankut, Murat Balamir, Özcan Esmer and Ülker Çopurs from METU completed the plan in 1979. Before the project, inner castle area was in a poor condition, about to decline and deterioration could be observed. Decreasing ownership caused the lack of maintenance so obsolescence had started. Although inner castle area was at the good location, owners moved out and the place was not attractive anymore to live. Potential of the historicity or closeness to the other facilities had not been used which made the conservation situation hard (Doratlı, 2000). However, in an international meeting in Strasbourg on historic towns, mayor made a presentation of Antalya that captivated the great interest from the audience. This interest caused for an international credit of the UN, which would provide for the completion of the project. The project aimed to use the potential of the historicity and

culture, economic and social activities were revived and resulted touristic activities were increased at the area. Revitalization project of the historic urban quarter was not only bringing different component together, but also it enabled the resident higher and modern living standards (Doratlı, 2000).

Nevertheless, the chance was gone by the last coup d'état in the country in 1980 (Alpan, 2013). In the military period, the credit proposed by the UN was forgotten and the dilapidated of the Walled-Town continued. In 1984, the Yacht Harbor Project was completed and the yacht harbor was opened. Nevertheless, a number of crises took place which affected the nature of the environment. The first one was the 1990 Gulf Crisis and subsequent one was the Gulf War in 1991. Next, whole country encountered with PKK terrorism especially in the coastal areas in 1993-1994. *“These crises caused ambiguity in the tourism sector; as a result, the all-inclusive system became a rescuing factor for the tourist accommodation facilities and more facilities started to operate through it”* (Alpan, 2013: 224).

Beginning with the 1990s, tourism policies began to change to promote cultural and alternative tourisms that the crises resulted the decline of the demand and decay in the quality of tourists. Along with the abandonment of the yacht harbor, the quality of functions and the users in the inner castle area started to demolish, letting illegal functions enter the area, such as drug-usage and prostitution. Since few local residents continued to live in the area, the natural environment also declined that enabled the rise of unwanted uses, which estranged the tourists from the area, as well the local residents of Antalya (Alpan, 2013).

The revised plan, shown at figure 4.3, needed and declared that the inner castle area got lost its residential function due to the extensive number of tourist facilities spilling out of the zones that the 1979 plan had indicated. Upon this, increasing the residential use of the area was suggested and the listed buildings which could get a tourism-oriented function were decided. In spite of the vision the 1992 Revised Plan, the inner castle continued to be improved the tourism-based activities, accompanied by night

clubs and, bars which caused the increase of new conflicts among the civilian stakeholders, such as the residential or tourism-based accommodation units and the operators of the noisy facilities. Lack of control by the authority and police, rampant bribery, disregard of several chiefs of police, and the opening and operation of unlicensed businesses set off these conflicts, also carrying the issue to a fight between the official and civilian stakeholders, a process still continuing today (Alpan, 2013).

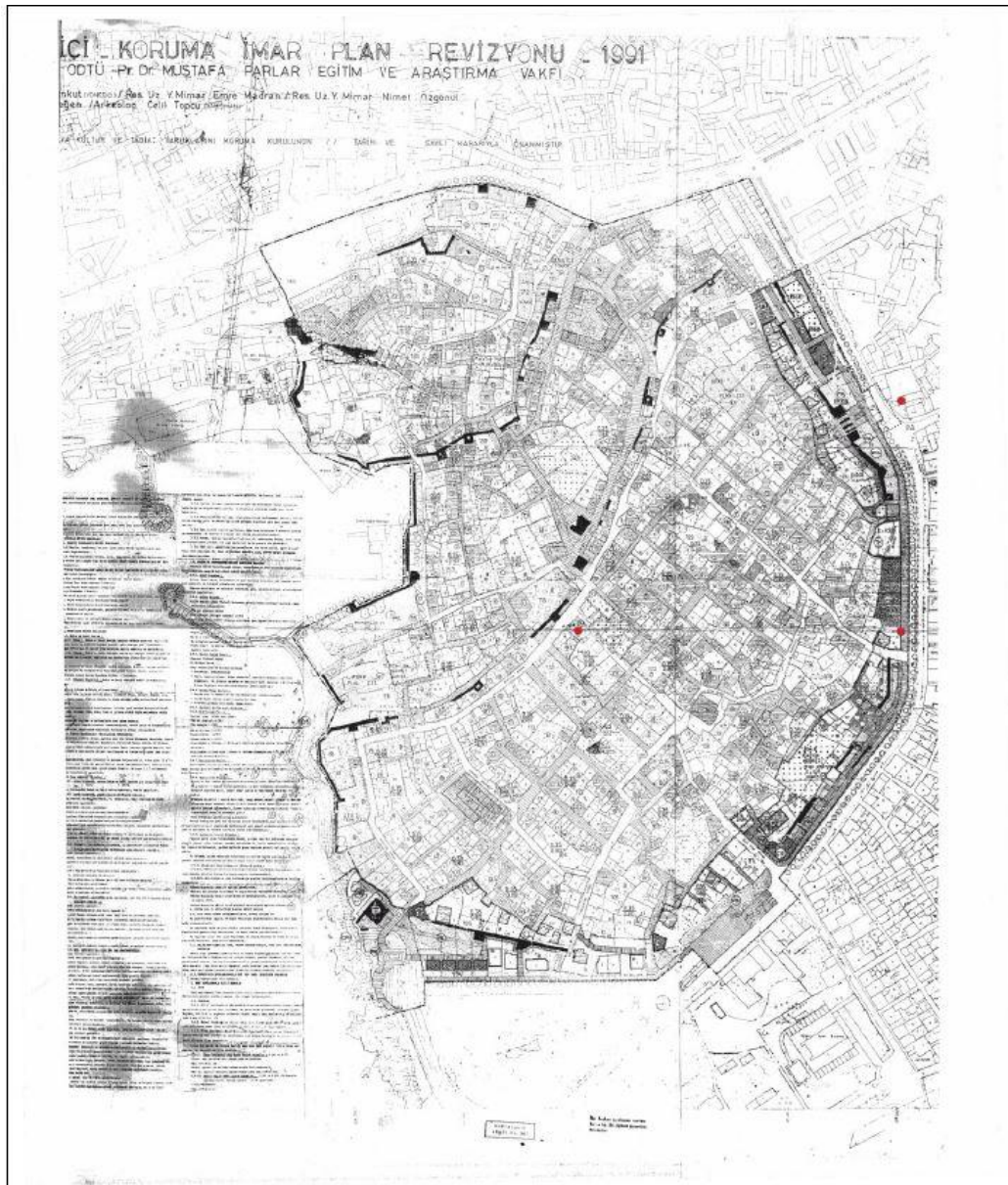


Figure 4.3. Revised conservation plan of inner castle area

4.4. Evaluation from Theories and Examples

The revitalization of historic urban quarters has been on the agenda more than three decades. These quarters have a remarkable sense of place, vibrant ambience comes from their history, architectural style and townscape. Many of the historic cities are now being revitalized to make the environment more livable, staminal and dynamic part of the cities with well-integrated policies. To make the area more vital, new functions such as housing or tourism related facilities have to added. The more balance gets, the livelier places have. When the historic cities gain the importance again, as turning to attractive and desirable places, the investment accordingly comes after. It is a comprehensive approach which does not cover just one dimension; multitude of motives. Although there is not a single approach, no standard formula or a constant model. Kotler, et al., (1993: 20) cited in Tiesdell et al., (1998: 201) mentioned that;

“No two places are likely to sort out their strategies, use of their resources, define their products, or implement their plans in the same way. Places differ in their histories, cultures, politics, leadership, and particular ways of managing public- private relationships”.

According to explanation that mentioned above, there is no single model. The process of revitalization depends on the cities' obsolescence that begins with the understanding and becoming aware of the specific dimensions of it. Obsolescence is a mismatch of physical and economical change in time related to immobility of building and places. Appropriate strategies, concerning the character of the historic cities, generate the investment for revitalization and conservation. Examining the three sample projects, some results can be inferred accordingly. Although their natures are different from each other, there are common aspects that can be underlined.

First of all, physical intervention/ revitalization is the main concern for all of them. A catchy heritage is a very important resource that makes people want to visit including historic buildings and cityscapes as well as cultural associations and ambience from the past. The historic character of these cities and the nature of the growth of the cities made them vulnerable towards the spatial changes. Dilapidated conditions, illegal or

unwanted facilities are the destiny of the historic cities at a certain time. For Paris case, first suggestion for the revitalization of the physical environment was to demolish the overbuilding of 19th century additions. The did not implement this option, as mentioned above, kept the building stocks as existing situation. Still, it has been considered as conservation equals deportation. Marais is the one of the best examples that enables the balance between local and the visitors and between residential and the commercial activities.

Bologna case covers, repairing and rehabilitating, but at the same time façade and the style of the buildings as architectural typology was preserved even though it has been thought as conservation is revolution. Different from others, Bologna's plan is much wider. Antalya, inner castle area conservation plan proposed physical revitalization by changing the façade and functional diversification which was planned to bring the economic vitality to the area. At the same time, residential use was absence, thus the plan gave more emphasis on, land-use changes took place. In this example, Antalya's conservation process took long time compared to others. Three examples showed us the importance of the housing functions as it was explained in the theory of the tourist-historic cities. There has to be balance between commercial and the residential uses. Otherwise the area would be degraded and lack of maintenance. So, the size and characteristic of the local population is another common feature. Many tourism resources have been developed for and are maintained, at least in part for the local population. The richer the population, the better these resources are likely to be.

To solve the locational and image obsolescence of these three areas; Marais, central Bologna and Antalya, tried to put some functional changes which brings the growth and utilization of the historical building stock. Linked with uniqueness of every project is the necessity for a strong image, without which the potential visitor will not be aware of a place or want to visit. Although the size and the characteristic of local business economy differs from one place to another place, it is important ingredients for the development of the historic cities. Leadership and partnership are another issue that has to be analyzed. Having a strategic vision is fundamental if a city is to proceed

in the development of tourism resources and in the promotion of them to visitors. Three examples present the role of government and authorities like mayors, planners to be patient and visionary as well as decisive to be able to implement the big changes. The size and characteristic of the local population. Many tourism resources have been developed for and are maintained, at least in part for the local population, from museums to restaurants. The richer the population, the better these resources are likely to be. The size and characteristic of local business economy. High order business activities will stimulate business travel and corporate meetings. Business travel has often been the initial stimulus for the development of air routes and hotels, which later can be used by the leisure traveler.

Next issue is regional and state factors means capital cities, as vitrine for the state, draw on much greater funding, both public and private, than other cities, for any type of cultural activities such as museums, theaters and special events, which is to their great benefits as regards tourism resources. Funding is the most concrete issue for the projects to make them real. Bologna and Antalya cases showed that without any resource, there will not be any progress or development which were described above. Last feature is the social revitalization that transforms the historic areas to lively and vital places. To create a vibrant urban quarter, suitable land-use decision has to be taken. To give an example, for Antalya case, the bars or night clubs are the inconvenient uses for the rest of the neighborhoods.

To sum up, the theories; both the tourist-historic cities, urban tourism effects and the revitalization projects have highlighted the same frame. The urban tourism, as popular concept and the important economic indicator for the development of cities, has been observed the most concrete way in the historic cities. History has a value and every city has its own story, history; heritage. Cities have experienced growth, change and decay. Historical parts of the cities are the most vulnerable parts; so, their physical environment and accordingly economic character have been affected from this decay. After a point, the area has become useless and dilapidated. Urban revitalization

projects are the tools for the change of the faces which have a series of outcomes as shown figure 4.4. This process was valid for three examples that were analyzed this chapter and is valid also for Hamamönü which is the case study of the thesis and will be examined in the next chapter.

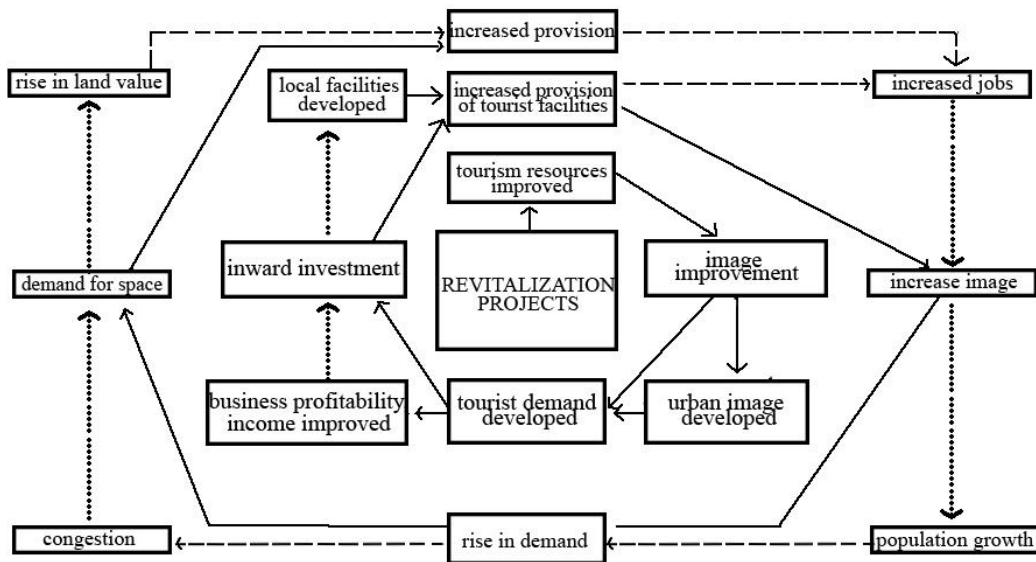


Figure 4.4. The relations between revitalization projects and outcomes

CHAPTER 5

CASE STUDY: HAMAMÖNÜ

“Bir kentte hayran kaldığın şey onun yedi ya da yetmiş yedi harikası değil, senin ona sorduğun bir soruya verdiği yanıtıdır.”

Italo Calvino, Görünmez Kentler

5.1. Spatial Development of Ankara

After the proclamation of the Republic, Ankara served as a stage for creating models in every field. Atatürk expressed the importance of Ankara's reconstruction process as follows: 'Ankara, the capital of the Republic, needs rapid reconstruction. In the work of a new and modern state, order and efficiency can be achieved in a civilized development. Just as the existence of the country certainly required Ankara to become a government, the rapid development and reconstruction of the capital of the Republic made it compulsory. In fact, establishing and constructing the general and official spaces required by private administration by years will be both a perceptual necessity and saving from the separation of a great resource (Geray, 2003).

Modernization and solidifying the nation to the other cities of Turkey in his own body "sample" to target the city began to work form. The aim in this city is not only to be an icon, but to be a capital city that can fulfill all the functions of the new world understandings and reflect the lifestyle appropriate for it. For this reason, it is necessary to establish a new Ankara independent of the old Ankara which carries the existing historical and organic development within it (Tankut, 1993). The election of Ankara as a capital has brought many important developments in terms of the physical, economic, social and cultural aspects of the city as well as the social dimension it carries. Public institutions and bureaucracy that grew rapidly with the capitalization

of Ankara formed a new social group, civil servant mass kit. Furthermore, since the establishment of the capital created a huge construction site, it also created a significant employment boom in the construction sector. In addition, with the emergence of the services required by modern city life, the socio-cultural structure of the city as well as the physical structure of the city have started to be reshaped (Ankara Metropolitan Municipality, 2015).

When the development of Ankara's urban macroform is evaluated, it is found that there is an uncontrolled development in the form of oil stain, especially after the Republic, due to both population growth and rapid urbanization. The first intervention was made by German architect and urbanist Carl Christoph Lörcher.

5.1.1. Lörcher Plan (1924-1932) Transformation of Old Ankara, Establishment of New City

The Lörcher plan came up with the design of the New City as a district of administration as a result of the pressure that the city's growing population demand has attempted to place in and around the old city. The "new city" to be established is to create an ideological contrast to the "old city" with its clean, wide boulevards, majestic buildings and modern sports facilities. Therefore, the direction of growth of the city is designed to the south; management and the state institutions to be brought by the administration.

As a result, the Lörcher Plan of 1924-25, which is shown in Figure 4.1, in the 'Old City' area, has a lasting effect on the tissue even if not implemented; roads and axes, regions and urban space qualities are designed and partially implemented. In the new city 'region, besides the acquisition of state institutions by the public hand, it is aimed to emerge the model (sample) residential settlement, which is an important trend of that period, the garden-urban approach and consists of two-storey garden houses. Although it is not planned to meet the housing demands of the period, Lörcher stands in a different place in history with its important axes, Yenikent, meaning and first plan loaded on the old city (Anonymous, 2019h). German planner Jansen came first

as a result of a planning contest to meet unpredictable population growth and urban demands over time.

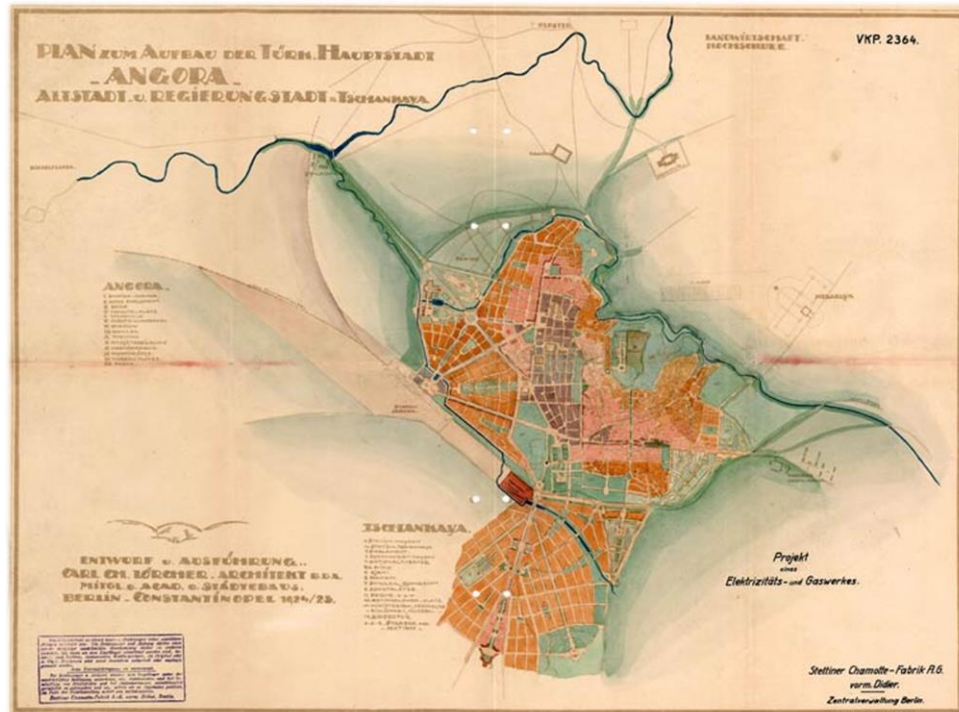


Figure 5.1. First Plan of Ankara
(<http://www.goethe.de/ins/tr/ank/prj/urs/geb/sta/loe/trindex.htm>)



Figure 5.2. İstasyon Street

5.1.2. Jansen Plan (1932-1957) Within the Limits of Likelihood

Jansen, who remained largely loyal to Lörcher's plan decisions, envisioned a residential development in the Yenışehir Kavaklıdere axis, where the civil servants would live, without any further intervention in Old Ankara. This approach, which foresees the formation of a green axis passing in the east-west direction, aims to develop Ankara as a medium-low density Garden City, Beautiful City. He tried to place the search for the green axis in the east-west direction to the natural thresholds and determinants in the north-south axis, which he saw as the main development axis of the city.

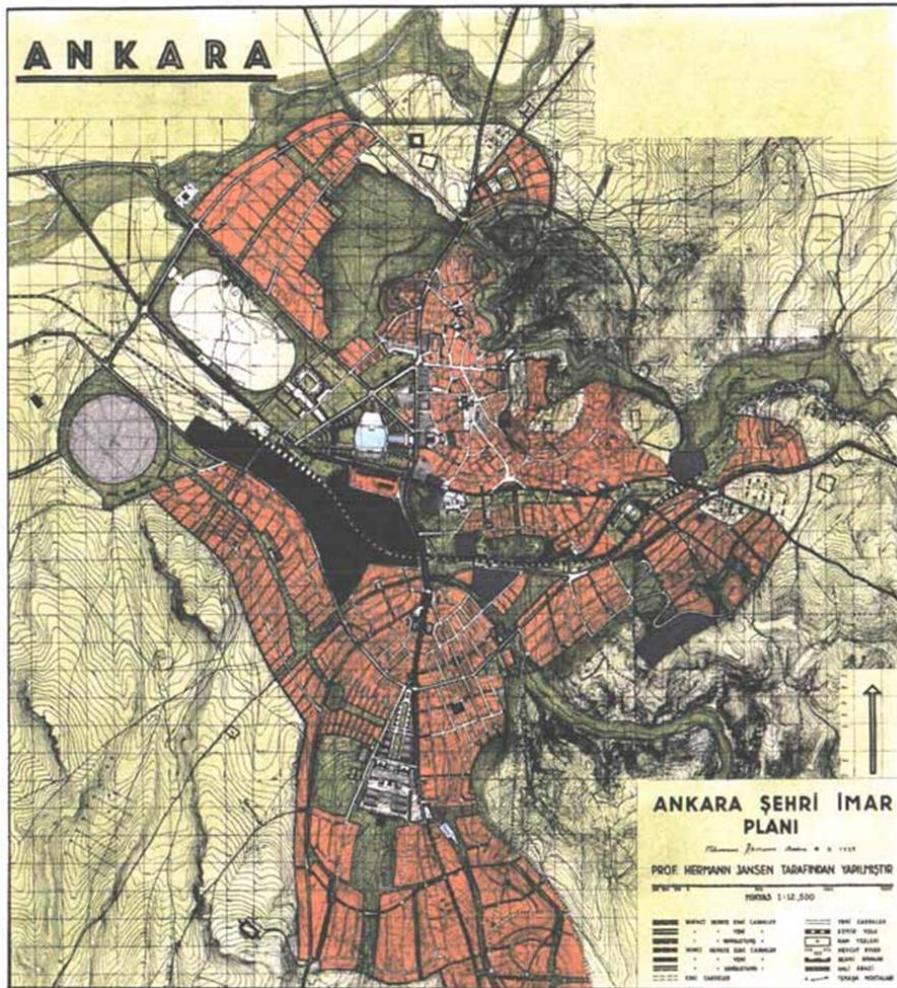


Figure 5.3. Jansen Plan; two axes, east-west; green, north-south; government
(<https://www.ankara.bel.tr/files/6513/4726/6062/2-tarihce.pdf>)

With the rapid migration, which is the main factor that prepares the erosion that the plan undergoes every day, the plan's prediction of 1978 was reached approximately 30 years ago, and the finding of new settlement areas became inadequate by defining the areas defined in the plan. This task of finding new housing areas is read from the Bahçelievler area, in efforts to create new workers' quarters, and in the later years with the formation of residential areas such as oil stains added to the slums of the macroform and the existing tissue (Anonymous 2019h).

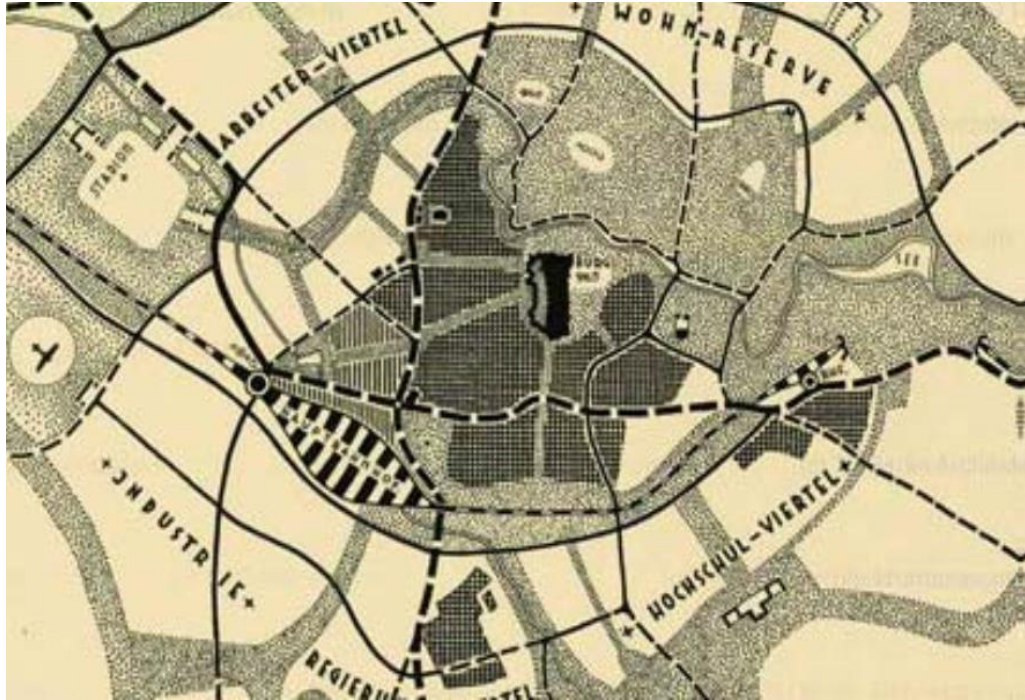


Figure 5.4. Hamamönü at Jansen Plan
(<http://www.goethe.de/ins/tr/ank/prj/urs/geb/sta/jan/trindex.htm>)

With this plan, the old urban fabric was completely renewed in the west of the Citadel and around Hacıbayram, resulting in a high and continuous structure along the streets and the inner areas returned to the collapse areas. The new residential areas proposed by the green axles and grid systems in the south of Talatpaşa Boulevard were partially realized in the areas adjacent to today's Dumlupınar Avenue in the 1950s, but were not implemented in the traditional fabric around Erzurum Street, Sarıkadı Street and Hacettepe Hospital in the district of Hamamönü (Arslan, 2012).

The plan, which lags behind the development of the city, has created the need for a new plan. As a result of the international competition organized by Ankara Municipality in 1955, the plan prepared by Nihat Yücel and Raşit Uybadin was approved (Anonymous 2019h).

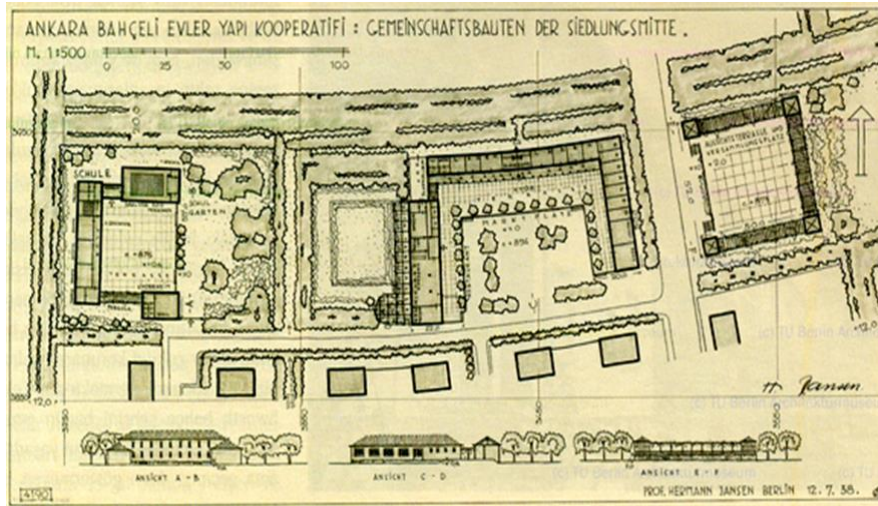


Figure 5.5. Jansen Garden City Ankara example 1
(<http://psi203.cankaya.edu.tr/uploads/files/Kansu,%20Bahcelievler.PDF>)

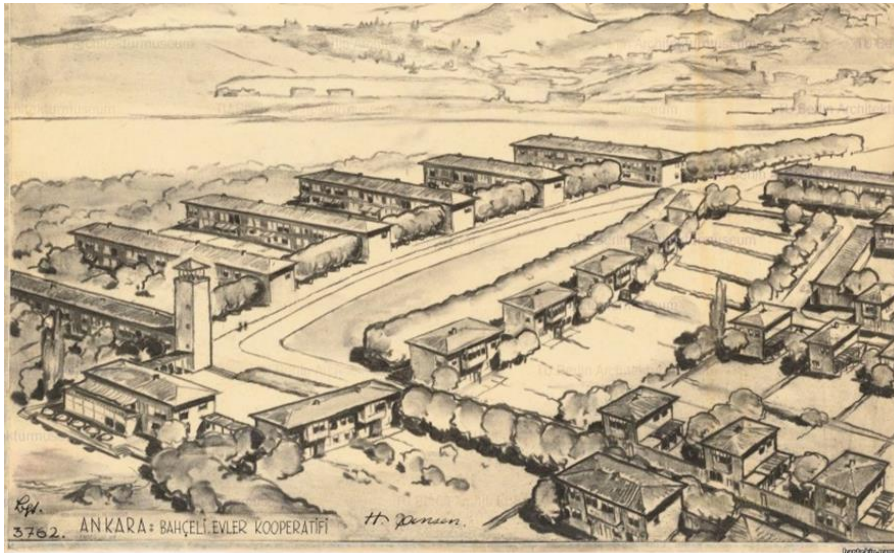


Figure 5.6. Jansen Garden City Ankara example 2
(<http://psi203.cankaya.edu.tr/uploads/files/Kansu,%20Bahcelievler.PDF>)

5.1.3. Uybadin- Yücel Plan (1957-1970) Demolish, density increase period

In Uybadin-Yucel plan, urban development was kept within the municipal boundaries and the central Red Crescent was accepted. In 1961, the Regional Floor Ordinary Plan was started to be implemented, the density was further increased and the parcels were combined to enable multi-storey buildings. However, due to problems such as topography and fragmented property, the old urban fabric could not be reconstructed, it was stuck between the new structures. Reconstruction practices that could be realized were aimed at completely demolishing and restructuring.

In Ankara, which has become a city of slums, dolmus and street vendor's pushcart, due to the inability of urban development and technical infrastructures to respond to the demand, due to the period in which the migrants started to meet their own needs; unplanned and distorted urban texture (Anonymous 2019h).

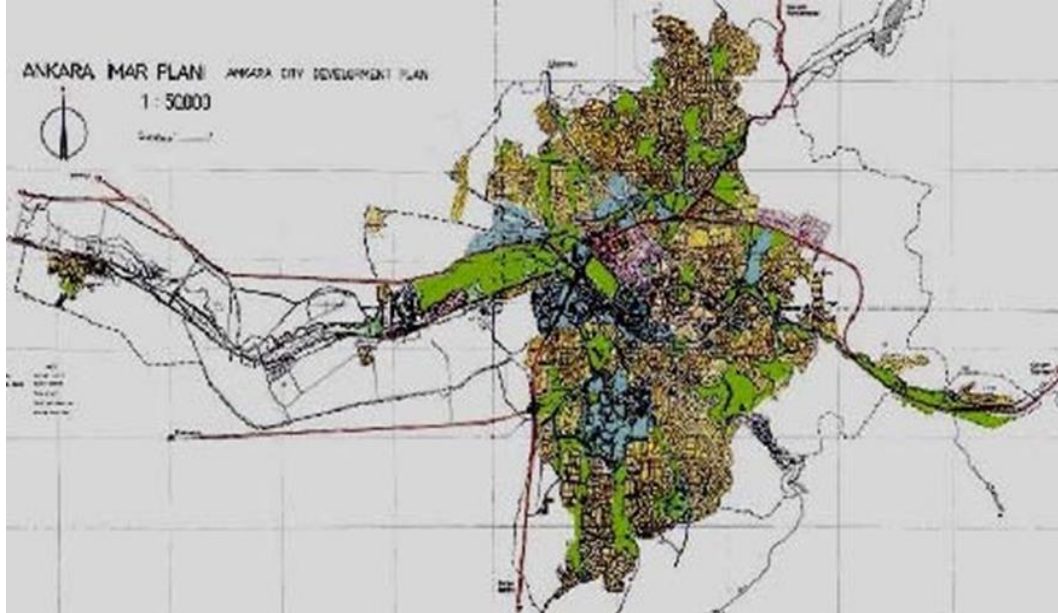


Figure 5.7. Uybadin -Yucel Plan and spatial development proposal
(<http://ankaratarihi.blogspot.com/2009/12/ankara-kent-makro-formunun-olusumu-ve.html>)

The most basic prediction of the Yücel-Uybadin plan in the context of the shaping of the urban system and macroform has been the prediction of the so-called Konya-Samsun Road, which constitutes the most basic transportation backbone of the city today. The prediction of this road system, which for this period, reached the direction of Etlik, Ulus and Kazıkıçı, Bahçelievler and Balgat in terms of Mamak and Konya, was an important acceleration in which the planned and unplanned housing developments on the routes passed also served and served as a basic curtain that shaped the city's macroform. It has moved. The slum tendencies outside the boundaries of the municipality have prepared the formation of important slum areas which have not been transformed even today, especially in the north of the proposed ring road, in the hills where treasury lands are located and in the new settlements that surround the city from all directions and this process is the main element that forms an urban macroform that grows like an oil stain city. In addition, with this plan, the densities were increased, floor heights were not suitable for the historical texture, small parcels were combined and large floor areas were formed and apartment building started in the vicinity of Hamamönü (Arslan 2012).

With the Ankara Metropolitan Area Master Plan Bureau (AMAMPB), which was established in 1969 by the Council of Ministers under the Ministry of Construction and Settlement, a metropolitan-scale planning study started in Ankara together with İstanbul and İzmir. Trapped in the topographic bowl, Ankara experienced a transition from a medium-sized urban identity to a metropolitan form with the inadequacy of the approved plan in these years when the urbanization rate tripled the national average. New plans and solutions were sought for them (Anonim 2019k).

5.1.4. 1990 Master Plan (1970-2006)

The plan, which started to be prepared in 1970, is more like a structural plan; that is, it has established a realistic approach and a guiding framework for the problems identified and observed. The main objective of the plan is to direct the development trapped on the north-south axis out of the bowl connected to a main corridor and to

contribute to the minimization of the environmental problems faced by the western corridor, mainly air pollution. This framework; The balance and weight of the city has shifted to the axis of Istanbul road with its large residential areas and industrial zones such as Batıkent, Eryaman and Sincan.

The western corridor, which still maintains its current status as the most important settlement and study area of the city, is the radical result of finding an uncontrolled form of oil stain. While the 1990 plan proposed this radial corridor, although it took the eastern steps, it did not offer a direct solution to the existing city center (the decentralization of the Red Crescent) and the slum problem and was responsible for the problems caused by this deficiency. The main problems of the period were the fact that construction rent and land speculation led to the urban space, and the shanty houses turned into attraction centers in 4-5 storeys without garden, without parking, and this led to more shanty houses, more houses and more transformations (Anonim 2019l).

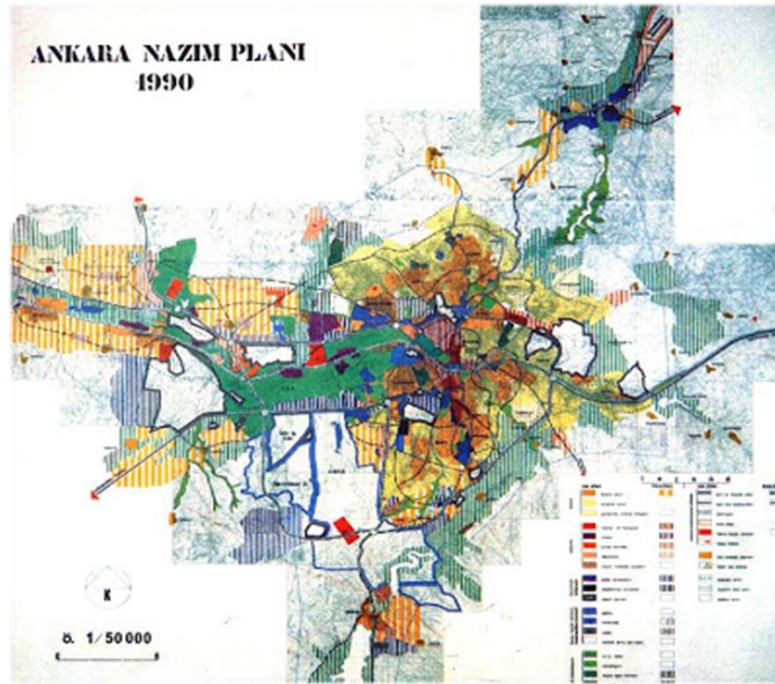


Figure 5.8. 1990 Ankara Master Plan
<http://ankaratarihi.blogspot.com/2009/12/ankara-kent-makro-formunun-olusumu-ve.html>

5.1.5. 2015 Structural Plan

The problems created by Ankara's macroform after the 1980s both due to the influence of national policies and the changing boundaries of metropolitan cities caused chaos and lowered the quality of life in urban areas. In order to prepare transportation master plan to solve this problem, a structural group was prepared in 2015 by a research group formed by the Department of City and Regional Planning, Middle East Technical University. At first, it has defined principles for solving the air pollution problem of Ankara trapped in the topographic bowl, repairing the distorted work-settlement relations and defining macro targets and implementation tools related to urban transportation, even though it has started with the purpose of providing input to the transportation plan. These are:

- Location selection processes of public institutions,
- Organizational forms of urban transport,
- Control of infrastructure systems and land prices,
- Center formation,
- Industry is the choice of place

By examining the processes that affect this kind of urban macroform, he found that “decentralization is not only a normative desire Ankara but a tendency that enables changes in the processes Ankara (Anonim 2019l).

The development trend of the city was emphasized that a radial form of urban development, specialized in the main focal points developing along the corridors, was the most important expansions regarding the decentralization needed by the city. This scheme, which determines the formation of aeration corridors with green wedges between the radiated corridors, and that these openings to be protected and the city macroform to be saved from the form of oil stains will be beneficial for the solution of the city's air pollution problem as well as for transportation and work-settlement relations; although the 1990 Ankara Master Plan has been the main principle, the

central corridor has been developed, but despite its strategy of developing the western corridor, it has foreseen a decentralized structure in the north, north-east and south, considering the current trend of development in Ankara. Technology-intensive industry focus in the south, important work focuses in the west, a focus gathering industry developments in the north, defense industry and heavy industry in the east are the corridors and focus proposals of this plan. However, connections to a metropolitan center or urban core and corridor remain weak. In addition, the problem of the proposed ring road to serve these purposes has largely been dysfunctional. Decentralization envisaged by the confusion of authority and the approval of the site development plan has become an uncontrolled spread and a completely different picture has emerged (Anonim 2019l).

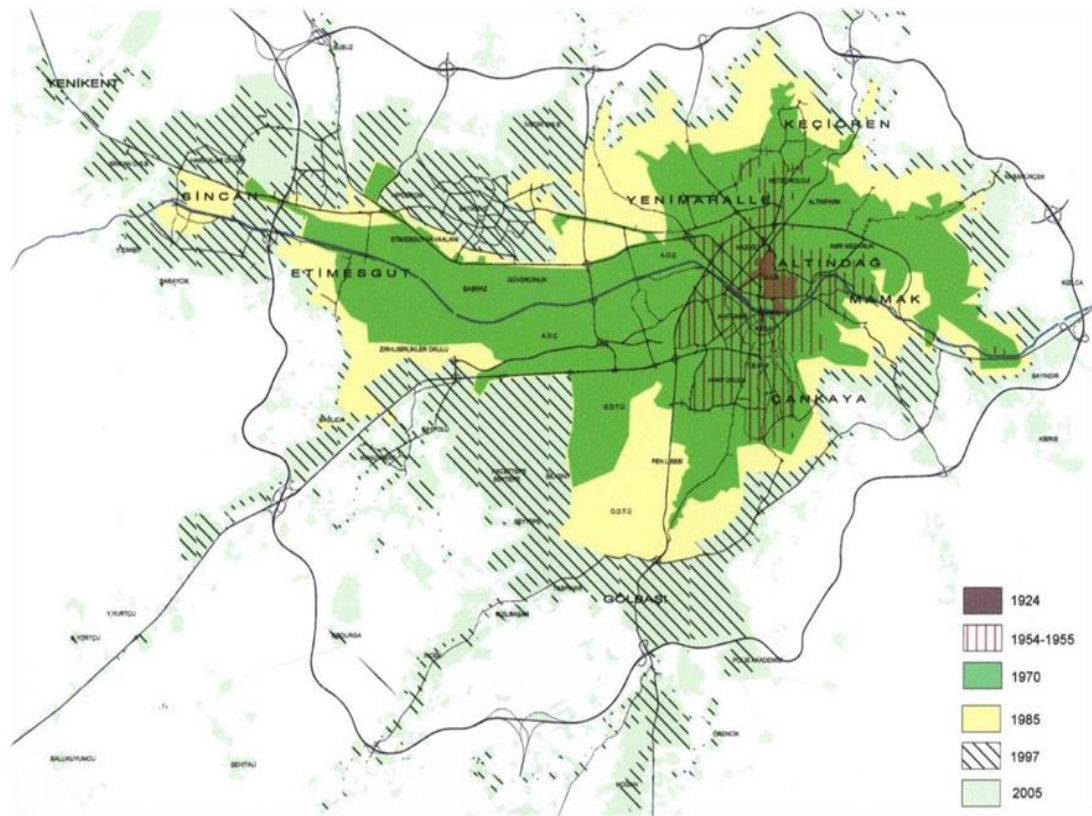


Figure 5.9. 2015 plan
(<https://www.ankara.bel.tr/files/3113/4726/6297/3-makroform.pdf>)

5.1.6. 2023 Capital Ankara Master Plan

The 2023 Capital City Ankara Master Plan, which is the first master plan approved by the city of Ankara after 1990, “Preserves and develops its natural, environmental, historical and cultural heritage; offering high quality to urban citizens in every aspect of urban life; develop a participatory approach to urban decision-making; science, culture, service center, world city, Capital Ankara”. Within the framework of this vision, some goals have been determined. In order to achieve the vision of becoming a Kent world city plan, the plan, which sets targets for participation in economic, social, spatial and urban life, and strategies related to this, has also been determined. These are:

- In Ankara, where the services sector in Turkey offers the most advanced sectorial distribution structure, the establishment of support and guidance mechanisms to develop urban services in education, science, health, culture and related sectors
- Developing special projects for the development of cultural industries that can create the cultural city of Ankara in accordance with the capital's identity and values, and providing appropriate spatial opportunities
- Encouraging structures that prevent urban disintegration by interpreting the problem areas identified within the city as a whole and the proposed special projects as an opportunity for an integrated urban renewal.
- Since the 80s, despite the fact that it is stuck in the “main bowl ve and needs to be decentralized to defined foci, Ankara has experienced an urban sprawl rather than a real decentralization. options
- Identifying the causes of inequalities in the social structure and developing and implementing social research projects
- Research and implementation of short, medium and long-term socio-spatial policies that will increase spatial quality, urgently solve social equipment

requirements in slum areas where inequalities increase and urban poverty is high.

- Selecting urbanization policies that will ensure the absolute protection of natural, environmental, ecological assets and values is not the kind of protection that development endures; basing on a development permitted by protection
- Choosing a transportation policy that will improve the public transport system and manage the transportation demand.
- Determination of urban development project areas with socio-economic, socio-cultural contents and local development qualifications on a master plan scale and implementation in the context of urban whole requirements.

In order to read a city, its physical form needs to be examined. Urban form can only be understood in the historical process; because its elements are constantly transforming and changing. Ankara is constantly in a change and crossing the boundaries of the city day by day. The binding of upper scale decisions in the mechanisms shaping the space and the loss of the impact of the holistic approach on the parts should be seen as the main source of the fragmentary approaches today. Spatial plans that decide on the development of the city through the dynamics of the city leave their place to different plans in the sub-scales. To summarize, Ankara's spatial development adventure began with Löcher and Jansen, but after the 1940s there was an unpredictable urban development, and in the 1980s an integrated upper scale plan was not valid. The fact that the 1990 Master Plan has lost its validity has also slowed down its conservation efforts. Small scale and local projects are carried out (Anonim 2019l).

Although Ankara's general master plans and development policies aimed to preserve the historical buildings in the old city center, it was necessary to wait until 1980 to take serious steps towards this goal. Although some plans and projects have been prepared for the protection and renewal of the old city center, these studies have either been discontinued or not carried out with the desired scale and meticulousness. As the

city center and population density gradually moved away from Ulus and Altındağ, the basic structures constituting the urban identity and social memory were left unattended for many years (Tiryaki, 2014).

5.2. Historical development of Hamamönü

Almost all of the protected areas and registered buildings in Ankara are located within the boundaries of Altındağ. The real estate for the protection of the region starts with the decision of the Board of Antiquities and Monuments (GEEAYK) dated 14.10.1972 and numbered 6691 (Arslan, 2012). There is a registered historical house, mansion, fountain, masjid, mosque, mausoleum, etc. on this area called historical city texture. These are a total of 320 in 49 Hamamönü and 117 in Kent. In order to preserve the historical heritage, an area of approximately 300 ha was decided in 1980 by the Ministry of Culture as a site. Ankara Castle, Roman Bath and Theater, Museum of Anatolian Civilizations, Samanpazarı, Horse Bazaar, Koyun Bazaar, Cıkrikcılar Slope, Saraclar Bazaar, Hamamonu where the old housing texture is located and the commercial center of Ulus, which is still in the traditional trade, are all protected (Erdem, 2011). In addition to these, the monuments of the Republic, the Museum of Anatolian Civilizations, the Museum of Ethnography, the Museum of the War of Independence and the Museum of the Republic, as well as Hacı Bayram Veli, Karacabey, Ahi Şerafettin, Karyağdı, Gülbaba, İzzettin Baba tombs and many mosques are among his recent works. Altındağ, with a surface area of 573 km², has 38 neighborhoods (Uçar Altınışık, 2015).

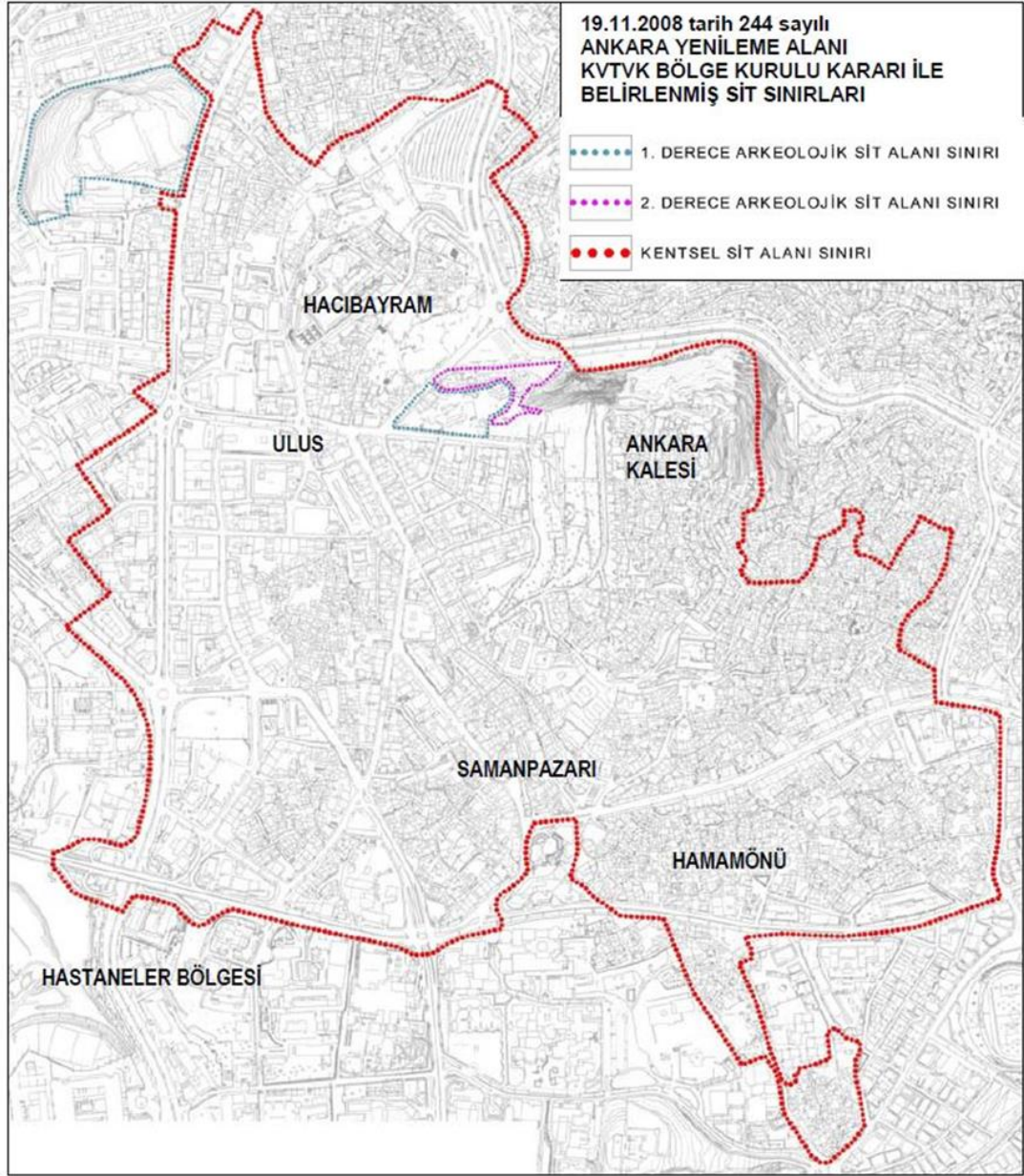


Figure 5.10. The border of Hamamönü Conservation Area

The historical background of the city is very limited before the Roman period. The city, which was once a castle settlement, experienced its most brilliant period when it was the capital of the province of Galatia, there were developments over the borders of the castle, but no traces of a development in Hamamönü could be found. It can be said that the period when Hamamönü started to be used as a settlement area coincided

with the period after the Seljuks conquered the city and developed parallel to the commercial activities developed around At Pazarı, Koyun Pazarı and Saman Pazarı (Arslan, 2012). It is known that there was a shortage of housing in the period when Ankara was the capital and that Hamamönü was a settlement where the first representatives of the republic, wealthy families, artisans and craftsmen lived (Kale, 2011). As can be seen in Figure 4.11, most of the depictions depicting Ankara, take the area of the castle and its surroundings.



*Figure 5.11. XVI.century Angora (Amsterdam- Rijksmuseum)
(<https://zitlarmecmuasi.com/ankara-manzarasi>)*

In the 13th and 14th centuries, the Ahilik movement developed the city as the economy developed; houses, stables and masjids were built, and people started to settle in these places. It was found that Hamamönü region was among the new settlements, Karaca Bey, son of Abdullah Çelebi Mehmed, son of Sultan Çelebi Mehmed, Anatolian Beylerbeyi and martyr of the Battle of Varna in the 1427s, built the Karacabey Complex (mosque, imaret, today's double baths and water roads) built near Hacı Hill

with the direction of the city to the present Hamamönü (Arslan, 2012). There was no change in Hamamönü until the 19th century, but the city was damaged by the Celali Rebellions, and a fire broke out as a result of the uprising. Anafartalar Caddesi, Karacaoğlan, Samanpazarı and Karacabey Hamam neighborhoods and bazaar were damaged (Anonymous 2019m). Therefore, it can be said that the history of the buildings around Hamamönü dates back to the early 19th century (Arslan, 2012). With the revival of Sof trade, the trade zone extending from Samanpazarı to Suluhan and the residential area jointed there, Ulus functioned as the center of the nation. Figure 4.12 shows the vitality of the commercial life of the 19th century and the traditional housing texture. Starting from Sıhhiye to trade on Atatürk Boulevard, middle- and upper-income group to go to the new developing regions of the city has reduced the commercial value of the nation, vacant housing areas, especially Hamamönü and the surrounding area, the lower income group took the first step towards becoming a collapsed place.



Figure 5.12. Fair at 19. century at Hamamönü

Ankara Hamamönü is the name of the region surrounded by Talatpaşa Boulevard, Hacettepe Hospital Campus and Cebeci District, which is located to the south of

Ankara Castle (Tiryaki, 2014) (Figure 4.13). Hamamönü was named after the II. Celalettin Karacabey, the military cadet of Murat, obtained it from the Karacabey Hamam, built by Ibn Abdullah (Kurtar, 2012). Hamamönü, which is a second-degree urban protected area, covers an area of 207 hectares in total (Tiryaki, 2014).

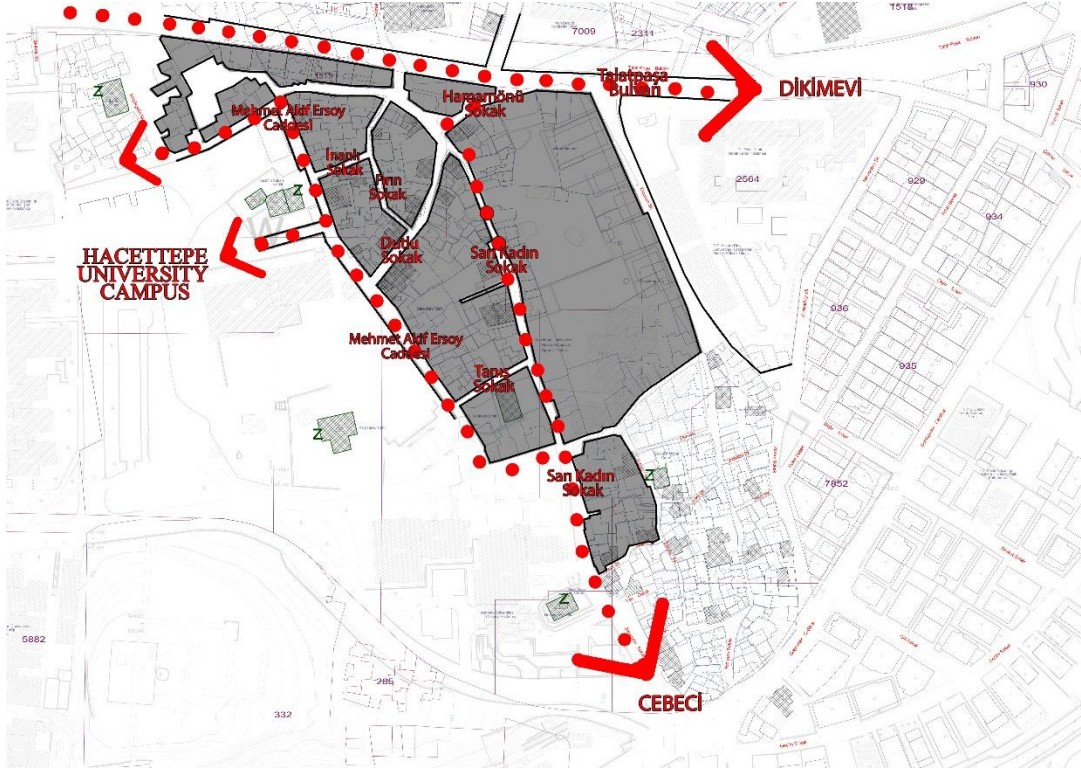


Figure 5.13. Borders of Hamamönü

In Hamamönü, there are Karacabey Bath (Figure 5.14), Hacı Seyyit Mosque, Taceddin Sultan Mosque and Hacı Musa Mosque. Likewise, Mehmet Akif Ersoy Park in Hamamönü Square has a central feature and continues to be the meeting point of the neighborhood. In this context, Hamamönü is an authentic maintainer of the great tradition that reached the Republic from the oldest civilizations. Today, the immovable properties registered in Hamamönü by the decision of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism High Council of Immoveable Cultural and Natural Assets by 12.04.1980 are as follows; Karacabey Mosque (Figure 5.15), Sarikadi Mosque (Figure 5.16), Hacı

Musa Mosque (Figure 5.17), Taceddin Dergah (Figure 5.18), Hacettepe Mosque (Figure 5.19) and Celebi Mehmet Mosque (Tarsuslugil, 2013).



Figure 5.14. *Historical Karacabey Bath*
<http://karacabeyhamami.com.tr/tarihce/>



Figure 5.15. *Karacabey Mosque*



Figure 5.16. *Sarıkadı Mosque*



Figure 5.17. Hacı Musa Mosque



Figure 5.18. Taceddin Dervish lodge



Figure 5.19. Hacettepe Mosque

In summary, important structures belonging to the between 15th and 18th centuries and the structures belonging to the Republican period were intertwined. During the years when the struggle for liberation was continued, Hamamönü, a neighborhood where the deputies, bureaucrats, soldiers and artists of the period lived, continued and functions as a typical Turkish neighborhood until the 1950s. However, with the start of intensive migration to Ankara, Altındağ, which was the city center at the time, was affected negatively by this process and Hamamönü could not remain independent from this process.

Over time with relocating the actual users; after leaving Hamamönü, people started to move to new settlements such as Çankaya and Yenimahalle. Hamamönü has become a region which is difficult to live, unsafe, unhealthy and in the middle of the city (Uçar Altınışik, 2015). Despite the fact that history is a city center, due to lack of planning decisions and conservation tradition, this region of the city has become a crumbling area over the years and has gained value again with the projects carried out in recent years and increasing tourism mobility all over the world (Figure 5.20).



Figure 5.20. Hamamönü Aerial Photo

5.3. Projects implemented in Hamamönü

While Hamamönü and its environs contain a significant portion of the cultural heritage due to the historical background summarized above, the region has lost its value with its planning decisions regardless of the identity and historical background of the city. These mixed structures extending from the Romans to the Ottomans and from the Republican period have preserved their existence as inns, workplaces, mosques or residences that reflect the old commercial life. The neighborhood preserves its original texture among the 6-7 storey buildings rising as a result of the plan decisions implemented in the 1960s and has an interesting potential. The important thing is to make the right interventions to reveal this potential and to bring this value to the city. The steps taken by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism and the Municipality of Altındağ to reveal this cultural memory and the projects they have designed in 2006 and started to be implemented in 2008 are in question.

The plan, which came into force in 2006, deals with the urban fabric to the south and east of Ankara Castle. It contains a detailed study covering the historical settlement areas. A flexible framework has been presented with conservation priority usage decisions; four different decision zones have been identified: Animation Regions, Restructuring Areas, New Project Areas, Comprehensive Transformation Projects (Areas). Regeneration zones are areas where functional transformations and rehabilitation will take place. Due to its proximity to the Hacettepe hospital, it was decided to have public service areas, lodging and commercial units for accommodation and it was privatized as Dutlu Street and its surroundings. As it can be understood from the name, in the areas defined as restructuring, new buildings will be constructed, but the principles of adaptation to the historical environment will be acted. In the new project areas, the demolition of single-storey shops and the creation of a new square and entrance projects. Comprehensive transformation areas include the arrangements for the expropriation of the parcels (Arslan, 2012) (Figure 5.21).

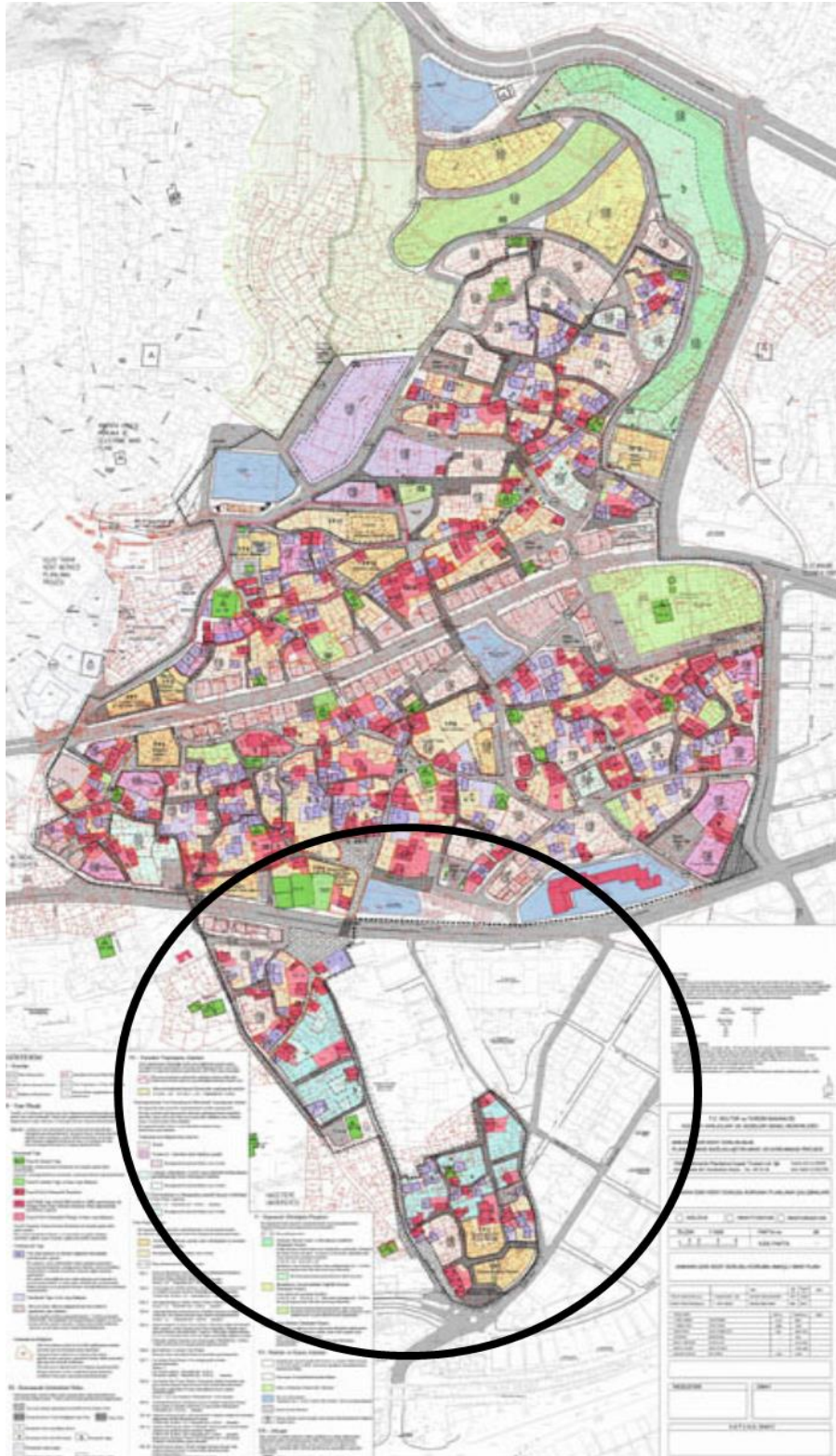


Figure 5.21. Zoning plan for conservation of old city fabric in Ankara

When the settlement pattern mentioned above in Hamamönü is examined, it is seen that it has the characteristic of a traditional Turkish neighborhood. In addition, parcel analysis and facade patterns reflect the 17th century characteristics of the Ottoman period, known as the Turkish house in terms of architectural quality. It is observed that the usage of these dwellings is transformed into commercial uses such as shops, cafes, patisseries, pharmacy and restaurants. All buildings are usually two or three stores; it is seen that the ground floors are solved with stone and the upper floors are solved with wooden material. In the Turkish house housing solution, it is observed that courtyards are generally found, and the connection with the public space street is not provided directly but through this courtyard (Kale, 2011). The symbolic importance of these houses / mansions; Examples include Mehmet Akif Ersoy's house where he wrote the Turkish National Anthem, Kamil Pasha Mansion where Ankara Central Commander lived, Hacı Mustafa Beynamlı, one of the first deputies of the Republic, and Historical Kabakçı Mansion (Tiryaki, 2014).

Since the conservation of urban cultural heritage in Hamamönü was started in 2006 with the project of Planning, Conservation and Rehabilitation of the Old City Texture in Ankara; it is mentioned above that the first steps have been taken by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. The second of the street sanitation activities continued in 2008; within the scope of the project, Dutlu Sokak became the center of the works (Kurtar, 2012). As mentioned above, street sanitation has been enacted in the Law No. 2863 on the Protection of Cultural and Natural Assets, in urban protected areas and protected areas, for the protection and documentation of the immovable cultural assets that need to be protected and other structures on the streets together with all the elements defining the original street texture. Restoration, urban design projects and all kinds of projects that need to be done in engineering branches and their applications (Anonim 2019e).



Figure 5.22. İnci and Dutlu Streets rehabilitation project restoration İnci Sokak silhouette



Figure 5.23. İnci Street Before and After Street Rehabilitation



Figure 5.24. İnci ve Dutlu Streets Rehabilitation Project Dutlu Street Silhouette (restoration)



Figure 5.25 Dutlu Street Before and After Street Rehabilitation



Figure 5.26. M. Akif Ersoy and Hamamönü Streets Hamamönü street view after rehabilitation project (restoration)



Figure 5.27. Hamamönü Street Before and After Street Rehabilitation



Figure 5.28. Sarıkadın Street sanitation project facade views (restoration)



Figure 5.29. Sarıkadın Street Rehabilitation Works Before and After

The project includes restoration, reconstruction, restitution and street sanitation projects of buildings registered by the Cultural and Natural Heritage Protection Board. 33 registered and had a chance to demonstrate the importance of the historical area with applications related to 300 buildings in total. Within the framework of the conservation process, the project can be detailed in the form of demolishing articulating joints, cleaning unqualified and unauthorized (illegal) structures, and assigning functions to take into account the balance of protection uses. The baseline of the building and the draft sketch works made in 1930 were the basis of the survey. The changes were implemented not only on the basis of structure but also on the scale of urban design. The streets were pedestrianized and the infrastructures within the area were reconsidered. The amount of green space and the arrangement of the square were increased where possible. In addition to these physical arrangements, there were also socio-cultural developments. Within the scope of the protocol signed with Hacettepe University, Ankara Art Street a consisting of 22 Ankara Houses was added to the region (Tiryaki, 2014).

As a result, Hamamönü town comes to the forefront as a project in which historical and cultural elements (streets, classical houses, and mosques) are revitalized and historical restoration is restored in addition to street sanitation works. Especially after the works carried out in the streets of Dutlu, İnci, İnanlı, Fırın, Mehmet Akif Ersoy, Hamamönü and Sarıkadın and the works started in the streets of Atpazarı, Can, Filiz, Kurnaz and Koyunpazarı, the Board of Conservation of Cultural and Natural Assets recorded the building stock in this region (Tarsuslugil, 2013). It has been determined that the distribution of ownership is mainly in private individuals in Hamamönü. Apart from private individuals, there are also public, foundation and municipal property. Karacabey Mosque, Tacettin Sultan Mosque, Hacı Musa Mosque, Sarıkadın Mosque, Çelebi Mehmet Mosque, Hacettepe Mosque are the historical buildings that are owned by the foundation. Art Street, Mehmet Akif Ersoy Literature Museum, Hand Products Market are the municipal buildings within the research area (Kale, 2011).

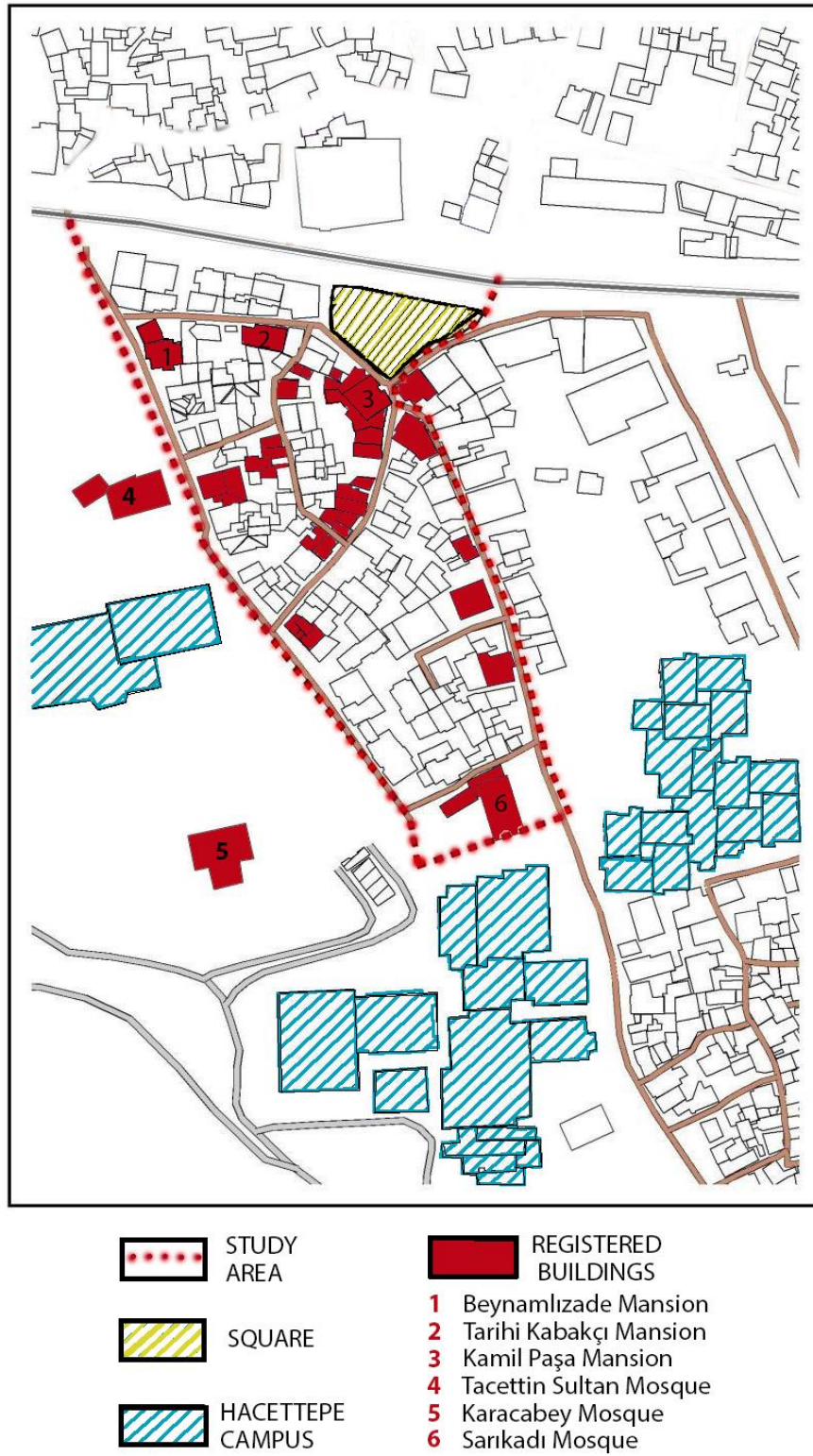


Figure 5.30. Proprietary Structures



Figure 5.31. Beynamlızade Mansion Old Condition



Figure 5.32. Beynamlızade Mansion Current Status



Figure 5.33. Kabakçı Mansion Old Condition



Figure 5.34. Kabakçı Mansion Current Status

Altındağ Municipality states that it has completed the restoration of 250 houses in the region. In addition, it is seen that the physical conditions of the region have been significantly improved by street arrangements and the construction of buildings similar to the original. The facade renovation of the buildings in the region and the renovation of the roofs of many of them were carried out by the municipality; the internal restoration of unregistered buildings is left to residents. It can be said that the municipality aims to gain a touristic activity by emphasizing the religious and historical values of the region with the rehabilitation project in Hamamönü. It is seen that Ramadan is the most crowded period in the region.



Figure 5.35. Ramadan at Hamamönü



Figure 5.36. Entrance square

As a result, the project carried out in Hamamönü has become a place that serves the city, whether for tourism or purely conservation purposes. Figure 4.6 shows the spatial change over the years. In the selection of the years 2005-2013 and 2019, the aim is to observe the pre-project status, the first years of the project and the present time. It is a fact that undefined areas (1) are evaluated and brought into use with the project. The purpose is to make a defined entry according to its location. In addition, with the project, empty parcels (2) were constructed in accordance with the original, thus ensuring a continuity in the urban fabric. Another alternative is to consider the use of the full-empty ratio into consideration, but it may be used in historical areas, this method has been resorted to because the cramped texture is more attractive. It was confirmed that the meetings with Altındağ Municipality were conducted in the most appropriate way. Likewise (4), the proper filling process was also observed in the area close to Hacettepe University; it has been observed that such an effort has been made to provide flexibility of use.

Illegal constructions (3) are not allowed in the area, the image pollution and the excess of the original structure of the structure was removed both in the interview with the Municipality of Altındağ and in 2014 was written by the academic thesis written by Tiryaki. This is an element that increases the environmental quality and aesthetics of the area. However, it is seen that the parcels that have been emptied have not been preserved and become part of daily needs and are used for parking. Finally, (5) it is observed that the connection between the existing values (registered mosque, mansion, fountain, etc.) in the area is ensured and its use is increased by making environmental arrangements. It is a positive step towards the display of these values, which are seen as parts of a whole.

In short, Hamamönü is an area that has experienced different breaking points over the years. The most significant breaking point experienced in recent years is the protection adventure that started in 2006. As Tekeli (1988) states, sometimes protection is considered for a commercial purpose. The reason for protection is income or foreign exchange. In this case, the priority of the protection is assumed by the assumed taste

of the tourist. Tourism studies show how volatile and temporary tastes are. Therefore, space is consumed from the moment it becomes a vehicle until a new vehicle is needed.

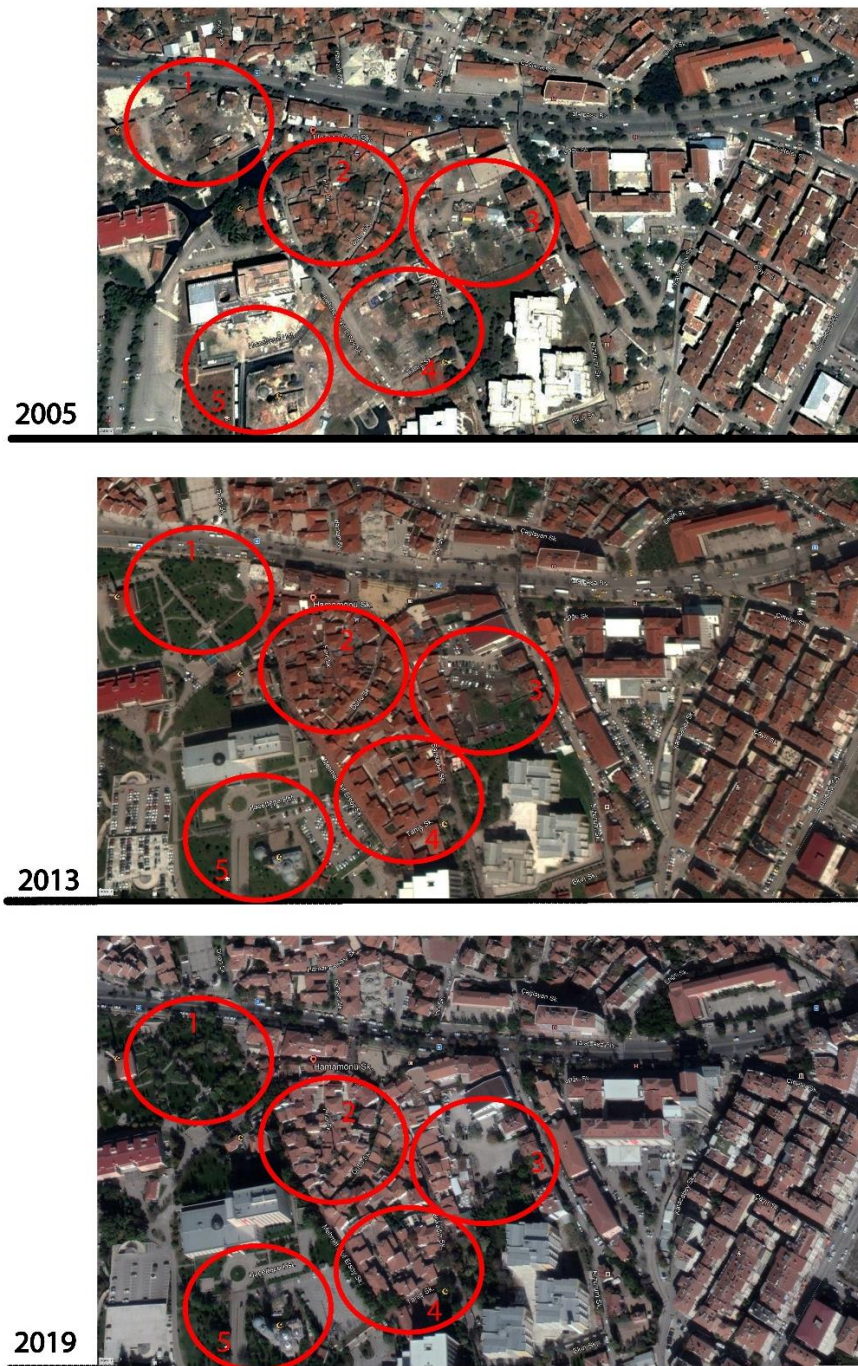


Figure 5.37. Changes after revitalization projects are implemented

5.4. Evaluation of the Revitalization Projects

Hamamönü, as the historic city, located at the old city center which has mostly preserved its original urban morphology and has become the tourist- historic place after revitalization works (figure 5.38) that attracts the visitors with its narrow streets and mostly two storey traditional Turkish house. The historic center is now an area for housing, university activities, cultural and tourist functions, small trades and businesses.



Figure 5.38. Hamamönü after revitalization works

The change in the built environment in Hamamönü highlights the existing aesthetic values in the space. There is a significant development in the building stock of the region. In parallel with the physical revitalization with the presence of commercial units, there has also been a transformation in the socio-cultural structure. In other words, the area, which was thought to be insecure (figure 5.39) by the users of the city

and even residents, before the revitalization and even too dangerous to be entered, has now become a center of attraction for both locals and tourists.



Figure 5.39. Before the revitalization works at Hamamönü

Hamamönü, as the other examples that are analyzed at previous chapter have face with the same collapse period. All cities have developed out of the main core, Ulus, as mentioned before, original city was affected this spatial development, lose its commercial functions. Partial outmigration of commercial city resulted deprivation and dilapidation. With the meeting tourism demand at the city, conservation works have started. Tourist city developed in the part of historic city Ulus and with the commercial facilities have grown opposite direction from the city core, the housing facilities have risen other direction from the commercial city (figure 5.40).

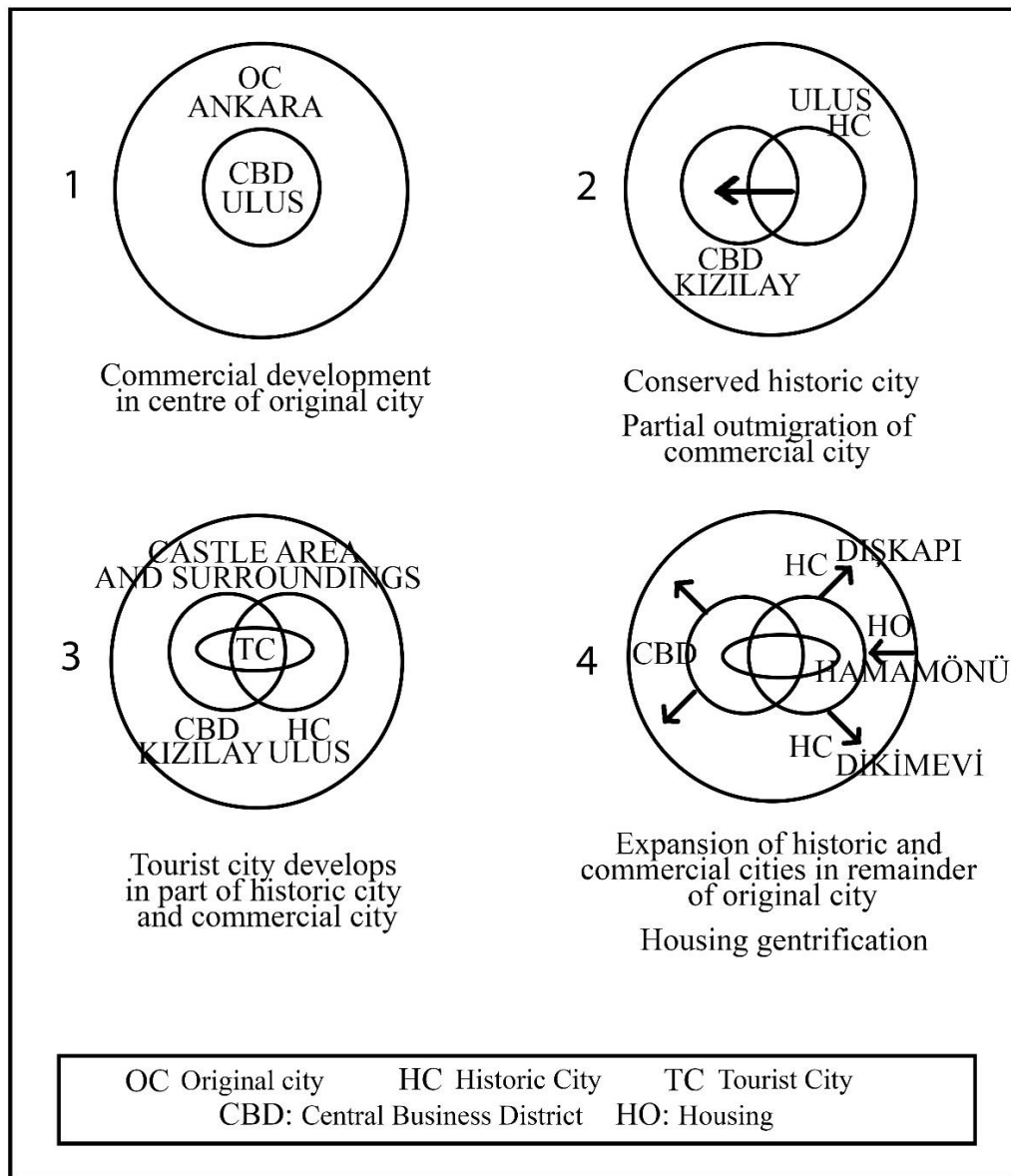


Figure 5.40. The Evolution of Hamamönü to the Tourist-Historic City Model

Moreover, what is faced in Hamamönü are symptoms of this process, which are simply addressed as problems of the area. It is possible to identify buildings in poor conditions; non-contemporary sanitary conditions; insufficient parking spaces; uses (activities) move to more accessible districts of the cities; narrow roads; buildings used for other, less suitable purposes; changes in the pattern of ownership; changing social composition; decreasing attractiveness; high number of incompatible uses; increasing

vacancy rate as the symptoms of deterioration and decay, which an historic urban quarter faces (figure 5.41).





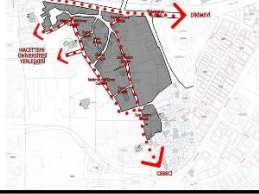


Physical Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · deterioration · lose its value in time · man-made damage · poor maintenance 	Physical revitalization
Functional Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · mismatch of the existing function · insufficient existing standards · functional aging · narrow streets for using 	Economic revitalization Physical revitalization
Image Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · change in the perception · overcrowded and dense · noise and pollution · image aging 	Economic revitalization Physical revitalization
Legal and Official Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · ignorance of the authorities · inadequate funding or investment planning 	Economic revitalization Physical revitalization
Locational Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · changing the city center · shifting of the market · the fixation of a particular place 	Physical revitalization
Financial Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · decrease in land values, buildings and other fixed assets · ignorance of the taxation system 	Economic revitalization
Economic Obsolescence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · the cost of investment 	Economic revitalization

Figure 5.41. Obsolescence analysis and revitalization types

Physical revitalization of the physical fabric to contemporary requirements through various modes of renewal took place at Hamamönü. The desire for better housing may override the attachment to the historic city due to the economic revitalization. Commercial functions have pressured on housing facilities at Hamamönü. Economic revitalization is the utilization and purposeful occupation of the improved/ enhanced building stock through physical revitalization to sustain revitalization in a long-term perspective, and to enable the area to compete with the rest of the city.

Depending on the degree of mismatch and the internal/external dynamics that a specific historic urban quarter faces, functional restructuring that contains the changes in occupation with new uses or activities replacing the former ones such as housing ones turned to cafes or restaurants, functional diversification that covers keeping the existing uses to some extent and introducing some new ones like more restaurants, and functional regeneration that includes the existing uses remain but operate more efficiently or profitably.

The initial projects that have signified the process, it can be listed as; mobilization of the real estate market, increasing property values, speculative buy-ups, increased investment demand for the project especially by big firms, the emergence of the historic neighborhood as the ‘valuable area’ for future investment, interest posed by middle and upper-middle classes for the area accompanied with unrest among most of the residents due to the lack of knowledge regarding the process. All these show that Hamamönü emerges as a site for reinvestment, which signals a potential sociocultural transformation and functional change in the neighborhood.

To sum up, everything is pregnant with its contrary, although there are negative and positive aspects of the projects that are implemented, Hamamönü still carries interrogation fields. Hamamönü projects have provided direct and indirect business opportunities as a positive economic outcome; however, at the same time, the quality and diversity of commercial services does not reach the desired levels. It has created

job opportunity in a good manner but poorly paid or low wage jobs took place in the historic area after revitalization projects.

Physical revitalization has enabled visual improvement but created the overcrowding at the same time. One of the results that is expected is the diversity of land uses but services provided directly to individual customers, usually in person, which includes such clusters of related activities as leisure shopping, arts/ crafts/ antiques, catering and both private and public personal services or services provided indirectly, and normally impersonally, to consumers have not took place. Any architects or dentist offices cannot be seen this area. Certain type of commercial activities inside, making the area useless after a time. The vitality of places can be measured with the profile of users and usages.

Socially conserved sense of place 'neighborhood' has made the area attractive positively; nevertheless, bringing rent economical manner, have changed the ownership patterns, displaced the local people from the area who could not afford the cost of living in this area. The memory of place has been broken with the new owners that brought the tension between new and old. On the other hand, local people have started to blame on tourists to let this change.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Cities have experienced growth, change and decay. Tourism is a key element in urban revitalization; and improving tourism can succeed economic growth and preservation of the environment. Whilst tourism is now one of the largest industries in the world and has intriguing potential for economic growth, it possibly brings with it significant negative social and environmental impacts as well as positives ones. The art of the tourism improvement is to balance the opportunities and costs for the locals, for the tourists and the most importantly for the environment.

All these intertwined relations have to be taken into consideration for influential planning and policy making for urban tourism and for the ruling the spatial, socio-cultural and economic impacts of urban tourism. Cities that have completely transformed its image, without losing any vibrancy in order to become economically competitive through its industries which have changed in recent years that from the late 1980s onwards there has been an overwhelming need for cities to differentiate themselves in order to compete for spatial mobile capital.

Urban tourism could help change the image of city and raise its profile, and this change in turn would assist it to attract various types of investment. Urban tourism would also help physical regeneration using old buildings as new resources means brought back in to. Specifically, for the cities that involved in a revitalization process, urban tourism can be found out more concrete at the historic core of the cities. The revitalization of historic urban quarters has been on the agenda more than three decades with the increase of urban tourism economy.

The historic cities have a spectacular sense of place, lively atmosphere derived from their history, architectural style and streetscape. Many of the historic cities are now being revitalized to make the environment more vital, staminal and dynamic part of the cities with well-integrated policies. To make the area more vital, new functions such as housing or tourism related facilities have to added. In this study, urban revitalization is viewed as a tool and the integral parts of wider processes of economic and socio-spatial restructuring of the city in the frame of urban tourism.

As city governments became much more meddle in economic growth and physical restructuring, nevertheless distinctive strategies may be entailed according to locally-grounded tourism and management practices, urban revitalization projects and activities have given priority to upgrade the image of the cities to search for economic growth at the historic cores. Locally- grounded tourism facilities cause to arise the locally- grounded revitalization process that depends on the cities' obsolescence which begins with the understanding and becoming aware of the specific dimensions.

Recognition of the value of historic urban quarters as capital stock, physical revitalization and economic revitalization perform to sustain revitalization in a long-term, and to enable the area to compete with the rest of the city. Depending on the dynamics of historic urban core, functional restructuring, functional diversification and functional regeneration can be operated separately or together as in the case of Hamamönü.

Hamamönü, located historical core of the city, has faced with the collapse related to growth of the city in a different way and the shift the central business district out of the historic core. After a point, the area was in poor sanitary condition physically, dwellings were under standards means uncontemporary condition functionally and residents left the area to live better conditions to the suburbs. To change the face and the destiny of the historic city, a series of revitalization project implemented to attract the area and share the profit from tourism.

The projects were started as physical revitalization by changing the façades and the roofs at the first stage. ‘*Make-up effect*’ gave a vitality to the area which was implemented by local authority, starting from 2008, with a determined manner. The projects have contained not just only revitalization but also demolishing the illegal structure and non-historical ones and the rebuilding to protect the morphology of the area as if it is at original size and form. Moreover, squares, parks which means public spaces are also built and increased at the area.

To conclude, the process of change in cities has been ongoing and will be. The interest of this study has been revitalization projects for the tourist-historic cities which are bringing back the vitality and importance of the historic character and sense of place. The projects have taken the advantages of economic and spatial dynamics of urban tourism with the ambition of re-image itself which can be used to explain existing situation of Hamamönü.

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