



INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON ADVANCEMENTS IN TOURISM, RECREATION AND SPORTS SCIENCES

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FOREWORD

The International activity carried out with the cooperation of Global Science Institute, and Mediterranean University (Montenegro) has been a motivation source for conducting better projects and organisations in the future as well as providing new insights and different perspectives.

That the MOTTO of the activity was “multilingual international academic activities to enrich scientific experiences with cultural diversity between nations” has been found to be successful and meaningful by the participants. I am in the opinion that this acted as the secret in the background of having such a successful organization with a high participation rate.

At the organization which took place between 05-08 September 2018 at Center Ville Hotel in Podgorica (Montenegro), there were three parallel symposiums with three special sessions-two panels “Talk with Journal Editors”, Meeting and Keynote Speeches and a Mini-Symposium on Sustainable Aviation Management within the GIS 2018 Scientific Activity.

One of the Three Main Pillars is “International Symposium on Advancements in Tourism, Recreation & Sports Sciences. In this session, 40 oral presentations, three poster presentations together with six oral presentations in the “Special Session (ATRSS 18): Recreation Planning and Design” were made.

In addition to scientific activities, that fact that researchers coming from different geographies had a chance to meet in social organisations had its positive reflections in the participants of this scientifically successful organisation which had important outcomes as well as a colourful social aspect.

I want to present my heartfelt thanks to the invaluable directors of Global Science Institute and the academicians of Mediterranean University (Montenegro) and Anadolu University for the performance they showed and all the efforts they spent at every step of the organisation. I would like to extend my thanks to all the academicians who contributed with their valuable research to the organization.

With regards

Prof. Dr Öner DEMİREL

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**INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON
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Tourism Development - Crucial Challenge for A State with The Aim of Structural Changes in Montenegrin Economy

Slavica Adžić¹, Assoc. Prof. Dr Silvana Đurašević²

Abstract

Implementation of structural changes in Montenegrin economy was to enable productivity growth in all economic sectors. Previously realised structural changes with the aim of a faster, more efficient and rational market economy in Montenegro were mainly based on changes in the countries from the environment. However, since each economy has its particularity, the implemented changes still have not ensured balance in the total economy, the competence of national economy and economic stability. Additionally, these processes took place in the conditions of the global economic crisis, political and social instability. Vast negative influences from the internal and external environment have additionally delayed the flows of economic development.

The goal of this paper is to explore to which extent the state engaged in taking adequate measures to improve investments in tourism and accompanying infrastructure enabling its influence on structural changes in the total economy, its long-term sustainability, as well as economic stability. Since tourism, as a crucial branch of economy generates 20% GDP and 18% of employment, the role of the state is crucial when making rational solutions from the aspect of total economic activities. Direct, indirect and multiplicative effects of tourism on the total economy are evident, and competitive advantage of Montenegro as a tourist destination can be increased if tourism development is encouraged by systematic measures and if integration of total economy is enabled.

Analyses show that it is not enough to merely issue legislation with the aim of respecting norms which require structural changes, but they need to be implemented, continuously monitored and necessary corrections need to be provided according to current tourism development trends worldwide. Further tourism development nowadays imposes the need for Montenegro to engage numerous available potentials aiming at valorization of completely new forms required by contemporary tourism development. On this path, the role of the state as a generator in the transitional period is unavoidable.

Keywords: Tourism development, State measures, Structural changes, National economy.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The transition process and changes in the socio-political system of Montenegro have caused structural changes, with the aim of achieving productivity in all economy sectors. Additionally, the global economic crisis, along with changes in the ownership and relations of state-owned enterprises in the transition process, set up new forms of market economy that Montenegro based on the experience of countries in the region. Structural reforms in the Montenegrin economy represented one of the most important chapters in the field of negotiations, the state's political readiness and the strategy for joining the European Union. Therefore, new behavioural norms and forms of the market economy were supposed to achieve an increase in individual and social standards. This is a complex, ongoing process that has not ensured the competitiveness of the national economy determined by the increase in productivity in all economic sectors and aggregate indicators of the national economy.

Structural changes were particularly reflected in tourism as the most sensitive branch of economy. In addition to energetics, agriculture and industry, tourism is defined as a strategic determinant with a vision of an attractive tourist destination. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) (2017), Montenegro has done much in the field of tourism development with a dynamic growth rate of tourism participation in GDP by 22.1% in 2016, and the degree of investments of 263.6 million in 2016, which represents 34.0% of total investments. However, there are still restrictions in the field of faster economic development. The vision of the future development of tourism cannot be realized unless the infrastructure in all economic sectors is improved and the relevant programs of economic reforms for Montenegro, relevant laws, strategies, declarations and planning documents are not fully implemented.

The state plays a crucial role in adopting simulative measures and conducting constant monitoring in order to achieve long-term tourism development and its impact on the national economy. Using monitoring and incentive measures, the state strives to position Montenegro as an exclusive tourist destination. However, tourism with no other economic sectors cannot establish the balance of the economic system and economic stability, unless integration of the entire economy accelerates. The change in the economic structure, according to Mihailović (2006), can only be achieved by an integral economic reform, which can increase individual and social standards.

2. METHODOLOGICAL RESEARCH FRAME

The aim of the research in this paper is an analysis of measures previously undertaken by the state in order to promote overall economic activity, particularly reflected in tourism as the dominant economic branch. To draft this paper, extensive professional literature in the subject area, as well as documentation of the competent authorities of Montenegro and

relevant international institutions were used. The paper itself is the result of ruminative thinking, analysis, comparison and conflicts of different legal solutions and economic concepts. In order to explore the highly complex economic structure of Montenegro and point out to the importance of tourism in the overall economy, extensive qualitative methods, methods of analysis, synthesis, deduction, as well as comparative method were used. Aggregate indicators of national economy, the realized tourist traffic and its structure, analysis of measures taken by the state in order to valorize potentials and available resources, review of adopted strategic documents, economic reform program, as well as relevant laws were used to analyze the impact of structural reforms on the economy of Montenegro and the development of tourism as a crucial challenge for the state in the context of structural changes.

3. FEATURES OF MONTENEGRIN ECONOMIC SYSTEM IN STRUCTURAL REFORM PROCESS

The new sovereignty concept and strategic orientation towards joining the European Union and Euro-Atlantic integrations represented a challenge in the orientation of Montenegro to establish an efficient market system that should provide faster economic prosperity. Instead of quantity as a previous primary feature, changes in qualitative features in economies, known as structural changes (Mihailović, 2006) have happened. By changing the legal status of state-owned enterprises, the state has strived to implement a new form of organisation based on private property, which basically should initiate productivity in all economic sectors and ensure economic growth. Montenegro as a spatially small state with limited resources, due to the broken wider economic system in the process of socio-political circumstances, used the experiences of the countries in transition and applied a new model of the market economy, price liberalisation, privatisation of state-owned enterprises and economic restructuring for economic stability.

"As any national economy, so does Montenegro have its features exposed either through recognisable or scarce resources, structural mismatches of the economy, prominent differences in levels of economic development of the region, unemployment, inflation, foreign trade deficit, and the evident dependence on import, debts and the like. Those above and many other factors significantly influence the macroeconomic stability of the system" (Blečić, 2007). According to Vukotić (2001), the most significant factors for the establishment of macroeconomic relations are production, employment, inflation, payment balance, economic growth and the structure of the economy. The state should direct economic policy to these key issues aiming at macroeconomic stability.

3.1. Tourism development features in the context of structural reforms

Changes should be achieved globally within institutions, in their relations between economic entities within the functioning of the economy as a whole. The tourism industry

cannot function separately from other industries. Few countries, if any, could expect their economic rescue using tourism alone (Antunac 2002). Functioning of market economy implies a regulated economic system, whose institutions are the ground on which the macroeconomic policy of one state should be built. Recognising the fact, that is the aims of Agenda 21, of the Rio de Janeiro Declaration, which points out to the importance of sustainable tourism development principle, Montenegro continues to strive to secure the position of an attractive tourist destination. According to the Tourism Development Strategy of Montenegro until 2020, the Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Protection refers to the essential goal of sustainable development based on the slogan "Wild Beauty" (Ministry of Sustainable Development and Tourism, 2008). Establishment of legal and regulatory frameworks and the adoption of relevant laws in the field of tourism indicate that tourism is the ground for the long-term development of the national economy. The adoption of Tourism Development Strategy, declarations and planning documents represent the frameworks and domains of the most significant activities with multiple effects.

Measures of economic policy and principles of sustainable tourism development should create positioning of a high quality tourist destination, increase the participation of tourist traffic, the number of employees in the tourism sector, increase the level of foreign investments, valorize potentials, improve the tourist infrastructure, and thus contribute to the growth of life standards. Tourism is not sufficient for itself unless the economic activity of other complementary activities is increased, in order to round off the offer in the system of values that are aimed at valorising all available potentials.

Multiplicative effects of tourism can be achieved if harmonisation of the entire economy and all related activities, which can be a strong generator of aggregate indicators of the national economy, is established. This particularly relates to agriculture as the second dominant branch of the economy, followed by trade, traffic, craft services, etc. Multiplicative effects have a strong impact on economy flows, and as pointed out by Dobre (2005) when it comes to multiplicative effects, revenues generated by foreign tourists (not domestic ones) are additional financial resources that have additional (multiplied) effects on the national economy. Additional consumption realised by foreign tourists is a powerful generator of social productivity in all production activities. The activity of tourism industry and the revival of all industries in full capacities and potentials should provide an increase in aggregate indicators of national economy, such as: social product, national income, investments, consumption by the population, government revenues and expenditures, volume and structure of foreign trade, depreciation, accumulation and employment. Dynamic growth and integration of the economy as a whole can provide sustainable tourism development. According to the data of Statistical Office of Montenegro for 2017, there were 1,877,212 foreign arrivals or 122,797 arrivals of domestic guests. Accordingly, in

the previous year, a total of 11,953,316 overnights were realised, of which 11,470,132 overnights by foreign, that is 483,184 overnights by domestic tourists (Monstat 2018).

According to the estimations of World Travel & Tourism Council (2005), it is expected that the direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP by 2020 shall grow to 890.4 million euro. Based on the data of Ministry of Sustainable Development and Tourism of Montenegro, and according to the report on business in the hotel industry in Montenegro for 2013, Gross Domestic Product generated by tourism is 20%, while employment generated by tourism is 18%. The stated share of tourism in Montenegro GDP is an encouraging fact, but the share of all other sectors lagging in the economy is necessary as well.

4. THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The state has engaged in the adoption of adequate measures to encourage the strategic goal of economic development, particularly tourism development, as a crucial challenge in the context of structural reforms. As defined in the Economic Reform Program for 2017, in order to accomplish the aforementioned strategic development goals, the Government of Montenegro combines two groups of economic policy measures. The first group of measures refers to strengthening macroeconomic stability of the state, both fiscal and financial. The second group of economic policy measures aims at resolving structural problems in the economy, which means eliminating the crucial obstacles for improving the state's competitiveness and increasing the potential economic growth to medium and long-term (Government of Montenegro, 2016).

Observing Montenegro in the context of structural changes, there are noticeable tourism development and the state's efforts to regulate the economic system, i.e. go far beyond the reach of economic development. In the strategy of tourism development in Montenegro until 2020 (2008), tourism development is mentioned as the strategic goal with emphasis on the quality and attractiveness of high-paying tourist destination, sustainability of tourism development and stimulation of economic effects. In the context of structural changes, the development strategy recognises diversification in the offer, competitiveness in the tourism market and the assumption of making conditions for a complementary offer to meet the needs of modern tourists. The Law on Tourism and Catering (2018) states that funds for incentive measures can be foreseen from the Budget of Montenegro. "Large investments in the development of road network and modernisation of numerous types of transport are rather important for the development of the economy as a whole, particularly tourism.

Additionally, the significance of investment in the development of hotel and catering facilities should be emphasized. In itself, this increases the total investments and a general increase in the economic activity of the state as a whole" (Unković, 2011). In order to

encourage tourism, the state is trying to run food production and the application of European Union standards.

Concerning that the state cannot finance a significant volume of anticipated investments, the strategy envisages creating conditions for high-quality tourist offer, through IPA projects, through loans with banks and IDF. Owners of tourist facilities and businesses can apply to approach the way of investing in accommodation capacities by favourable conditions and raise the category level by market standards and requirements. The state anticipates that investments projects can be supported if the commission assigned by the Ministry estimates that projects are significant for certain zones and are by the development strategy. Montenegro has done much in the field of constructing tourist facilities, but the fact is that there are still hotels in transition, experiencing closure, stagnation or not yet being brought to the state of use. Based on the Tourism Development Strategy until 2020 (2008), it was foreseen that accommodation capacities were to reach the number of 300,000. According to the data of the Statistical Office of Montenegro for 2016, the total number of registered facilities is 348, the number of accommodation units is 68,558, and the number of beds is 166,842. Based on the same resources, the number of hotels in all categories is 111, while the number of accommodation units is 10,983, number of rooms 9,989, and number of beds 24,875. The information from 2016 shows that out of a total number of 111 hotels, three hotels are 5-star, 53 are 4-star hotels, 30 of them are 3-star hotels, 20 hotels are 2-star, and 5 of them are 1-star hotels, which speaks of a relatively good structure, but with merely three highest category hotels.

Due to the high level of comfort and content, hotel capacities with 4 and five stars generate the highest economic effects for GDP, employment rate and incomes. However, in recent years, there has been a new trend of renting apartments and private villas, which has reduced the utilisation of hotel capacities. A new trend in tourism is present, which involves booking accommodation in households so the guests can feel the spirit of culture, hospitality and the way of life of the hosts. However, this raises issues of the legalization of accommodation and accommodation units, as well as fiscalisation of tourist traffic.

Investments in tourism are a significant assumption of future development. However, in the context of accommodation capacities, Montenegro is still lagging behind the competing countries such as Italy, Spain, Greece and Croatia. Still, the Economic Reform Program for Montenegro 2018-2020, (2018) anticipates that in the period 2018-2020, investments will remain at a high level reached in 2017 and that the revenues from tourism will decrease in 2018 and 2019. Montenegro is doing its best to encourage the tourism industry in the realisation of projects for construction of facilities and improvement of the offer, that is, raising the categories of 4-star and 5-star hotels. With the aim of creating a high-quality offer, the state has envisaged stimulative measures for real estate taxes. The Real Estate Tax Act states that non-categorized buildings are taxed at a rate of 5 to 5.5% of

the market value of the immovable property. 1-star category is taxed from 4 to 4.5%, 2-star category from 3 to 3.5%, 3-star category at a rate of 2 to 2.5%. The state has anticipated possible tax reduction for category 4-star up to 30% and 70% as an incentive development measure. By these measures, the state seeks to improve the offer or encourage hotel owners and businesses to use loans and provide funds they will invest in higher-category hotels by the standards of tourism activity and contemporary trends in tourism development. However, hotel owners and businesses do not think of this stimulative measure as a progressive measure, but the inability of a 3-star hotel to survive on the tourism market. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (2017), there are predictions that by 2021 capital investments in travel and tourism in Montenegro will increase to 50.8%. With direct foreign investments, this sector might be a significant level of economic development and the basic creator of new jobs in the future (Đurašević, 2014). Montenegro has an issue with the lack of workforce. This is the reason to engage a large number of non-residents in tourism. The same phenomenon affects the overall effects of tourism since it influences the outflow of funds from Montenegro. The Strategy for tourism development until 2020 (2008), indicates the orientation of Montenegro to the extension of the tourist season. On the other hand, official data show that tourism traffic is realized in two months during the summer, which points out to the prominent seasonality and a serious issue of long-term development strategy.

According to the data of the Statistical Office of Montenegro in 2017 (2018), a total of 1,877,212 foreign and 122,797 arrivals of domestic guests were realized. In the same year, 11,470,132 overnights of foreign and 483,184 overnights of domestic tourists were achieved. The seasonality is prominent in July and August. In July, there were 499,364 arrivals of foreign guests, i.e. 15,174 arrivals of domestic guests. In the same month, there were 3,366,494 realised overnights of foreign and 3,444,200 overnights of domestic guests. In August, the highest number of guest arrivals was recorded, of which 563,936 foreign and 16,008 domestic. The number of overnights spent by foreign guests was 3,631,847, while 85,990 overnights of domestic guests were recorded. The prominent seasonality suggests it is necessary to take certain measures in order to revive tourism throughout the entire year. Participation of foreign guests is dominant in the structure of arrivals. Tourist offer is interesting to foreign guests, but the value chain has not been established to provide greater attention to a tourist destination.

The incentive measures taken by the Government of Montenegro regarding accommodation capacities point out to the priority in positioning Montenegro as a high-quality tourist destination, taking into consideration implementation of the Law on Tourism and Catering (2018), which stipulates that "beneficiaries of incentive measures may be companies, other legal entities, entrepreneurs and natural persons performing catering activities, related to tourism and catering". The state has defined priority zones, that is, those sites and accommodation facilities in the zone of priority tourism development with the aim

of improving the tourist offer. One of the incentive measures of the state is public-private partnerships that show the initiative and results of tourism development at the level of numerous tourist destinations. In order to implement the National Tourism Development Strategy, which clearly defines the directions for future tourism development, the integration of various participants in the tourism industry can contribute to the successful application of the strategy, standards, improvement of the offer and raising the level of service quality.

5. CONCLUSION

Strategic directions for the development of the national economy should be strictly observed not only through the development of tourism as the dominant economic branch, but all the frameworks for the development of other economic branches are imperatively imposed. Due to a long period of stagnation in the economy caused by negative impacts from the internal and external environment, the state should provide more efficient market economy in the process of structural reforms. It should be done through the implementation of measures in order to achieve faster economic growth and development of tourism as a strategic determinant of Montenegro. The state has indeed developed in the context of structural changes through recognition of tourism as the dominant economic sector. Still, there are restrictions in the field of development.

In institutional terms, it is necessary to apply relevant laws consistently, development strategies, as well as revitalise all available capacities that can influence revival, not only of the tourism economy but the entire economic system within the national economy. Since tourism generates 20% of GDP and the share of tourism provides 18% of total employment, it is the key role of the state to increase the overall economic activity using intervention measures. This is due to tourism revenues not being able to provide stable economic growth, reduce the deficit of foreign trade and provide liquidity within the national economy. Revitalisation of all available capacities within the economy, rational use of potentials and resources, improvement of total infrastructure, harmonised investment by regions, as well as the permanent inflow of foreign capital is necessary to enable significant progress. Direct, indirect and multiple effects of tourism are evident, but competitiveness in tourism market can be strengthened if measures are intensified regarding strategic planning in the investment of tourism infrastructure, transport infrastructure, development of agriculture, energy, starting up production and encouraging entrepreneurship.

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Improving the Quality of the Personnel via Vocational Qualifications and Certification for Tourism Sector: A Turkish Case

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Abstract

Providing and sustaining quality management in the tourism sector is a difficult challenge since tourism is intensively related with the service quality dimensions, which mostly depend on the attitudes, capabilities, competencies, willingness and knowledge of the employees. In this regard, the employment of qualified personnel, as well as providing them with the necessary training, motivation, and assets to develop a sense of institutional belonging is of great significance. The latter is generally achieved by the adoption and implementation of a total quality management approach in the institutions, while vocational standards and qualifications can be preferred as a proper solution for the former. Vocational standards are the documents putting forward the definition, working environment, level, required minimum knowledge, skills and competencies for the vocations. Qualifications, clarifies the duration, methods of measurement, surveillance and recertification for the vocational certification, which provides quality assurance for the labour market and the customers. Vocational qualifications ensure continuous improvement and lifelong learning. Turkish Vocational Qualifications Agency (MYK) has published 33 vocational standards and 24 national qualifications under Tourism-Food and Beverages-Accommodation Sector. Besides, eight authorised certification bodies performed 389 certification examinations, and 1172 people were awarded vocational qualification certificates. However, considering the total number of people working, and the diversity of the vocations in the sector, the number of certified personnel as well as the vocational standards and qualifications is extremely inadequate. The lack of legislation to encourage employers and employees to benefit from vocational certification processes is another critical problem. The context and the practicability of the qualifications are also highly criticised. Within this frame, this paper discusses the current problems of the vocational qualifications framework for Tourism-Food and Beverages-Accommodation Sector and underlines the improvement requirements to increase the personnel quality and customer satisfaction.

Keywords: Vocational qualifications, tourism personnel, quality management in tourism, vocational certification for tourism jobs

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1. INTRODUCTION

According to the Annual Report of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 1.323 million international tourist arrivals, which is 7% more than in 2016, were recorded worldwide in 2017. The growth rate per year for the last eight years in the sector has been declared as 4% (UNWTO, 2018). Considering this noticeable sustainable growth and increase even in the times of global crisis and wars, tourism, by all means, has become one of the most important concerns in a wide range of fields, including economic development, environmental protection, socio-cultural inclusion, and employment (Çabuk, 2017, p. 26). United Nations, for example, seriously focused on tourism to achieve 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 2017 was designated as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development (UNWTO & UNDP, 2017).

Travel and tourism sector is an engine for economic growth, and it created nearly 10% of the total employment globally, around 313 million jobs in other words, in 2017 (WTTC, 2018). Despite the economic crisis, tourism industries continue providing employment, especially for women and young people. In 2015, tourism industries employed 12 million people in the European Union (Eurostat, 2015). According to the data provided from WTTC, travel and tourism industries created over 30 million jobs in the North East Asia region in 2017, with an increase of 85% compared to the jobs in 2016. This region has also been the destination where the travel and tourism industries generated the highest number of jobs globally (Statistica, 2018a).

As the sector supports such a huge amount of employment opportunities, which is of great importance for achieving sustainable development and its many promising targets as well, the quality of the manpower becomes a significant criterion for the quality of the services and outcomes such as productivity, competitiveness, customer satisfaction and overall organizational quality (Singh, 1997, p. 299; Kusluvan et al., 2010, p. 171; Aynalem et al., 2016). As UNWTO and ILO (2014) underline, this is because tourism mostly depends on the human factor for developing quality. Baum (2007, p. 1383) points out the necessity of the qualifications of the people employed within the sector, as well as the proper management of human resources. Regarding the human resources in tourism, there have also been critical debates on the productivity, working conditions, labour cost economies, carrier opportunities, employment sustainability etc. (Baum, 2007; Baum, 2015). The dynamic nature of the tourism labour market and the competition for employment in the sector require the development of a framework, through which the jobs can be properly described, impartial and sustainable employment process is realized, and quality of the human resources is measured and improved (UNWTO & ILO, 2014).

Travel and tourism, which have started growing noticeably after the 1980s, are amongst the most important industries affecting the economy and the employment in

Turkey (Çımat and Bahar, 2003, p.2; Çil Yavuz, 2006, p.162; Dilber, 2007, p. 206; Yıldız, 2011, p. 55). According to WTTC reports, the total contribution of travel and tourism to GDP in Turkey in 2017 was recorded as 359.1 billion Turkish Liras (approximately 50 billion USD) (Statistica, 2018b), and the sector provided 462 thousand direct and 955 thousand indirect jobs in the country the same year (Statistica, 2018c).

Considering these facts, tourism is likely to keep offering opportunities for the unemployed and the economic growth in Turkey. However, being a labour-intensive sector, the quality and sustainability of the services highly depend on the human factor. In this regard, the employment of qualified personnel, as well as providing them with the necessary training, motivation, and assets to develop a sense of institutional belonging is of great significance. The latter is generally achieved by the adoption and implementation of a human resources management approach enriched with quality management concerns in the institutions. Development of vocational standards and qualifications are amongst the proper solutions to assure the employment of skilled and competent personnel. Turkey adopted a similar approach in 2006 and started developing a national qualifications system. In this respect, this paper explains the Turkish Vocational Qualifications Framework in general and focuses on the vocational standards and the national qualifications developed under the Tourism-Food and Beverages-Accommodation Sector. Current applications, problems and requirements are also highlighted.

2. TURKISH VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK

Turkish Vocational Qualifications Agency (MYK) was established in 2006, under the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, as a result of the initiatives and projects initially started in the beginning of 1990s in collaboration with World Bank and Turkish Labour Agency to develop a framework to improve employment opportunities, vocational educations and certification systems (Mesleki Yeterlilik Kurumu; Çabuk et al, 2016, p. 158). The main responsibility of the agency, as explained in the 5544 numbered MYK Law, is to establish and manage a National Vocational Qualifications System, through which the vocational standards and qualifications, as well as necessities for the related processes such as accreditation, authorisation, auditing, measurement, evaluation, and certification, are developed.

The system also highlights the relationship between vocational education/training activities and the availability to employ skilled and competent personnel in the labour market. Thus, it is aimed at the implementation of a sustainable quality assurance framework to achieve both. The major assets of such a framework, without doubt, is vocational standards and qualifications, which together define the knowledge, skills and competencies of the vocations and constitute a major input for the development and implementation of the educational curricula. By this way, both the education/training agendas are kept updated, and the employment of qualified personnel becomes possible.

Customer satisfaction is provided, and life-long learning is also encouraged (Figure 1, Figure 2).

Figure 1: Turkish Vocational Qualifications System and its relation to education

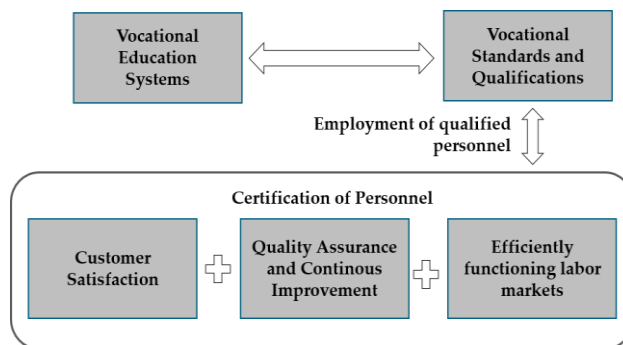
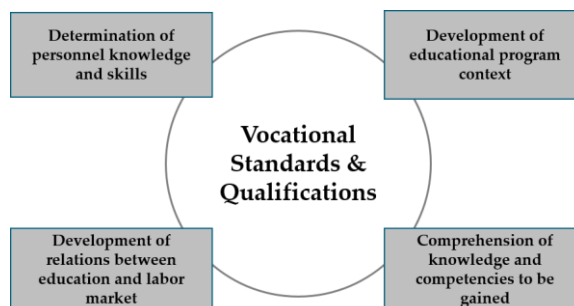


Figure 2: Outputs of vocational standards and qualifications



As in any standard development process, vocational standards and national qualifications are developed in a cooperative environment where the public, NGOs, governmental organisations, chambers, professionals and every other stakeholder are included in the different phases of the process. Vocational standards and qualifications are then validated by the specific sector committees before they are put into force. Both documents are regularly revised and improved. Up to now, MYK has constituted 26 sector committees, published 792 vocational standards and 451 national qualifications, and authorised 173 organisations to perform personnel certification process by the national qualifications and the MYK legislation. From this point, the certification process seems to be the most significant phase of the system, as it provides the recognition of the personnel qualifications and enables employers to find the qualified employees they need.

National qualifications, which are developed basing on the related national and/or international vocational standards, put forward not only the necessary knowledge, skills and competencies expected from a vocation, but also determines (i) certification

examination application requirements, (ii) duration of the certificates, (iii) methods of measurements and evaluation, surveillance, and recertification, and (iv) qualifications of the examiners. Becoming an authorised certification body (CB) requires to get accreditation from Turkish Accreditation Agency (TURKAK) by the ISO/IEC 17024 standard (Conformity Assessment – General Requirements for Bodies Operating Certification of Persons), in the first place, and then an external audit from MYK. This mentioned dual auditing process is repeated each year. Thus, besides personnel quality, the system quality is also expected to be assured.

3. VOCATIONAL STANDARDS AND QUALIFICATIONS FOR TOURISM SECTOR

One of the 26 sectors defined by MYK is “Tourism-Food and Beverages-Accommodation Sector”. By the end of September 2018, 33 vocational standards and 24 national qualifications were published, 8 CBs were authorized, and more than 1100 persons were awarded the national qualifications certificates. Table 1 presents the current list of national qualifications.

Table 1. National qualifications under Tourism-Food and Beverages-Accommodation Sector

Name of the Qualification	Level
Cook	4
Bartender	4
Laundry Machine Operator	2
Cook - Döner	3
Common Area Attendant	2
Common Area Attendant	3
Barista	4
Housekeeper	4
Housekeeper	5
Cook - Kebap	3
Room Attendant	4
Front Office Clerk	4
Front Office Manager	5
Confectioner	4
Cook - Pide	3
Service Attendant	2
Service Attendant	3
Service Attendant	4
Service Manager	5
Travel Agency Salesperson	4
Travel Agency Manager	6
Travel Agency Product Planning and Operation Manager	5
Transfer Attendant	3

In 2018, MYK and Ministry of Culture and Tourism organised a workshop to discuss the current problems and expectations in the sector regarding national qualifications, certification and employment. The mutual intentions to increase the encouragements and supports to perform certification were declared during this workshop.

4. CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that the tourism sector is continuously growing against all global problems and provides unique opportunities for economic growth, sustainable development and employment. As the sector is highly dependent on the human factor, besides many other various issues and aspects, it also becomes important to discuss the human resources management and employment of the qualified personnel to provide sustainability, life-long learning, customer satisfaction and quality assurance. From this point, some measurements are developed specially to constitute a framework to define the vocations, working conditions, knowledge, skills and competences and certification methods. The certification process is especially aimed at the recognition of the skills and competences of the persons, compatible with the vocational qualifications and thus, enable employers to provide efficiency and sustainability in their services.

Turkey, which has long been one of the preferable tourism destinations since the 1980s, keeps tourism in its agenda to provide economic growth and tackle unemployment, and along with the MYK's national qualifications framework, vocational standards and qualifications related to the sector have been developed. However, considering the number of the vocations, which scatter in a wide range of fields within the sector with a noticeably high number, currently published 33 standards and 24 qualifications fall apart from meeting the needs at the moment. Besides, the number of certified personnel is also below expectations and the number of people employed in the sector in the country. This is highly related to the inadequacy and inapplicability of the financial encouragements to support the high costs for certification. Moreover, lack of public, sectoral and organisational awareness in the necessity of such a system results in a decrease in certification demands, unless they are legally compulsory for employment in the sector.

The other critical subject and the source of the ongoing discussions is the improper content of the standards and the qualifications. Many professionals and CBs criticise them because the knowledge, skills and competencies determined in the national qualifications are either incorrect or the methods to evaluate them is not appropriate, even impossible. This reveals the necessity to make urgent revisions and adoption of a more professional and proper approach in the development of the standards and qualifications.

The process to become an authorised CB, on the other hand, requires dual accreditation/authorisation audits performed by TURKAK and MYK on a regular basis, which is quite time and money consuming for the CBs. Moreover, the conflicting

evaluations of the representatives of these two different institutions, and the evaluation of some of the auditors unreflecting the real philosophy of the quality management end up with a loss in motivation and belief in the necessity of the system at all. This situation, as well as the concerns to meet the system performance costs, unfortunately, brings along a vital threat: rather than internalising the quality management with it is all aspects, the CBs focus on financial sustainability only. Despite the audits to sustain quality, this concern may, unfortunately, result in unequal competitions among the CBs, where quality is usually ignored. To overcome these problems, a more professional and qualified approach should be adopted for all phases of the national qualifications system.

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Tourism in Montenegro and Slovenia: Breaks in Time Series

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Assis. Prof. Tamara Backović Vulić⁴

Abstract

Tourism is one of the most important parts and drivers of national economies at least in Mediterranean countries. In the present article, we analyse tourism development in Montenegro and Slovenia, two important Adriatic tourist destinations in the Mediterranean region. We discuss the tourism in Montenegro and Slovenia from the end of 20th century. In the survey when monthly time series of tourism arrivals and gross domestic product are discussed, we found that in both countries tourism plays an important national role. Subsequently, tourism plays even higher importance in Montenegro than in Slovenia. As interesting, it is to note that both countries experienced high tourist arrivals already in the eighties in the past century. We apply different statistical-econometric methods on the secondary historical data: summary statistics, simple regression analysis and Granger causality test. A special focus in the analysis is on different structural breaks in the national economy and tourism time series for Montenegro and Slovenia since the 1970s. The identified breaks in time series for Slovenia and Montenegro are the novelty of the survey with policy and managerial implications.

Keywords: Tourism time series, Montenegro, Slovenia

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism in two Adriatic countries is a highly important part of the national economy (Gričar & Bojnec, Tourism price causalities: Case of an Adriatic country, 2018). This study aims to point out the differences and similarities in tourism economies between two countries based on secondary data. In the period of contemporary tourism since the beginning of 20th century, Slovenia and Montenegro shared common history until 1991. In 1991 Slovenia, become independent after the collapse of Yugoslavia. Montenegro becomes independent in 2006 after the collapse of the Serbia-Montenegro constitution. Montenegro has introduced euro since 2002 as a de facto currency. Slovenia adopted euro as official currency in 2007. The two Slavic countries are still well connected, and tourism plays an important role in the labour market and has, therefore, substantial impact on prices of non-tradable goods.

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In tourism analysis and policies, the importance of time series has been neglected. The data, as argued by Juselius (2017) speak freely; therefore, many structural breaks in tourism could be found from the data obtained from the secondary sources as statistical offices, macroeconomic offices and other public services are. Properly using cointegration, the results, using time series, predict the situation in the next period (Juselius, 2017a). The latest is as importance for the tourism policy in both recognised countries. Structural breaks that are obtained in the analysis show several important steps the managers and economists need to observe.

In the literature (Gričar & Bojnec, Tourism price causalities: Case of an Adriatic country, 2018), there is an increasing interest to analyse differences and similarities between countries on spatial econometrics. Moreover, when analysing on a country with a comparison to another country the Granger Causality test is applied. Therefore, the hypothesis in a recent article is that pattern in the development or growth of gross domestic product (GDP) predicts, reproduces and executes structural breaks in time series regarding tourism arrivals in Slovenia and Montenegro.

The form of this paper is as follows: in section 2, literature review is presented as a theoretical background of spatial integration between Slovenia and Montenegro in the tourism market. For small open economies, such as Montenegro and Slovenia, market regulation and information flows have major trade and economic policy repercussion. Primarily, this applies to the spread of policy by business players of the tourism supply chain. The matter in question with international tourism market competitiveness is up to date between Montenegro and Slovenia. Section 2.1 specifies the conjectural model that forms the groundwork of our applied tests. After describing the data used in section 2.2, we continue with an individual visual inspection. For this visual test, natural logarithms were applied. We introduce inflation rate as having a normal distributed model (Juselius, 2017a). Section 3 focuses on the estimation of the model. Following a review of estimation techniques, we present the cointegration test. Following the misspecification test for time series, we present deterministic coefficients as structural breaks in tourism time series. Our deterministic components utilise a vector of measurements for distances between volatility in tourism. The functional form of time series dependence is predetermined. Section 4 discusses estimated impact rules and derives tourism policy and management implications. Finally, section 5 concludes with an assessment of the applied model and its significance for tourism management.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Hall (2002) pointed out: “pre-1989 Yugoslavia appeared to have developed a successful tourism industry which projected a particularly welcoming and positive image of the country to the West (or at least Western mass tourist markets). The emergent newly independent states had to put their Yugoslav and communist pasts behind them, establish

a new national identity (albeit based on historical elements) and inspire confidence for investment in economic reconstruction.” Following Hall (2002), this paper examines the branding of former Yugoslav Republics Slovenia and Montenegro, which are looking to develop tourism industry to assist both the projection of national identity and the process of economic revitalisation.

Recent literature describes tourism in Slovenia in Montenegro Bigović, & Prašnikar, 2015). (Gričar, Bojnec, Karadžić, & Rakočević, 2016; Raspor, Stranjančević, Bulatović, & Lacmanović, 2017). However, there are rare studies on Granger Causalities on these countries and especially on time series. Therefore, our research is contemporary and innovative. Can & Gozgor (2018) pointed out panel Granger Causality for Mediterranean countries. During the period 1995-2014, the results of economic growth and tourist arrivals are on tourism-growth nexus for eight countries: Egypt, France, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Spain, Tunisia, and Turkey. They find the causality from market diversification to economic growth in Egypt and Greece and observe the causality from economic growth to market diversification in France, Morocco, and Turkey. They also find bi-directional causality in Italy, Spain, and Tunisia.

Ana (2018) find that Europe is currently the most important continent for tourism, from both outbound and inbound flows perspective. Additionally, she perceived that rather less attention had been paid to tourism in the Central and Eastern European countries. However, even more, rare are studies for South Eastern European countries, especially for Montenegro and to a lesser extent Slovenia, while Croatia has attracted some more recent attention in studies. For example, Dogru & Bulut (2018) and (Kyophilavong, Gallup, & Nozaki, 2018) found that economic growth and tourism development are strongly dependent.

Our focus is on the analysis of causalities between international tourist arrivals and GDP. In 2017, international tourist arrivals grew by 7%, which has been the highest increase since 2010 (UNWTO, 2018). The implications of growing demands for tourism services are also important for Slovenia and Montenegro. UNWTO (2018) included Slovenia and Montenegro in the same region Southern/Mediterranean Europe with the data of tourist arrivals and expenditure. Slovenia had 1.89 million tourist arrivals in 2010 and 3.6 in 2017 whereas Montenegro had 1.1 and 1.9 million tourist arrivals subsequently. Tourists in Slovenia spent 2.2 million euros in 2010 and 2.4 million euros in 2017. Montenegro has reached a better position in the rise of the tourist expenditure since the expenditure in 2017 was 0.91 million euros and in 2010 0.64 million euros with a rise of 42%. Slovenia rose only at 9% (UNWTO, 2018).

3. METHODS

In our survey, three simple methods are applied, as first descriptive statistics with analyses of minimum, maximum, standard deviation and mean value. The results in Table 1 confirm our suspicion that analysed variables have high volatility and therefore Granger Causality test is the optimal solution to get non-spurious results. Before Granger Causality test, we implement ordinary least square regression analyses. The spurious results with high deterministic coefficient and significance of the model suggest further analyses by Granger Causality test.

Although we also need to test restrictions on the ζ matrix in order to test for weak exogeneity in the $I(1)$ model, the test for a zero row in the α matrix may provide some preliminary information on which variables that may be weakly exogenous.

3.1. Data used

Data sources are Statistical office of Republic of Slovenia (SORS) (SURS, 2018), Eurostat (Eurostat, 2018), United Nations (UNdata, 2018), World Bank (World Bank, 2018), World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (UNWTO, 2018) and Statistical Office of Montenegro (MONSTAT) (MONSTAT, 2018). This data is used with an econometric approach and is further calculated from chain indices to indices with a constant base (2002=100). Data of GDP per capita are for 16 years.

Table 2. Indices With Constant Base (2002 = 100) and results of descriptive statistics

Descriptive / variable	GDP_t^{MNE}	GDP_t^{SI}	TA_t^{MNE}	TA_t^{SI}
Maximum	356.0	167.0	1,380.1	275.4
Minimum	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mean	273.1	135.6	712.4	158.1
Median	312.5	140.5	783.8	147.0
St. deviation	86.3	18.9	420.8	48.1

Note: GDP – gross domestic product per capita, TA – international tourist arrivals.

Source: SORS; UNdata; Eurostat; MONSTAT; IvanStat, WorldBank, 2018.

The data is obtained as yearly GDP per capita from the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and Eurostat. Due to comprehensive analysis, we conduct yearly data as GDP per capita for the period from 2002 for Slovenia and Montenegro (UNdata, 2018; Eurostat, 2018). Data for 2017 for Montenegro are preliminary.

International tourist arrivals were obtained from the World Bank and UNWTO (World Bank, 2018; UNWTO, 2018). Data on international tourist arrivals covers for both countries from 2002-2017. These data are referring to arrivals and not to an actual number of people travelling. One person visiting the same country several times during the year is

counted each time as a new arrival. Likewise, the same person visiting several countries during the same trip is counted each time as a new arrival (UNWTO, 2018).

Steenbruggen (2014) argues that international tourist arrivals are increasing with significant economic impacts. Several countries depend on income generated by the tourism sector and the related businesses. The latter is also confirmed for Slovenia and Montenegro (Table 2). More specifically, we are focusing on structural and other breaks in time series, which empirical results are provided in the next section.

Picture 1. Sources of Data and Length of Data Vector

TA_{MNE}	TA_{SI}	GDP_{MNE}	GDP_{SI}
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2002-2017 • WORLD BANK 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2002-2017 • WORLD BANK 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2002-2017 • UNDATA • EUROSTAT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2002-2017 • EUROSTAT

3.2. Empirical results

From the collected secondary data, we have derived new data vector, which consists the years 2002 to 2017 (Picture 1). Data on the variable tourist arrivals for Montenegro were not available before the year 2002. The new data vector can be written as: $MNE_{SI}^I[GDP TA]_t^I$,

(1), where *MNE* is abbreviation for Montenegro, *SI* for Slovenia, *t* for time series, *I* order of integration, *TA* tourist arrivals and *GDP* gross domestic product. The new base year is confirmed as 2002=100. In Figure 1 we can see that GDP in Slovenia follows TA and vice versa. On the other hands TA in Montenegro has explosive roots, while an GDP do not follow the same trend. Therefore, other values and events disrupt to drive TA and GDP in Montenegro, whilst for Slovenia we can identify the same break occasions for each of macroeconomic variables.

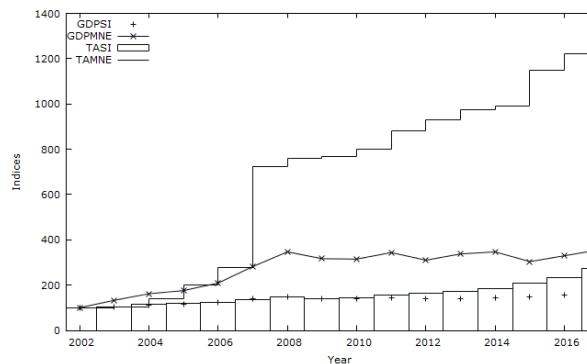


Figure 1: Trend of indices of GDP and TA

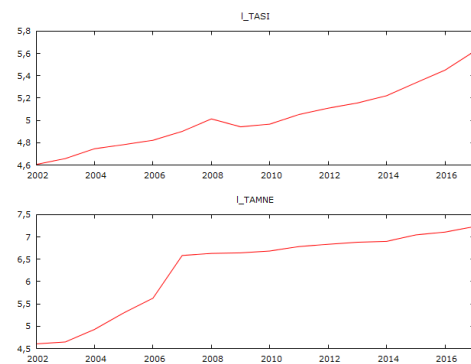


Figure 2: Breaks in tourism

In the next step was conducted regression analysis. It is important to note that this method is only used to see trends in the analysed variables, but not to discuss the results, since the results of the regression analysis could be spurious (Juselius, 2009), because Durbin – Watson statistics is low and is available on demand. Therefore, the tested equation of the regression analysis is: $Y_t = \alpha + \beta_t \cdot X_t + \epsilon$ (2), and the estimated regression equations are for Montenegro: $GDP\ per\ capita_t = 139.64 + 0.19 \cdot TA_t + \epsilon$ (3), $TA_t = -503.28 + 4.45 \cdot GDP\ per\ capita_t + \epsilon$ (4), and for Slovenia: $GDP\ per\ capita_t = 82.01 + 0.34 \cdot TA_t + \epsilon$ (5), $TA_t = -141.00 + 2.21 \cdot GDP\ per\ capita_t + \epsilon$ (6).

Moreover, we want to find out if there is any causality between GDP and TA in Slovenia and in Montenegro, respectively, during the period 2002-2017. To show the results of Granger Causality Test we present in Table 3 the results of F -test using two lags. In each case, the null hypothesis is that GDP_t does not (Granger) cause TA_t , and vice versa.

The results confirmed bi-directional causal relation for Slovenia. International tourist arrivals have a strong impact on national GDP per capita, and vice versa in 15 years. For Montenegro, results confirm only one-directional causal relation. The relation derives from a 10% significance value that international tourist arrivals have a positive impact on national GDP per capita in 15 years. Note these results features of the proceeding results of the F test: up to two lags.

Each year has some specific breaks (Figure 2). For Montenegro, most obvious breaks are in the years 2004, 2006 and 2014. For Slovenia, there is also break 2014 and additional in 2008 and 2009.

Table 3. Granger Causality test

Direction of causality	Number of lags	$F - test$ value	Decision
$GDP\ per\ capita_t^{MNE} \rightarrow TA_t^{MNE}$	2	0.05	Cannot be rejected
$TA_t^{MNE} \rightarrow GDP\ per\ capita_t^{MNE}$	2	3.37*	Rejected
$GDP\ per\ capita_t^{SI} \rightarrow TA_t^{SI}$	2	4.34**	Rejected
$TA_t^{SI} \rightarrow GDP\ per\ capita_t^{SI}$	2	7.44***	Rejected

Note: GDP – gross domestic product, TA – tourist arrivals, *** - statistically significance at 1%, ** - statistically significance at 5%, * - statistically significance at 10%.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper contributes with compiled time series database, capturing two countries during their economic and historical development the obtained and compiled comparable secondary data for Montenegro and Slovenia during their former Yugoslav period and since

independence is an important scientific step. This database is used for presented descriptive statistics and applied econometric analysis.

More specifically, Granger Causality Test was applied for two concurrence countries for causalities between GDP and international tourist arrivals. Countries share a common history in the Western Balkan region. For international tourist arrivals can be important that the countries have introduced euro, Slovenia as national currency and Montenegro as de-facto currency. Since 2004 Slovenia is part of EU, and Montenegro is accepted for negotiations with EU for its membership, which has started on 29 June 2012.

The results of the empirical analysis confirm the importance of international tourist arrivals on the national economy (GDP) in the analysed countries. The opposite dissembles relationship is found for Slovenia. The GDP has an impact on international tourist arrivals in Slovenia. This can be explained in a way that domestic GDP growth can be more important for outbound than inbound international tourist arrivals or that international (foreign) tourist's prospects in their decision of destination how developed the country is. This is observed on demand side (how much I can spend on my holiday?), security level (Am I safe in this destination or country?) and environmental basis (Does country provide sustainable services?).

We have also confirmed strong breaks in international tourist arrivals, which can be explained with political and economic developments in the Western Balkan region since the 1970s. Among the most obvious break is the independence of Montenegro in 2006 and the beginning of the economic crisis in 2008 in Slovenia followed by a decline in GDP. However, we have also identified some other significant events with structural breaks in time series, i.e., most important are oil crises in the 1970s, the collapse of the former Yugoslavia at the beginning of 1990s, and economic crisis at the end of 2000s.

There are some policy and economic implications of the contemporary survey on Montenegro and Slovenia. Both countries could, even more, recognise a stronger partnership, which makes bilateral and multilateral freedom of movements and export/import of goods and services, including tourism services and international tourist arrivals. These policy events could raise GDP even more than has happened in recent years after the breaks occurred since the 1970s. Therefore, it is important for tourism managers and policymakers to use the available evidence and predict the events, which are related to international tourist arrivals and overall economic development (GDP).

There are some limitations of the research; first data range for international tourist arrivals for Montenegro is short, moreover also for Slovenia is too short to have non-spurious results. Therefore, for the research in future, we propose panel data analysis for several countries in Western Balkans with the same or similar variables and methods. As an additional method, cointegration analysis can be applied.

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Tourism and Counterterrorism in Russia: The Case of *Kurorti Severnovo Kavkaza*

Giuliano Bifulchi¹

Abstract

The North Caucasus is a Southern Russian region affected by terrorism and jihadist propaganda and is considered the most unstable, underdeveloped and unsafe area in the Russian Federation. Since the collapse of the Soviet Union, the North Caucasus has experienced ethnic conflicts, militancy, the rise of radicalism, terrorist attacks, corruption and high unemployment rate. With the aim of contrasting the socio-economic problems and the recruitment process among the ranks of local militant groups (*Imarat Kavkaz*) and international terrorist organisations (al-Qaeda and the Islamic State), the Kremlin started a strategy focused on tourism development. This paper wants to study the Russian policy of contrasting terrorism and improving socio-economic conditions through the analysis of the *Kurorti Severnovo Kavkaza* (North Caucasus Resorts), a project whose goal is to realise regional tourist clusters to attract FDIs and create around 31 thousand new jobs. In this research, the author will assess the Russian tourism strategy on regional level evaluating at the same time the impact of terrorism and local militancy on the regional tourism development and the effects of the *Kurorti Severnovo Kavkaza* project in ethnic conflicts management and counterterrorism activities. Besides, this paper will try to estimate if tourism development might be a solution to contrast terrorism and radicalisation.

Keywords: Russia, North Caucasus, terrorism, Kurorti Severnovo Kavkaza, tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Kremlin has been involved in contrasting local militancy and terrorist activities in the North Caucasus. Soon after the dissolution of the USSR the East Prigorodny Conflict (1992) in North Ossetia-Alania and the First Chechen Conflict (1994-1996) in Chechnya underlined the instability of the North Caucasus and the Russian inability to control the region. The Second Chechen Conflict (1999 – 2009), the diffusion of radicalisation and political Islam before in Chechnya and Dagestan and after in the western part of the North Caucasian region confirmed the Kremlin's problems in managing the area.

Weakness, failing economic policies and a domestic chaotic political life had characterised the first decade of the Russian Federation since the election of Vladimir Putin in 2000 which marked the beginning of a new path branded by a stable centralised

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government engaged in controlling the North Caucasus through security operations and regional socio-economic projects.

In 2007 Doku Umarov proclaimed the creation of *Imarat Kavkaz* (Caucasus Emirate), a terrorist organisation which aimed at establishing an emirate in the North Caucasus based on *sharia* law. Although the Kremlin since 2010 has accomplished the mission to reduce terrorist attacks and eliminate the main leaders of *Imarat Kavkaz*, in 2014 the Islamic State started its *jihadi*st propaganda in Russian language targeting the North Caucasian young Muslim generations and attempting to recruit them as foreign fighters to conduct violent attacks on the Russian soil.

This prolonged conflict between the central Russian authority and the local terrorist groups has affected the North Caucasus often described as the most unstable, volatile, underdeveloped region of the Russian Federation. With the purpose of overcoming the regional problems and improving the socio-economic conditions, in 2010 the Kremlin launched the project *Kurorti Severnovo Kavkaza* (North Caucasus Resorts, hereinafter NCRP) whose goal is to create tourist clusters in the region capable at the same time to attract foreign direct investments (FDIs) and international tourists and create around 31 thousand new jobs.

This project, heavily financed and supported by the Russian government, has aroused critics and perplexity by those scholars and regional analysts who perceived the NCRP as a temporary solution of the local problems because focuses the attention only on the economic aspect without considering the historical, cultural, religious and social background.

2. METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

This research attempts to explain the Kremlin's strategy in the North Caucasus to contrast the rise of terrorist groups and the socio-economic problems through the improvement of the tourist sector. The methodology used in this paper is based on a literature review about geopolitics, security, tourism, economy, and books, journal articles, and NGOs' reports concerning the North Caucasus and the Russian regional economic strategy. This paper aims at analysing the efficacy of the Russian policy in the North Caucasus focused on the NCRP to counteract terrorist activities and the effects on the local socio-cultural dynamics. Also, thanks to the analysis of the NCRP, it could be possible to estimate if tourism development is useful in contrasting the rise of terrorism, *jihadi*st propaganda and radicalisation and if this Russian strategy might be applied in other scenarios.

3. TERRORISM IN THE NORTH CAUCASUS: RECENT TREND

Security has always been one of the primary concern of the Russian government because the country has experienced waves of terrorist attacks related to domestic militants and international *jihadi*st groups since the collapse of the Soviet Union. In recent years

security has become an 'obsession' for the Kremlin because Russia was designated to host two of the most important international events such as the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games and the 2018 FIFA World Cup which should have shown to the rest of the world the significant political and economic achievements and progress of the Russian Federation (Reynolds 2014; Müller 2014:629). Also, Sochi 2014 and Russia 2018 have represented an opportunity for the Kremlin to promote tourism in the Russian Federation and attract foreign visitors showing to the rest of the world the friendly Russian environment and the high level of tourist infrastructures in the country.

Since the Tsarist period, during the Soviet Union and also nowadays, the North Caucasus has been a challenging area for Russia because the local population has always been hostile to the Russian presence contrasting the central authority in different ways from the *ghazavat*² of the 18th-19th century to recent militant activities (Schaefer 2010; Mazurova 2016).

The Kremlin elaborated a strategy based on a new administrative configuration of the region and the improvement of the socio-economic conditions to neutralise terrorist organisations and violent attacks in the North Caucasus. Therefore, in parallel with the creation of the *Severo-Kavkazskiy Federalniy Okrug* (North Caucasus Federal District, hereinafter NCFD) separated by the *Yuzhniy Federalniy Okrug* (South Federal District, hereinafter SFD) and the launch of the Strategy 2025 (The Strategy of Social-Economic Development of the North Caucasus Federal District until 2025 2010) with the following NCRP, Russian security forces has performed several counter-terrorist special operations in the region targeting local terrorist groups. As a result, since 2010 the level of violence has significantly decreased.

Although a year before the creation of the NCFD the region registered 1,381 terrorist attacks (about 2-3 per day) and during the period 2010-2015 terrorism caused 6074 victims, the North Caucasus has recorded a sharp decline in violence. Indeed, the number of victims of terrorism dropped from 1,705 in 2010 to 258 in 2015 with a small growth in 2016 (287 victims) and a following decrease in 2017 (175 victims) (Infographics. The Statistics of the Number of Victims in the North Caucasian Federal District Regions for a Period of 8 Years n.d.).

Recent statistics seem to confirm this positive trend regarding the fight against terrorism: for instance, in the first quarter of 2018 terrorism and violent attacks caused 27 victims (20 casualties and 6 wounded) in Dagestan, Chechnya and Ingushetia, a number lower respect the first quarter of 2017 when armed conflicts caused 45 victims (36 casualties

² The word *ghazavat* (in Russian *разават*) indicates the conflict between the Tsarist Empire and the Muslim peoples of the North Caucasus in the 18th-19th centuries and it is often used as a synonym of *jihad* (holy war). The original Arabic word is *ghazw* (غزو) which referred to the military expeditions or raiding. After the emergence of Islam, the word *ghazw* took on new connotations of religious warfare.

and nine wounded) only in Chechnya and Dagestan (Infographics. Statistics of Victims in Northern Caucasus in Quarter 1 of 2017 under the Data of the Caucasian Knot 2017; Жертвами Вооруженного Конфликта На Северном Кавказе в Первом Квартале 2018 Года Стали 27 Человек 2018).

Even though the regional security situation has improved, the North Caucasus has demonstrated to be permeated by the Islamic State activities and propaganda. As pointed out by the Europol, the Islamic State elaborated *jihadist* propaganda in Russian language publishing the magazine *Istok* and using Social Media with the purpose of promoting its ideology and recruiting foreign fighters in the post-Soviet space (North Caucasian Fighters in Syria and Iraq and Russian Language Propaganda 2015). Looking at the statistics and according to the Russian President Vladimir Putin, around 4,000 – 5,000 Russian nationals have joined the Islamic State and, among these foreign fighters, there is a significant group of North Caucasians (Sanderson et al. 2017:12). This means that *jihadist* propaganda can affect the population in the North Caucasus, and in the near future, when the Islamic State will be entirely defeated in the MENA region, there is the risk that the North Caucasian foreign fighters might come back home, apply *guerrilla* tactics and promote *jihadist* ideology in the area threatening the local security and ruining the Kremlin's socio-economic development strategy focused on tourist clusters.

4. THE PROJECT KURORTI SEVERNOVO KAVKAZA

On October 14th, 2010, was signed the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation No. 833 "On tourism cluster creation in the North Caucasus Federal District, the Krasnodar Territory and the Republic of Adygea" by the Strategy 2025. In December 2010 the Government decided to establish the Open Joint Stock Company Northern Caucasus Resorts (hereinafter JSC NCR) which designs, develops, constructs, and manages mountain tourism cluster development projects in the North Caucasus including seven all-season tourism and recreation complexes, a coastal cluster, a balneological cluster and the relative Special Economic Zones (SEZs).

By 2025 the NCRP aims at creating more than 31 thousand jobs, hosting around 5.5 million people between Russian and foreign tourists and promoting the Special Economic Zones (SEZs) whose purpose is to attract foreign direct investments (FDIs) and support the Strategy 2025 in developing the regional socio-economic conditions, contrasting economic depression and unemployment.

In 2014 the Board of Directors of the JSC NCR approved the Development Strategy of the Company up to 2025. The Development Strategy provides for two stages in the implementation of the project:

1. The first stage includes the creation of benchmark resorts within the development program of the most promising sites: Arkhyz ATRC, Elbrus-Bezengi ATRC and Veduchi ATRC.

2. The second stage includes the operation of the resorts established during phase 1, with the subsequent construction of other resorts within the tourism cluster.

In the last years, the Company has built and put into operation 41 facilities of engineering and ski infrastructure, including ski slopes and ski lifts, snowmaking systems and lighting of hills, administrative buildings, water pipes and electric cable lines, sewage and gas supply facilities, etc. Nine more facilities are under construction, and three facilities are in the design stage.

In recent years, the JSC NCR has demonstrated its full commitment in the tourist clusters development financing the building of infrastructure facilities of the SEZs. For instance, in 2014 the JSC NCR allocated 4.2 billion rubles in the development of the SEZs, in 2015 invested 1 billion rubles in ski infrastructure of Elbrus-Bezengi resort (Kabardino-Balkaria), and about 3.3 billion rubles in the expansion of Arkhyz (Karachay-Cherkessia), while in 2016, according to the investment plan, the company assigned about 2.9 billion rubles for the implementation of the tourist clusters.

The Kremlin has established the regional SEZs for 49 years with a special legal status which gives tax privileges and customs preferences to the investors –e.g. the investors' costs are 30-40% lower than the national average indicators (Привлечение Инвестиций n.d.). The SEZs' favourable tax regime has the following characteristics:

- Corporate tax: from 0% to 13.5% till 2023 (instead of 20%);
- Land tax: 0% for five years;
- Property tax: 0% for 10 years;
- Social taxes for resident entities reduced to 14% until 2017, 21% till 2018 and 28% in 2019 (instead of 30%);
- Government's guarantees on loans and bonds of local and foreign investors in the SEZs for investment projects in the tourist clusters.

The JSC NCR has elaborated a business strategy which interests the fields of marketing, education and environmental protection. Indeed, in 2014 the North Caucasian company selected the Volga Brand Identity agency to develop a new corporate style and a single umbrella brand of all resorts as part of a tourist cluster in the NCFD. Volga Brand Identity elaborated a brand which took into consideration the ornamental motifs and national patterns of the North Caucasian populations. The brand has a double role of emphasising the tourist clusters in the North Caucasus and at the same time underlining the individual and specific characteristics of each North Caucasian republics (Зонтичный Бренд «Курорты Северного Кавказа» n.d.).

Also, the JSC NCR decided to implement and develop education and specialisation in tourism and tourism management creating the training and education project “School of Caucasian Hospitality” together with regional and foreign partners. The project aims at promoting, among the younger generation, the popularity of careers in the tourism and hospitality and the professional education and employment at the resorts of the North Caucasus. Among the national partners there are some of the principal academic institutions such as the Russian International Olympic University, the North Caucasus Federal University, the Kabardino-Balkarian State University “H.M. Berbekov”, the Karachaevo-Circassian State University “U.D. Aliyev”, and the Chechen State University (Школа Кавказского Гостеприимства 2016; В Дагестане Реализуют Проект «Школа Кавказского Гостеприимства» 2018; Пленарное Заседание Всероссийской Научно-Практической Конференции «Школа Кавказского Гостеприимства: Перспективы Развития и Кадровое Обеспечение» 2018).

Furthermore, the JSC NCR created the non-profit organisation “North Caucasus Nature Preservation and Protection Center” (ANO “Caucasus Nature Center”) whose mission is to preserve and protect the local natural potential which forms the basis for the tourism and the regional socio-economic development (Природоохранная Деятельность n.d.).

The Kremlin’s efforts to improve the regional socio-economic situation through tourist clusters have not obtained the domestic and international support hoped by the Russian government. Scholars and experts have expressed concern about Strategy 2025 and the NCRP which allocate abundant investments in the North Caucasus without contrasting the local corruption. Additionally, given the unique geographical, historical, religious, ethnic and economic characteristics of the region, the Kremlin’s systematic approach in the management and development of the area was considered approximatively because it does not contemplate the regional ethnic conflicts and the effects of tourist clusters for the local business. Although the NCRP aims at creating 31 thousand jobs and improve the regional socio-economic development, this touristic project can damage the small local producers and challenge historical heritage and traditions (Kolosov et al. 2016).

The Kremlin's strategy has therefore accentuated the migration of North Caucasian educated citizens in search of better job opportunities in the Russian Federation or abroad. This tendency underlines the distrust of the North Caucasians toward the Kremlin’s regional policy. Also, those people who do not have access to higher education and are unable to participate in the development process decide to put their hopes in radical Islam and jihadist organisations. Consequently, many young North Caucasians abandon the job market preferring to join local terrorist groups and fostering an influx of immigration from other regions of the Russian Federation (Abdulagatov 2013).

Therefore, the migration flow of Russian workers from other regions into the DFCN and the affiliation to radical Islam by young people are possible causes of further regional instability promoting an internal conflict between the local population and immigrants for access to jobs (Starodubrovskaya 2014).

Tourism development and the NCRP underline two main regional problems related to the North Caucasian society:

1. the clash among the local lobbies to have access to the state funds which often affect the quality of the various economic projects and generate cases of corruption and the land division rights' problem which can escalate in local conflicts because a high population density characterises the region in the face of poor land availability.
2. The shift from a traditional agricultural and pastoral economy to an economic system focused on tourism, attracting investments and business activities in the SEZs, directly affects the local population and the SMEs that form the primary regional economic substratum and generate distrust towards the NCRP (Kolosov et al. 2016).

The detractors of the NCRP and the Strategy 2025 underline their financial unsustainability, according to the current development model, and the constant setbacks, especially after the economic sanctions following the Ukraine crisis and the oil and ruble crisis. The Kremlin's tourism development approach does not take into account the political, religious, interethnic and security aspects of the region, while Moscow's inability to financially support all the seven tourism resorts building projects caused the downsizing of the NCRP which have focused its efforts only on the tourist complexes of Arkhyz, Elbrus-Bezengi and Veduchi (Vatchagaev 2014).

Veronika Yu. Maslikhina analysed the efficiency of the SEZs in Russia and concluded that the potential of tourism and recreation in these areas is not realised. In the North Caucasus, the experience of the SEZs still results insignificant, and the region cannot compete with the SEZs of the most developed areas of the Russian Federation. Instead of allowing regional development the North Caucasian SEZs have not been used to the full extent and have also accentuated the problem of land property (Maslikhina 2016).

Experts have also highlighted the indiscriminate use of force during the anti-terrorist operations, the absence of a free and democratic electoral process, the lack of transparency and widespread corruption as potential threats to the regional stability and the success of the Kremlin's strategy. The development of the informal economy and agriculture, sectors that need the modernisation of infrastructures shortly, must be promoted respecting the local micro-economy of the multi-ethnic communities and the resolution of the problems inherent the privatisation of the land (International Crisis Group 2015).

5. CONCLUSION

The NCRP might be considered as the beginning of a more complex strategy to resolve the regional problems and efficiently contrast terrorist groups and *jihadist* propaganda. North Caucasian foreign fighters might be a threat to the regional stability and tourism development because they have acquired the knowledge to conduct violent attacks on soldiers, civilians and strategic infrastructures. Shortly, after the complete defeat of the Islamic State in the Middle East and North Africa, former North Caucasian foreign fighters might consider a target the local tourist clusters and the international visitors attacking or abducting them to influence the global public opinion and affect the Russian regional strategy and presence.

Russia has focused its economic strives on tourism with the aim of transforming the DFCN into a national and international tourist attraction. In the face of the enormous economic efforts produced by the Kremlin, and also supported by military operations against the terrorist threat, the Strategy 2025 and the NCRP have not yet yielded the expected results generating instead greater scepticism among experts and the local population on their real usefulness in the region.

Although the critical problems of the NCRP are the necessity to attract foreign investments and overcome the reluctance of the local population towards a business model perceived as a menace for the SMEs, the North Caucasus has a significative tourist potential whose development might consistently contrast regional economic problems and the rise of *jihadist* groups. Therefore, if the Kremlin will be able to solve the issues related to local entrepreneurship, administration and education, the NCRP would ensure an annual contribution of 100 billion dollars to the region. Also, the NCRP could provide a new ideology of regional development that will see the transformation of inactive clusters in active centres connected to the world of entrepreneurship and education (Anokhina and Mochal'nikov 2015).

The case of NCRP highlights the fact that the tourist sector has all the potentialities to contrast the rise of terrorist groups and overcome the regional problems at the condition that the central authority considers every local peculiarity and incorporates the indigenous population into the tourism system. Otherwise, tourism can become another element of separation between the government and the natives and fuel the rise of terrorism among those young people who do not have access to high education and job opportunities.

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Coastal Megacity of Istanbul from the Eyes of the Children

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Abstract

With a history dating back to 6000 BC, İstanbul has always been a significant coastal city standing on two peninsulas belonging to different continents. Although it has always been a dynamic city, within the last three decades, it has examined a gigantic spatial transformation and growth which bring about a question mark about the robustness of its cultural landscape character. This study interrogates the collective spatial memory of the children towards the attributes of the İstanbul megacity as “coastal,” “historical” and “cultural”. Thus, it attempts to rediscover İstanbul from their eyes.

Within this study, three historical parks are selected for the field studies due to their remarkable connections with the Sea of Marmara, old and massive vegetative landscape structures they capture, their existence in the daily experiences of the inhabitants, and a huge number of children park users they welcome. Following to the literature studies and meetings with experts about children’s perception, this study settles on 100 questionnaires supported by interviews and picture drawings with children ranging from 6-10 years old at the historical coastal parks of Gülhane, Maçka and Fenerbahçe.

Perceptual differences among the children are discussed due to 11 parameters classified as accessibility, locality, spatial configuration, functions, characteristic hard and soft landscape elements, the frequency of the park and sea vessel usage, gender, school attendance, parents’ environmental awareness, and dominance of the vantage points.

This study proves the gap between so far known coastal character of the megacity before the mega-urban transformation projects and the ongoing collective memory of the children as the following owners of the coastal megacity. Thus, it attempts to reveal coastal landscape planning and design strategies for the new but characteristic İstanbul city of the children which is culturally robust but also responsive to the dynamics of the new era.

Keywords: Coastal megacity of Istanbul, Children, Collective memory, Historical coastal parks

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1. INTRODUCTION

Istanbul with its historical and cultural background has always been a significant coastal city. Along the Bosphorus, city locates on two peninsulas belong to different continents offering several relations to the sea.

Before this century, İstanbul's cultural landscape character has been changed consistently by the city's owners. "The child population by provinces and age groups at 2017" study by the Turkish Statistical Institute Survey (TurkStat 2017) states that 26,4 per cent of the population of İstanbul consists of children. Despite the high population of children in İstanbul, children are not included in making their places. Fine and Sandstorm (1988) mention that it brings a question about the methodology to assume that the knowledge and understanding of the children by adults are accurate thanks to being with children frequently and their childhood memories (as cited in Punch, 2002). Moreover, Alderson and Goodey (1996) state that the common belief that adults know everything better than children should be broken by the adults (as cited in Punch, 2002).

For children's development examining the outdoors provide intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual and physical advantages (Kellert, 2005). Some of the adult's value human-made settings but mostly they value natural settings as their favourite places from their childhood as mentioned in numerous studies (as cited in Francis, 1995). According to Ozservet (2016), placemaking of children citizens can be evaluated by the parameters of "children having a sense of belonging to İstanbul", "being aware of the built environments", and finally "active participation to the place making the process". Altman and Chemers (1988) acknowledge the Piaget chronological stages of development (1936) theory as a pioneer in children's environmental perception. Benefitted from the analysis by Hart and Moore (1973), Altman & Chemers (1988) state that from the age of two to eight see the environment dependent of themselves and place themselves as the reference points. Children from the age of seven to twelve are no longer use themselves as the only reference points but use the landmarks within their near environments.

It is really important to see the city from the children's window because how children experience the city is different from the adults. They are so small and young that they have a different scale of sense. As Christensen and O'Brien (2003) state, in the urban environment even people, furniture, lampposts and cars can be interpreted as 'big' by the children. Sometimes this 'bigness' can be scary for them. Children perceive the urban environment from their eye level. Thus Mills (1976) mentions that a six-year-old child who would be approximately 1.130mm height would see 475mm above the ground while in a sitting position and a standing position would see approximately 1.051mm above the ground (as cited in Cukur & Guller Delice, 2011). Considering that children are growing taller each year, the visual perception of the children will change among the different age groups. Ward

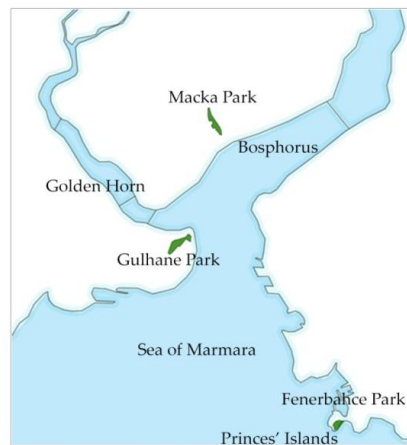
(1978) forwards that fine scale is important for the younger children as the distance is much closer from the eye to the floor in younger ages (as cited in Christensen & O'Brien, 2003). Sharonov (1980) mentions that the visual field of a six-year-old child is lesser than the adults by 52 degrees as the children have a viewing angle of 12 degrees (as cited in Cukur & Guller Delice, 2011). Also, age, gender, socioeconomic status are the factors affecting children's perceptions of the city. Thus, the relationship between children and their environment can be enhanced by designing places by understanding the perception of the children completely (Cukur & Guller Delice, 2011).

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study aims to understand the interplay between urban change, coastal character, collective memory, and children. Hence, developing sustainable landscape management strategies for the İstanbul megacity with the help of the children's imaginations for their city.

This study selects three historical parks which are welcoming a huge number of children park users. It focuses on rediscovering İstanbul from the eyes of the children with the questionnaires supported by interviews and picture drawings. The field studies are conducted in three historical coastal parks with the designated periods such as tulip festival and weekends. The sites selected are parks with similar sizes but standing on various peninsulas. Therefore, parks capturing green areas ranging from 130.000 to 160.000 m² are established as Gülhane Park standing in the Historical Peninsula, Maçka Park on the European Peninsula, and Fenerbahçe Park on the Asian Peninsula of the İstanbul as shown in figure 1.

Figure 1: Location of the Case Areas



History of the Gülhane Park dates back to the Ottoman period, in which it was once used as an imperial garden for Topkapı Palace. Throughout history, important events took place in the park. Park is located in the Historical Peninsula covering up an area of 152.000 m² and stands at the Seraglio Point (Sarayburnu) which is the meeting point of the Bosphorus, the Golden Horn and the Sea of Marmara and catches the panorama of the Bosphorus. In 1958 with the construction of the coastal street, the park has lost its bridged connection to the Seraglio point (Özgüç Erdönmez and Aydoğdu Unlu, 2010). Today park welcomes tourists and locals from nearby to far distant districts from all age groups. It is easy to access the park by using public transportation. The park is at Eminonu district near to historical, commercial and touristic districts and has a few residential zones with low-income residents.

Gülhane Park includes sculptures such as Atatürk, Asık Veysel, etc, old Goth statue, characteristic trees, and flowers and is next to Topkapı Palace. The park is visited frequently during the Tulip festival. History of the Maçka Park dates back to the 18th century. It was a desire and the back garden of Dolmabahçe Palace that was filled for creating an imperial garden. Maçka Park stands on the European peninsula catching the panorama of the Bosphorus and is located on a valley covering an area of 138.971 m². It is surrounded with historical, commercial and touristic districts and residential zones with high-income residents. Park is generally used by the youth population due to its location between the ITU Maçka and Taşkışla campuses and has a cable car over the valley connecting two of the campuses. Due to its central location, the park is chosen by the locals mostly from the nearby districts. In the official “park no two proposals” by Henri Prost, Maçka Park preserved as a vast green area extending to the Bosphorus and later Dolmabahçe Stadium, Sports and Exhibition Hall and Amphitheater were included in designing (Bilsel, 2011). Park is a large recreational area including water elements, natural areas, playgrounds and cafes. History of the Fenerbahçe Park dates back to the Byzantine period. It was used as a summer resort in the Ottoman Period where sultans frequently visited by using carriages after arriving the park by ships. The term ‘landscape’ first time was used when depicting the Fenerbahçe Park by the military painter of Ottoman Empire in 1906 (Turer Baskaya, 2013). The park is located in the Fenerbahçe Peninsula of the Asian Peninsula and is mainly used by the citizens of the nearby district of Kadıköy. It is surrounded by the military zone, sports club, marina and residential zones with high-income residents. Park has direct contact with the Marmara Sea and has a view through the Princes’ Islands. Historic Lighthouse which gives a name to the park locates in the military zone. Park includes Romantica café, other cafes with old fountain structures, monumental trees (*Cupressus sempervirens* var. *Horizontal* and *Pistacia Atlantica*), old hamam building, old rose garden, 900 m² permaculture site, characteristic lambs, sculptures, and stairs.

The study included children ranging from 6-10 years by considering the balance between the numbers of girls and boys. All of the children that are participating in the

questionnaires and the drawing activities are the visitors of Gülhane, Macka, and Fenerbahçe Parks. One of the main aims of this study is to study 'with rather than on children' (Christensen and James, 2000). For the questionnaire and the drawing activity, the permission is granted by their supervisors, and most importantly children were asked if they wanted to participate. According to several researchers, using 'adultist' methods when asking questions to children is the reason why we do not get logical answers (as cited in Punch, 2002). So at first, the questionnaire for children's aged 6-10 years has been modified with the help of a nursery teacher. Differences of children from the adults include their lack span of concentration (Punch, 2002).

Figure 2. Children with Supervisors



During the questionnaire, it was observed that a few of the children mostly the ones at younger ages started playing. The questionnaire has been modified for each of the parks. Children first were asked about their knowledge of the parks and then asked about their interests on coastal landscape features. Moreover, to determine the different perceptions of the children, 11 major parameters are defined which are accessibility, locality, spatial configuration, the frequency of the park and sea vessel usage, gender, school attendance, parents' environmental awareness, and dominance of the vantage points with their sub-parameters as shown in table 1.

Accessibility: Transportation access to the parks, Vicinity to the residential zones, the Socioeconomic status of the districts

Table 1: Parameters Used for This Study

Locality: Characteristics' of the users

Spatial configuration: Interplay with the sea

Functions: Variety of the functions, Cycle of the events

Characteristic hard and soft landscape elements: Spatial value

The frequency of the park: Collective spatial memory, Proximity to the landmarks

Gender: Different interests

School attendance: Knowledge of coastal landscape features

Parent's environmental awareness: Children's experimentation period

The dominance of the vantage points: Interplay between morphology and design, Perception of the monumental historical buildings and structures

Sea vessel usage: Existence in the daily experiences, Perception of the coastal silhouette

It is asserted that for its familiarity and ease, drawing activity has been favoured by the children (Einarsdottir, Dockett and Perry, 2009). So in addition to questionnaires children were asked to draw pictures of the parks. Although most of the children told that they love drawing, some of them did not want to draw when they were asked to. Drawing activity was carried out on such places like the lawn, picnic table, and the trees where children wanted to draw. Despite their family's warning about the time, in the end, families had to wait until the children finish their drawings. For their drawing activity coloured pencils including ten different colours, and a drawing book was given to the participants. Moreover, during the drawing activity in order to understand their drawings, children were asked about what they had drawn, and after they had completed their drawings, children were wanted to sign their paintings.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Although homogeneous gender participation is provided for the questionnaires conducted to 6-10 years old children, the results showed that there wasn't any difference between the perceptions among the boys and the girls. The results from children's questionnaires showed that the accessibility was an efficient parameter determining the socio-economic status along the coastal band. Although all of the parks are in the urban scale, Fenerbahçe and Maçka Parks are localities that welcome local families from the nearby districts mostly coming from their homes. Gülhane Park is both a national and global park that welcomes families from the far distant districts coming by using public transport. Fenerbahçe and Maçka Parks are close to residential zones with high-income residents while Gülhane Park is at the centre of the historical, commercial, and touristic districts which attracts visitors from different parts of Turkey bringing about a lesser social coherency. Also, children stated that they are generally used go to their school's gardens and the parks near to their homes.

The parameter of spatial configuration has led to some discussions and highlighted the impact of the design decisions. Although three of the parks have a relation with the sea, only children in the Fenerbahçe Park stated that they could see the sea from the park and preferred the park for its view to the sea. In the Gülhane Park, some of the children stated that they could not see the sea because of the barriers that are surrounding the park. In the Maçka valley, although there is a cable car over offering the panorama of the Bosphorus and

a direct visual connection to the sea, answers of the children lead to discussions as none of the children were able to see the sea. The parameter of a variety of functions is related to the recreational activities that take place in the parks. Fenerbahçe Park is different from the other parks, as it has a community garden serving for environmental education. Sub-parameter of “cycle of events” reminds the parks to the visitors as in the case of Gülhane Park where families come for designated times such as blooming of the tulips. Besides, this leads to another discussion whether it is true to change the perception of the space through the soft landscape. Gülhane name comes from the Ottoman language and stands for the existence of roses while tulip fests are evident in the Gülhane park today. Besides Fenerbahçe Park is the current one famous with its rose gardens.

İstanbul captures a big question mark about the robustness of its cultural landscape character. Hence, the characteristic elements of the hard and soft landscape of these three historical coastal parks are essential for the cultural, spatial values they may represent. In the Fenerbahçe Park when children were asked about the historic lighthouse, one of them showed the decorated street lamp instead of the historical lighthouse. His answer is reasonable as the lighthouse is not easily visible from the park. Thus, it is required to develop new design strategies providing views to the lighthouse in order to establish a continuity of cultural background. In all of the parks when children asked about the characteristic trees, all of the children said that there were a lot of them while some of the children defined the characteristic ones as the big and tall ones. In the Gülhane and Maçka Parks, some of the children told that they had seen the old plane trees which may be related to their knowledge on the landscape features.

Contrary to this, in the Fenerbahçe Park, children stated that they had seen 450-year-old trees as the old trees have name cards underneath. Children mostly perceived small scaled things from their environments. Their perceptions can be explained just by looking from their eyes. Many children mentioned the garbage is in Gülhane Park as they care for the maintenance issues. Children mostly depicted the natural environment in their drawings. Flowers, trees, water, animals, people, sun and clouds were the main features in the children’s drawings.

Furthermore, as seen in figure 4 children highlighted many human-made landscape features from the parks. In young age children’s drawings, the measurement of the objects increases or decreases according to children’s feelings (as cited in Burkitt et al., 2003). The size of the Atatürk and Aşık Veysel statues have been drawn bigger than other objects as seen in Samet’s drawing.

Figure 3: Drawings in the Gülhane Park



The sub-parameter of proximity to the landmarks increases the frequency of the park usage but the awareness of the historical attributes is not innate, and the children learn the history from their families and schools. In the Gülhane Park, just a few children knew about the Topkapı Palace although it was visible and easily accessible from the park. Their families supported saying that they have not taught their children. It is critical that design strategies need to support the morphology and the perception of the monumental historical buildings and structures. Children's experimentation and examination period, exposure to nature as nature being a part of his/her daily life help to create a sense of belonging. Although a few children used only the black colour, most of the children cared about which colours they would use when drawing an object. A lot of colourful drawings have been obtained from the drawing activity. In all of their drawings, children used their favourite colours for their positive felt drawings and least favourite colours for their negative felt drawings in two test sessions as this trend is also mentioned as Burkitt et al., (2003). Basic information revealed from the eyes of the children has shown that sea vessel transportation and its existence in the daily life are one of the most important parameters increasing the children's knowledge and interests on coastal features.

CONCLUSION

Before this century, İstanbul's landscape character has been changed consistently. For the new but characteristic İstanbul city of the children which is culturally robust but also responsive to the dynamics of the new era can be enhanced with the help of the children imaginations for their city and perceptions of their city. This study has proved the gap about the so far known coastal character of the İstanbul megacity before the mega-urban transformation projects and ongoing collective memory of the children as the following owners of the coastal megacity. Education through landscape design and management is possible. Moreover, through landscape design, planning, and management, the number of children responsive to their environments can be increased. Landscape architectures have a crucial role with the help of the children to develop sustainable landscape management strategies for the İstanbul megacity.

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The Buying Behavior of Tourists on Wine-Tourism Businesses in Greece

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Abstract

The paper aims to record the trends and tourist behaviours of visitors/ guests about wine tourism in units in Greece. The population of research is finite and consists of a certain number of elements that are the tourists who visit Greece and are involved with wine tourism activities. The collection of data was made with great difficulty because of the difficulty of the student to reach out to the research audience, and the companies that helped in the research played an important role. About the study's conclusions, wine tourism can be developed either as a niche market in tourism or be integrated as a special supply to a general tourism package or tourist activities often associated with gastronomy experiences. However, in particular, wine tourism is seen as a means of activating rural revival and enhancing the income of rural areas. The main advantages of wine tourism are the increased tourist traffic in the region and the overall development of tourism in the region, the leveraging of infrastructure investments and the development of tourist facilities and the increase of local employment. The contribution of well-managed rural tourism to rural tourism can be long-lasting and can, therefore, be a long-lasting action since the overall picture of the region can be improved concerning distinctive local features. This, in turn, allows for the diversification of the local economy based on its natural resources in the region while support for restructuring and survival in times of decline. Therefore, wine tourism is a form of alternative tourism that can have a special effect on wine-producing regions.

Keywords: Wine tourism, Greece, Tourists, Behaviour

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1. INTRODUCTION

The development of Wine Tourism in Greece can help to promote the region through the worldwide recognition of its locality and its local wines (Ferreira & Hunter, 2017). One such case is Santorini, which is promoted through its internationally awarded wines by adding points to the brand name "Santorini". Wine tourism is not only a "visit" to wineries in a welcoming place, it is also linked to wine tasting, local gastronomy, culture with visits to historic vineyards, learning the local tradition of viticulture and winemaking, visits to archaeological sites, events and wine festivals, but with a "product of self-knowledge experience" where the "guest" acquires through experience, knowledge and memory, resulting in his memories being directly related to wine (Cho et al., 2017). How can wine tourism contribute to the emergence of a place (Bruwer & Rueger-Muck, 2018), how does the wine and tourism industry relate, how does the Wine Tourism network develop, what are its components and the characteristics of visitors/guests of wineries? Wine tourism can coexist, link to other mild and alternative forms of tourism if wine growers, winemakers, professionals, tourism operators and visitors/visitors can have a strong and sustainable link in the 'Sustainability - sustainable tourism development' (tourism and sustainable development) both in Santorini and Greece. The case study is the volcanic island of Santorini, an island with a unique climate, with its vineyard, possessing a unique ecosystem through the famous Asyrtico wine (dry, fresh, aged, Vinsanto) and its alignment with the varieties of Adiani, Athiri the famous Nychteri, produce large wines. Santorini is the only case of Greece, where local authorities are connected, businessmen, hotels, local operators and professionals have joined together to sell their "tourist product".

The survey aims to examine wine tourism in Santorini as a means of sustainable development. For this reason, the goals are (1) To identify the trends and tourist behaviour of visitors/guests about wine tourism in Santorini and (2) To make suggestions on how to improve the visibility and organisation of Santorini's wine tourism in the future. As a result of this, a proposal will be made to improve the visibility of Santorini wine tourism. Lastly, it is very important to note that the present research is particularly important as it will produce a series of useful conclusions that have not only academic value but also have a practical value because they are also useful for the professionals of the island.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

a. Definition of wine tourism

A first approach is provided by Lopez-Guzman et al. (2011) who claim that wine tourism is part of forms of alternative tourism and is part of agro-tourism. The reason why one can argue that agro-tourism is associated with wine tourism is simple and obvious at the same time and has to do with the fact that both the cultivation of the grapes and the processing of the grapes that are necessary actions to produce the wine are linked to

agricultural production and the rural economy in general (Gomez et al, 2018). Hall et al. (2000) refer to the fact that agro tourism is an important part of alternative tourism and is particularly associated with the development of rural areas, which very often present particular problems about their economic development. Agro tourism can, therefore, provide a range of solutions to issues of poor economic growth. Hall et al. (2000) also note the fact that agro-tourism has many sub-classes of activities. One of these can also be used for wine tourism. This stems from the fact that both the production stage and the final disposal of the wine can be correlated with tourism visibility and constitute an important part of the overall tourist offer (Croce & Perri, 2017). In another sense, wine tourism is linked to gastronomy. This is based on the fact that a significant part of gastronomic tourism is the tourist to come in contact with the destination cuisine as well as local dishes including wine (Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Inside gastronomic tourism is also the acquaintance with local wine production units, and often the supply of food is also accompanied by wine offerings. Kivela & Crofts (2006) focuses on the fact that gastronomic tourism is an integral part of the tourist experience. According to Mitchell (2004), wine tourism is a high niche market that has been developed due to the increase in demand for wine from tourists visiting destinations associated with the production and bottling of wine. Indeed, the greatest demand is in regions that produce highly specialised wine forms, such as Burgundy. About the definition of wine, this depends on the approach that each writer has. For many writers, such as Getz (1998) and Sharples (2002), wine tourism is a tourist phenomenon associated with alternative tourism and is associated with other forms of tourism such as a) gastronomic tourism, b) cultural tourism, c) rural tourism and finally d) agro-tourism. An example of good interconnection could be the link between wine tourism and cultural tourism, as Getz notes (1998). In this regard, wine tourism is a living part of the cultural capital of each destination and is often associated with events and other related actions. In another interpretation, Hall et al. (2000) note that wine tourism does not potentially include some basic principles of tourism, such as staying in the wine production plant. This means that wine tourism acts as an additional tourist service in a tourist package and/or is considered a short-term form of alternative tourism (Geibler, 2007). To this, the writer has to point out that he does not agree and the example of Tuscany (referred to at a previous point in this diplomatic work) is the obvious guide and example to be imitated. Of course, it should be pointed out that the capacity of each wine-growing unit for hospitality should not be great in order not to alter its character and to remind more of what is the main activity, namely vineyard and wine production laboratory rather than large hotel unit. It, therefore, becomes clear that it is very rational to combine the possibility of hospitality with wine-growing units with their royal character without altering the latter and thus adversely affecting both the company itself and the sector in general (Ye et al., 2017). Charters & Ali-Knight (2011) refer to the fact that wine tourism can be educational in the sense that visitors learn very important and in any case useful information about the history and production process of

different varieties of wine. From the above data, it appears that there is not a single and convergent view of the scientific community regarding delivering a uniform definition of wine tourism. For some, it is an autonomous form of alternative tourism, while for others it is simply a form of other forms of alternative tourism (such as agro tourism and gastronomic tourism). At this point, reference will be made to some definitions that have been given at times (Hall & Prayag, 2017). More precisely, Sharples (2002) notes that wine tourism is a very specific market associated with visiting and touring a wine production plant to see how wine is made and how to buy it by making profits to winemakers, while Hoban (2015) refers to the fact that wine tourism is linked to the conversion of wine-producing units into ecotourism units.

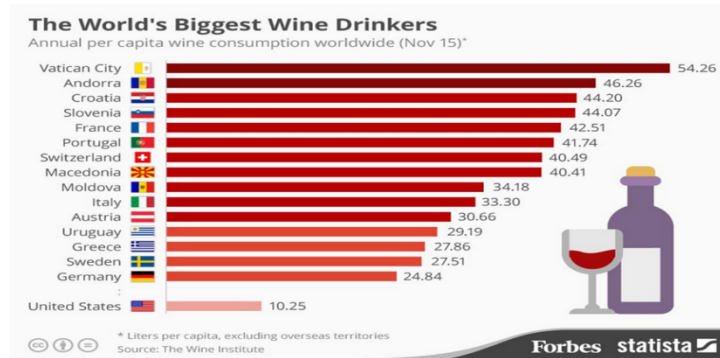
2.2. The profile of wine-tourist

Wine tourism is a tourist activity that has grown dynamically in recent years. However, it is clear from what was written in section 2.1 that there is no specific definition of what wine tourism is. In order to better understand wine tourism, it will attempt to outline the visitor profile of wineries, as reported in the relevant recent scientific literature. Researchers, including Hall (1996), note that the profile of the winery visitor is primarily about 40+ people who have medium or high incomes and are particularly well versed in wine, which means they are very much strict with the choices they make. A particular categorization is that of Charters and Ali-Knight (2011). Their research data has come from the Italian market and have created five profiles related to the visitor to the wineries. These are the following:

About the profile of the visitor of wineries in Greece, the survey of Alebaki & Iakovidou (2010), which was made to visitors of wine tourism establishments in northern Greece, is very useful. Therefore, this research is directly and significantly related to this diplomatic work. The main conclusions are that the average age is relatively small - around 30 years. Therefore, reference is made to a highly dynamic audience with a variety of interests that make a very conscious visit to wine tourism establishments (Bruwer & Gross, 2017). It was primarily found in the Alebaki & Iakovidou (2010) survey that the visit to wine tourism facilities was largely not organised but in the context of a visit with friends or friends. This leaves much room for the planning and promotion of wine tourism on an organised basis with strong promotional actions of all types. Another special feature of the Alebaki & Iakovidou (2010) survey is that the majority of visitors said they had bought wine from the economist itself during its visit (this can be empirically agreed writer, and after the on-site visits he made to the wineries which constituted the population - a sample of the research, he actually made a purchase of wines, which was borne out by the atmosphere of the premises). By returning to the goal of defining wine tourism, all its parameters must be taken into account, so it must also be defined by the offer (Hunter, 2017). Data on an international scale, particularly in the region of Europe, clearly shows that the peoples living

in the countries of this geographical region are the world's largest consumers. This assumption can be formatted as follows by the year 2015 figures of the well-known global Forbes Economic Studies & Analysis firm:

Figure 1: The World's Biggest Wine Drinkers



Following are countries such as Uruguay and others in Eastern Europe, and OIV (2011) data show that demand for wine tourism is related to tourists coming from the Americas and northern Europe towards the Mediterranean countries. At the same time, there are special groups such as China and Russia (usually these visitors of wine-growing units are premium-priced) with many wineries visiting the Mediterranean countries. One of their key features is that this particular category of tourists in many cases is involved in the wine market itself (Belias et al., 2018). They are the same mature consumers who have a high level of education and, in many cases, high incomes (also shown by the countries of origin such as China and Russia cited above). At the same time, they can often buy wine and other corresponding products, such as wine magazines, while generating large volumes (Hall, 1996). Another category is the tourists called Wine Interested. Wine Interested visitors of wine-tourism establishments are those who have a special interest in wine but are not the only reason for their visit (López-Guzmán & Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012). These tourists often come from middle and upper levels and in many cases have graduated from tertiary education institutions. Generally, tourists visit wine-related destinations and in many cases also read magazines related to wine and expensive lifestyle while participating in discussions around wine (Belias et al., 2018). Another category is the tourists who are called Curious Tourists. Visitors to these touristic units called Curious Tourists are middle-income consumers who are interested in wine. They often do not have good knowledge and experience about wine, and they do not have any particular knowledge of the wine production process itself. Visiting them at a wine production site is not only motivated by wine but often visits wine-making units that can be found on their way. Therefore, their pure aim is to gain new knowledge about the whole process of production and final disposal of wine products (Hall, 1996). Other categories identified by Charters & Ali-Knight (2011)

are Wine Connoisseurs, which are essentially a subclass of Wine Lovers and have the same characteristics as the particular group. Wine Connoisseurs would say that they are not interested in acquiring further knowledge as they feel they already have good knowledge to find the best possible wine. Wine Novices is also a category of tourists who have more wine and wine production, having already visited wineries, even though they lack good knowledge of the subject. The motivation for visiting Wine Novices is not so much about acquiring further knowledge on the subject as it is with general stimulation to get to know a destination (Hunter, 2017). Finally, we meet the visitors of the wine-growing units under the name Hanger-On. Hanger-On are tourists who may not have a particular relationship with wine, but it is extremely likely that they will eventually visit a winery as part of a group of tourists. It is a group of consumers who do not know any particular details about wine and wine tourism (Hunter, 2017).

3. METHODOLOGY

The research tool will be the questionnaire, and the results will be quantified. The questionnaire to be used has some advantages as it can be easily distributed to those involved, and the results can then be quantified using a statistical packet such as SPSS. Research may have disadvantages such as any quantitative research, as some answers that respondents may want to give up and which they will not end up if the questionnaire questions are closed-ended (Bryman, 2004) can be ruled out. The questionnaire will consist of two parts. In the first part, there will be demographic questions related to the subject of the research, while in the second part there will be questions that will be answered with closed questions and will relate to the object being investigated. The sample was 124, and the available questionnaires were in Greek. The collection of data was made with great difficulty; the result was that there were 124 people who participated in the survey. The student desired to have a larger sample but the reluctance of some professionals to give the tourists access but also some peculiarities such as the limited time and the impossibility to visit the island due to limited financial resources eventually did not allow her to go to the island to share questionnaires themselves. With regard to sample composition, the sample of this study comprised 124 participants, 57% women and 43% men, over 21, with a variety of holiday days and accommodation, who went on holiday with their family members (41.5%) or friends (40%) and spent up to 70 euros a day on holiday (82%). Participants were interested in their holiday to come in contact with nature (42%), enjoy tranquillity (25%), explore unknown sites (15%), entertain (11%) or visit only popular areas (6%).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding the survey results, the main results were that the examination of the role played by demographic factors and the characteristics of the sample in their responses in regards wine tourism, gender, duration of the holiday and the type of the group influence on specific issues. The other features did not bring any statistically significant difference.

Gender is reducing the effect on responses of respondents to preferably wine formula, the level of their knowledge of wine and on whether there are packages organised wine tourism and/or guided tours to wineries in the island region. On this finding, it was found that: (1) Men preferred red wine (58%) more than white wine (27%), while women liked both white (44%) and red (37%) wine. (2). Men believed they had good (44%) or excellent (27%) knowledge of wine, while women considered their wine knowledge to be limited (49%) or good (23%), (3). Most men believed that in Santorini there are organised wine tourism packages and/or guided tours at wineries (69%) - most women believed they did not exist (54%). Holiday days influenced the responses to the personal knowledge level for wine while differentiating whether the participants were tasting wine or not. Specifically, those who stayed at their destination for more than ten days (1) They had a more positive image of their knowledge of wine and (2) Participated more in wine tasting tests. Finally, the type of vacation package determined whether the participant would visit a wine tourism facility. So, visiting a wine tourism facility was more likely when the respondents were alone (86%) or were spending their holidays with friends (60%). The visit to a wine tourism facility was smaller when the respondents spent their holidays with the family or with family members (35%).

More generally, it should be noted that over the years, tourism has evolved into one of the most profitable and rapidly growing economic activities around the world (UNWTO, 2013) and is, therefore, one of the most important contributions that can be made has tourism for national economies. However, in any case, studies from France, Italy, Australia and Central Macedonia - have indicated that rural areas excluded from tourism often face serious development problems, and wine tourism can provide solutions (ICAP, 2015). As a result, rural areas do not benefit from the economic benefits of tourism in general, but only from individual tourism activities. As a result, wine is often regarded as a strong tourist asset to stimulate the local economy of rural areas, especially when these areas have undergone some form of economic or other crisis. Studies so far have summarised the positive contribution of wine tourism to rural development and increased revenue for wineries (e.g. Frangopoulou, 2013).

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Even though Greek wine tourism continues to grow at an early stage, there are examples of systematic viticulture such as, among others, in Santorini, Nemea and Macedonia, which give the right to optimism regarding their commercialisation. The great prospect of wine tourism in Santorini is based primarily on the best combination of microclimates on the island, while its particular geological conditions enable local wine producers to offer varieties of wine with distinctive features. Furthermore, Thira has already made significant investments in tourism development, and one of the elements of the island's tourism is wine tourism. Furthermore, at international level, significant mobility of

tourists from Russia and Turkey has been observed for wine tourism, and at the same time the dynamics of agro-tourism, for which there is a growing demand, is evolving. Wine tourism is complementary to agro-tourism through the various routes and touring locations where wine is produced. The combination of wine tourism with a tour of natural landscapes and vineyards and wine-producing locations supports and strengthens this trend. Surveys such as Pitoska (2012) demonstrate the positive impact of Greek wine tourism on the wine industry as well as on the economy of the country. Wine tourism promotes the development of entrepreneurship and strengthens the links between supply and demand, while at the same time promoting local and regional tourism promotes local development. Also, Greek wine tourism benefits from the local wine business, while increasing the investment range, professional engagement with wine and increasing employment. For Pitoska (2012), however, these positive effects have a modest effect on Greek wine tourism (Pitoska, 2012).

With regard to wine producers whose land and crafts are included in wine routes, one of the most important effects of wine tourism is the upgrading and increased impact of the corporate image and perception of local wines. A second significant impact is the growing export sales. Wine tourism also promotes relationships and promotes co-operation in order to achieve the common goal of wine tourism and business development. Wine producers who do not participate or have little participation in wine routes often appear more cautious about their positive effects, while restaurateurs benefit from increasing their customers and widening the area's awareness. As noted above, the development of the local and regional economy, the upgrading of the image of a site and the products and services it offers are advantages of wine tourism. Unemployment is also partially relieved by the employment of local residents. However, advantages like this are not a panacea for Greek wine tourism, which has clearly considerable scope for further development over a long-term horizon. As a result, Greece's wine tourism offers significant benefits in terms of increased revenue for winegrowers and wine producers, in order to increase the brand awareness of Greek wines and their location, as well as for rural development in general. The literature review combined with empirical data reveal the complexity of the phenomenon. Getz et al. (1999) refer to the existence of a multitude of different factors influencing the success of the wineries, while it is stated that if wineries manage to become attractive, then there are multiple benefits for the destination and the local community.

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Availability of Swimming Pools in the North Plain Region of Hungary

Nikolett Kosztin¹, László Csernoch², Ildikó Balatoni³

Abstract

One of the most important aspects of a healthy lifestyle is the appropriate amount of physical activity. Swimming is among those sports that are not only popular with the youth, but it can be pursued and enjoyed by the elderly, too. In our study 34 swimming pools of the North Plain Region of Hungary available for community and school swimming were contacted using a live telephone survey with a pre-made questionnaire. The date of inauguration, the aim for which they were established, and the number and lengths of pools available for swimming were investigated. We also examined how different swimming classes of school and community swimming, physiotherapy, training, and competitions are distributed along the week and within the days, and how the opening hours serve as wide-a-range of visitors as possible. Based on their self estimation the average utilisation of the institutions was also recorded. It is concluded that, based on the age distribution and health conditions of the population in the Region, the promotion of a healthy lifestyle and within that the increase of the availability of swimming would be important. On the other hand, despite the efforts of the Government, the available infrastructure is not enough. Therefore, the continuation of the program of building new swimming pools is of utmost importance.

Keywords: sport, region, swimming pools, school swimming, community swimming

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays physical inactivity is the fourth leading cause of death (Kohl et al., 2012). 31% of the world's population does not meet the minimum recommendations on physical activity. The extent of physical inactivity increases with age and is higher in women than in men (Hallal et al., 2012). In order to increase physical activity among the population, we need to be aware of the factors influencing individual engagement in this regard (Barranowski et al., 1998). The foundations of a healthy lifestyle lie in childhood. Earlier studies have indicated that individual sporting habits, among others, are greatly determined by the family patterns people experience during their youth and by the participation in regular sports activity (Sallis et al., 1999; Edwards and Gorely, 2010). Over the last decade, several researchers have been focusing on the impact of the built environment on sporting habits and physical activity of the population (Brug et al., 2006; Brownson et al., 2009; Cauwenberg et al., 2011). From this point of view, physical environment includes the development of residential environment (e.g. the presence of

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sidewalks), access to places of physical activity and – in addition to a safe environment – the presence of facilities (Davison and Lawson, 2006, Wendel-vos et al., 2007).

In our previous article, we have pointed out that swimming is a physical activity that is not only popular at a younger age, but also among the elderly (Balatoni et al., 2016). One significant reason for this is that swimming is not only known to be and recognised as a sport but also as a type of exercise that preserves health. It plays an important role in the development of the muscular system and the recovery from locomotor disorders, it also has a remarkably positive effect on the respiratory system. Moreover the joyful exercise in the water may also protect against psychosomatic diseases of all sorts.

The European Union and the Hungarian Government consider sports and sport infrastructure investments as a priority area. The main goal laid down in the Hungarian National Sports Strategy is to provide the opportunity of swimming for every child. In our research, we sought to find an answer for how the existing swimming pool infrastructure of the North Great Plain region of Hungary can fulfil these needs.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In 2016 we created a database of swimming pools of the North Great Plain region where school swimming classes and community swimming both take place that was based on the records received from the County Government Offices.

Our data collection was carried out by a telephone survey with a pre-made questionnaire, in which we were asking about facility and utilisation data.

Thirty-four institutions were involved in our analysis. The completed questionnaires were processed using the EvaSys software.

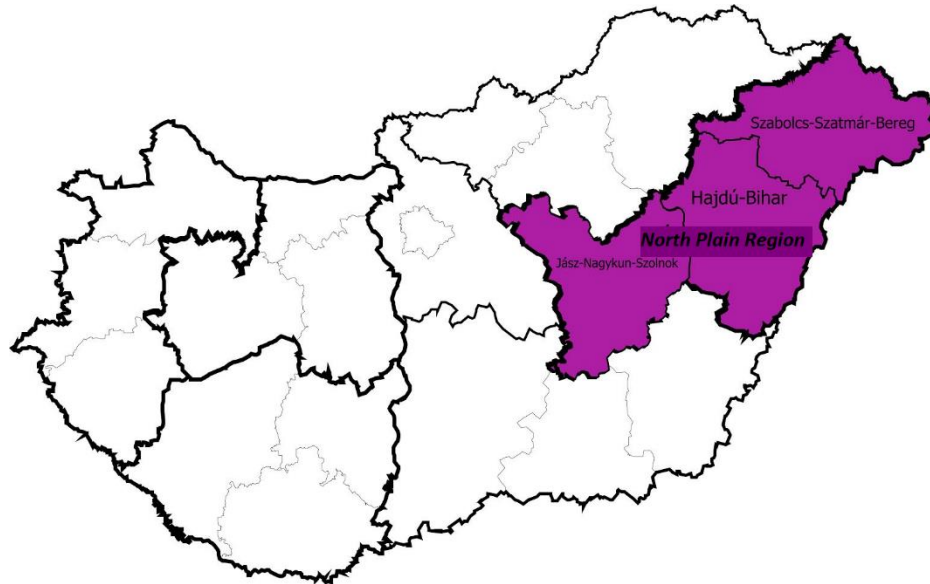
The sources of the regional and county data were the regional databases of the KSH (Central Bureau for Statistics of Hungary) on the one hand and the information published by the Hungarian Education Office on the other hand.

3. RESULTS

The Northern Great Plain Region includes Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, Hajdú-Bihar and Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok counties with Debrecen as its centre.

The Region has a population of 1,474,383 people, based on which it occupies the 2nd place in the list of Hungarian regions. It is also second regarding the number of live births and deaths. For the average age, it is considered the youngest region (43.1 years), although when looking at life expectancy at birth (78.05 years) it is the second last in the regional ranking.

Figure 1. Location of the North Plain region within Hungary



Having analysed the relevant county related data, it can be stated that Hajdú-Bihar county is characterized by a declining population and an ageing society (KSH, 2016). In the older age group (65-74 years), circulatory system diseases are the leading causes of death, while the causes of early death (15-64 years) are primarily related to cancer. The county has 82 settlements, 21 cities and 61 municipalities.

Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county is the country's youngest county regarding age composition. About its settlement structure, small villages are worth mentioning, as only 28 settlements are considered cities out of the 229. 46% of the population lives in municipalities, 100 of which has a population of less than 1,000 (KSH 2014). Life expectancy at birth is less than the national average. (KSH, 2013)

Out of the 78 settlements of Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok county, only 20 are cities. 18% of the county population lives in settlements that have a population of less than 1,000. This area is also characterised by an ageing and declining population. The frequency of deaths due to circulatory system diseases exceeds the national average for both sexes (Sinkó and Káli, 2014). Data relevant to our research are summarized in Table 1.

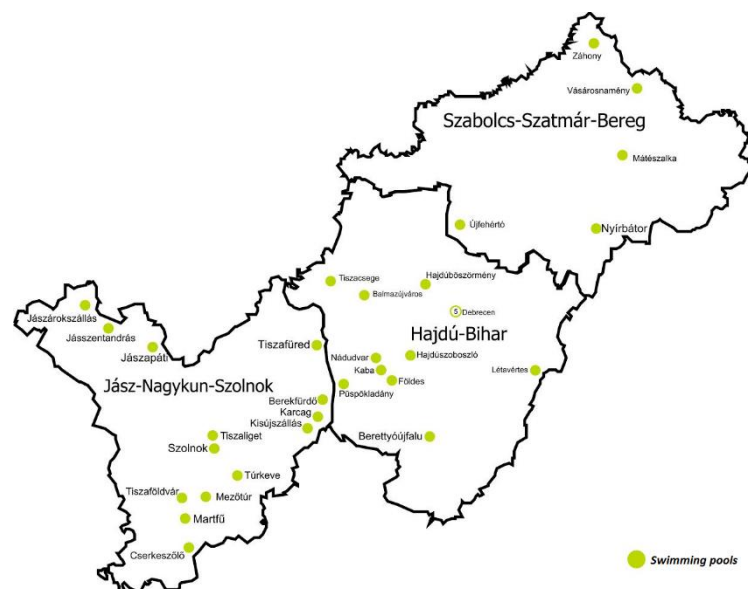
Table 1. Characteristic Data of the North Plain Region

	Number of settlements	Number of residents	Residents in the age group 5-14 years	Number of primary schools	Swimming pools involved in the study	Number of new swimming pools*
Hajdú-Bihar county	82	547 000	58 318	142	15	1
Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok county	78	387 000	40 110	89	14	2
Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county	229	559 000	67 767	164	5	4

* Training swimming pools to be completed within the framework of the National Public Education Infrastructure Development Program. Source: KSH

A total of 34 indoor and outdoor swimming pools were involved in our study, the geographic location of which within the North Great Plain region are shown in Figure 2.

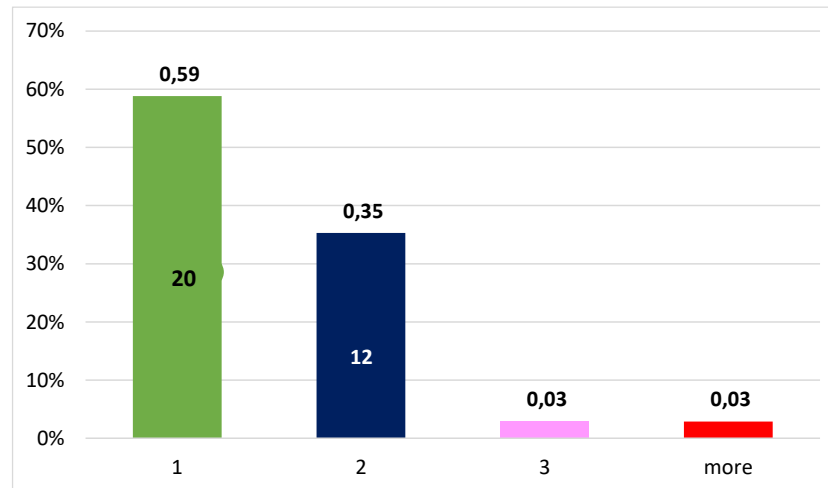
Figure 2. The 34 swimming pools of the North Plain Region involved in the study



The first question of our questionnaire was to find out whether there are any pools within the facility that can be used for providing school and community swimming and if so, how many.

Most of the contacted facilities (58.8%) have one, 35.3% have two and only two facilities have three (1 facility) or more (1 facility) such pools (Figure 3).

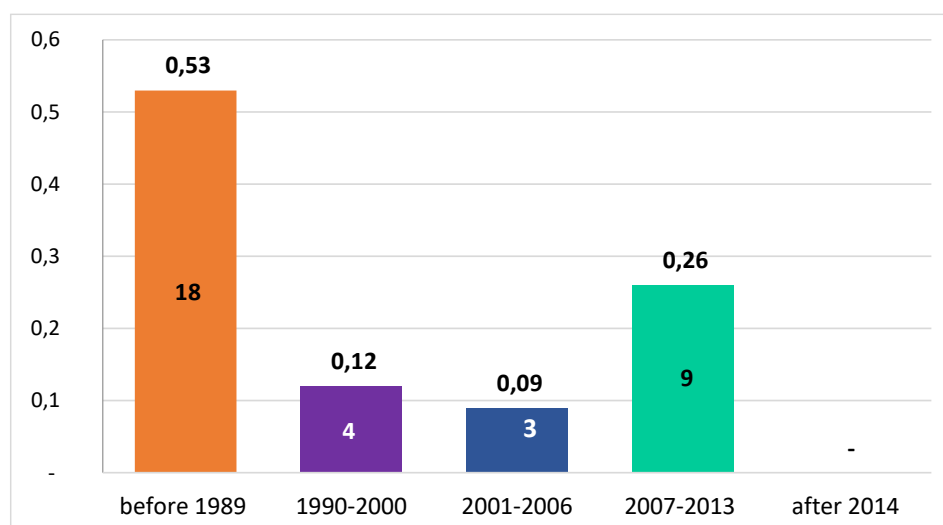
Figure 3. Number of Pools Appropriate for Swimming in the Sports Infrastructures Studied*



* Unless otherwise stated here and in all subsequent figures number in the bars represent the number of swimming pools

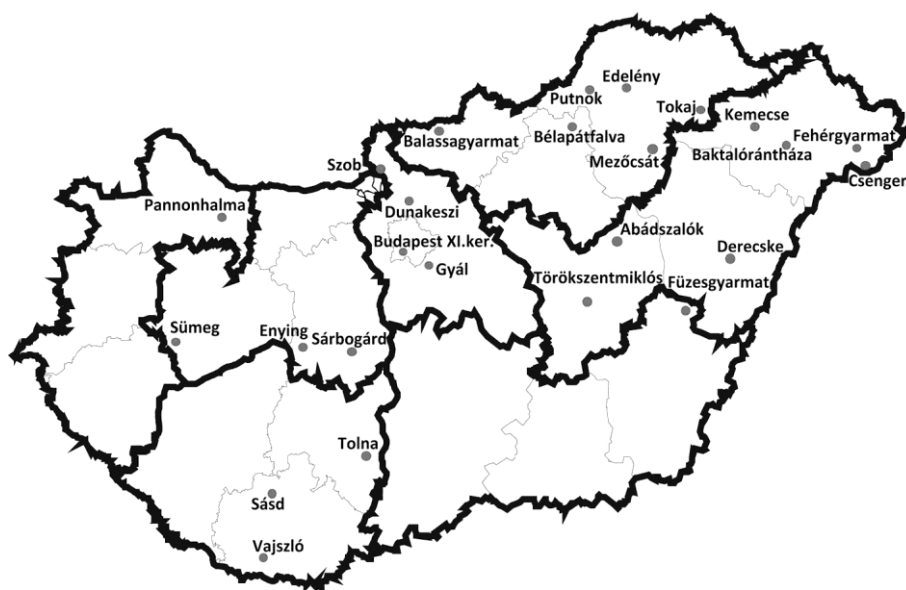
We were also interested in when these facilities were built. Based on the results obtained, most of the swimming pools (53%) were built before the change of regime, i.e. before 1989, and only a renewal was possible in this relation ever since. There are seven swimming pools that were constructed between 1990 and 2006 and 9 (26%) between 2007 and 2013.

Figure 4. Year of Construction of the Swimming Pools



There was not one swimming pool among those involved in the study that had been built after 2014, although 25 new swimming pools are going to be built within the framework of the already accepted National Public Education Infrastructure Development Program. The location of the swimming pools is shown in Figure 5.

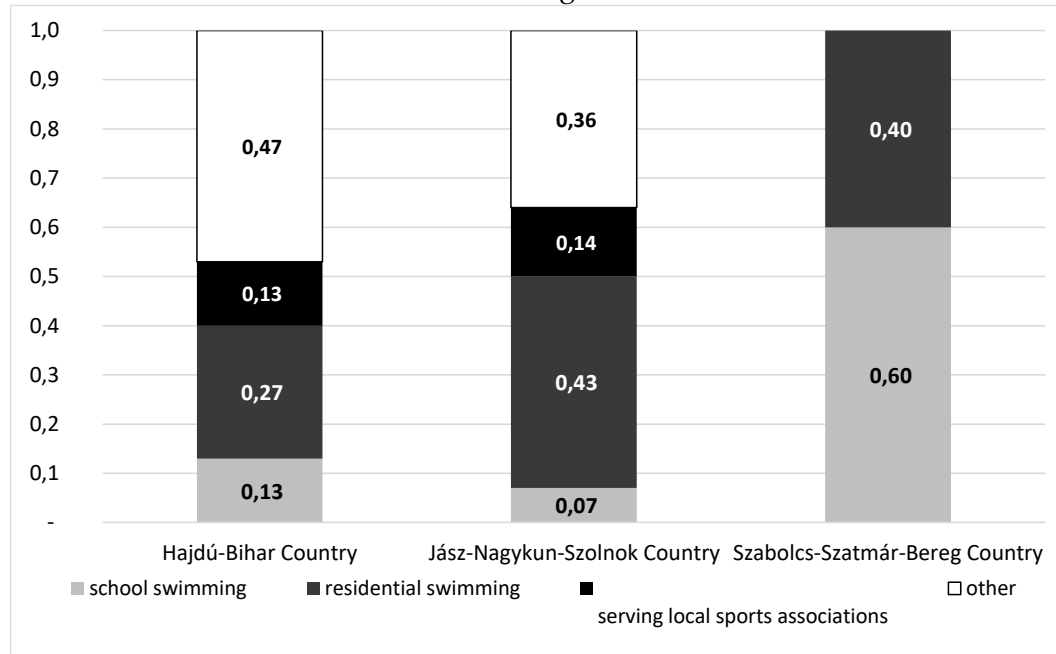
Figure 5. A number of Training Swimming Pools Planned within the Framework of the National Public Education Infrastructure Development Program - 2016.



When examining the reasons for the construction of the swimming pools, it was concluded that the primary aim of Hajdú-Bihar and Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok counties was to provide opportunities for community swimming, while the goal in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county was to create scenery for school swimming (Figure 6).

Supporting the local sports associations also came up as a reason for establishing such facilities in 2 counties of the region (Hajdú-Bihar and Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok).

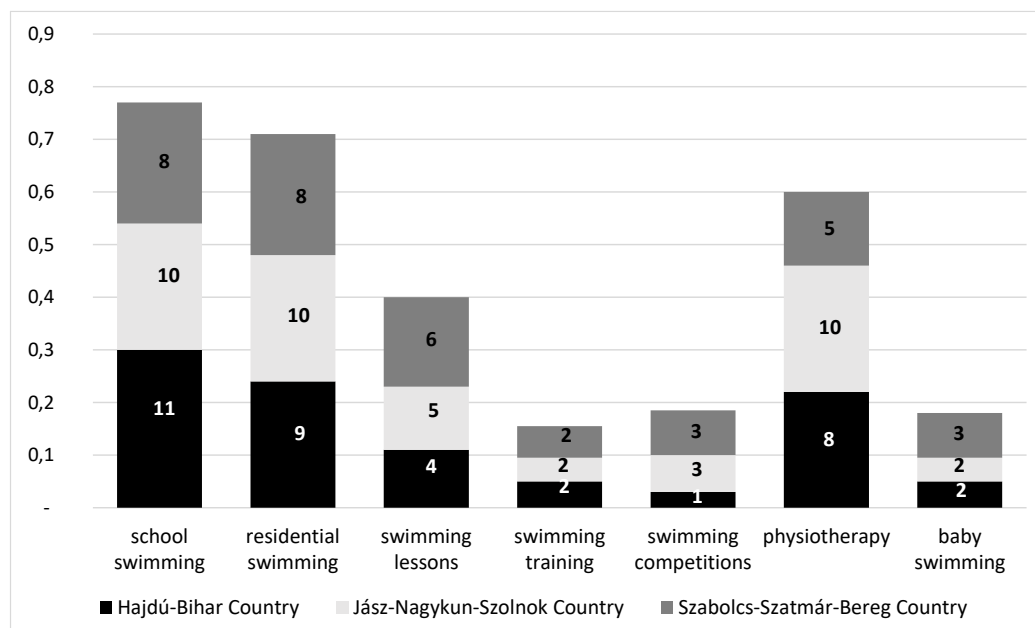
Figure 6. Purpose of Building Swimming Pools in the Three Counties of the North Plain Region*



* Numbers in the bars represent appropriate percentages.

After having asked which are the most frequently held events in the facility we found that these are school swimming, community swimming and physiotherapy (Figure 7). Also, swimming classes also take place in the swimming pools, and indeed there are club competitions, swimming workouts and baby swim classes as well.

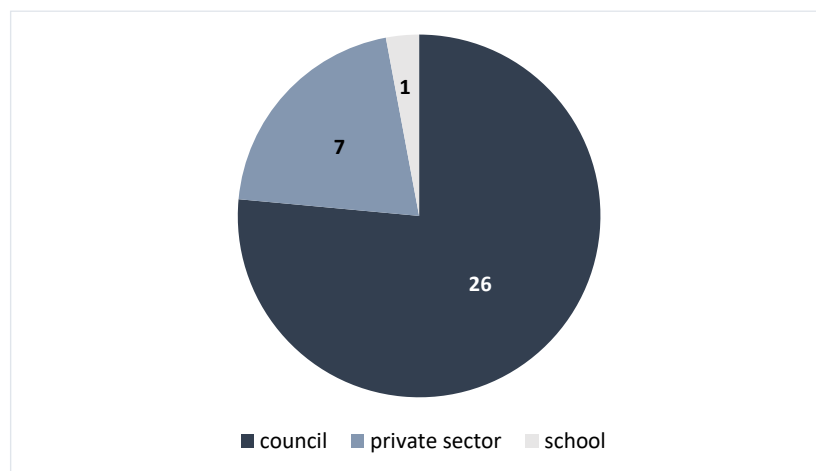
Figure 7. Distribution of Activities in the Swimming Pools in the Three Counties



By examining the owners of the facilities, we can say that the swimming pools are mainly self-owned (25), seven facilities claimed that they had been privately owned and only 1 of the institutes is in school ownership (Figure 8).

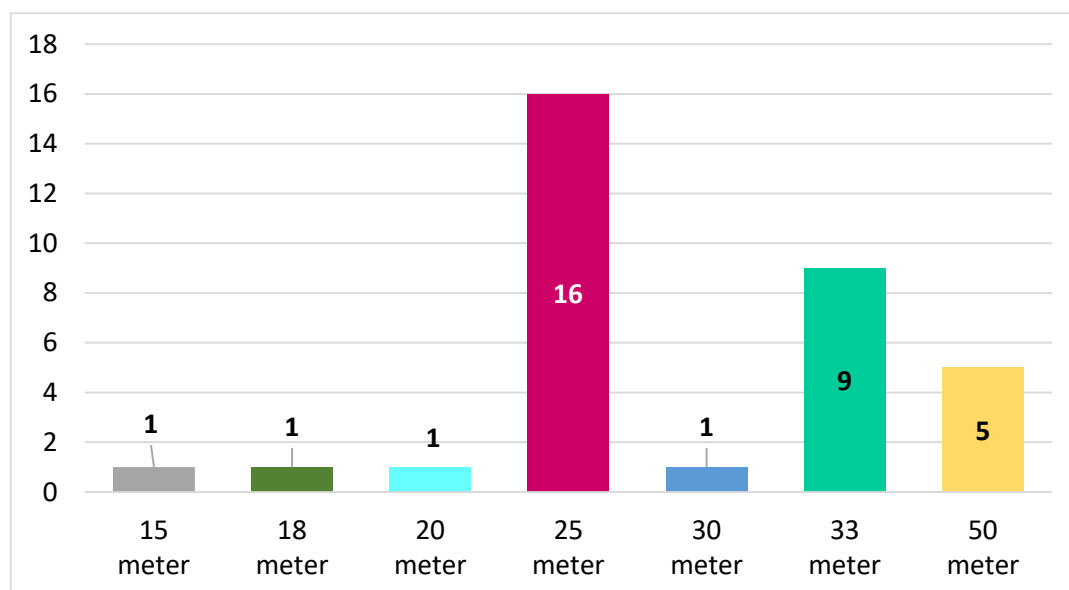
This answer does not mean that there are no swimming pools operating in a school building, but each of them stated that they only provided the space, in every other respect it is the local government answering for and making decisions concerning the facility.

Figure 8. Distribution of the Owners of the Swimming Pools



Next, the analysis of the length (in meters) of the pools was carried out. Figure 9 shows that we have mostly encountered pools that are 25 meters long (16). However nine facilities have 33-meter-long, and five have 50-meter-long swimming pools at their disposal.

Figure 9. Distribution of the Longest Swimming Pools Suitable for Swimming (pcs)



In order to study the utilisation of the swimming pools, their opening and closing times, both on weekdays and weekends was also examined. Based on this, we registered that 30% of the swimming pools open at 8 am on weekdays, while 42% of them are already open at 7 o'clock (Figure 10a-b). By examining the same detail regarding the weekend, we may say that 26% of the facilities open at 7 o'clock or before, and 45% of them open at 8 o'clock.

Figure 10.a. Opening Times of Swimming Pools During Weekdays

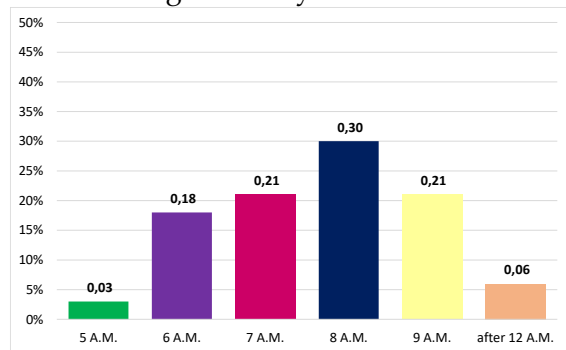
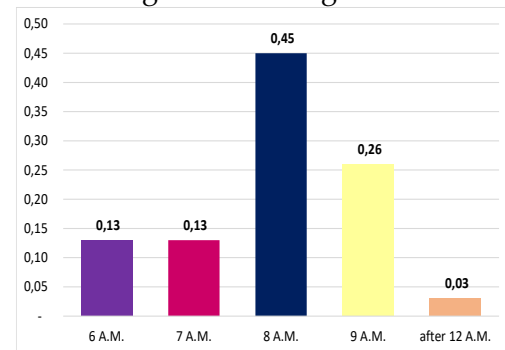


Figure 10.b. Opening Times of Swimming Pools During Weekends



Concerning the closing hours of the swimming pools, most of them (i.e. 60-64%) is open till 20 o'clock no matter if it is a weekday or the weekend (Figure 11a-b). We can also state that on weekdays 21% of them, while on Saturdays 13% of them are open till 21 or 22 o'clock thus providing the public with swimming opportunities.

Figure 11.a. Closing Times of Swimming Pools During Weekdays

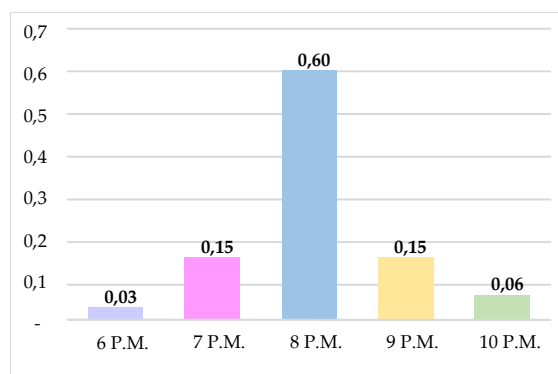
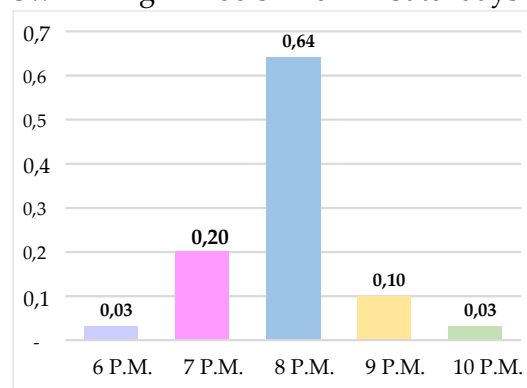


Figure 11.b. Closing Times of Swimming Pools on Saturdays

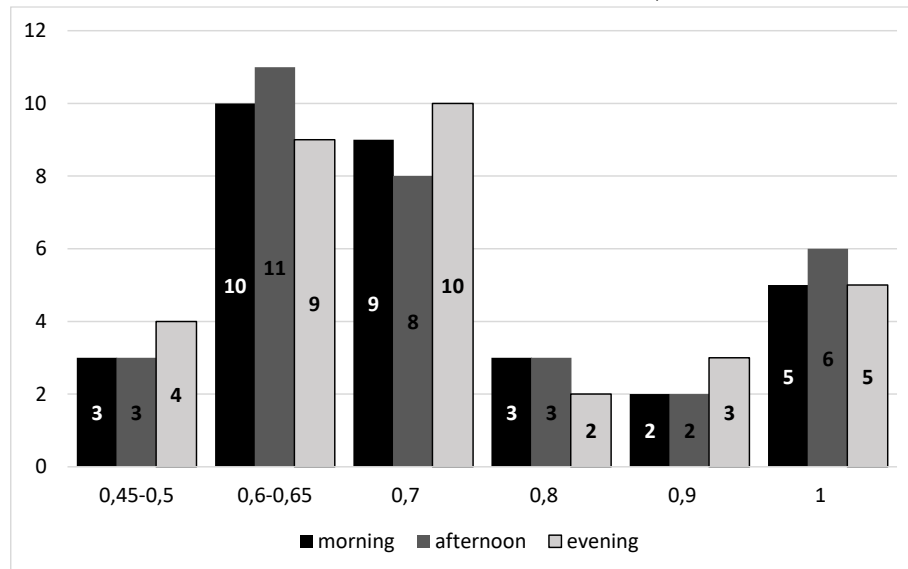


Sunday closing times are similar to those on Saturday, with the exception that no facilities are open till 22 o'clock, 10% of them closes at 21 o'clock, whereas 61% of them at 20 o'clock.

We also enquired about the percentage of utilisation of facilities on weekdays and weekends. If we look at everyday usage, we can say that the typical percentage of utilisation (no matter if it is in the morning, afternoon or evening) is between 60-70%,

but there are several swimming pools claiming their full capacity (i.e. 100%) is utilized on weekdays (Figure 12).

Figure 12. Utilisation of the Swimming Pools Purring weekdays – (Data Based on Self-Assessment of the Institutions)



Utilisation on weekends shows a subtler picture, since all sorts of responses occurred concerning the level of utilisation, from 45% up to 100% (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Utilisation of the swimming pools during weekends – data based on the self-assessment of the institutions

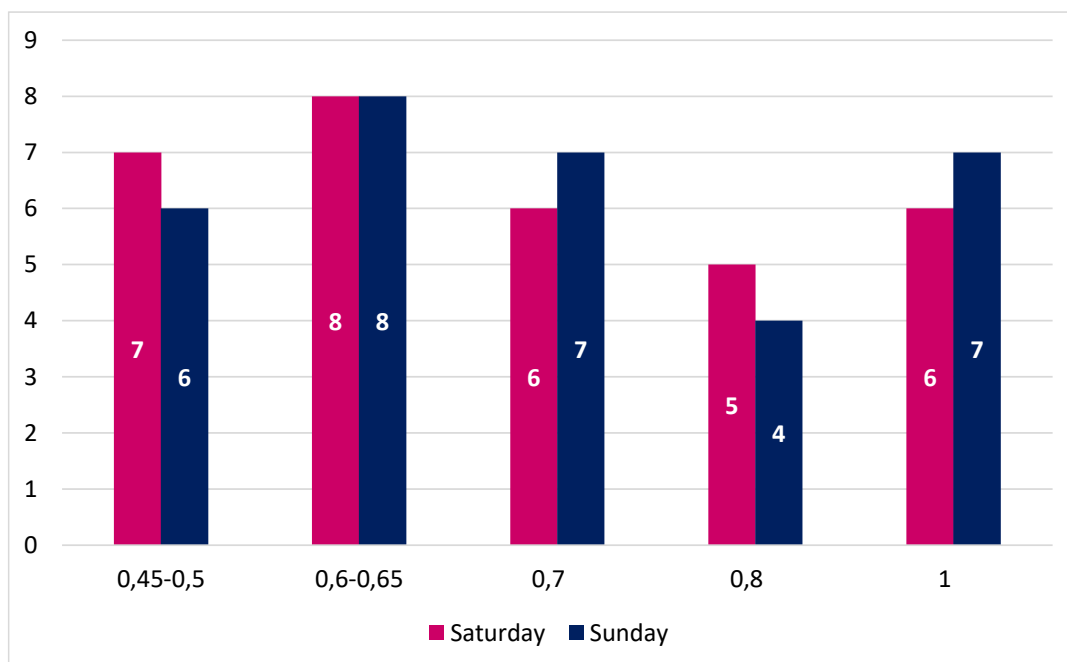
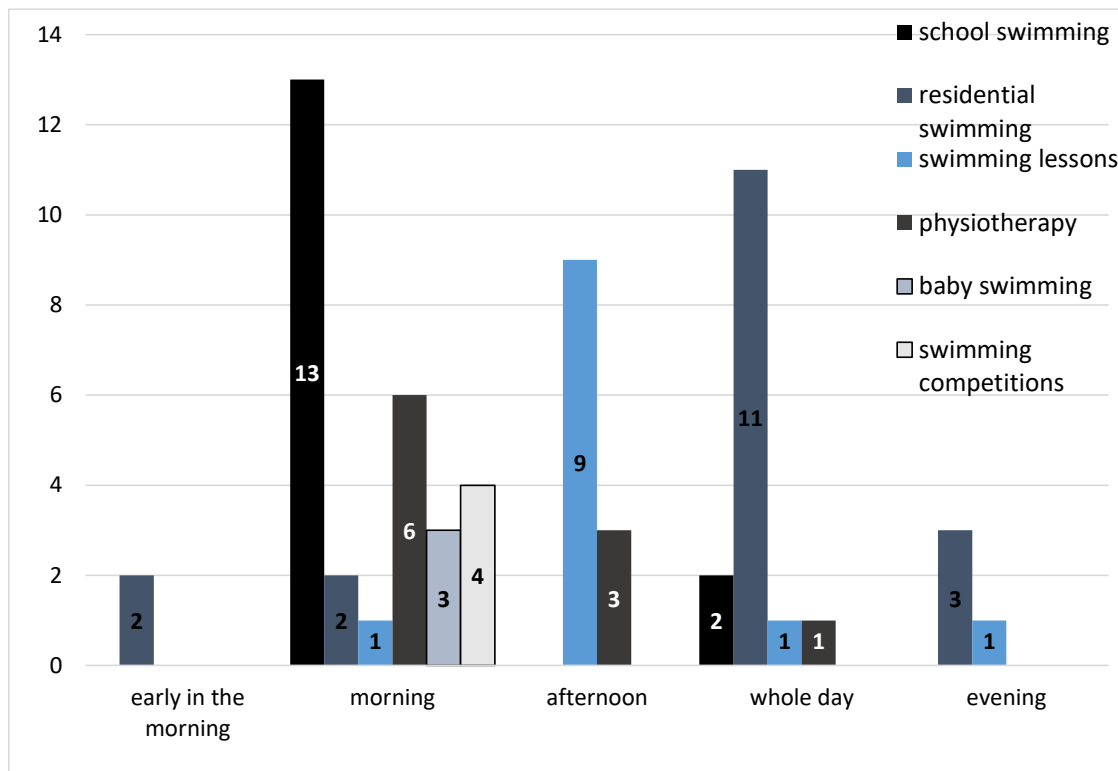


Figure 14. Distribution of Swimming Classes During the Day on Weekdays – Note that More than one answer could be named for this question



We also sought to find out how different swimming classes are distributed at specific times of the day, all day long (Figure 14). 36.7% of the facilities claimed that the public had been given the opportunity to use the pools throughout the day, with an additional 5% claiming this to be true for the early morning period, and another 8% telling that they provide the opportunity for community swimming in the evening. 38% of the facilities are used for school swimming in the morning period, while 26.4% of them provide swimming classes in the afternoon. 29% of the facilities provide space for physiotherapy, and in 8% of the baby swimming lessons are also available.

On Saturdays, 61.7% of the swimming pools are open for the public all day long, however, 35% of them host swimming competitions during the day. On Sundays, 61.7% of the facilities are open to the public all day long, and another 11.4% of them periodically, but are still open for this purpose. Baby swimming is accessible on weekends in 8-11% of the facilities, and in larger swimming pools competitions may be pursued on Sundays (5%) as well.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Numerous international studies have dealt with the important role that aquatic facilities play in the life of communities and individuals. At the same time, a significant portion of these researches was limited to identifying problems related to the previously

mentioned issue (White and Hyde, 2010), including potential accidents, harmful effects of UV radiation (Geller et al., 2001) and chlorine-induced symptoms (Zarzoso et al., 2010). However, we have less knowledge about what positive effects do swimming pools, and baths have on physical condition and social relationships. Researches focusing on how bath complexes operate highlight their positive effects on health and fitness, relaxation and stress management (Howat et al., 2012), which have also been confirmed by extensive research based on the recently conducted behavioural analysis (Middlestadt et al., 2015).

In his review, Tanaka (2009) has pointed out that swimming is optimal for the elderly, obese, and pregnant people, and also for those who have problems with physical activity on land, furthermore that swimming ameliorates high blood pressure, insulin sensitivity and improves general well-being. Australian researchers found out that children swimming in outdoor pools regularly produce a lower rate of school absences than their counterparts and also that their parents consider them happier (Lehman et al., 2003).

In those counties concerned by our study, many of the most lethal diseases could be influenced positively through prevention. In any case, it is important to educate people to follow a healthy lifestyle and to disseminate health-related knowledge to the public through health promotion programs.

Since swimming is one of the popular sports in Hungary (due to the country being successful at the Olympic and other world games, as well as swimming being accessible for people with a health issue resulting in lower physical capacity and for people with relatively low-income, Kith et al., 2014), it is recommended to learn it at school age. Our study has revealed that, according to the facility managers, swimming pools have a 60-70% utilization rate in the North Great Plain region, however we should also consider the fact that 17.6% of the facilities had determined the objective to provide school swimming at the time of their establishment, furthermore in the case of another 35.3% the main reason for the establishment was to provide community swimming opportunities. At the same time, the analysis of the distribution of current events showed school-based swimming having an 82.4% ratio. Out of the settlements that have their swimming pool, 6 have a population that does not exceed five thousand, the population of another eight settlements is between 5,000 and 10,000, in which the number of people aged 0-14 years is less than 750 or 1,500, respectively. Swimming pools provide both school and community swimming opportunities, but they also provide a place for physiotherapy, afternoon swimming classes, and swimming competitions along community swimming on weekends. Opening hours provide swimming possibilities for the adult population mainly during the daytime and in the evening, consequently 21% of the swimming pools open at 6 o'clock in the morning to allow workers to possibly start the day with swimming and children to have a swimming workout before school.

In advanced societies with increasing economic prosperity, there is a growing demand for a healthy lifestyle. Based on research on sports habits, it can be stated that swimming is one of the most popular sports not only for younger but older people as

well. Therefore, the existence, maintenance and construction of swimming pools is a major element to consider when it comes to developing an approach of healthy lifestyle among the population. The number of currently existing swimming pools is not enough for the 395 primary schools in the region, but with the implementation of the swimming pool construction program, swimming lessons can be integrated into more and more curricula.

Acknowledgement

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Shopping Tourism in the Context of Amasya Cultural Heritage

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Prof. Dr Öner Demirel³

Abstract

People have travelled to different regions for various reasons throughout history. Tourism is a multifaceted activity with various economic, political, social, cultural, ecological and environmental influences. Since cultural heritages increase the attractiveness of their territories and attract many tourists, there exists a strong relationship between tourism and culture. Tourists are interested in souvenirs, handicraft products, artworks, regional flavours and cultural attractions. Tourists' desire to shopping does not only provide economic income but also helps the preservation of cultural traditions.

The city of Amasya, which is located in the Central Black Sea Region of Turkey, was chosen as the study area. The city is famous for its natural and cultural values, historical city texture, traditional Ottoman Houses that take place along the Yeşilırmak river etc. Since the city has hosted many civilisations throughout history, it has a rich cultural heritage tourism potential. This study aimed to determine the cultural attraction areas, shopping centre, local taste points and local markets selling local products in order to specify sustainable and interrelated shopping routes for pedestrians, cyclists and disabled people. In this context, the points that were found to be significant regarding shopping tourism in the Amasya city centre were specified, and a resultant map is showing the routes for tourists was produced. This enables the tourists to easily access the local products either on foot or on bicycles the first time they arrive in the city. This will allow the tourists to easily reach the local products either on foot or on bicycles when they arrive in the city for the first time. It will also be possible for tourists to recognise cultural values. This study will result in routes that can either be easily accessed by tourists and provide economic income to the city.

Keywords: Cultural heritage, Shopping tourism, Shopping routes, Amasya

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1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, people have travelled to different areas for many reasons. These trips, which were made only by rich in the past, are nowadays made by people from all strata in parallel to the development of the industry and technology, the increase of the income per capita, the increase of the level of prosperity, the increase of free time and the cheapening of transformation (Kurt Konakoğlu et al., 2017).

According to Hunziker and Krapf (1942), tourism refers to all relationships and events that occur as a result of the travelling and accommodation that people do without permanent settling and income, in places they do not live and work constantly. Tourism is a spatial phenomenon that includes the place to stay, the place of destination, and the person who moves from one place to another (Farsari and Prastacos, 2004). European Commission (2000) indicated that there has been an increasing interest in local cultures and urban tourism due to the increase in the level of education of the people, the increase in their incomes, the desire to different tastes, cultures and to shopping, and the loss of the appeal of sea-sand-sun tourism (Emekli, 2013). The culture, which is composed of many components such as life forms, mores, festivals, music, handicrafts, history, religion etc., varies from region to region. Food culture is one of the most significant factors that distinguish a region's culture and identity from others (Ballı, 2016; Doldur, 2016).

Cultural heritage includes national parks, heritage sites, monuments, museums, churches, schools and cultural-historical-natural elements that help define historical identities (Timothy, 2014; URL-1, 2018). These areas represent a tremendous accumulation of knowledge of human history. The cultural heritage tourism plays an important role in the economic development of the cities and encourages their historical preservation (Ngamsomsuke et al., 2011; Nocca, 2017).

One of the most important factors that motivate people to participate in tourism activities is the desire to do shopping. The trips that tourists make to shop and spend a high amount of money during shopping are defined as shopping tourism. Shopping as a tourism activity creates an attractive environment, encourages people to travel and is considered a source of pleasure (Reisinger and Turner, 2001; Temizkan and Temizkan, 2005; Uca Özer and Tüzünkan, 2012).

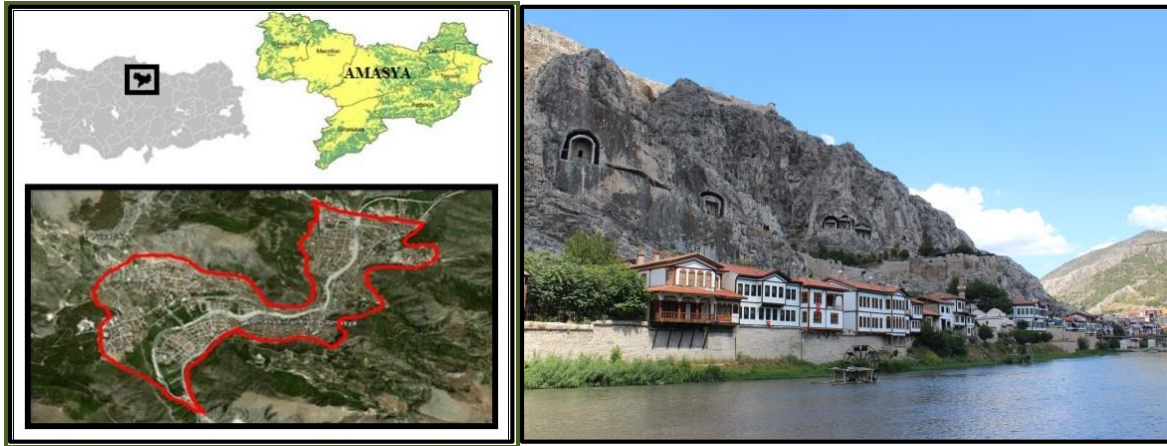
The purpose of this study was to identify the cultural attractions points (i.e. historical sites, museums, Turkish baths, madrasas, historical mosques, tombs, bridges, historical buildings, bedesten, inn, monumental trees etc.), local taste points, shopping centre, and shops and markets where the local products are sold in the city of Amasya in order to create sustainable and interrelated shopping routes for pedestrians, cyclists and disabled people. In this context, 98 important points for shopping tourism in Amasya city centre were determined in the ArcGIS 10.5 software and a result map showing the specified routes for

tourists was created. By doing so, the tourists will be able to easily access the local products either on foot or on bicycles, when they arrive in the city for the first time. It will also be possible for tourists to recognise cultural values. The present study will provide routes that can either be easily accessed by tourists and provide economic income to the city.

2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

In the present study, the city of Amasya, which is located in the Central Black Sea Region of Turkey, was chosen as the study area. The city has so many natural and cultural values, a historical city texture, rich culinary culture and traditional Ottoman Houses take place along the Yeşilirmak River and Valley (see Figure 1). The city has a rich cultural heritage tourism potential since it has hosted many civilisations throughout history. The city has been in the UNESCO World Heritage List since 2015, thanks to both the Harşena Mountain in the north of the city and the Pontus King Rock Tombs, which are among the largest rock tombs of Anatolia. Also, the city, with its natural beauty, rich cultural heritage, architecture, cuisine, handicrafts and touristic attraction points, is one of the 15 brand cities nominated in Turkey's 2023 Tourism Strategy published by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

Figure 1: Study Area



Source: Own study

In the present study, domestic and foreign articles, dissertations and websites on cultural heritage and shopping tourism were examined. Afterwards, the positions of the cultural attraction points (i.e. historical sites, museums, Turkish baths, madrasas, historical mosques, tombs, bridges, historical buildings, bedesten, inn, monumental trees etc.), important regional flavour sales points, shopping centre and markets selling local products were measured by a handheld GPS device. The measured positions were used in

conjunction with the satellite imagery in the ArcGIS 10.5 software in order to produce the map showing the routes designed for tourists.

3. FINDINGS

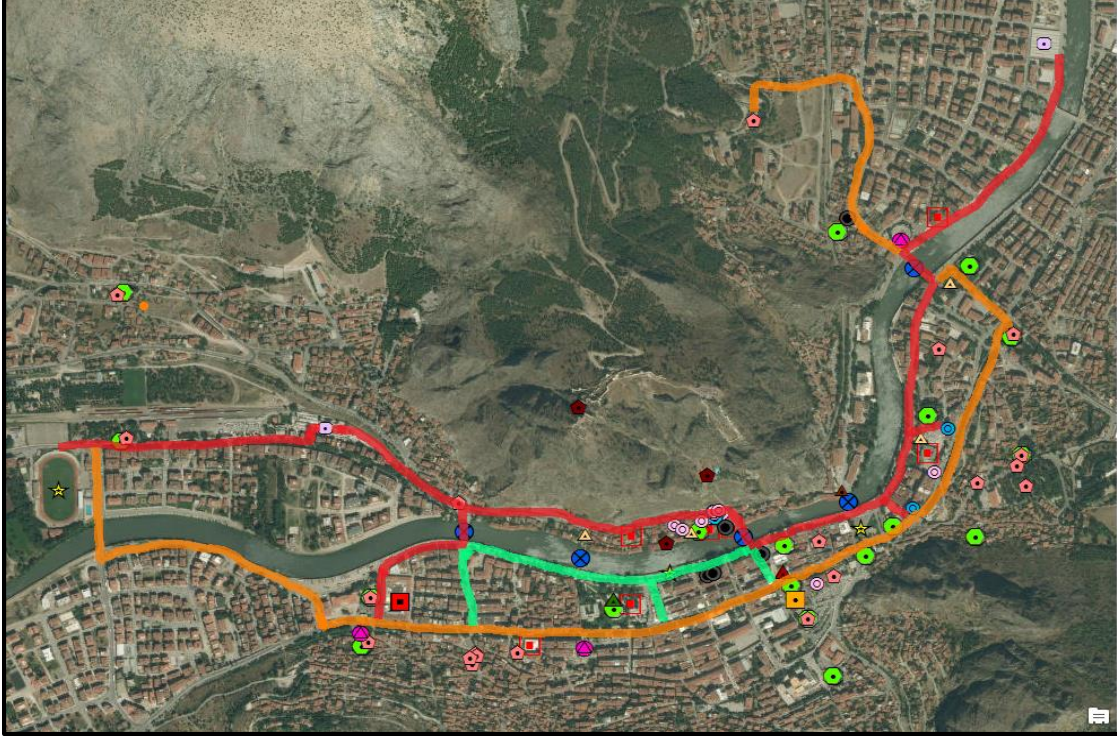
The city of Amasya has a rich culinary culture, owing to its deep-rooted culture level, historical background and rich vegetation cover. Even though the dishes that are unique to the region are known in other regions, their taste, structure and names may vary. Amasya cuisine is famous for its pastries, soups, fillings, desserts and apples. Çatal soup, sakala çarpan, toyga soup, cılbır, helle soup, kesme ibik soup, yarma soup, stuffed broad bean, okra, blah, liver streak, wine leaves stuffed with rice, madmad, mumbar, tripe, beetroot, peeled eggplant, bacon grilling, pirpirim, circulating liver and juicy meatball, dene hasuda, yuka dessert, quince gaile, apple dessert, oven rice pudding, point finger, shirt kadayıf, sloth, hoşmerim, peluza, candy berry, sourdough bread and jerusalem, Amasya bun, greasy/katmer, pumpkin chilled rice, pancake/crepe, rotation, papara, poppy bun, hengel, uncooked ravioli, doughboy, eggplant rice, patty, yakasal patty and burritos can be considered as local food of the city (Kurt Konakoğlu et al., 2017; URL-2-3, 2018).

The handicrafts produced in the city include carpet-rug weaving, tin-samovar production, silver embroidery, peshtamal-sheet weaving, needlework, woodworks, ripping-rope bending, hot iron construction (URL-4, 2018).

Because the city of Amasya had been the centre of the economy and trade for centuries, it hosted many civilizations throughout the history and it played a significant role during the Ottoman Empire period. So, it has a rich cultural heritage, due to the traces it has in it. Various festivals, contests and art events are held every year in order to integrate the tourists with local people. All these values constitute the cultural structure of the city of Amasya. This, of course, leads to variety in tourism types in the city and to a shopping opportunity for tourists who would like to see these values.

98 important points in terms of cultural heritage (i.e. historical sites, museums, Turkish baths, madrasas, historical mosques, tombs, bridges, historical buildings, bedesten, inn, monumental trees etc.) and shopping tourism (shopping centre, selling local foods, handicraft, souvenir and products shops) in the city centre are shown in the ArcGIS 10.5 software (see Figure 2). These 98 points include 3 historical sites, 8 museums, 4 Turkish baths, 3 madrasas, 19 historical mosques, 20 tombs, 6 bridges, 1 historical building, 1 bedesten, 1 inn, 1 monument tree, 3 markets, 1 shopping centre, 3 shops selling local products, 1 handicrafts shop, 13 souvenirs shops, 3 festival areas and 7 local food places. The specified points are shown with different colours and symbols for easy recognition (see Figure 2). Using these points, three continuous and interrelated shopping routes were created for tourists (see Figure 2). Created routes were designed to be used for pedestrians, cyclists and disabled people.

Figure 2: Result Map Showing the Shopping Routes Created for the City of Amasya



Source: Own study

The route shown by red colour in Figure 2 includes the historical sites, museums, Turkish baths, madrasas, historical mosques, tombs, bridges, historical buildings, shopping centre, shops selling local foods and products, handicraft and souvenir shops. This route starts from the shopping centre and ends either at the Stadium of June 12th, which is one of the places where the festivals are held or at the Bahçeleriçi bazaar. The route also offers the tourists the opportunity to get to know historical and cultural values while shopping.

A part of the route indicated by orange colour (see Figure 2) is on the main transportation axis of the city. This route starts from the Stadium of June 12th and ends at the Amasya Castle. The route offers the tourists the opportunity to get to know both historical and cultural values and to watch the scenery while shopping.

The route indicated by green colour (see Figure 2) is located between the Istasyon Bridge and Alçak Bridge along the Yeşilirmak River. Following this route, tourists can learn about the historical and cultural values, watch the scenery and take photographs while shopping.

It should be noted that all these routes, which are connected, are suitable for pedestrians, cyclists and drivers.

4. CONCLUSION

One of the goals of Turkey's 2023 Tourism Strategy prepared by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism is the randomisation of the cities with rich cultural and natural values in order to turn them into attraction points. The city of Amasya is one of the 15 cities nominated in this regard. As a result, three easily accessible shopping routes with different characteristics were identified for tourists to provide economic income to the city. It was also observed that the important points regarding cultural heritage and shopping tourism are mostly located along the Yeşilırmak River at the city centre, which allows the tourists to easily access the traditional and local products of the city. The shopping tourism does not only play a significant role in the introduction of the city, but also the increase in the number of tourist visitors.

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Points of View Landscaping Experiences Approaches

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Abstract

The purpose is to analyse and confirm the desire to reinterpret local fragments by reaching a "plurality of experiences and landscapes of living" (Lanzani, 2009), that extend beyond the few rigid models of the past, varying more and more the multiple points of view from which the observer chooses to position himself, directly and indirectly, in the digital age we experience. It becomes necessary to introduce a fundamental concept such as the creation of Landscape (Magnaghi, 2010) already discussed and debated about the combination of "constructed or built" and "green and free spaces" (Gambino, 1989). The Landscape is no longer subdivided into an obsolete territorialisation and sectorisation that refers, to name a few, to rural areas, urban, suburban-residential, post-industrial (Lanzani, 2009) as much as one, from time to time different, land art that make recognizable and as essential as those landmarks of a landscape so reconstructed and planned, which is beautiful to see but specially to live and participate, referring to its different "self-sustainability" (Magnaghi, 2010). With Landscape we mean "an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and human factors" (European Landscape Convention, Chapter 1, Art 1). Thus, the thought seems to assert that a Landscape does not exist, except through the eyes of those who benefit from it. In this form, we can speak of city-territory/city-landscape as we refer to an internet network, labyrinthine, widespread and without centres and outskirts (Zagari, 2013), but which is subject to landscaping as "intelligent space, geographical certification of successful social practices" (Turco, 2017). It is extremely similar to the concept of "infinite city" (Bonomi, Abruzzese, 2004) which inevitably leads to the identification of the "Third Landscape" (Clément, 2014) finally recognised and valued in a context of re-appropriation of places.

Keywords: shaping, land art, landmarks, the point of view

1. INTRODUCTION

The cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent; the natural area is the medium, the cultural landscape the result. (Sauer, 1925).

I decided to open my speech with the words of the Cultural Geographer Carl Sauer since already in the early 90s the need to redefine an extremely widespread and complex concept like the landscape is evident. The search for more liveable relationships with the natural world, well evidenced by the "landscape question" (Berque, 1993) inevitably crosses

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the processes of total profanation of the contemporary world. It changes the meaning of the current interpretive categories, such as the *constructed* or the *built*, as opposed to *green* or *free spaces*. In this new perspective of living, the most ancient territorial subdivision is often confused for an inviolable assumption. The result is a constant reference to industrial, urbanised, rural, post-industrial, suburban-residential areas that are incongruous with the mature perception of living places.

2. A FIRST LOOK

To be able to continue the discussion it is important to learn how the terminology can often be misleading. For example, it often happens that to indicate an agrarian territory the term rural is used, which is wrong by a whole series of characteristics that differentiates them from each other. The whole analysis must, therefore, be moved to a cultural level. It is the complex sense of the landscape that allows us to "bridge nature and culture" (Gambino, 2010); without accepting this complexity, it would be difficult to understand both aspects that are an integral part of everyday human life. As Carlo Socco points out, today nature is similar to a cultural phenomenon, and as such it is part of a universe of meanings. We must, therefore, imagine the landscape as an interweaving of different plots, which are "structured and configured in a spatial, temporal and conceptual sense in a complexity that, to be analysed, must be simplified and codified and then recomposed" (Pandakovic & Dal Sasso, 2009). These statements are not born of course at any moment. Already just before the 90s, people began to talk about the planning and stratification of landscapes by their vocations, considering that

only when men have a discreetly mature knowledge of these territorial individualities in which they live, are those processes of construction that with their sedimentation and intersection have produced the landscape. (Gambi, 1986)

To get to talk and deal with planning, in my opinion, it has to go back a little further. We then meet the practice of Land-Art. It started from the practice identified and originated in the '60s in the United States of America identifying all those activities, mainly by the hand of renowned artists, including the remodelling of the territory. Mainly the Land-Art represents a retaliation towards the approach to the life of the time, later extended to artistic categories of all kinds, not only sculptural but also musical, pictorial, interpretative. It carries the entire cultural sphere, moving from actions in which space and natural elements appear as specific materials of the work, through large-scale interventions, to a milder interpretation, in some cases almost ecological. We then move from an aggressive (but always respecting the environment) to a more experiential, like walking in the place that

was chosen and prepared, until we get, over the years, to a completely different concept². At this point also takes the choice of vision of the works of art made in this way. For example, for many of these, it is argued that the top view involves a totalizing and all-encompassing look and generates the feeling of observing something, while the bottom view suggests an idea of participation and community, the phenomenological effect of walking through space³.

3. DEFINE LANDSCAPE

What is reported here may be good for a first and limited circumscribed approach to planning, but given construction and landscape architectures is not sufficient. First of all, it needs to defined what, at the current state of the studies, means to talk about landscape and to do so we will use the definition given in the European Landscape Convention (ELC)

Article 1 – Definitions

For the Convention:

- a. "Landscape" means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and human factors;

As can be seen following this definition, widely recognised and applied, it is physiological that the landscape needs to be constantly transformed, with the participation of a large number of actors, some of them, indeed, creative. The landscape, therefore, represents a place where collectivity and individuality are mixed, also referring to the Land-Art mentioned above. The context in which the latter is created and concretised is, therefore, primarily that of the urbanised landscape, as mentioned at the beginning. However, treating this type of landscape and referring to studies on the urban context, now sufficiently advanced, many agree in taking note that now we must talk about city-territory / city-landscape, increasingly resembling the Internet, labyrinthine, fractal, widespread, without centres and without suburbs (Zagari, 2013, p.30), within which to move in the hubs that are created. We refer again to the multiplicity of models of coexistence, forms of mobility and

² This is the case of the Land-Art work carried out in 2011 on the border between Poland and Ukraine, of a purely political nature. Or again, and perhaps more current in the modalities, the one realized since 2012 in Italy with the name of Re. Seed. Promoted by ANCI (National Association of Italian Municipalities) it sees the involvement of a very important portion of the territory: gardens and villas. The action of modeling and rearranging the landscape therefore takes on a new importance: to train young people already introduced to the cultural and / or architectural arts, to enhance the territorial associations and to qualify the territory become inseparable aspects with the initiative. (Initially linked the Municipality of Varese, the initiative continues over the years with calls for tenders and territorial promotion involving a large part of the Italian territory, proceeding with interventions related to promotion, training and research, mobility, free and regenerating enjoyment of the lost landscape of its own live).

³ For more information, refer to Minidio, A. (2013). Land art e città giardino. In Breda, M.A., Zerbi, M.C., (cur.). *Rinverdiando la città. Parchi, orti, giardini*. Giappichelli, Torino.

the search for different functional mixes, leading to reinterpretation of pieces of urban territory from time to time, "generating a plurality of experiences and landscapes of living" (Lanzani, 2009, p.256). The need arises to circumscribe, within new forms and new models, what is the territorial reality, containing this plurality of landscapes, since the landscape, unlike the territory, can't be imposed from the outside but must be an autonomous conquest of those who live these places. It must, therefore, come to multiple forms of self-sustainability (Magnaghi, 2010), mainly economic, social and ecological in order to be able to operate properly and thus generate a landscape coherent with its identity. To quote Raffstein (2005) "the landscape does not make a shadow because it is not material. It is created by the world of sensations and the world of logos ". However, this abstraction needs two elements, the first certainly abstract and the most subjective, the second concrete and strongly linked to the very essence of the place.

4. POINTS OF VIEW AND LANDMARKS

Starting from the first of the elements mentioned above, we begin by talking about the multiplicity of the points of view. This perception of the identifiable and identified space vision as the landscape changes substantially in the last few years. The introduction of new technologies and their accessibility by users make it possible to generate new knowledge in the eye of those who choose where and from where to look. It is precisely about this that the second element takes over, namely the landmarks. A landmark can be represented by natural elements as much as anthropic. What should be emphasized is the ability that they have to enclose the meaning of the place in which they are located, even coming to represent it as a whole through its uniqueness⁴. The choice of points of view and landmarks thus becomes a focal point for what is territorial planning aimed at achieving a landscape, at this point we can say, self-sustainable and identity. To understand why a Territorial Development Plan must understand how what makes the territorialism approach to the issue of landscape important and strategic is the belief that there is no local development without valuing and involving local society in the first person, and that the assumption is the collective and individual re-assumption of knowledge and culture of the place: a *local project* can only start from a preliminary rediscovered ability, on the part of every member of the community, to read the territory in its complexity and its opportunities, in historical, sacral, economic configuration, in its identity semantisation, so as to reach a shared heritage of representations and territorial memories that reinforce the sense of belonging of the inhabitants, so as to produce "that process of self-recognition of identity and values of one's own living environment which underlies scenarios and projects that are aware of

⁴ The case brought by Zagari (2013) was explained in the coastal context of Puglia, specifically in the landscape of Gargano. The coastal installations of the Trabucchi and the watchtowers have crept into the historical-cultural context to such an extent that they become irreplaceable landmarks of that land, surviving the changes dictated by tourist flows and modernity. They incorporate within themselves the characteristic element of an earth inextricably linked to its landscape as conceived.

transformation" (Bonesio, 2007, p. 21). By not identifying any specific case we are now faced with the need to identify the context in which to operate this planning. The ELC imposes, to Italy and other countries, that have signed and ratified it, to extend the deserved attention, as a rule, to the landscapes of excellence to all landscapes, even the ordinary ones, spread throughout the territory national, as everyone is the tangible sign of the society that inhabits them.

The CEP recognises the landscape:

- A cultural value
- An aesthetic value
- A scientific value
- An economic value
- An ecological value

Through this document, the landscape has a legal value as well as a new strategic centrality. Landscaping and historical analysis are therefore important to support and integrate an urban study, which highlights not only the settlements and infrastructures but also the production activities and services that give rise to attention points or detractors and considerably influence the flows and urban dynamics. This type of investigation should, therefore, be enriched with sociological data that allow having important information on the population, not only regarding age, profession and cultural origin but also related to interests, habits, opportunities for integration and intercultural exchange and intergenerational.

We must, therefore, start from an operative definition of landscape, which does not exclude its aesthetic dimension, but which is focused on the past and present uses of the landscape, the territory and the environment. We must know how to move from the *aesthetic* (to be looked at) landscape to the *ethical* (to be experienced) landscape. Therefore, we must strongly affirm the primary connection between landscape and environment, which implies a very strong bond to coincidence, between landscape protection and health, physical and mental protection. (Settis, 2013)

It is with the words of the ELC and Settings that I am going to identify the area of intervention of these policies through which the landscape then becomes culture, finally acquiring the perception of how it is necessary "to develop through the conservation and improvement of the landscape and cultural heritage and potential local resources" (Falqui, 2008). I speak of what Gilles Clément, and others with him and subsequently to him, identifies as "Third Landscape"⁵ or third landscape. Being able to properly exploit these

⁵ ... it is above all a sustainable landscape. The design process on which it is based is aimed at making sure that the extent of the variations, brought by the anthropic activities to meet certain needs, is kept within limits that

spaces and these contexts make it possible to generate an enhancement of the urban environment, together with its becoming an integral part of that rural landscape increasingly interconnected to the urban landscape itself, which has now become inseparable. The real strength of this correlation lies in the protection for the conservation of natural areas extended to the entire territory and, at the same time, policies for the protection of cultural heritage have widened their range of interest from the monument to its territorial context. Within the framework of integration between nature and culture, ecological networks, while showing their priority role of naturalistic protection, extend their purpose beyond that strictly inherent to ecosystem functioning. Ecological networks become environmental and aim to "create an integrated system of conservation and enhancement of natural and cultural resources and to promote local development processes" (Gambino, 2001). Together with the third landscape, we find another component: the *minimum landscape*⁶. Through the term taken up by the writer and entomologist Mario Sturani (1906-1978), this landscape is the design and creation of shared man-nature, is the result of a synergistic combination of human and natural activity (walls, pavements, hedges ...).

The characteristics can be summarized with:

- Original and specific company-environment relationship;
- Habitats of naturalistic value not very common in urban areas;
- Immediate reading, usability and recognisability because attractive and distributed in the interface usable to the public;
- High penetrative capacity in dense urban fabrics, continuity between semi-natural, rural and urban systems;
- Recovery of visual and exploratory relationship instead of zenithal;
- They need a high culture of places;
- They do not enjoy forms of protection and/or protection.

One can then refer to landscaping as the realisation of "an intelligent space, the geographical certification of successful social practices" (Turco, 2017, p 191). The landscape appears as a medium of performative communication which, moreover, revolves not only around contingent needs, but rather focuses on anticipations, expectations. Also because it would be impossible, in the light of what has been said, to limit the idea of urban landscape

do not damage the natural and cultural resources irremediably. In reality, *making third landscape* means going beyond the goal of sustainability, that is, reading in the transformation process also an opportunity, an occasion for the planning of new landscape scenarios. The third landscape is a new landscape, wanted, sought, thought out, in a designed word, the ultimate result of a cultural and design project built around the Safeguard, Balance, Dynamism, in contrast to the "other landscape" (Ercolini, 2006).

⁶ For more information refer to Ferlinghetti, R. (2014). *Paesaggi minimi: caratteri, valori, prospettive. Un approccio geografico*. In Zerbi, M. C., Ferlinghetti, R. (cur.) *Metamorfosi del Paesaggio. Interpretazioni della geografia e dell'architettura* (p. 113). Guerini e Associati, Milano

only to problems generated by automobile circulation and the characteristics of architecture. "The landscape is a new perspective for issues related to the urban project and, in general, to the thought of the city" (Besse, 2009)⁷.

5. SCALE THE CONTEXT

To discuss easily what it represents at this point the purpose or at least one of the purposes, that a landscape has within the territorial context, I will take into consideration the broader concept of the garden.

The landscape is not only given by the simple sum of the elements that compose it since it is rarely understood that the landscape is not yet given when things of each species extend side by side on a piece of land and are immediately seen together (Simmel, 1912).

The landscape denotes the external world mediated through human and subjective experience in a way that neither the reason is the area immediately suggest. The landscape is not simply the world we see; it is a construction, a composition of that world. The landscape is a way of seeing the world ... the landscape is a social and cultural product, a way of seeing projected onto the territory ... (Gosgrove, 1990).

It is with the words of Simmel and especially of Gosgrove that I find the right argument to insert the garden as a prototype of landscape and its best experimentation environment⁸. The garden, therefore, becomes the first place of experience of landscape,

⁷ In the case of the Italian context, an expert team was formed in the evaluation of landscape issues that later allowed the development of other institutional tasks such as landscape planning, training for the training of environmental experts and to act as a support service for local authorities. The regions have involved the various sub-regional subjects over time, assigning their authorization powers to them in a sub-delegated form. This operation was associated with some accompanying initiatives aimed at establishing, as far as possible, continuity between regional and local management.

Essential parts of the Regional Landscape Plans reflect much of what is defined in the European Landscape Convention, and therefore:

- Sensitization of society to appreciate the value of landscapes;
- Training and education of operators and introduction of the landscape theme in school premises at different levels;
- Identification and evaluation for the best knowledge of the landscape features of the territory;
- Landscaping quality objectives, it is necessary to set new objectives to promote the quality of landscapes;
- Application of knowledge to the territory by activating intervention tools.

⁸ The garden is a manifestation of the era in which it is made. Since the gardens of Babylon there is a self-portrait of society where the material and immaterial values of the collective imaginary are sedimented, meanings, symbols, signs that precipitate in our experience in the form of characters. Greater interest also springs from the vegetation that composes it. It could be said that in our time the garden tends to identify itself with the public space and becomes better understandable if transferred to the concept of landscape, even more in its English

enclosing within it a large number of activities that make it a representation par excellence of what can be defined as landscape recreation. Proceeding by example is undoubtedly the best way to understand how this happens naturally and spontaneously as a result of planning processes. In the first case, we find two large urban gardens: Parc de Gerland in Lyon and a border park between the cities of Strasbourg and Kehl. In the first, the compositional structure is deliberately simple and based on two elements that are balanced by fulfilling different functions: a large triangular lawned surface with few trees overlooking the bank of the Rhone, along which runs a tree-lined cycle path, thus mending the city to his river in a renewed relationship. A garden developed for six hundred meters in length, and punctuated by rectangular flower beds separated by pedestrian paths, contains four hundred species of herbaceous plants, shrubs and other aquatic plants, with bright colours in contrast with the monochromia of the lawn. The first is intended for non-organized games and sports, while the latter also has a didactic function. The geometric regularity of the flowerbeds evokes the French vegetable tradition, but the reference to the countryside can also be read in the presence of an area destined for urban gardens that accompany the walk to the visitor's park. Similar features the second park that connects the opposite banks of the Rhine. The two parts of the park are connected by a bridge for pedestrians only. Visitors can therefore freely switch from France to Germany and vice versa. The territory of the garden of the two shores includes an area where formerly industrial waste dumps were located, the port area and a military exercise field near the river. It was, therefore, a sort of no man's land between the city's cement and the border (the concept of a third landscape previously dealt with again). The objectives of the project are both tourism and culture. Touristic as it wants to make the site a point of attraction creating a special space in direct contact with nature in the heart of a great metropolis like Strasbourg. The project involves the construction of a bridge, barges and a shuttle to cross the river on the water and, moreover, walks along the banks of the Rhine with refreshment points, playgrounds and rest areas. The goal is also to attract the inhabitants of Kehl and neighbouring cities to the large park area on the French side. The second example identified refers more to how the garden experiments than to the real phase of planning: we are talking about healing gardens⁹. The characteristics that distinguish them from each other are mainly

diction or in the French Paysage. The garden crystallizes information of the landscape in which it resides, so much so that it is a mistake to think that the landscape can be assimilated only on a large scale, so much so that it is not the scale that defines a differentiation. This lies in the complexity and not in the dimension: the garden is made up of a set of variations such that the "planning" and the "design" make it a hybrid terrain, also an interest in architecture.

⁹ External space (and sometimes also internal) designed to promote and improve people's health and well-being. A true healing garden must effectively pursue the "programming objectives" (Sachs, 2008). This design is reflected in various interdisciplinary working groups, one of these being the Therapeutic Landscapes network (www.healinglandscapes.org), an international network that bases its research on attention to evidence-based design in care facilities.

found in the type of experience offered. We can use the categorisation made by Stigsdotter & Grahn, (2002)¹⁰ according to which we can have:

- gardens for passive enjoyment: simply staying in the green has beneficial effects ("Just being in the garden");
- gardens for "sensory" fruition: the interaction with the green of all our senses has beneficial effects ("Experiencing the garden");
- gardens for active use: "working" with greenery has beneficial effects ("Working with gardening").

6. CONCLUSION

At the end of this contribution, I feel I can say that the definition and redefinition not so much of the term landscape as its conceptual value may have finally settled in one of the meanings that allows you to interact, enhance and promote territories as much as cultures. Precisely for this reason, I agree with those who define that, at present, we can talk about at least three macro-categories of the landscape, which are:

- Stabilized landscape: images with clearly delimited boundaries; an identifiable landscape due to strong figurative and spatial evidence of the main structural components; mainly linked to tradition.
- Landscape in transformation: territory where the typical elements of the tradition are commingled, the buildings, the types of crops and the alternation of cultivated land and wooded areas in addition to the reparative vegetation; territories in sharp reduction because no longer profitable; it's based not only on economic return but also on ecological, historical and landscape functions; protecting and enhancing through compatible tourism forms.
- Destabilized landscape: they represent those areas of agrarian type, often recalling traditional design, but completely immersed in the urban fabric, often isolating itself inside it becoming a point of urban discontinuity; very present also in the Roman area where the countryside has "sold" the place to the city; similar areas but with virtuous interventions are different European capitals.

I want to close these reflections with the words of Zanini (1997) that will identify the transformation not only spatial but also conceptual that territory, a landscape, face and continue to face, each time with different ways and purposes, in response to the time in which they are designed:

In different forms and ways, borders and borders both have to do with the modification of our real landscape, transforming the territory that we physically

¹⁰ For more information refer to Senes, G., Toccolini, A. (2013). Healing Garden: le aree verdi per il benessere dell'uomo. In Breda, M.A., Zerbi, M.C., (cur.). *Rinverdiamo la città. Parchi, orti, giardini*. Giappichelli, Torino.

inhabit and occupy. At the same time, they deeply influence the places and spaces that mark and shape our mental horizons, our more or less authentic identities.

A need for culture can only come from an educational activity, which in the Convention precedes the actions of transformation and can only find alignment in the awareness that any intervention on the landscape by the planner implies knowledge and involvement. The component that constitutes its gaze, individuals, populations, to act on and with them even before their landscape.

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Changes in Urban Square in the Time Period: Case Study of Trabzon

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Abstract

Cities have become the most important part of life as the first time urban open spaces were created for pedestrian transport purposes. Over time, the squares were used to meet functions such as meeting place, intersection, marketplace and coffee. The places that are most affected by the change process are where urban and human pressures are felt. The historical process of urban squares gives information about the physical and functional characteristics of the city. The places that are most affected by the change process are places where urban and human pressures are used intensively. This situation causes the city's identity values to be lost. In this sense, Trabzon city square, which has important characteristics regarding history, has been designated as a study area by hosting many social and cultural activities. Trabzon Square is the centre of the city with its four-thousand-year history. In addition to this, it is a tourism area surrounded by historical registered. Trabzon Square was used to analyse the spatial development. The positive and negative aspects of the change in the city square have been questioned. In this context, on-site evaluations, observations and analyses were made. To determine the values that can reflect the past of the city, interviews were made with users over 65 years of age. There have been evaluations of users' past and current possibilities. The only thing that has not changed in the past and today is the intense use of the city plaza as a city open space. Trabzon has developed according to the change of present conditions in time as well as being a compulsory place regarding social communication and interaction of city people.

Keywords: Urban open space, Trabzon city square, Trabzon

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cities are spaces where people are constantly provided with social development. (Altuntaş, 2012). Cities are the places where people are constantly equipped with social development and settlements. Also, cities are places where accommodation, work, entertainment. According to social scientists, it is the relationship between the individuals who have emerged as a result of mutual interaction and maintained its vitality. According to economists, economic activities differ and industrial revolution is being developed. In this way, people live together (Karaküçük and Gürbüz, 2007). Throughout centuries, cities have made considerable progress regarding human relationships in Western culture. This enabled production and consumption capacities and reshaping (Karataş and Kılıç, 2017).

Urban squares are the first pedestrian spaces in cities. The squares are the most prominent feature of the urban structure and the multiplier factor (Schulz, 1971). Urban districts, which are open spaces for use by all cities' people, are centres of neighbourhood centres (Kuntay, 1994). The limitation of the squares is the city's architectural structures or green entrances, while the entrance roads are green and urban areas (Weber, 1990). The places that host many people in different cultures, socioeconomics and economy levels are social spaces. Also a common centre of different centres, that allows conferring different purposes. (Moughtin, 1992). These areas are surrounded by high-density structures and roads that provide many activities together. It is the characteristics that will affect and facilitate the convergence of human groups (Marcus and Francis, 1998). Regarding social functions that provide opportunities for social activities in the city are the identities of the city (Önder and Alkanoglu, 2002). As the user factor of the cities are different, their distribution and configuration is different (Barnet, 1982).

The city squares are the multi-directional regions where the daily activists are built around the city and can be removed from the busy structure of the city for rest (Moughtin et al., 1999). Today, however, the cities have been exposed to heavy traffic. This has caused the venues that are increasingly hard surface (İnceloğlu and Aytug, 2009). For this reason, it does not allow people to use some of them. The activities in the city squares are divided as 'mandatory activities' (to go to school, to go to work, to shop, to wait for buses, etc.), 'optional / nonessential activities (realization of things to be done as long as time and space are convenient)' and 'social activities' can be separated. The quality of these activities varies regarding the quality of the physical environment (Gehl, 2011).

In this study, the change (the positive and negative aspects) in urban squares has been questioned. In this on-site context evaluations, observations and analyses were made. Interviews were made with users over the age of 65 to determine the values that would reflect the city's history. Evaluation has been made on the past and present probabilities of the users. The only thing that has not changed in the past and today is the intensive use of

squares as open space. Trabzon is developed according to the changes occurring over time in today's conditions. It became a necessary place regarding social communication and interaction of urban people.

2. MATERIAL and METHOD

The study area is located between Gazipaşa and Taksim Quarter in the city centre of Trabzon. Trabzon has important features regarding historically. Trabzon city square, which has important features from its historical point of view, has been determined because it is a study area by hosting many social and cultural activities. The Square Park is located at 41.005219 latitude and 39.730820 longitudes and is 43 meters above sea level. It is located Long Street in the west, Gazipaşa and Kahramanmaraş highways, east City Hall, north of İskele Caddesi and to the south is Taksim Street (Güneroğlu and Bekar, 2017).

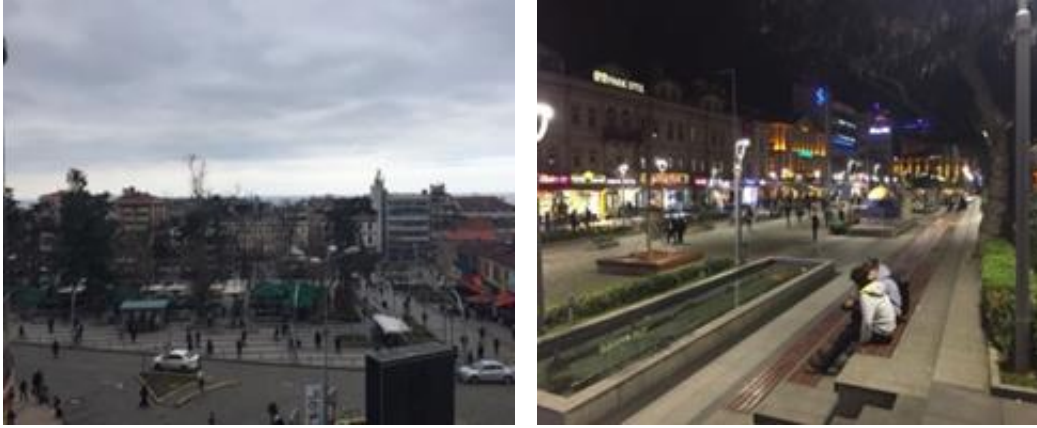
Figure 1: Study area (Trabzon Meydan Square)



Source: Own study

Trabzon is one of the most important social and historical places of the people. The area of the square where many social activities are carried out is also the centre of the city as well as the public transport network (bus and minibus). For this reason, it is quite easy to reach the area. In 2011, it was evaluated within the scope of Urban Transformation Area. It is aimed to create original identity fields with the decisions taken, to transform into the city for better use to integrate into the city life. Although the past uses are surrounded by more compact roads, the newly designed challenge has been created in a wider range of applications also, new functions were brought to the historical building of the City Hall. Also, in past use, the area that is more tightened as the vehicle traffic passes through the parking lot is now closed to traffic and pedestrianised.

Figure 2: Trabzon Square Park



Source: Own study

It is aimed to analyse the spatial development in the study. The positive and negative aspects of the change in Trabzon Square were questioned. On-site evaluations, observations and analyses were carried out at Meydan Park, the city square, as a method to realise the purpose of the work. Interviews were held with users over the age of 65 to determine the values that would reflect the city's past. The reason for choosing this age group is that they are aware of the change and the current situation. For this reason, it is the group of users who will be able to assess best the satisfaction of the city square redesigned and implemented in the context of urban change. Observations in the research area were made during the peak hours of noon.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Findings of Observations

As a result of the field observations, it was determined that the region was used more intensively between the hours of 15: 00-18: 00 on weekdays and between 13.00-20.00 on weekends. When the user profile was examined, it was determined that mostly middle-aged and his / her family spent time with their children. The fact that the park is covered with broad-leaved trees creates a cool effect, especially in the summer months. The increase in efficiency diversity through the transformation project has been a positive factor, especially regarding usage. Users can relax, eat, chat, have a meeting point, read newspapers and books, lie down, take photographs, buy and sell, compulsory transition, watch the water show, allow children to play, attend ceremonies, is used to pass. It was determined that users mostly used the region for more than 60-90 minutes. Plant and water elements during the summer months due to the coolness of the weekdays were determined to be more intense between the hours of 12.00-15.00. Similarly, Lenzholzer and Koh (2010) noted that thermal comfort is an important factor in the availability and attractiveness of open spaces.

It has also been observed that people are engaged in activities that are more voluntary than mandatory activities.

3.2. Findings of Interviews

Interviews were held with 21 users over the age of 65 to determine the values that would reflect the city's past. The reason for choosing this age group is that they have seen and used the state of the city square before its change and its present state. As a result of the interviews, 74% of the people were asked whether they prefer the current square or the past. They stated that they visited frequently. When asked whether their past use is remembered today; they say that they are more active especially today, but foreign tourists are uncomfortable. However, they pointed out that the newly organised water items are more relaxing and effective. They also stated that the vegetative structure of the park was preserved. Moreover, they even pointed out that plant growth is positive. They wanted to enrich the plant elements. Moreover, that they should be coloured in certain periods. Also, the retrofitting elements of the past, the seating units are inadequate, but they are pleased to be more diverse. They stated that this situation increased the quality of life in the city and that it gave mobility to the city economically. Besides all these, there are still beautiful memories and memories of the users over 65 years' old who longed for the past. However, with today's developing technology, people's demands and needs are changing, and in parallel, there have to be changed.

4. CONCLUSION

Cities are important places for the socialization of people and improvement of places. Urban squares, which people use most intensively, provide urban cultures with an area of being located nearest to the city. It is the place where social events have been carried out for centuries. Urban squares are the cultural sites with the closest settlement to urban culture. For this reason, certain criteria should be determined in design and planning studies. Also, improvement studies should be carried out in this direction.

The Meydan Park, which is the subject of the study, has become the focal point of Trabzon. Today, in many age groups of the user has become an instant stopping point, a meeting and resting spot, a place to eat and especially to drink tea. It also became a traditional place for institutions and organisations to hold a ceremony in front of the Atatürk statue during public holidays. Observations made during the study and interviews were determined that the city users used the park for forced transit and optional activities. The use of the activity diversity is active, especially during weekdays between 15.00-18.00 hours and from 13.00-20.00 hours on weekends. There are official ceremonies, rallies, hiking, exhibitions, concerts, fairs etc. in the square park. In particular, as a result of interviews with older adults over 65 years of age, it was determined that the square was used more with the new project.

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Evaluation of Erzurum Winter Tourism in the Context of EU Winter Tourism Policies

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Abstract

Erzurum city is the case study of this research as it is the biggest city in the Eastern Anatolian Region of Turkey. The city is settled at the highest altitude in Turkey at the skirts of Palandöken Mountain. It has gained great importance in winter tourism during recent years. Accessing to the sustainable winter city requires an innovative approach to these cities problems in order to enhance the advantages, opportunities, and beauty of the winter season. Winter tourism is one of the good examples that provide benefits to the residents and reinforces the community's ability to attract new business. In this study, the conceptual framework of the topic is drawn by putting forth the concept of winter city tourism. Subsequently, EU tourism policy, its political framework and priorities are summarised. In the next chapter, Erzurum is examined to demonstrate its potential for winter city tourism. Finally, the winter city tourism potential of Erzurum is evaluated by SWOT analysis and brought some suggestions compatible with EU Tourism Policies at five categorises such as preserving solar access, designing streets, planting, parks and open spaces, colour, materials and lighting

Keywords: Winter tourism, Winter city movement, EU tourism policies, Erzurum

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the important aspects in cities with long winter is cold weather which affects the mobility of pedestrians — cold, snow, and glacial situation influence not only the ability of people to walk in winter but also the desire to walk. So snow and the condition of the walking surface are major factors of mobility. Auto-oriented culture in modern urban planning ignores the pedestrian in winter time, as most of the resources are devoted to keeping streets and highways clear of snow and ice.

In recent years, one of the important attempts to generate climate-responsive in architecture and urban designing is the winter cities movement. The purpose of the winter city movement is to establish the needs of the people who live in the very snowy and cold area, by improving the comfort and lifestyles and recognising the needs for better planning and design.

The sustainability of winter cities requires a creative, innovative approach that addresses the problems of these areas while enhancing the advantages, opportunities, and

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beauty of the winter season. Winter tourism is one of the good examples that provide benefits to the residents and reinforces the community's ability to attract new business.

In this study, the conceptual framework of the topic will be drawn by putting forth the concept of winter tourism, winter city and liveability. Subsequently, EU tourism policy, its political framework and priorities will be summarised. Next, the potential of Erzurum will be examined for winter city tourism. Finally, the winter city tourism potential of Erzurum will be evaluated by SWOT analysis and suggestions will be presented at the local and national level to set in motion of the potential of Erzurum in the field of winter city tourism in the context of EU Tourism Policies.

2. WINTER TOURISM

Today, winter tourism is one of the great economic importance for different regions in the world, such as Alpine regions of Europe or northern cities. In certain regions, winter tourism accounts for 20% of the created economic value and provides thousands of jobs (Yfantidou, Nikou, & Matsouka, 2018, p. 77). Technically, "winter tourism defined as the coldest season of the year, between autumn and spring, astronomically from the December solstice to the March equinox in the N hemisphere and at the opposite time of year in the S hemisphere" (Journal of Tourism & Hospitality, 2018). On the one hand, the general public, consumers, and policymakers regard winter tourism and winter sports as synonymous for some countries like Germany. On the other hand, local or national governmental organisations and institutions recommend the development of snow-independent products and services (Bausch & Unseld, 2018, p. 204). Today, there is an important demand for snow-related tourism activities such as skiing and snowboarding. Hence, tourists are engaged with winter sports, such as ski, ice-skating, snowboard and curling etc. They visit the winter tourism destinations to watch national and international sports competitions. Also, some tourists prefer these destinations because of their landscape, SPA, sauna or Turkish bath facilities (Yfantidou, Nikou, & Matsouka, 2018, p. 74; UNWTO, 2018) or some services for relaxation and health.

Furthermore, local or national authorities and policymakers plan some snow-independent products and services year-round or summer related such as wellness (Pechlaner & Fischer, 2006), health (Schalber & Peters, 2012), nature and culture-based experience to support winter tourism and sustainable development in winter tourism centres such as Alps (Bausch & Unseld, 2018, p. 204).

This paper defines the winter tourism is an integrated tourism products and services including winter sports, such as ski, ice-skating, snowboard and curling etc., visiting the winter tourism destinations to watch national and international sport competitions and snow-independent products and services such as SPA, sauna or Turkish bath facilities in the coldest season of the year, between autumn and spring.

2.1. Winter City and Liveability

Winter cities are places with the long winter season, snowy, very cold weather, and harsh climatic conditions. The main problem in the communities with heavy snowfall and cold temperature is climate affection on the people outdoor life. During the long winter, people's outdoor activities are affected seriously by the heavy snow and frost condition (Hong & Cun-Yan, 2017, p. 28). Responsive designing to the climate conditions, where negative effects are mitigated, are essential for creating sustainable environments (Gürer, 2017, p.19). In order to turn these city places into a year-round city, good planning and designing of public outdoor spaces is needed based on the creation more innovative, attractive, sustainable and walkable (Akkerman, 2014, p.161), because, these cities present the visual beauty outdoor sports, carnivals, and festivities in snow-covered urban landscape (Pressman, 1996, p. 521).

In this perspective, the international winter cities movement has established for explicit, systematic inquiry that analyses national and local strategic action directed at improving the comfort and lifestyles of northern dwellers. The Winter Cities Institute was organised to identify, promote and share the positive attributes of winter living, new concepts in architecture and urban design, success stories from those places that are thriving in the north. The main aim of Winter City Institute is to offer resources, contacts, and networking for improving the quality of life in northern places on the wintertime (Winter City Institute, 2018).

According to the World Winter City Association for Mayors (WWCAM) definition "a winter city is one that faces harsh winter climatic conditions, including heavy snowfalls and cold temperatures" (WWCAM, 2018). Moreover, WWCAM (2018) emphasise winter city include two groups of cities:

- A winter city also has an annual snow accumulation of more than 20 cm (8in.),
- A winter city has an average temperature of 0°C (32°F) or below during the city's coldest month.

On the other hand, according to WWCAM (2018), these factors are just standards. Even if a city does not meet these standards, it may join the association as long as it is a winter city faced with winter-related challenges in city planning (WWCAM, 2016, p.2). Furthermore, according to World Winter Cities Association for Mayors (WWCAM, 2016, p.4-5), creation of the liveable winter city has discussed by the topics like the future planning of city, sustainable development, improving living environment, city quality and quality of life, transportation in participant cities, create harmony in the city (promotion of arts, culture, sports, and recreation), and climatic change.

On the other hand, one of the important concepts for sustainable winter tourism is "Liveability". According to National Research Council (2002, p.23); "liveability is a broad

term with no precise or universally agreed upon definition. The concept embraces cognate notions such as sustainability, quality of life, the character of the place, and the health of communities. Liveability is an ensemble concept”.

Liveability is one of the important new concepts in the field of planning. Liveability is used in a wide array of contexts within the field of planning: transportation, community development, resilience, and many other sub-disciplines have been incorporated with liveability (SCI, 2017, p.1). The liveable city includes wide-ranging of human needs from food, basic security to beauty, cultural expression, and a sense of belonging to a community or a place. Liveability refers to a citizen's satisfaction with residential environments, traffic, employment opportunities, or the amount of open space (National Research Council, 2002, p.23-24). Furthermore, Sustainability and Liveability Element paper address sustainability and liveability through three components (Move DC, 2014, p.s-1): urban forestry, storm-water management, public space management.

Well-designed public space and open access to these spaces are known as the most important indicators among the other factors to create a livable urban space. However, in winter cities where winter dominates, inadequate weather conditions such as wind, frost, ice, snow, declining sunshine and long-term cold restrict the use of and access to public open spaces. A well-designed public space balances the mobility and access of needs for users and unifies key elements in the public right-of-way including roadways, sidewalks, tree box areas, intersections, plazas, and open spaces. In order to reach this important aspect, climate-sensitive design can create a more positive winter experience by using climatic design strategies to very cold and snowfall environment. The main aim of the climate-sensitive design is not to create year-round summer conditions, by exploiting these areas opportunities to create winter environment safely, comfortable, and enjoyable (Winter City Design Guidelines, 2000, p.1-3).

2.2. European Union Tourism Policy and Winter Tourism

Today, the EU is the biggest tourism market in the world. According to World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), EU shared 41% of international tourist arrivals market with 537.6 million visitors and gained 388 billion EUR from international tourism in 2017 (World Tourism Organisation, 2018, pp. 5-7). Although tourism has been an important economic sector and a driver for EU states (European Commission, 2010, p. 2), tourism had not been formulated clearly until the Lisbon Treaty; due to reluctance of member states to relinquish part of their domestic powers to the Brussels (Estol & Font, 2016, p. 231). After Lisbon Treaty and 2008 financial crisis, Commission set up a new strategy and action plan to preserve leader positions of member states. According to this plan, EU aims to maximise the industry's contribution to growth and employment and to promote cooperation between EU countries especially through the exchange of good practice in the global

tourism market (European Commission, 2017). Hence, EU tourism policy has four priorities for action. These are;

- “To stimulate competitiveness in the European tourism sector,
- To promote the development of sustainable, responsible, and high-quality tourism,
- To consolidate Europe’s image as a collection of sustainable, high-quality destinations,
- To maximise the potential of EU financial policies for developing tourism” (European Commission, 2017).

However, there is no specific regulation or strategy paper targeting winter tourism directly at EU level. The states and local authorities put into practice their policies according to EU tourism strategy, its priorities, regulations and topics are connected directly and indirectly with tourism.

3. ERZURUM CASE STUDY

Erzurum is the largest city of the Eastern Anatolian Region. The city is one of the very ancient settlement places on the traditional Silk Road. Erzurum city has been governed by many cultures over the centuries and has owned a lot of cultural landmarks that they are settled in the city centre. The city is settled in the areas with the hardest continental climate in the country, as it is far away from the sea effect. Generally, the climate of the city is cold temperate. The city is located at the highest altitude in Turkey 39° 57' 23" N, and 41° 10' 12" E, and at 1.859 m. Above sea level. As the city is established at the northern skirts of Palandöken Mountain with identified three important ski centres (Tanfer et al., 2015, p.347), it had gained great importance in the field of winter tourism during the recent years in Turkey. Due to the mountainous situation of the city, Erzurum had some of the finest winter sports facilities in Turkey and hosted the “XXV Winter Universiade” in 2011.

Erzurum is one of the world’s winter tourism centres¹ due to its geographical features, convenient for skiing for 5 months, snow quality, and long tracks. In Erzurum, snowfall starts October or November, and skiing season begins at the beginning of November and continues till the end of April (KUDAKA, 2012, p.36, Erzurum Anatolia’s Preface, 2018).

According to the General Directorate of Meteorology report (2018), table 1 illustrates annual snow days and below 0 °C day’s number in the Erzurum city in 1929-2017. Based on this table, the average minimum temperature in winter three months (December, January, and February) is -9° C, and annual total rainfall average is 431.2 mm (43.12 cm). In comparison, due to the WWCAM report (2018) for adding a city to winter city list, these numbers are 0°C (32°F) or below, and annual snow accumulation is more than 20 cm (8in.).

¹ On the other hand, due to the tectonic origin of this region, in Erzurum and its surrounded places are settled thermal waters. These waters have superior properties in terms of flow rate, temperature, physical and chemical properties, that they are suitable areas for thermal tourism and health tourism (Toy et al, 2010, p.7).

According to Table 1, Erzurum owns a high capability for application as a member of winter city by annual snow and average temperature. The main aim of the Winter City Institute is to provide suitable factors for accessing liveable winter city not only in the winter but also for using around a year. These factors are a guideline for creating Liveable Winter City.

According to the Winter City Design Guidelines (2000, p.3), the main items in designing a livable winter are to create a compact city, mix land uses and provide connected pedestrian places. The meaning of the compactness in the city is to use city spaces efficiently, to create the possibility for walking people between places, and to create shelter for public open spaces and streets in front of the wind.

Table 1. The Annual Temperature Situation in Erzurum

ERZURUM	Jan.	Feb.	Mar	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug	Sep.	Oct.	Nov	Dec.	Annual
Average Temperature (°C)	-9.2	-7.7	-2.5	5.3	10.7	14.9	19.3	19.5	14.7	8.1	1.0	-6.0	5.7
Average Max. Temp. (° C)	-4.0	-2.4	2.4	10.8	16.8	21.6	26.4	27.1	22.6	15.0	6.7	-1.0	11.8
Average Min. Temp. (° C)	-	-12.6	-7.1	0.0	4.3	7.3	11.1	11.1	6.4	1.7	-3.7	-10.3	-0.5
	13.9												
Average Sunrise Time (hours)	3.1	4.3	5.1	6.2	7.9	10.2	11.1	10.6	9.0	6.7	4.7	3.0	81.9
Average Number of Rainy Days	11.1	11.1	12.3	13.7	16.1	10.8	6.5	5.1	5.0	9.5	9.3	10.6	121.1
Monthly Total Rainfall	22.4	27.0	34.9	53.4	72.9	48.7	26.6	17.5	23.7	48.2	33.3	22.6	431.2
Average (mm)													
Highest Temp. (° C)	8.0	10.6	21.4	26.5	29.6	32.2	35.6	36.5	33.3	27.0	20.7	14.0	36.5
Lowest Temp. (° C)	-36.0	-37.0	-33.2	-22.4	-7.1	-5.6	-1.8	-1.1	-6.8	-14.1	-34.3	-37.2	-37.2

Source: General Directorate of Meteorology, 2018

Historical Erzurum has a compact urban fabric form. However, new development areas own sprawled urban fabric form. In order to create compactness in Erzurum, higher density in new developments areas or infill of existing urban areas are necessary. In Erzurum, the best way for creating mix land uses is to decrease the daily travels by gathering housing, offices, and stores in the same building or on the same street. This will help to sustain street vitality throughout the day; in contrast, the commercial downtown streets are often abandoned after working hours. In most of the city's urban open space create separation between cars and people. In Erzurum, the best way for connecting pedestrian

spaces is to create a connected network between public open spaces, sidewalks, parks, etc. So people can walk around the city in the winter time.

The method of this study is to use SWOT analyses about the Erzurum. This analysis method is prepared based on the research on important factors for creating a liveable Winter City in order to development of winter tourism based on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of tourism development in the city. Table 2 presents the result of SWOT analyses in Erzurum.

Table 2. SWOT Analyses for Winter City in Erzurum

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Winter tourism attraction (branded ski centre in Palandöken) - Historical tourism attraction - Thermal tourism attraction - Being a university or a student city - The existence of the Faculty of Tourism in the Atatürk University and Tourism Department in Vocational School - Erzurum settlement in Turkey's 2023 Winter Tourism Strategy Plan in order to create a Tourism Corridor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of employee who speaks a foreign language (En) - Lack of good environmental design - Inadequate suitable factors for creating liveable winter city - Lack of the infrastructure - Lack of / Inadequate open public spaces in the city - Constructional Material
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creating high quality of Winter City in international scale - Sustainable tourism development - Creating liveable city - Creating a sustainable city - Economic development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Disturbing the urban compact fabric form - Forgotten historical city centre in the result of no attention - Creation of a depressed city during cold months - Unsocial city - Self-enclosed city - Disrupted natural environment

4. CONCLUSION

In a political level, although, Turkey-EU relations and negotiations are in the worst time, as a candidate country Turkey still has to reorganise and regulate its policy and development plans for tourism according to EU tourism policy and its regulation and topics connected directly and indirectly with the tourism industry. On the other hand, planning of tourism policies and diversifying tourism investments have a crucial role for adaptation of Turkish policy to the EU's. In this context, winter tourism is an important alternative tourism type for Turkey and Erzurum has an important potential for winter tourism.

Erzurum as a historical city with special natural and geographical situation owns a special capability for development of a different kind of tourism; historical and cultural,

winter and thermal tourism. Due to this potential, Erzurum can be recognized as a winter city on an international scale. The main aim of tourism development is to create tourism attraction annually, not a seasonal for sustainable economic development. Albeit some kinds of tourism like winter tourism is seasonal. However, tourists prefer to enjoy all types of local attraction in seasonal tourism time. The main step in tourism development is providing the necessary infrastructures. One of these is created four seasons liveable city.

Furthermore, to improve sustainable winter tourism in Erzurum city, it is important to create liveable winter city in high quality, it is better to use key climate-sensitive principals in order to reduce the effect of cold temperature on outdoor life of people. Here is prepared some suggestions for designing based on the climate-sensitive principals in order to access annually liveable winter city in Erzurum;

1- Preserve solar access:

- Sunny pedestrian spaces in winter,
- Tall buildings increase wind speed at ground level by creating shelter in front of the winter wind,
- Designing wind barriers by screens, buffers, and buildings, and by creating storage areas of snow to reduce snow removal costs and increase safety,
- The building should be in similar height. Tall, isolated buildings increase wind speed at ground level.

2- Designing the streets:

- Buildings should not shade on the street.
- Use warm colour in building façades for creating visual interest and absorbing the sunlight,
- Use continuous building façades with awnings,
- Create slightly-raised pedestrian in the street in order to snow melt or ice formation.
- Street and pedestrian lighting and furniture increase comfort and safety,
- Bicycle pathway allow for using bicycles in the summer and winter snow storage,
- Sheltered places from the wind and exposed to the sun,
- Awnings, balconies and other façade projections reduce ground-level winds.

3- Planting:

- To improve tree health, choose cold and salt-resistant species.
- Street trees reduce wind speed and provide separation between pedestrians and cars.
- Protect trunks from winter snow removal operations with temporary tree guards,
- Evergreen trees to block winter winds,
- Evergreen trees create removable fence on street side for safety,

- Using deciduous trees allow the sun to reach areas of the park used in winter,
- Provide room for pedestrian pathways and planted islands to serve as wind barriers.
- Grouping trees together improve their resistance to wind exposure and reduce surface evaporation,
- Use pieces of 2×4 lumber to protecting trees against snow and wind,
- Small planters are inadequate for winter, and they need to protect from snow and wind,
- Large planters are adequate for hardy species and can use as street furniture.

4- Parks open space:

- Designing open amphitheatre in parks and use it as shelter in winter,
- Using evergreen trees in the green area to block winter winds,
- Create sheltered stop points in parks,
- Private parking lots can be shared with the public for winter festivals,
- Lake can be used as skating rink. Landscape with temporary evergreens and lighting.

5- Colour, materials and lighting

- Use warm colours in winter environments like earth tones (ochre, sand, and terracotta) and pastel hues, and keep brilliant colours (reds, oranges, and yellows) for accents,
- Special structures, such as bridges, are a good opportunity to use colours.
- Using of the composite materials stay comfortable,
- Using metal may prove a hazard in certain situations,
- Salt will corrode metal and porous concrete, brick, or stone,
- In streets and parks, add pedestrian lighting and use the lamppost for attaching banners and speakers.
- Lighted buildings, infrastructure or sculptures become focal points.

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A Discussion on the İzmir Coal Gas Factory as a Place-Making Experience According to the EU Industrial Heritage Tourism Perspective

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Abstract

By developing new technology in modern life, old industrial areas inside the city lose their functions. These abounded areas are known as brownfield inside the city that created many problems for residents. The regeneration and restoration of these areas will help to create new places in the urban fabric and to develop the tourism attraction. Industrial heritage tourism is one of the key tools of this regeneration and restoration process.

In this study, the conceptual framework of the topic will be drawn by putting forth the concepts of industrial heritage tourism and place-making. Subsequently, EU tourism policy, its priorities and its industrial heritage tourism perspective will be summarised. Then, the important industrial heritage tourism in EU and the reasons for support of it will be explained after that historical background of İzmir Coal Gas Factory will be displayed as a place-making. Finally, there will be a discussion on the İzmir Coal Gas Factory as a place-making experience in the context of EU Industrial Heritage Tourism perspective.

Keywords: Keywords: Place-Making; Industrial Heritage Tourism; İzmir Coal Gas Factory; İzmir.

1. INTRODUCTION

By developing new technology in modern life, old industrial areas inside the city lose their functions. These abounded areas are known as brownfield inside the city that created many problems for residents. The regeneration and restoration of these areas will help to create new places in the urban fabric and to develop the tourism attraction. Recently, the place-making is settled in the central point in urban planning and designing, where it is shaping and making of high-profile places in towns and cities. Place-making is the process of creating "quality places" where people want to live, work, play, and learn in.

İzmir Coal Gas Factory is situated in the north end of Alsancak district of İzmir. The factory, built by the British, was settled in 1860 by the former "Ottoman Gas Company Ltd." This industrial complex is one of the industrial heritages with high attraction potential in industrial heritage tourism in Turkey. This factory produced the first street lighting in the Ottoman Empire, selling gas for domestic and industrial use in 1864. This industrial production of the factory was ended in 1995. This abandoned industrial area was known as

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a brownfield in the city. Recently in 2008, this building has been restored by the İzmir municipality and opened with the ceremony as a cultural centre and an open festival area.

1.1. Conceptual Framework

In this chapter, industrial heritage tourism and place-making concepts will be explained in order to draw a conceptual framework.

1.1.1. Industrial Heritage tourism

In today's world, tourism is accepted as a good tool or powerful option for preserving the heritage and an effective means of reconstructing 'landscapes of nostalgia' (Xie, 2015, p. 1). Today there is not any definite consensus on the definition of industrial heritage tourism. For this purpose, this chapter focuses on the concept of industrial heritage. According to Goodall (1993, p. 94), *"Industrial heritage is concerned with the physical evidence of former industrial activity within the contemporary environment and includes extractive industries, mines, quarries and mineral processing, power sources and generation, manufacturing industries, agriculture and fishing and the processing of their products, public utility services, and communications and transport infrastructure in the distribution of manufactured goods, trade and commerce"*. Also, Goodall and Beech (2006, p. 494) suggest that Industrial heritage is composed of three broad elements. These are the buildings used for the manufacture of products, the power sources used by the machinery in the factory and the means of transporting raw materials and finished products. A more broadened definition for industrial heritage in 2003 by The Nizhny Tagil Charter for the Industrial Heritage which was organised by The International Committee for the Conservation of the Industrial Heritage (TICCIH) is developed as *"Industrial heritage consists of the remains of industrial culture which are of historical, technological, social, architectural or scientific value. These remains consist of buildings and machinery, workshops, mills and factories, mines and sites for processing and refining, warehouses and stores, places where energy is generated, transmitted and used, transport and all its infrastructure, as well as places used for social activities related to industry such as housing, religious worship or education."* (TICCIH, 2003, p. 1). The scope of industrial heritage includes tangible (physical industrial relics) and intangible assets. Tangible assets are composed of the vernacular built environment while intangible assets include the cultural value of the community who lives in the site (Firth, 2011, p. 46; Xie, 2015, p. 2).

Industrial heritage tourism concept, related with industrial heritage, refers to the development of touristic activities and industries on man-made sites, buildings, and landscapes that originated with industrial processes of earlier periods (Xie, 2015, p. 1). Industrial heritage tourism is a form of heritage tourism (Edwards & Llurdes i Coit, 1996, p. 342) which embrace the wide variety of different themes such as a museum, landscapes, artefacts, and activities which focus on representing a different aspect of past (Halewood & Hannam, 2001, p. 566). This type of tourism was occasionally propagated and applied as a

strategy of regional restructuring in the 1980s in the UK then spread to Europe during 1990s (Hospers, 2002, p. 398). Industrial tourism or visiting factories are not accepted as industrial heritage tourism. In order to be classified as industrial heritage tourism, heritage sites ought not to be in production except for small-scale production or demonstration purpose (Lane, Weston, Davies, Kastenholz, Lima, & Majewski, 2013, p. 23). According to Hospers (2002, p. 398), industrial heritage tourism is sometimes mentioned as an “industrial culture” and it may attract the different type of tourists such as younger generations who may search for novelty, or older generations may look for nostalgia. Finally, four key issues about industrial heritage tourism should be highlighted:

1. It rarely includes accommodation elements. Because of the failure of many industrial heritage sites/museums to link with tourism interests and agencies, it is not easy to precede the evolution of these areas into full destination status.
2. Most of the industrial heritage site managements are under the responsibility of non-profit, local government or state agencies, and often volunteers take responsibility rather than paid labour.
3. Industrial heritage tourism labours have serious psychological and aesthetic burdens.
4. It is a popular belief that health and safety issues, and trends in society towards litigation, are becoming problematic, especially for industrial heritage (Lane, Weston, Davies, Kastenholz, Lima, & Majewski, 2013, p. 26).

1.1.2. Place-Making Concept

Today in academic research, the concept of place-making is known as an evolving field. City's public spaces are multi-dimensional places. Successful public spaces are used by different people for different purposes. These places are cross-sectional points of local and global issues. Public space is a place for negotiating between people. Public space is a place where so many tragedies and triumphs of the commons play out (Place-making booklet, 2016, p. 1). Place-making is a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary field, and it can be discussed in five conceptual frameworks of scientific fields; sociology, urban studies, architecture, political science, and anthropology (Sofield, Guia, & Specht, 2017, pp. 2-5)

The meaning of place-making comes from the cultural tradition, and it is closely associated with the “sense of place”. The meaning of “sense of place” is how cultural values, perceptions, memories, and traditions on a landscape give meaning to space (Lew, 2017, p. 449). Place-making is the ability to access and participate in public space for reaching the well-being and life chances. Place-making is a growing movement in which citizens participate in creating and transforming the spaces. The main goal of place-making is to create a strengthened connection between people and places (Toolis, 2017, p. 184). Place-making is a bottom-up, asset-based, person centred process that emphasises collaboration

and community participation in order to improve livability of cities (Markusen & Gadwa, 2010, pp. 6-7). Place-making creates connections between people and places, movement and urban form, nature and the built urban fabric. It ensures processes for reaching successful settlements (Sepe & Pitt, 2014, p. 215). Place-making is revitalisation efforts that it focuses on beautifying, cleaning, and regenerating public spaces for promoting development and attracting investment (Toolis, 2017, p. 186).

Furthermore, the term of Place-making is one of the terms for having “Creative City”. The place can be interpreted more than a location; it is an identity, a certain atmosphere or a distinct quality. Place-making aims to turn public spaces into places; places with engaging those inhabit, places which offer a rich experience, sense of belonging, have meaning, pleasure or contemplation, reflection and, an appreciation of cultural and environmental diversity (Shaw & Montana, 2014, p. 167).

According to the European Union, through the Bristol Accord (6-7 December 2005), the main purpose of this informal meeting in Bristol is to discuss the benefit of creating sustainable communities across Europe. The third stage of the Bristol Accord under the title of “Skills for Sustainable Communities: realising the Skills Dividend” is stated: the Member States recognized the importance of investing in generic “place-making” (technical, administrative governance and so on) skills such as territorial leadership, community engagement, partnership working, project management, community governance and cross-occupational working in order to build and maintain better cities, towns and regions for their citizens”. The main focus point of the Bristol Accord was on the creation of the sustainable communities, livability issues, and definition of the place-making in cities in order to have long life cities (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, 2005, pp. 3,9).

On the other hand, Grabow (2015, p. 2) has expressed 19 principals of community place-making for organising functional areas. These principals are categorized with the functional area and each property, and their approaches. Table 1 displays these functional areas and their subsets. On the subset of these five functional areas are settled principals and approach for boosting the city identity and creating place-making in cities.

Table 1. Functional Area, Principals and the Way for Approaching the Place-making

Functional Area	Principal and Approach
Functional Area I: Effective and Functional Physical Configuration	<p>Principal 1: Compact Communities and Clear Urban/Rural Differentiation: (With approach: Community Edge and Green Belts, Farmland Preservation, Sustainability, Community Preference, Ideal City)</p> <p>Principal 2: Strong Urban Centre Community: (With approach: Preference, Identifiable Centre)</p> <p>Principal 3: City-Centred Redevelopment and Infill: (With approach: Preference, Reuse)</p>

	<p>Principle 4: Integration of Housing and Employment: (With approach: Preference, Trends)</p> <p>Principal 5: Vital, Distinctive and Varied Neighbourhoods: (With approach: Preference)</p> <p>Principal 6: Avoidance of Low-density Residential Development on the Urban Fringe: (With approach: More Medium Density, Trends)</p> <p>Principle 7: A Mix of Housing Types and Households with Different Income Levels: (With approach: Strengthened Civic Bonds, Ethical Pledge and Fairness, Economic Benefits)</p>
Functional Area II: User-Friendly and Efficient Circulation	<p>Principle 8: Pedestrian and Bike Friendly Environments: (With approach: Walkways and Design, Streets and Walkways, Community Liveability)</p> <p>Principle 9: High Quality and Convenient Public Transit and Transportation: (With approach: Transit and Density, Community Preference, Roadways, Respect for Different Modes, Transportation Experience, Sound Circulation System Design)</p>
Functional Area III: Preserved Natural and Cultural Resources and Environment	<p>Principle 10: Environmental Resources and Parks: Preserved and Consciously Integrated into the Fabric of the Community: (With approach: Relationship Between the Community and Natural Resources, Parks and Community Liveability, Community Preference)</p> <p>Principle 11: Preserved Farmland and Related Open Space: (With approach: The Land Ethic, The Land Ethic, Framing the Challenge of Farmland Preservation, Environmental Corridors as a Preservation Consideration)</p> <p>Principle 12: Historic and Cultural Resources Consciously Preserved and Integrated into Contemporary Settings: (With approach: Preservation Ethic, Quality of Historic Buildings, Contemporary Responses)</p>
Functional Area IV: Enhanced Local Identity and Sense of Place	<p>Principle 13: Strong Local Character, Community Identity and a Sense of Place: (With approach: Stimulating Places, People Places)</p> <p>Principle 14: Well-designed Public Buildings and Public Spaces Enlivened by Works of Art and Sculpture: (With approach: Distinctive Sites and Buildings, The Center for Art and Culture, Art and Community Meaning, Art and Community Interaction)</p>
Functional Area V: Attributes to Instinctively Draw Us to Places	<p>Principle 15: Connectivity: (With approach: Corridors as Connectors, Street Connections, Transit Connections, Walking Connections,</p> <p>Principle 16: Drama and Dignity: Real Places: (With approach: Structure and Landmarks, Design Vocabulary and Visual Rhythm,</p> <p>Principle 17: Variety and Whimsy: (With approach: Variety and Complexity,</p> <p>Principle 18: Reflection of Local Values: (With approach: Integration with Surroundings)</p>

Principle 19: Many Choices and Many Things to Do with Sociable Settings: (With approach: Vibrant Mixed Uses, Multiple Functions, Sociable settings, A Feature in Successful Communities)

Source: Grabow, 2015: 2-26

1.2. European Union Tourism Policy and Industrial Heritage Tourism

Today, the EU area is the most frequently visited region in the world tourism destinations (World Tourism Organisation, 2018, p. 5). EU shared % 41 of international tourist arrivals market with 537.6 million visitors and gained 388 billion EUR from international tourism in 2017 (World Tourism Organisation, 2018, pp. 5-7). EU tourism policy intends to preserve leader positions of member states while maximising the industry's contribution to growth and employment; promoting cooperation between EU countries particularly through the exchange of good practice in the global tourism market (European Commission, 2018). EU tourism strategy has been focusing on four priorities for action since 2010. These priorities;

- "To stimulate competitiveness in the European tourism sector,
- To promote the development of sustainable, responsible, and high-quality tourism,
- To consolidate Europe's image as a collection of sustainable, high-quality destinations,
- To maximise the potential of EU financial policies for developing tourism" (European Commission, 2018).

The concept of industrial heritage tourism was started to be applied as a strategy of regional restructuring in the UK, and its potential was emphasised during the 1990s (Hospers, 2002, pp. 397-398). In time, UK and northern Europe countries as the heartland of the industrial revolution have been important centres of industrial heritage tourism. Nowadays, the majorities of industrial heritage sites date from eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in Europe (Lane, Weston, Davies, Kastenholz, Lima, & Majewski, 2013, pp. 24-26) like İzmir Coal Gas Factory that is the case study of this paper.

Today, industrial heritage tourism is supported in EU countries at supranational, national and subnational levels due to the existing and potential economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits. Industrial heritage sites generate income from visitors because of direct, indirect and induced spending of tourists. According to the report of *Industrial Heritage and Agri/rural Tourism in Europe*, it is estimated that industrial heritage tourism generates over 18 million tourist trips and 146 million day visits; brings €4.8bn from overnight tourism and €4.1bn from day visits for local economies. Industrial heritage tourism encourages people to train and to gain new skills, especially in customer care, hospitality, IT skills and marketing. These kinds of new skills and training are important tools for solving or limiting depopulation in declining industrial areas. So the local people or ex-workers who had been working before the de-industrialisation process could find new jobs in the tourism sector. Besides, it is a useful tool for service retention. Today, it is difficult

to maintain some essential services such as health, retail, educational, transport etc. for ever-smaller populations. At that point, tourism increases the market for these services. Also, it stimulates the building sector, brings employment opportunities for woman, regional support planning and regeneration initiatives in former industrial sites. Furthermore, industrial heritage tourism valorises environmental conservation and enhancement and inspires public sectors investments at the local or national level and EU investments at the supranational level. So these funds could be great tools for clearing contaminated and unsightly land in former industrial areas. Finally, regarding socio-cultural benefits, it helps recognition and celebration of past ways of life. Industrial heritage tourism serves as a great conservator of human-made heritage, if it is well-planned and managed (Lane, Weston, Davies, Kastenholz, Lima, & Majewski, 2013, pp. 33-43). There are three main categories of industrial tourist attraction in the European context. These are;

1. Industrial relicts in the field of production and processing; such as mines or on the plants, blast-furnaces and shipping yards etc. There are some alternative ways for these workplaces. Generally, they have been restored and transformed into museums demonstrating the history of industrial occupations. Some abandoned industrial sites provide tourists also with other amusement, such as films, concerts and catering. İzmir Coal Gas Factory is a good example of this model. Additionally, some industrial monuments are neglected consciously to show visitors the “aesthetics of de-industrialization” (Hospers, 2002, p. 399; Edwards & Llorde i Coit, 1996, p. 345).
2. Transport attractions which give to the tourist novel and nostalgic transport experiences such as railway or water transports.
3. Socio-cultural attractions associated with a region’s particular industrial past (Hospers, 2002, p. 399).

1.3. An Industrial Heritage Place: İzmir Coal Gas Factory

The invention of the vapour machine in the 18th century and the using of it as a new energy source changed the aspects of the cities and human activities. The main sources of this development are the smelting of iron to make steel and the usage of gases from coals. Industrial Revolution improved the production of artificial gas around the world. Many Gas Factories were built for producing and storing heat and illumination of the cities. These new building reflected the initial years of the industrial revolution architectural aspects.

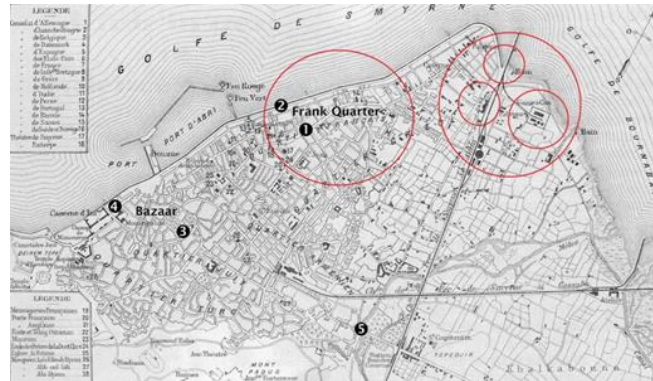
In Turkey, industrial buildings with industrial heritage value were constructed at the end of the 19th century and in the 20th century. The construction of the İzmir Gas Factory began in 1862 at the helm of French company Laidroux & Fils, and İzmir started using of gas before Istanbul during the Ottoman period (Buğdaycı, 2018). Along the rapid growth of trade in the second half of the 19th century, İzmir had one of the most important harbours of

the East Mediterranean. During this period, some industrial factories were constructed in the city, such as Thread Factory, Coal Gas Factory, and Water Factory that were located near the Alsancak Station and port side. The industrial structures of the city were concentrated between port-railway and Daragaci-port, and on the other hand, this area was circulated by Meles River (Kayın & Şimşek, 2009, p. 14).

In 1857, Andre Morchais an entrepreneur applied to the Ottoman State to establish a Coal Gas Factory in İzmir under the name of Paris Gas Company. However, this applicant lost the validity with his death. The second application for Coal Gas Factory is in 1859 by A. Edwards a journalist from Istanbul applied to the Ottoman State for establishing a Coal Gas Factory in İzmir. The Ottoman state approved and granted the concession of Coal Gas Factory for the 40 years. However, the construction of the factory began in 1862 (Çelikoğlu, Baylan, Dikmen, & Köran, 2009, p. 32; Kayın & Şimşek, 2009, p. 15).

Initially, the Coal Gas network was extended to Levantine and minority living areas, then Bornova and Karşıyaka, and finally to Turkish neighbourhoods areas (Kayın & Şimşek, 2009, p. 15). According to the Kayın and Şimşek (2009, p. 17), one of the important factors for site selection in the construction of the Coal Gas Factory was the closeness to the Alsancak railway station in order to easy coal transportation. Figure 1 illustrates the situation of the Coal Gas factory on the historical map of İzmir was prepared by French.

Figure 1. The Closeness Location of the Coal Gas Factory and Train Station, and the non-Muslim Neighbourhood



According to the historical map of the city figure 1, on the one hand, the factory is near to the railway station like a large industrial site, and on the other hand, it is settled in the non-Muslims neighbourhood area. Thus all of these factors can be evaluated as an integrated urban space with a special sense of place.

The construction of the factory was continued by preparing the transfer network in the city. At the beginning of 1900, the production of electricity was a cheaper alternative. Thus from 1904 electricity was used for lighting the city, and the production of the Coal Gas

factory was used only in the kitchen. After the Republican Period, all given concessions to foreign companies had not been extended. The concession of the Coal Gas factory had been transferred to the municipality and used for a long time in the kitchens until 1995 when the factory was closed (Çelikoğlu, Baylan, Dikmen, & Köran, 2009, p. 32). This industrial complex was accepted as industrial heritage, and in 2005 the restoration plan was started in order to add a new place to the city. İzmir Coal Gas Factory was turned into a cultural centre in 2007 by the İzmir Metropolitan Municipality (Buğdaycı, 2018).

There are several aims of the restoration plan in the İzmir Coal Gas Factory as an industrial heritage. First, this place owns a historical background (Otgaar, 2010, p. 25) with special characters. On the one hand, the factory shows its historical period construction system and material. On the other hand, it presents the roots of modernisation with the combination of the leisure and education activities in the region. Second, the place was settled in the city edge on the construction time, along with the city development and changes in the city edge, today these industrial heritage places are settled in the city centre. This historical abounded area before restoration was known as brownfield inside the city that created many problems for residents. These types of areas are abandoned and isolated places in the urban fabric disturbed the city image, and maybe create a place for different crimes. The renewal and restoration of these areas will help to create new places in the urban fabric and to develop the tourism attraction. Third, the restoration of this place means the reconstruction of the city image, city identity, creation of an active area based on the historical values, because in these places attraction informs the visitor about innovation in economic activities in the past.

Registered buildings, which were restored to their original state, are begun to be used as cultural areas. These buildings have become the new youth centre; the foundry of the gas factory has evolved into the new cafeteria while the storage rooms will become exhibition halls and art workshops. The part that used to be the foundry of the factory is now used as an exhibition hall and art workshop (Çelikoğlu, Baylan, Dikmen, & Köran, 2009, pp. 33-35). The historical factory space, which heated and illuminated the city, now illuminates the people of İzmir via cultural activities, meetings, concerts and other events.

When it is evaluating from EU perspective, İzmir Coal Gas factory is a revitalised place that provides to tourist's different amusement, such as films, concerts, catering or exhibitions, some official/international congress meeting and dinners. İzmir Metropolitan Municipality and its institutions support different cultural activities in İzmir Coal Gas Factory such as concerts, exhibitions and film screening. These kinds of activities help to generate income from the visitors. Also, İzmir Metropolitan Municipality has built a quite long and developed cycle route at the city costal. When it is completed, it will be approximately 40 km uninterrupted cycle route. Today, this cycle route is perfectly connected with İzmir Coal Gas factory. Furthermore, a citizen could visit this area by boat,

train, tramway and bus. They can transport their bikes by boat and train freely (İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2018).

Thus, due to the İzmir metropolitan municipality activities, the restoration of the factory can be recognised as a place-making plan in the city. Due to it provides a high-profile place in the city. Place-making is the processes of creating “quality places” where people want to live, work, play, and learn in. This restoration plan can be recognized as a place-making project due to the principals of five functional areas is presented in table 1. Consideration to create user-friendly and efficient circulation (Functional Area II) is the first step to increase the place-making by construction good pedestrian and walkways, bike-friendly environments, create walkability and livable streets and community by using principal eight between the Coal Gas Factory and Station.

Preservation of the natural and cultural resources and environment (Functional Area III) is the second step based on the principle 12 that will be done by preserving the historic and cultural resources. Integration with contemporary settings is the next stage to achieving place-making in the historical city. The next important step due to the (Functional Area IV) enhanced local identity and sense of place principal 13, 14 is designing of the public spaces by working on the art and sculpture, create interaction between art and community. Finally, due to the (Functional Area V) attributes to instinctively draw us to and principle 15 create good connectivity between two places with construction a corridor as connectors, street connections, walking connections.

2. CONCLUSION

Nowadays, even if EU-Turkey relations and negotiation process are in the worst time as a candidate country, Turkey still has to reorganise and regulate its policy and development plans according to EU policies and regulations. EU tourism policy is one of them. Turkey, as a candidate country, must transfer and regulate its regulation and topics connected directly and indirectly with the tourism industry. In this context, Turkey should follow EU priorities and focus on stimulating competitiveness; promoting the development of sustainable, responsible, and high-quality tourism; consolidating its image as a collection of sustainable, high-quality destinations, maximising of EU funds for tourism development. Hence, industrial heritage tourism is an alternative model for İzmir that started to the industrialised end of the 19th century.

Industrial heritage tourism concept, related to industrial heritage, refers to the development of touristic activities and industries on human-made sites, buildings, and landscapes that originated with industrial processes of earlier periods. It started to be an applied strategy of regional restructuring development in the 1980s in the UK then spread to Europe during 1990s.

İzmir Coal Gas factory dates from nineteenth centuries and management of it is under the responsibility of local government, similar to the examples in the world and Europe. When the restoration of İzmir Coal Gas factory initiated in 2005, there were several aims related to an industrial heritage. Today, restoration program reached successfully to these aims mentioned below.

1. Historical background the factory that shows historical period construction system and material, modernisation roots with the combination of the leisure and education activities in the region
2. To display city development and changes in the city edge: while the place was settled in the city edge on the construction time, it is settled in the city centre now.
3. To help to develop a reconstruction of the city identity, city image, create an active area based on the historical values, create place-making and sense of place.

Today, it provides to tourist's different amusement, such as films, concerts, catering, exhibitions, some official/international congress, meeting and dinners. Majority of them are realised under İzmir Metropolitan Municipality and its institution's sponsorship. These kinds of activities help to generate income from the visitors, create place-making, increase the sense of place and create city identity in the long term.

İzmir Metropolitan Municipality built quite long and developed cycle route that is perfectly connected with İzmir Coal Gas factory. Furthermore, citizens could visit this area by boat, train, tramway and bus and they can transport their bikes by boat and train freely.

Finally, to improve place-making and tourism potential of this area, some place-making organising principals who were demonstrated in Table 1 could be applied. Within this framework;

- İzmir Metropolitan Municipality could build better pedestrian and walkways, bike-friendly environments, create walkability and liveability streets and community by using principal eight between the Coal Gas Factory and Station.
- A different policy could be developed for the preservation of the natural and cultural resources and the environment. According to principle 12, it may be focused on preserving of the historic and cultural resources and integration with contemporary settings,
- According to functional area IV and principal 13, 14, to enhance local identity and sense of place,
- İzmir Metropolitan Municipality may build well-designed public spaces by works of art and sculpture; create interaction between art and community.
- It may improve connectivity between two places with construction a corridor as connectors, street connections, walking connections in accord with functional area V and principle 15.

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Tableland Tourism as an Alternative Tourism Type in Rize: An Analysis in the Context of Rural Development and Sustainable Tourism

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Abstract

While natural and cultural resources are used, the concepts of sustainable tourism and eco-tourism combine in the point that it should not be forgotten that these sources will benefit in future. It is also necessary that the tourism values meet the expectations of the tourists and that the development of the region is maintained and that these values and the areas in which they are located are preserved. It is necessary to carry out and develop nature-based tourism activities with environmentally sensitive, sustainable, participatory, local and rural development-oriented plans. This is important for the sustainability of tourism and development.

In this study, it will be briefly informed about alternative tourism types, and alternative tourism potential and especially tableland tourism will be emphasized in Rize. In the context of rural development and sustainable tourism, the current situation and development strategies of tableland tourism in Rize will be analysed. As a result, environment-friendly strategies and policies will be proposed to ensure sustainable tourism and rural development.

Keywords: Alternative tourism, Tableland tourism, Sustainability, Rural development, Rize Province

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1. INTRODUCTION

Sustainability, a concept that has gained importance in recent years in almost every area of the world from urbanisation to tourism, is a principle for all economic activities. Sustainable tourism also means that the values and resources needed for tourism activities are protected so that future generations can benefit from it. Although alternative tourism types, and especially eco-tourism, are generally seen as environmentally compatible tourism, sustainable tourism, in fact, represents a valid principle for all types of tourism.

In recent years, alternative tourism types aiming to know the different lifestyles and cultures and to integration with nature and environment, are increasingly demanding in the face of mass tourism. Tableland tourism, one of these alternative tourism types, also gains importance. Nowadays, the highlands have begun to offer better opportunities to get away from the stress and tiredness of vacation, rest, business and city life. The highlands are becoming more and more prominent among the places preferred for vacationing and getting a summer cottage.

2. ALTERNATIVE TOURISM TYPES AND TABLELAND TOURISM

The concept of alternative tourism refers to a concept and product presentation that is different from classical tourism. Alternative tourism is evolving tourism mobility; to keep the highest profitability in mind and to provide touristic development through long-term programs. At the same time, it is a concept that includes resistance to pollution and destruction of resources, respect for environmental values and integration into the environment. Around these basic principles, for the concept of alternative tourism, different definitions may come to mind dependent on the situation. This concept emphasises the following key points (URL-1, 2009):

- Research request and interest in new and special experiences,
- Co-existence with other people in small groups, the desire for socialisation,
- Demand to experience about life and living creatures, at nature walks and sports events,
- The desire to living and recreation in the open air,

Developing countries need to diversify their tourism products and services in order to increase their tourism revenues and increase their market share in the sector. Diversification of these products will be possible by exploring alternative potentials and developing opportunities. Developing countries are only able to participate in the sector in this way. Alternative tourism types can be classified under the following headings (Öztürk and Yazıcıoğlu, 2002: 184-185; Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2012: 13): *Eco-Tourism, Tableland Tourism, Convention (Congress) Tourism, Rural Tourism, Golf Tourism, Adventure Tourism,*

Sports Tourism, Culture Tourism, Thermal Tourism, Youth Tourism, Botanical Tourism, Yacht Tourism, Winter Tourism, Special Interest Tourism, Religious Tourism, Health Tourism.

The most oversubscribed type of alternative tourism is "tableland tourism". Tableland tourism refers to excursions, tours and accommodations for people who want to go to highlands and spend their holidays in a natural/unusual environment with fresh air, abundant oxygen and spring water. With these characteristics, the highlands gain importance progressively in the tourism sector (URL-2, 2011).

3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Rural development is the process of increasing the quality of life and the economic and social welfare of people living in rural areas. This process requires a multidimensional development approach and multi-sectoral public policies (Yüksek Planlama Kurulu, 2015: 10). Rural development is the whole of the planned work with a multi-sectoral approach, taking into account local, social, cultural and economic characteristics, needs, potentials and dynamics, based on the sustainable use of natural resources in a rural area. However, on the one hand, it aims to reduce the differences in development by raising the income level and quality of life of the rural people, and on the other hand, it is an approach which considers the preservation and development of environmental and cultural values (DPT, 2006: 3).

The concept of sustainability or sustainable development is an understanding that has become widespread since it was used in the 1987 report (Our Common Future) prepared by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development. In a report that also known as the Brundtland Report, sustainable development is defined as development or process that meets today's needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (The Brundtland Commission, 1987: 54). Sustainable development requires the establishment and operation of a balance between economic, social and environmental policies and objectives. However, it is necessary that the demands and needs of the present generations be met without reducing the demands and needs of future generations (Aktan and Vural, 2007).

In tourism literature, the sustainability approach is expressed by the concept of sustainable tourism. The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines sustainable tourism as "*tourism that takes full account of current and future economic, social and environmental impacts that meet the needs of visitors, industry, environment and host communities*" (UNWTO, 2018). Sustainable tourism certainly stands out as a new understanding of the economy. Because, in general, the main source of income for touristic regions is based on the continuous consumption of natural resources (Bella, 2011: 151).

Sustainable tourism is not a special form of tourism that is distinct from other tourism types or has its characteristics. On the contrary, all types of tourism need to be more sustainable. Making tourism more sustainable is not just about controlling and managing

the negative impacts of the industry. The tourism industry is in a very special position to provide economic and social benefits to local communities and to raise awareness and support for the protection of the environment. In the tourism sector, economic development and environmental protection should not be seen as opposing forces. On the contrary, these two forces must support each other and be strengthened by this purpose. Policies and actions should aim to increase tourism benefits and reduce costs (UNEP and WTO, 2005: 2).

4. POTENTIAL AND SUSTAINABILITY OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN RİZE: TABLELAND TOURISM

In Turkey, in order to develop the tourism industry in a manner consistent with the new global tourism trends, various studies are being carried out by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. In this context, it has been accepted as a principle that dealt with holistic and sustainable understanding the tourism plans and policies which are in particular, under the authority and supervision of the Ministry and the social, cultural, natural and environmental elements required by the sector's development. For this purpose, the Tourism Incentive Law No. 2634, which entered into force in 1982, as amended by Law No. 4957, which entered into force in 2003, and new developments were introduced. Within this scope, "*Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Regions*", "*Tourism Centers*" and "*Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Sub-Regions*" are defined as Ministry of Tourism planning (Tourism Incentive Law No. 4957/2634, Article 3). According to the (current) list prepared within this scope, six regions were identified in Rize, including 4 Tourism Centers (TC) and 2 Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Regions (CTCDR). *These are* Anzer CTCDR, Anzer TC, Çamlıhemşin Ayder Thermal Spring TC, Çamlıhemşin Ayder CTCDR, Çayeli TC and İkizdere Ovit Mountain Winter TC. *Besides these*, Kaçkar TC, which includes Yusufeli (Artvin), Çamlıhemşin (Rize) and İspir (Erzurum) can also be mentioned as a common tourism region (Yatırım ve İşletmeler Genel Müdürlüğü, 2018).

It is beyond the scope of this work to describe all the tourism values of Rize, which is located in the Eastern Black Sea Region which is rich in natural, historical and cultural values. However, alternative tourism values reflecting the potential of the region are shown in Table 1 as a matrix:

Table 1. Alternative Tourism Values of Rize Province and Its Districts

Activity / Value	Central District	Ardeşen District	Çamlıhemşin District	Çayeli District	Derepazarı District	Fındıklı District	Güneysu District	Hemşin District	İkizdere District	İyidere District	Kalkandere District	Pazar District
Total Value	5	2	26	7	2	8	1	3	11	2	2	3
Rafting			X						X			
Mountain biking			X								X	
Trekking			X	X		X			X			
Mountain climbing			X									
Marine values					X					X		X
<i>Sightseeing of mountain-Tableland</i>	X		X	X		X			X			
Landscape beauty / Photo-safari	X		X	X		X			X			
<i>Accommodation/Camping in the Tableland</i>			X									
<i>Tableland sightseeing</i>		X	X	X		X						
Organized nature trip route			X									
Guesthouse management (Pension)			X									
<i>Active transhumance</i>			X									
Butterfly-Watching			X						X			
Bird-Watching			X						X			
Sportive hand-line fishing	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Air sports tourism (paragliding, heli-skiing etc.)	X		X									
National parks and similar areas			X									
Accommodation in places like national park			X									
Winter sports potential			X									
Areas suitable for botanical trips			X						X			
Endemic plant ² observation			X						X			
Virgin jungle tour			X									
Registered hunting ground				X				X				
Wildlife development area			X									
Trip by foot			X	X		X		X	X			
Historical monuments, protected area	X		X			X						X
Photographic places with high landscape value			X			X			X			
Suitable places to horse riding			X									

Source: Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2016: 63-64

There is a certain potential for Rize to develop almost every species of alternative tourism. Rize has 11 districts outside the Center (central district). The first thing that leaps to the eye in the table is the richness of the variety of tourism values in the region. As seen on the table,

² Endemic plant is the plant whose living space is limited to a narrow region and does not grow elsewhere.

Çamlıhemşin district has all kinds of touristic values except "marine values" and "registered hunting grounds". Because accommodation facilities and guest-house management in tablelands have been developed and active transhumance is still maintained, Çamlıhemşin stands out among the other districts. At the same time, Çamlıhemşin is a district where has a national park and wildlife development areas and places suitable for horseback riding, accommodation or camping in the tableland or national park, organised nature walking and mountain climbing. Çamlıhemşin has more than 30 tablelands. The main tablelands are Ayder, Sal, Pokut, Hazındağ, Samistal, Elevit, Polovit, Amlakit, Verçenik, Hacivanak, Kito and Kavron. Ayder Tableland, which is the most popular, has thermal tourism and winter tourism opportunities as well as tableland tourism. Ayder Thermal Spring TC and Ayder CTCDR cover this tableland and its surroundings.

Another district that stands out regarding alternative tourism values is İkizdere. There are more than 20 tablelands in the district. The most important highlands are Anzer, Çağırankaya, Sivrikaya, Vaşa, Homeze, Petra and Ovit Tablelands. Anzer CTCDR, Anzer TC, and Ovit Mountain Winter TC are in this district. There are many tablelands in other districts too. Golezana Tableland in Ardeşen, Handüzü Tableland in Güneysu, Çatak Tableland in Fındıklı, Ambarlı and Kuspa Tableland (tourism centre) in Çayeli are the most well-known tablelands.

In these tablelands where located in the foothills of the Kaçkar Mountains, can be kept away from the crowded city life and remained alone with the unique beauty of nature. The tableland life, which started in early June, is a three-month period that lasts until the first week of September. These tablelands are famous for their "Vartavor" festivals. Vartavor means that people wet each other with rose water symbolising fertility and abundance. This festivity is an enthusiastic vintage festival. Foggy views, festivals and Horon (a folk dance, which is famous in the coastal region of Eastern Black Sea) are irreplaceable images of Rize's tableland life (Rize İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2018).

The Rize Nature Tourism Master Plan was made in 2014 and 2016 in order to determine and develop the potential of nature tourism in Rize. In these plans, a SWOT analysis was carried out with the aim of determining the situation and potential of the tablelands of the region, offering to tourism and contributing to rural development; strengths and weaknesses; threats and opportunities have been identified. There are no major differences in these plans, which are prepared at intervals of two years. According to these plans, the SWOT analysis is shaped as follows (Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2014: 53 and 2016: 47-48):

Strengths:

- The tablelands are suitable for tourism,
- They are entrepreneurs investing in tableland tourism,
- There are ways to go to tablelands,

- The tablelands have large areas,
- The tablelands enable many types of tourism,
- There are many springs and natural beauties (lake, spa, river, mountain) in the region,
- Although the decline, active transhumance continues,
- There are high rates of endemic plants and high biodiversity in tablelands,
- Especially the Kaçkar Mountain (3932 m) is an important peak climbing point.

Weaknesses:

- Some property disputes and management problems,
- The tablelands roads are damaged and need maintenance,
- The absence of electricity in some tablelands,
- Inadequate human resources and low education levels,
- The tendency of the transhumance to decrease,
- The lack of tourism infrastructure and tourism idea of active transhumance practitioners.

Opportunities:

- The availability of simple camping facilities for accommodation in tablelands,
- The tablelands are close to the existing tourism destinations, and they are in places suitable for hunting tourism,
- Coexistence of coastal and mountain eco-systems, support each other and product diversification possibility.

Threats:

- In some tablelands, the active transhumance has completely disappeared, and the tableland culture is gradually disappearing.
- Increase in non-aesthetic, irregular structures in many tablelands.

In the light of this analysis, it is necessary to use the advantages of the opportunities and strengths first, and to eliminate the weaknesses and to tackle the threats; for development of tableland tourism potential of the region, the creation of value for rural development and its sustainability.

5. CONCLUSION

Turkey Tourism Strategy 2023 Action Plan (2007) prepared by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, is adopted sustainable tourism approach. The following points have importance for all stakeholders, about the developing of tableland tourism in Rize, the providing added value to the development of the region and ensuring the sustainability in tourism. Reducing disparities between tablelands regarding services is necessary. For the

development of tableland tourism, it is necessary to ensure that all stakeholders work harmonising with principles of good governance. Development goals expected from tableland tourism must be consistent with sustainable environmental policies. The planning and implementation of tableland tourism should be carried out in such a way that it can be integrated with other tourism types. It is important to develop accommodation facilities for individual or small group tours and establish a certain quality and standardisation in services. Training of local people on specific issues of tourism will increase the quality of the labour force. Reception points should be established at the entrance of tourism regions. It is necessary to present tourist maps showing information and direction signs.

Also, traditional culture and tableland culture should be preserved in the region. Environment and tourism values such as natural beauties, historical buildings, architectural structures, water resources, plant and animal species need to be protected in order for the highlands to contribute for many years to the local and national development as a touristic and economic value. Above all, it is necessary to ensure a clean environment, prevent water, soil and air pollution, establish an integrated and sustainable solid waste management system. It has importance to prevent the pollution of nature by the waste and to provide the recyclable materials to the economy.

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Comparative Analysis of Sustainable Rural Tourism in Slovenia and Montenegro

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Abstract

The concept of sustainable rural tourism becomes more significant at the end of the 20th century and advocates a form of tourism that minimises the impact on the environment and local culture. The basic goal of this type of tourism is to enable tourists to acquire knowledge about the natural, historical and cultural characteristics of a unique environment while preserving the integrity of the rural area and encouraging the economic development and welfare of the local community. Slovenia is a good European example, where this form of tourism is developing exceptionally well in recent years, unlike Montenegro, which has the huge unutilized rural potential for the development. Because of that, this paper deals with a comparative analysis of the development of sustainable rural tourism in Slovenia and Montenegro. Based on an overview of publicly available electronic, legal and expert documents, this paper used the comparative, descriptive and inductive methodology and generalisation. The conclusion of this research suggests that Montenegro has not yet quantitatively nor qualitatively investigated nor conceptualised the concept of touristic development after long-term neglect. On the other hand, Slovenia, through its various local, regional and national strategies, contributes to the better preservation of natural resources, the development of the local economy and the financial support of various projects in the field of sustainable rural tourism.

Keywords: Slovenia, Montenegro, Sustainable rural tourism development, Comparative analysis, Benchmarking

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a multidimensional and multi-economic activity with a strong social element (Dover, 2003, p. 9). Today's tourists are experienced travellers who have higher standards when choosing a destination, which necessarily requires a significant investment in development and forms of monitoring and listening to the desires of tourists. Such changes in behaviour and values of tourists provide the basic driving force for new, sustainable tourism (Unković, Zečević, 2009, p. 448). Sustainable rural tourism should first be considered in the context of the concept of sustainability and the idea of energy efficiency, use of renewable resources and the preservation of the entire environment. Based on this, we can make a general conclusion that sustainable rural development prevents jeopardising natural and social processes, and smoothly directs the development of the local environment and the people (Tomka, 2010, p. 40; Lun, Pechlaner, Volgger, 2016, p. 390). The concept of sustainable rural tourism indicates (Maksin, Pucar, Korać, Miljić, 2009, p. 16):

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- development of a high-quality tourism product that meets current tourism needs, while preserving tourism resources for future generations,
- the preservation and improvement of the quality of the environment, optimal use and protection of natural resources, values and goods,
- economic development, preservation of social integrity and improvement of the quality of life of local communities in the tourist area,
- affirmation and preservation of the cultural identity and tradition of the tourist area,
- economic profit and contribution to the reduction of poverty of the local population,
- strategic planning and management of sustainable development of tourist areas.

In this paper, Slovenia and Montenegro were selected not only because of a specific geostrategic position but due to the fact that both countries are going through the transition processes of strategic tourism management. Slovenia, as an EU member state, is currently directing its rural tourism towards sustainable green tourism, while Montenegro is in the period of rural tourism development. In this regard, I believe that Montenegro can acquire previous knowledge and experiences on the development of rural tourism from Slovenia. This is another reason why these two countries have been selected for a comparative analysis of the development of sustainable rural tourism.

There are two main goals of this paper. Firstly, to shortly display the process of rural tourism development in Slovenia and Montenegro. Secondly, to analyse current problems and future potential of developing sustainable rural tourism in Slovenia and Montenegro. Along with those above, theoretical analysis results are based on the interpretation of the existing strategic documents of tourism development and the current complexity of tourism development in Slovenia and Montenegro. The descriptive and inductive methodology was used to define the terms that are the subject of the research. Comparative analyses or benchmarking were used, as well as a generalization, expected to result in a systematic approach in concluding.

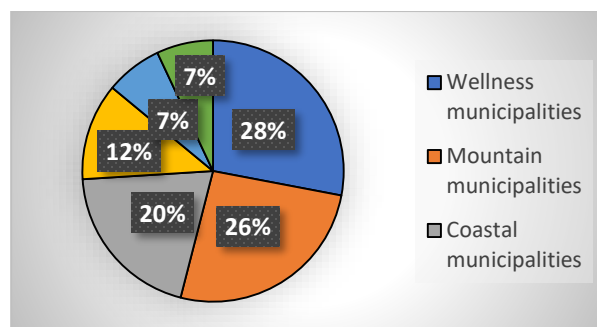
2. A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TOURISM IN SLOVENIA

Slovenia is a country with a very abundant tradition, culture and natural sights. Its developed tourism is an important economic branch which plays a major role in the state economy. Also, Slovenia is the first “green” country in the world declared by the Green Destination organisation. Forests comprise about 65% of its surface; 36% of the territory is included in the Natura 2000 program; it is extremely rich in water and various plant and animal species (Kovač Kostantinovič, 2009, p. 5).

Slovenia, as a small country of a specific geostrategic position, has been increasingly turning towards the development of “green” or sustainable tourism in the last few years. Through various strategies, it contributes to the preservation of natural resources, the

development of local economy and financially encourages various projects in the field of “green” / sustainable rural tourism. Slovenia is divided into 212 municipalities (SURs)², 12 statistical regions (Turizem v številkah, 2016, p.9) and five natural geographic micro-regions: Alpine, sub-Alpine, Coastal, Dinaric and Pannonian region (Gams, 1983; taken by Kladnik, 1996, pp. 142-145). Its coastal region is important from the standpoint of developed coastal tourism at sea, as well as natural lakes. It is attractive due to the developed food production and viticulture. The Alpine and sub-Alpine region plays a major role in the overall tourist offer of Slovenia. These areas are known for winter sports and recreational tourism, rural and “green” tourism and glacier lakes, such as Lake Bohinj and Lake Bled. It is worth mentioning that the sub-Alpine region is even more attractive from the perspective of social tourism, which could be related to culturally important monuments and thermal centres located in cities, first of all in Ljubljana (at the same time the most visited urban centre of the country) and Maribor and Celje. According to the official statistical analysis, the number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays in typical mountain municipalities (166 of all 212 municipalities in the country) (Strokovna podpora fokusnim skupinam v sklopu priprave Strategije prostorskega razvoja Slovenije 2050, 2017, pp. 9-10) makes up over 25% of the total number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays in 2016, while the first place is held by wellness tourism, with more than 28% of all tourist arrivals and overnight stays. (SURs, 2017). The official analysis below shows tourist arrivals and overnight stays in Slovenia in 2016 observed by different tourist municipalities (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Tourist Arrivals and Overnight Stays by Type of Tourist Municipalities in Slovenia in 2016 (SURs)



According to the major tourist areas and municipalities that offer arrangements in rural areas, the number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays from 2008 to 2016 was as follows (SURs, 2017)³:

- Bled (571.633 domestic and 7.404.478 foreign tourists),
- Bohinj (1.609.913 domestic and 2.524.531 foreign tourists),

² The Statistical Office of Slovenia.

³ The data relate only to Slovenia, because the Statistical Office of Montenegro has not publicly presented these results.

- Bovec (682.728 domestic and 1.886.246 foreign tourists),
- Celje (170.235 domestic and 425.373 foreign tourists),
- Kranjska Gora (2.266.075 domestic and 3.526.029 foreign tourists),
- Nova Gorica (152.078 domestic and 1.880.061 foreign tourists),
- Podčetrtek (2.639.855 domestic and 1.260.084 foreign tourists),
- Rogaška Slatina (624.445 domestic and 2.063.388 foreign tourists),
- Zreče (1.784.463 domestic and 788.765 foreign tourists).

Table 1 shows the number of arrivals and overnight stays of domestic and foreign tourists in Slovenia from 2010 to 2016. Based on the data from Table 2, it can be concluded that the difference in the number of arrivals and overnight stays of foreign tourists about the number of arrivals and nights of domestic ones is higher:

- by 12% 2010,
- by 16% 2011,
- by 21% 2012,
- by 24% 2013,
- by 27% 2014,
- by 28% in 2015, and
- by 31% in 2016.

If we analyse the arrivals and overnight stays of all tourists in 2010 compared to 2016, we can notice a total increase of almost 26% compared to 6 years ago. A good strategy of the STO (Slovenian Tourist Organization) and other public institutions has led to noticeable advances not only in tourist visits and nights but also in the organisational and marketing approach, which has visibly improved over the past few years.

Table 1: Number of Arrivals and Overnight Stays of Domestic and Foreign Tourists in Slovenia from 2010 to 2016

Year	Domestic	Foreign	Total
2010	3.909.368	4.997.031	8.906.399
2011	3.924.164	5.463.931	9.388.095
2012	3.733.459	5.777.024	9.510.663
2013	3.616.782	5.962.251	9.579.033
2014	3.500.233	6.090.409	9.590.642
2015	3.727.256	6.614.443	10.341.699
2016	3.837.761	7.342.118	11.179.879

Source: SURS

3. A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TOURISM IN MONTENEGRO

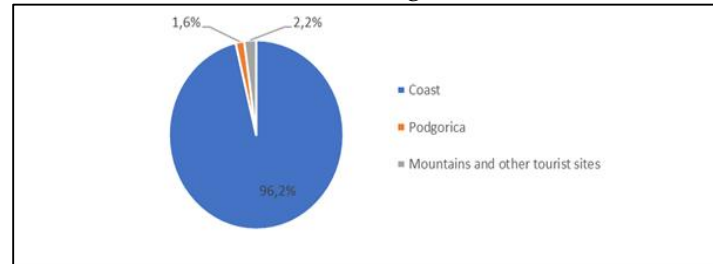
Tourism in Montenegro has a long tradition and, according to the official data, the first hotel was open in 1864 in Cetinje, the capital of Montenegro at the time. During the first half of the 20th century, tourism in Montenegro did not develop at all. The real observable progress was made in the second half of the 20th century when the coastal region started developing (Ratković, 2010, p. 1). In recent years, more attention was given to the development of sustainable rural tourism, both at the strategic and the financial level. Considering the fact that the economic development of Montenegro is based on four main levels: tourism, energy, agriculture and rural development and industry (Privacy razvoja Crne Gore 2015-2018. godine), in the last few years more attention was given to connecting tourism and rural areas as one of the main pillars of the country's economic progress.

As one of the smallest European countries, Montenegro is divided into 23 municipalities (Zajednica opština Crne Gore), based on the five geological sections: coastal, deep karst plateau, the central lowlands, area of high mountains and plateaus and the northeastern area; and three statistical regions: coastal, central and northern region (Ministarstvo održivog razvoja i turizma, 2015: 7-8).

Biodiversity of Montenegro, as in Slovenia, is based on a plethora of natural resources and rare ecosystems. Protected forest areas and the Emerald Zone account for around 23% of the total forest area. These are the national parks of Durmitor, Lovćen, Biogradska gora and Prokletije. The hydrogeological characteristics of Montenegro indicate that the country is rich in springs and underground waters. The largest lake in Montenegro and at the same time a national park, the Skadar Lake, is on the world's list of aquatic habitats of international importance⁴ (Ministarstvo održivog razvoja i turizma, 2015, pp. 9-12). The coastal region traditionally has a large number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays (Milošević, 2017, pp. 35-37). A large number of tourists are recorded during the summer months, over 96% in seaside resorts, while the rest is allocated to the capital city and mountains and other (touristic) places (Figure 2).

⁴ The Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance.

Figure 1: Distribution of Tourist Arrivals and Overnight Stays by Type of Tourist Sites in Montenegro



Source: Zavod za statistiku Crne Gore – MONSTAT

Table 2 below shows the growth of arrivals and overnight stays in Montenegro increased from year to year:

- by 10.1% 2011 compared to 2010,
- by 4.2% 2012 compared to 2011,
- by 2.8% 2013 compared to 2012,
- by 1.5% 2014 compared to 2013,
- by 15.7% 2015 compared to 2014, and
- by 1.8% in 2016 compared to 2015.

Table 2: Number of Overnight Stays of Domestic and Foreign Tourists in Montenegro from 2010 to 2016

Year	Domestic	Foreign	Total
2010	987.033	6.977.860	7.964.893
2011	956.368	7.818.803	8.775.171
2012	1.008.229	8.143.007	9.151.236
2013	997.728	8.414.215	9.411.943
2014	957.127	8.596.656	9.553.783
2015	747.576	10.307.371	11.054.947
2016	721.530	10.528.475	11.250.005

Source: Zavod za statistiku Crne Gore – MONSTAT

As can be seen from Table 2, there is an increase in the number of foreign tourists about domestic ones, whose number is constantly declining in years. Additional own proportional analysis of the number of foreign arrivals about domestic tourists was made:

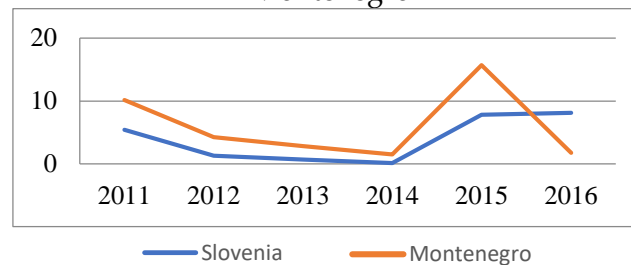
- 86% foreign compared to 14% of domestic tourists in 2010,

- 87% foreign compared to 13% of domestic tourists in 2011,
- 88% foreign compared to 12% of domestic tourists in 2012,
- 89% foreign compared to 11% of domestic tourists in 2013,
- 89% foreign compared to 11% of domestic tourists in 2014,
- 91% foreign compared to 9% of domestic tourists in 2015,
- 92% foreign compared to 8% of domestic tourists in 2016.

Comparing the results, it is evident that Slovenia and Montenegro have a different structure of tourists. Montenegro has a higher proportion of foreign tourists from domestic ones than Slovenia. In the last few years, Slovenia has not only become less dependent on domestic tourists but also from tourists from neighbouring countries, which is evident from the official Slovenian statistics (Cigale, Gosar, 2014: 43). Through statistical data of both countries, we can see the increasing number of tourists in the summer period and an increasing number of foreign tourists, while a small number of domestic tourists.

Following from the previously presented, comparative graphic analysis of arrivals and tourist overnight stays for the period 2011-2016 was made for both countries (Figure 3). As is evident below, Slovenia has a significant increase of arrivals and overnight stays, while Montenegro is characterised by an uneven tourist movement. Tourist movements in Slovenia are, about Montenegro, without statistical shocks, except for the period 2012-2014, when both countries had a slight increase in arrivals and tourist nights compared to previous years.

Figure 3: Comparative Analysis of Arrivals and Overnight stays in Slovenia and Montenegro



Source: SURS; Zavod za statistiku Crne Gore – MONSTAT

4. BENCHMARKING STUDY OF THE LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM BETWEEN SLOVENIA AND MONTENEGRO

The direct contribution of tourism to GDP in Slovenia is almost 13% (Turizem v številkah 2016, 2017, p.3), and direct involvement of GDP in Montenegro is almost 10%, whereas the indirect one is 20% (Milošević, 2017, p. 33). It should be noted that rural tourism

in Slovenia is primarily farming tourism and in some segments tourism in the spa resorts (Cigale, Gosar, 2014, p. 38), while Montenegro is primarily associated with mountain tourism. In Slovenia, tourism in rural households is closely related to additional activities, which are divided into catering and non-residential areas. For example, the following significant additional activities can be distinguished: rural households with accommodation and camping, wineries, tourist farms, horse-drawn vehicles, horseback riding, cable cars, etc. (Cigale, Lampič, Potočnik Slavič, 2014, pp. 70-71). Unfortunately, there is no profound analysis of the data on the status of rural tourism in Slovenia and Montenegro. Thus the following comparative study I will try to present more realistically the situation of sustainable rural development between the two countries. The benchmarking below (Table 3) presents the main characteristics, advantages, weaknesses and opportunities of rural tourism development through various programs of financing and supporting at the local, regional and national level.

Table 3: a Comparative analytical study of the development of rural tourism between Slovenia and Montenegro

	Slovenia	Montenegro
1. Main Features		
Socio-economic structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • about 90% of the Slovenian territory is predominantly rural, inhabited by 44% of the total population of Slovenia • more than 10% of the Slovenian population work in agriculture as the main economic activity • about 8% of the population is employed in the primary sector in rural areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rural areas makeup at least 90%⁵ of the territory of Montenegro and are inhabited by about 37% of the total population • the unemployment rate in the northern part of Montenegro is about 35% • about 30% of the total population work in agriculture as a primary economic activity • 2% of the active rural population is employed in agriculture
Agriculture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low productivity • sufficient mechanisation • the average size of farm land is 6.5 ha 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low productivity • insufficient mechanisation • the average size of farm land is 4.6 ha

⁵ According to the OECD's official methodology, the entire territory of Montenegro could be considered rural. The Statistical Office of Montenegro (MONSTAT) classifies rural areas with less than 10,000 inhabitants in urban settlements. According to the official statistical data of Montenegro, forests and inaccessible terrains occupy almost 70%, and the area of agricultural land is about 22% of the total territory of the country. In line with this data, it can be concluded that at least 90% of the territory of Montenegro can be considered rural (forests, farms, pastures, arable and non-cultivated land, inaccessible lands, etc.).

	Slovenia	Montenegro
Rural infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • insufficiently developed • the development level of rural areas is diverse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mostly undeveloped
Rural Economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • diverse • entrepreneurship in rural areas is still under development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • insufficiently diverse • insufficiently developed business structure, as well as service culture in rural areas (insufficient budget support and information unavailable to users)
2. Potentials		
Human capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • transfer of applicable knowledge is limited and disorganised 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low level of local initiative and education
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • public advisory services, plant protection services, professional activities in plant production, advisory services in beekeeping and cattle breeding • lack of additional specialised advisory services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • insufficiently developed educational and counselling services, and lack of management (in progress)
Self-government and networking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of local government partnerships and networking of institutions that would work on common projects • developed Local Action Groups (LAG) • low level of rural entrepreneurship (in progress) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • slow progress in establishing partnerships, groups and associations – insufficient initiatives and involvement of local stakeholders • insufficiently developed local action groups (LAGs) • an inefficient decision-making system (“bottom to top”) and an insufficient influence of local authorities on the entrepreneurship development
3. Fundraising		
Fundraising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LEADER • national programs • European Union programs: European Regional Development Fund - ERDF, European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development - EAFRD and other structural funds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IPARD II • international donations, credit funds • small local budgets, insufficiently available agricultural budget funds

	Slovenia	Montenegro
Stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Food • numerous research and educational institutions • national research program • other organisations, non-governmental organisations, as well as local and regional institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development • Ministry of Sustainable Development and Tourism • other institutions and non-governmental organisations
4. Main Rural Development Goals		
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • restoration, conservation and improvement of agricultural and forest ecosystems • competitiveness of the agricultural sector and sustainable forestry • social inclusion and local rural development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • managing agricultural resources sustainably and preserving the environment • improvement and processing of the food market • development of rural infrastructure and living conditions of the rural population • institutional and organisational strengthening of all stakeholders

Source: Bogdanov, 2005, Arcotras, 2006; taken by Bogdanov, 2007, pp. 63-64; Popis kmetijstva – vsaka kmetija šteje, 2012; Perpar, Udovč, 2012, pp. 291-292; Agriculture in the European Union and the Member States - Statistical factsheets Slovenia; Program razvoja podeželja RS za obdobje 2014-2020; Vlada Crne Gore: Ministarstvo poljoprivrede i ruralnog razvoja, 2015, pp. 4-36; Vuković, Tanjević, 2017, p. 5; Zvizdojević et al., 2012, p. 17; Eurostat

5. CONCLUSION

Slovenia and Montenegro have exceptional potentials for developing of sustainable rural tourism, but unlike Montenegro, Slovenia is already in process of implementation of concrete measures towards the development of this type of tourism. As can be seen from the table above, Slovenia as an EU member has greater financial opportunities for obtaining funding for the development of rural tourism than Montenegro. I believe that support of the public institutions is crucial for achieving good results in the development of sustainable rural tourism, which is evident in the case of Slovenia. All other important potentials for the development of rural tourism in Slovenia, such as human capital, education and networking, are in the process of intensive improvement. Due to the large and various tourist offer, primarily rural tourism, as well as other possibilities offered under the slogan

"I Feel Slovenia", Slovenia has clear goals in its strategy how to develop sustainable rural tourism. This is corroborated by many significant international awards in the field of sustainable tourism development, and current achievements of networking local, regional and national communities in Slovenia towards the greater development of "green" tourism in theoretical, strategic and entrepreneurial point (Slovenska turistična organizacija). Unlike Slovenia, where about 10% of population is actively *engaged in farming*, in Montenegro, this number is even more than 30%. That is exactly where we can see a great chance for the development of rural tourism in Montenegro and rural entrepreneurship. Through proper education of the local population, financial support and networking of all stakeholders we can improve entrepreneurial activity in the rural area. This is a great advantage of Montenegro about Slovenia since a good part of the population is actively engaged in agriculture, although without a clear strategy of improving activities in the rural area and sell products to the final consumer – tourist. As is evident from Table 3, rural infrastructure Montenegro is underdeveloped, and many key actors for the development of sustainable rural tourism are generally unrelated. Although the main goals of rural improvement in the "Strategy of regional development of Montenegro for the period 2014-2020" and "Strategy of tourism development of Montenegro until 2020" are clearly defined, either the developmental plans do not correlate to the current possibilities, or the desired goals to attain do not have a solid base. If we observe just the potential of rural regions, independently of development plans, it is easy to see that Montenegro can boast a plethora of natural and cultural resources that tourism in rural areas can be based on and encouraged with. This segment requires as a necessity to modify the ideas, goals and the tasks enlisted in the "Strategy of regional development of Montenegro for the period 2014-2020." That means to turn this Strategy into reality, to find enough funds to start projects and to develop marketing, management and creative/organisational awareness in inhabitants.

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The Power of Synergy: Enhancing Capacity Development in Urban – Peripheral Destinations through Knowledge Networks and Partnerships¹

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Abstract

Since the beginning of the 19th century, economic growth and development have been widely concentrated in urban centres. Globalisation, socio-political forces and the emergence of technology have all led to rapid urbanisation of metropolitan areas. Development is highly visible, and urban living is used to be everybody's dream. Tourists flock to urban destinations due to its popular attractions, easily accessible areas and availability of modern amenities and services. However, with changing tourist preferences, coupled with better accessibility and improved transport networks, peripheral areas have experienced growth regarding socio-economic activities and tourist numbers. This new development pattern is shaping rural communities, marginal zones and other peripheral areas as new 'tourism gems.' There are no doubt peripheral regions benefit from the 'spill over' effects of urban centres. On the contrary, this condition also generates pressures, mainly, on the availability of human resources, for instance, skilled and trained individuals and strong institutions in order to manage tourism sustainably.

Sustainability must be the ultimate goal of any destination, and primarily achievable if individuals, organisations and communities are capable and empowered. For many years, capacity development has been synonymous with strengthening capabilities of people and institutions in the least developing regions or marginalised areas. Several studies show that the absence of resources, limited understanding of tourism and inadequate capacity are some problems confronting peripheral destinations that can be resolved through collaboration and multi-stakeholder partnerships. Capacity development (CD) serves as a tool in bridging human capital gaps and channels the dispersion of development from urban to peripheral areas. Overall, this paper explores how knowledge networks and partnerships strengthen capacities and boost sustainable development in urban and peripheral destinations' context.

Keywords: Capacity development, Knowledge Networks, Partnerships, Destination management, Sustainable tourism

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1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism has experienced continued growth and diversification, making it a key driver for socio-economic progress. At both global and national levels, destinations are benefitting from tourism's immense contributions as one of the main income sources for many developing countries (UNWTO, 2018). Urban and metropolitan centres are some of the 'tourism hotspots,' places of interest, that is popularly associated with better accessibility, modern technologies and varied amenities and attractions. The growing number of visitors in these destinations creates some pressures like 'over tourism' hence, channelling the visitors' movement to peripheral zones serves as an opportunity beyond the centres. There is an increasing number of visitors who wanted new and accessible places unfamiliar to many such as peripheral or rural areas. This is a 'spill over' effect creating opportunities such as job creation and business investments that propel local economies. However, such opportunities need qualified and skilled manpower in order to manage tourism activities properly, and this is possible through capacity development (CD). It is the process 'through which individuals, organisations and societies obtain, strengthen and maintain the capabilities to set and achieve their development objectives over time' (UNDP, 2015). This has been an issue in various fields but still limited in urban – peripheral destinations. Creating a tourism 'connection' between urban and peripheral destinations is an important factor in empowering local communities towards sustainable tourism development.

This paper aims to determine solutions in strengthening capacities to minimise human capital gaps and provide an overview on relevant issues confronting CD in urban – peripheral destinations through a systematic literature review of selected articles published in SCOPUS from 2000 – 2018. The review is considered fundamental for the study of CD in urban-peripheral destinations, along with the results; highlighting the gaps and addressing further research development. The paper begins with a literature review concerning the relevance of CD in empowering people and communities, followed by methodology. Findings and discussion of results are presented on several aspects relating CD in urban-peripheral destinations' context, examining its relationship in transforming institutions and communities and establishing facts based on theoretical perspectives and approaches. Key findings are categorised into three approaches/domains: networks and governance; knowledge management; and community empowerment & development. Based on these findings, conclusions and implications have been drawn, in enhancing CD through knowledge networks and partnerships.

2. CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT IN URBAN-PERIPHERAL DESTINATIONS

The development of urban centres is highly associated with the growth of mass tourism that has emerged in the mid-20th century as experienced by European cities (Hall,

1970). This phenomenon has led to the increasing tourist flows and development of physical infra- and super-structures such as airports, financial centres and leisure & entertainment services that shaped cities and metropolitan centres (Gottdiener, 2000; Law, 1996; Mullins, 1991). Urban centres with heritage attractions have also become 'tourism magnets,' that received benefits but have also experienced some problems relative to social and physical carrying capacities (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000; Canestrelli and Costa, 1991; Page and Hall, 2003). On the other hand, peripheral areas are commonly less visited or promoted due to its image of being remote, underdeveloped or developing. Urban and peripheral destinations are commonly distinguished based on economic and social aspects. Brown and Hall (1999) highlighted the distinctions between 'core' and 'peripheral' destinations, where economic activities are better in urban centres than peripheral areas, e.g. value of goods and services, better living standards and lifestyle.

There must be some balance given the disparities between these two, like connecting tourism development with metropolitan areas. Although, peripheral areas are characterized by sparse population, low levels of economic activity and reliance on rural and agricultural industries; they offer a unique experience, healthy living and notable for their landscapes and beautiful surroundings which are usually of the beaten track and regarded as good retirement locations. Many times, urban and peripheral destinations are interpreted separately, however; further studies suggest that both are taken as interdependent. There's complexity regarding this divide like the way development has been interpreted through various indicators apart from the usual physical or economic attributes. Traditional indicators are often emphasized while other attributes such as 'growth and prosperity' are not counted when it comes to peripheries or rural areas. In the case of the US, 'hundreds of rural places are more prosperous than the nation as a whole', showcasing that rural areas outperform many urban centres or cities in terms of unemployment rates, poverty rates, and, at the same time, offer better housing conditions (Issermann, Feser and Warren, 2009). Regions or destinations certainly characterised non-linearity, emergence or networks that support regional development and/or urban-rural or peripheral interactions (Henry, Barkley and Bao, 1997). In this context, urban-rural interactions are vital in delivering both tangible and intangible characteristics of development (Fox, Herzog and Schlottmann, 1989) and integrated interdependently as a system.

Urban-peripheral destinations are 'areas where the dynamic process of changes occur and considered as drivers of change in a knowledge-based economy' (Dembski, Schulze Bäing and Sykes, 2017). Economic development within urban - peripheral destinations would encourage activities and for local people to stay and sustain the population. Some development initiatives could be through the provision of services, facilities and activities that would also encourage more visitors into the peripheries (Brown and Hall, 1999). With the latest impact of 'over tourism' experienced by some cities, channelling development from metropolitan to lesser developed regions is essential in ensuring inclusivity and

dispersion of development. The interdependence between urban and peripheral destinations can be best explained via tourist nodes or precincts distributed unevenly across or around a city (Pearce, 1998a, 2001b). Peripheral areas benefit from having more urban neighbours and the 'spill over effects' of visitors' flow from urban to rural areas, could be presented in three important ways: transfer of income, exchange of experiences between hosts and visitors, and exchange of cultural values (Van Leeuwen, 2010a, 2015b). Peripheries must improve an array of facilities and services to stimulate socio-economic activities and ensure that human resources are capable, where trained or skilled locals are highly available to provide tourism services for the visitors. CD for local communities would propel this needed requirement in realising the potentials for balanced and sustainable tourism growth across destinations.

Tourism development can only be realised if communities and locals have the know-how to start businesses or manage tourism responsibly by maximising its potentials. Several communities have turned tourism as a means to diversify their economic and social activities (Razzaq, Mohamad, Kader, Mustafad and Khalifah, 2013), but still experiencing some difficulties in enhancing socio-economic conditions due to a number of issues such as lack of wealth and scarcity of resources (Cronin, 2003; Hunt, 2005). CD is considered the backbone of sustainable development and a potent model for transforming destinations. It is a concept that has been in practice since the 1950s which were then known as an 'institution building' or 'capacity building.' Through the years, it has evolved and emerged as an aggregate of many other development approaches, stressing the importance of ownership and process (Lusthaus, Adrien and Perstinger, 1999). It addresses complex multi-faceted problems that require participation of various actors, organizations and institutions (Morgan, 1998); strengthens the processes, systems and rules that influence collective and individual behaviour and performance (Abaza, Bankobeza, Bendahou and Al, 2002); and provides a range of potential interventions between public, private and community sector organizations that widen engagement in building outputs not just technical but also methodological, policy-driven and institutional (DFID, 2006). Some of the problems confronting CD include inadequate tourism capacity (Eicher, 2004); lack of resources, knowledge and skills (Aref, 2011) and limited understanding of the tourism industry (World Bank, 2006). A more integrated and sustainable approach is needed to build a better capacity to manage sectors and deliver services and better tools (Babu and Sengupta, 2005; Otoo, Natalia and Behrens, 2009; World Bank, 2006). CD has been conceptualized from various perspectives and known as a catalyst for change and transformation in communities and societies, that encompasses human, scientific, technological, organizational, institutional and resource capabilities for sustainable social and economic development (Abaza et al., 2002; CIDA, 2001; Lusthaus et al., 1999; UN-DESA, 2015). It would ultimately identify, solve and strengthen problems in destinations (Abaza et al., 2002), and would offer better opportunities for local people and create a multiplier effect in communities.

3. METHODS

This paper has been contextualised based from a systematic literature review, with the purpose of determining the key issues confronting CD in urban and peripheral destinations. A systematic literature review is about 'identifying and synthesising all the available evidence of sufficient quality concerning a specific subject' (Victor, 2008). A qualitative content analysis of selected published articles from Scopus database was carried out. Scopus is the world's largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature, and the research was conducted from July to September 2018. For the initial phase, terms "capacity development" and "urban-peripheral destinations" were inscribed in the title, abstract and keywords search to find relevant articles. This has yielded only less than ten articles. Other terms such as "capacity development" and "urban destinations," "peripheral destinations" were also inscribed. "Capacity development" and "tourism" were also tried, resulting in only more than ten documents. Having still a small number, the next search was done using alternative terms "capacity building" and "tourism" which resulted in 186 documents. Given the ample number, these searched terms were taken.

A preliminary review based on reading the titles and abstracts was done to remove the articles which are not related to CD in urban and peripheral destinations' setting. A total of 101 articles were left for the second phase. A further review of articles was done to get the relevant literature, and those irrelevant and having without full access were removed until reaching to the final 36 documents. Then, the final reading of articles was executed. The removal of articles without full access was done in order not to affect the reliability of the study. The 36 articles, all published in English, ranging from the year 2000 to 2018, were read to identify the relevant issues and findings. For the next stage, articles were systematically analysed, categorised and coded with the help of Scopus analytics. Data were manually encoded for categorisation and analysis, with information such as title, publication, date of publication, authors, keywords, country of the case studies, methodology and findings. All articles were taken for content analysis and review (see Figure 1).

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

An analysis examining the contents, concepts, issues and methodological approaches were done, and the results are at this moment presented. The *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* (5 articles) published the highest number of articles about capacity building and urban-peripheral destinations; followed by *Tourism Management* and *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment* (4 articles each); and *Journal of Travel Research* and *Ocean and Coastal Management* (2 articles each). Articles were distributed to 24 different journals, mostly published in Social Sciences, Business & Management and Environmental Studies journals. This can be attributed to the interdisciplinary nature of capacity development in such type of destinations (see Figure 2).

A review of the methodologies used by various authors revealed that *qualitative method* was adopted for the 31 studies representing 86.11%, two studies used *quantitative method* (5.56%), and three studies used *mixed methods* (8.33%) (see Table 1). This can be linked to the relevance of the topic to business and management, social science and environmental studies including the application of case studies in all researches. The case studies were applied to a range of destinations across the world. The earliest research written about capacity development for tourism destinations was in the year 2000.

Regarding empirical context for the studies, *Africa* has been the major data source for most of the case studies. This could be attributed to the relevance of capacity development to least developing (LDCs) and developing countries (DCs). This was then followed by *Asia* and *Europe*. *South Africa* had been the subject of case studies (3 times) followed by *Botswana*, *Ecuador*, *Gambia*, *Indonesia*, *Iran*, *Kenya* and *Uganda* (2 times each) (see Table 2).

For contents and approaches, findings from each paper were again categorised according to *cluster or domain*. Articles having similar nature or emphasis were grouped to provide a better understanding of the concepts and theories. The final categorisations are *networks and governance*; *knowledge management*; and *community empowerment and development* (see Table 3).

The findings revealed that CD in urban-peripheral destinations could be categorically grouped into key approaches or domains. Most articles discussed issues related to *networks* and *governance*. This is not surprising given the nature of the topic about people and communities. Governance and networking approaches were discussed in several articles. It has been found out that the key success factor to the implementation of capacity development in any community is through the participation and collaboration of various stakeholders (Crabbe, Martinez, Garcia, Chub, Castro and Guy, 2010; Islam, Ruhane and Richie, 2018; Thapa, 2018; Hummel and van der Duim, 2016; Jiricka, Salak, Arnberger, Eder, and Pröbstl-Haider, 2014; Orbasli, 2013; Reggers, Grabowski, Wearing, Chatterton and Schweinsberg, 2016; Wu and Tsai, 2016). Collaborative management and stakeholders' participation through partnerships and networking (Giampiccoli, Jugmohan and Mtapuri, 2014; Rabady and Jamal, 2006; Raditloaneng & Chawawa, 2015; Ssenyonga, 2016) are considered the best approaches.

Other studies have similar stakeholders' approach including 'system thinking approach' (Situmeang, 2016), 'strategic regional approach' (Nzeda Tagowa and Nformi Buba, 2012) and 'strategic alliances' (Moscardo, 2008). Undeniably, these authors agreed that collaboration amongst stakeholders is the key to successful and sustainable tourism development. Also, key issues confronting CD can be traced to how it is being managed or implemented in a very complex socio-political system. One recommended approach is through an 'integrated approach' about intermediary management in establishing trust relationships with the rural service providers (Panyik, Costa and Rátz, 2011). This was

applied to effectively manage rural tourism in Hungary while an ‘action plan approach’ to improve organisation, management, education, support and policy development was adopted based on a case study applied in Belize (Crabbe et al., 2010). These two approaches highlight the position of having a more holistic integration and cooperation to encourage innovative approaches to managing resources in peripheral destinations. A study supporting this concept is the participatory learning platforms where stakeholders can gather, interact and learn in a collaborative manner (Islam, Ruhanen and Ritchie, 2018; Koutsouris, 2009) as applied in Lawachara, Bangladesh.

Another interesting research by Caffyn and Jobbins (2009) presents the level of governance capacity and stakeholders’ interactions in countries having centralised governance system, with a deficit of local democracy, highlighting the cases of Morocco and Tunisia. The study shows that government structure of a top-down, command and control nature cannot govern the complex dynamics of coastal zones while major obstacles found are socio-political constraints operating on decentralisation and participatory governance. This reiterates the complex and difficult situations that confront capacity development in a variety of social, cultural, environmental and political factors and issues.

In the context of *community empowerment* and *development*, the local participation in the tourism planning process is significant in promoting empowerment and overall community development (Bello, Lovelock and Carr, 2018). This notion is also supported by a number of studies such as the one exemplified in the partnership model for lodging business in Namibia (Lapeyre, 2011), in fostering individual empowerment for locals to gain some decision - making power (Bennett, Lemelin, Koster and Budke, 2012; Ghaderi, Abooali and Henderson, 2018) while encouraging local people to participate in tourism enterprises and entrepreneurial activities (Butler, 2017; Panta and Thapa, 2018; Singgalen and Simange, 2018). Results also suggested the application of CD strategies to ensure its sustainability (Manwa and Manwa, 2014). A research conducted in Sri Lanka has proven the power of community-led support in the form of self-directed development in communities (Teare, Bandara and Jayawardena, 2013) while in countries with weak institutions, it was suggested that decentralization of decision-making including budget allocation at the local level is more crucial to the process in a more horizontal approach, resulting to full participation and social mobilization (Koutra and Edwards, 2012).

When it comes to *knowledge management*, several studies emphasized the improvement of knowledge through ‘adult learning’ approach based on the premise that adults learn and are motivated by doing (Hale, Amaral, Issa and Mwandotto, 2000) while indigenous knowledge and skills must also be integrated in the innovative programmes in resource management (Aura, Osore, Musa Hassan, Morara and Mwihaki, 2017; Carlisle, Kunc, Jones and Tiffin, 2013). Relatively, knowledge exchange enhanced experiential learning and serves as a medium for sustainable development that creates new

opportunities (Novelli and Burns, 2010; Oettle, Arednse, Koelle and Van der Poll, 2004). Furthermore, the emphasis to training and education (Weiler & Ham (2010); ‘learning by doing’ (Victurine, 2000) and organisational & individual strategies (Aref, 2011; Cosmi, Fiore and Ragone, 2010) were all applied in several cases. Overall, the analysis presented an enriching realisation that *knowledge networks* and *partnerships* are an integral element to the successful implementation of CD programmes in almost any type of institutional or organisational structure and are focal interests to the study of CD (see Figure 3). The proactive sharing and interaction to stimulate the creation, application and dissemination of knowledge (UNWTO Knowledge Network, 2018) in the form of joint initiatives between or amongst stakeholders, has proven that synergy is always the key solution to most of the pressing problems or issues confronting CD in urban-peripheral destinations.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This research was conducted in order to review and determine the best solutions in strengthening capacities to minimise human capital gaps and disperse development in urban-peripheral destinations. This study brought new perspectives confronting problems/issues about CD in urban-peripheral destinations and how these can be effectively managed, based on a systematic literature review. Results reflected various concepts and practices that can be adapted or linked to urban-peripheral destinations concerning networks and governance; knowledge management; and community empowerment & development. Knowledge networks and partnerships have been proven as highly effective management tools and strategies for CD. The relevance of networks and governance can be attributed to the diverse and complex nature of destinations, especially to urban and peripheral areas, considering that any destination is not the same as the others. Other domains such as knowledge management and community empowerment & development are also fundamental to CD research.

Findings revealed that there is a need for a more inclusive and interactive role of actors in tourism systems such as resources, stakeholders and policy intervention (Decelle, 2004; Hjalager, 2010). Strengthening capacities of individuals and organisations to sustain the well-being of communities is essential. Destinations must have the capacities to utilise tourism inclusively and sustainably. Synergy is a driven process of learning by all stakeholders to achieve community empowerment and local ownership (Otoo, Natalia and Behrens, 2009). CD is a key tool in achieving sustainability and findings provide a useful approach or set of mechanisms that would support the 2030 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which are priorities for any country.

This research has brought a better perspective on key issues confronting CD and how new approaches can be directed for future studies, especially by organizations involved in CD projects such as international agencies, government bodies/institutions, private organizations, non-government organizations (NGOs), local government units or even

individuals wanting to facilitate development projects or initiatives, either in urban-peripheral or urban to peripheral contexts. Overall, there are vast potentials for the study of CD through networks and governance, exploring the theoretical and methodological developments to encourage reflections and inspire researchers as well as stakeholders in enriching CD and tourism literature.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Figures

Figure 1. The Systematic Literature Review Process

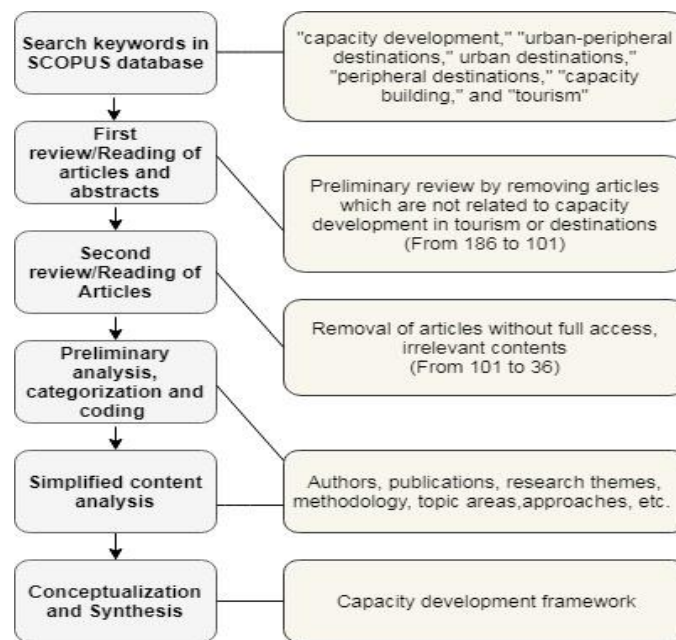
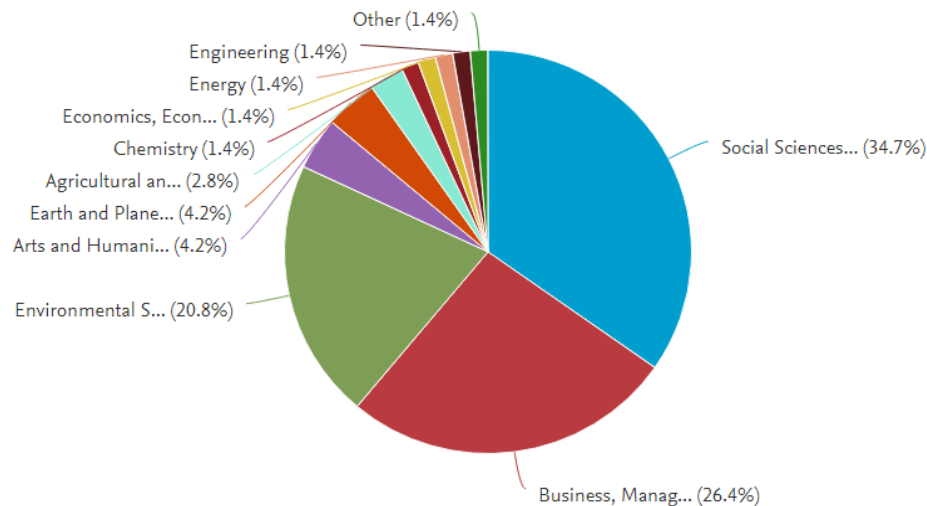
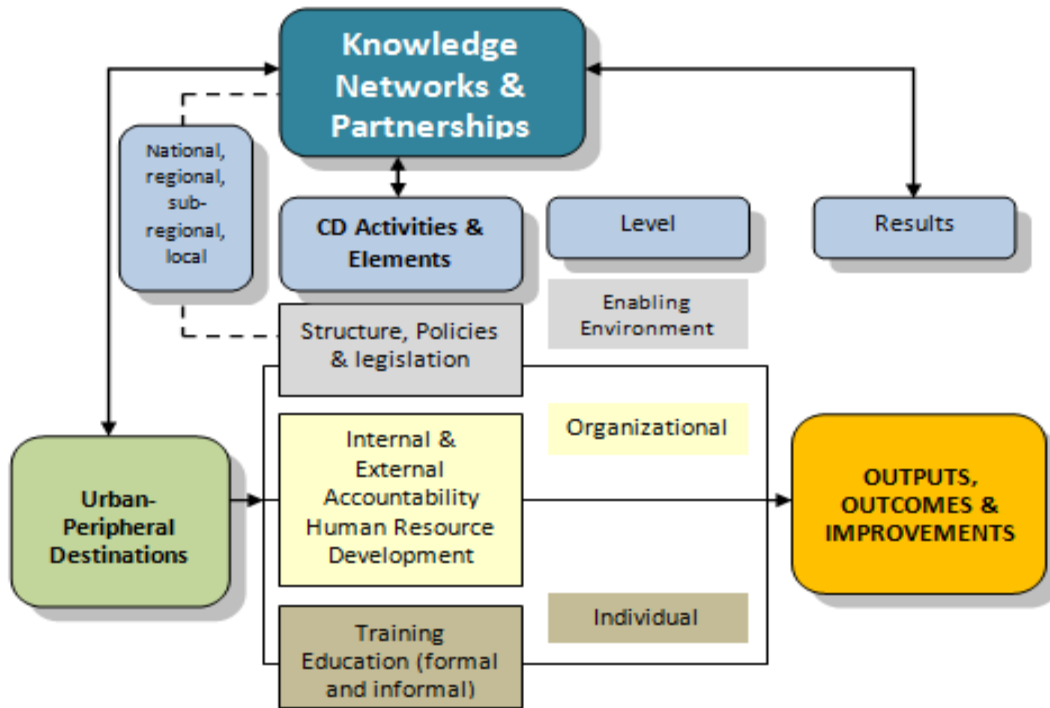


Figure 2. Documents by Subject Area



Source: Scopus Analytics

Figure 3. CD Framework



Adapted from: Bolger, 2000; Costa, Panyik and Buhalis, 2013; Hofwagen, 2004; Jamal and Jamrozy, 2006; UNDP, 2015

Appendix B - Tables

Table 1. Articles by year of publication and method

Methods:		Qualitative	Quantitative	Mixed Methods	Total
<i>Number</i>					36
<i>Year of Publication</i>	2018	6			6
	2017	1	1		2
	2016	5			5
	2015	1			1
	2014	2		1	3
	2013	3			3
	2012	3			3
	2011	1	1	1	3
	2010	2		1	3
	2008	1			1
	2006	1			1
	2004	1			1
	2003	1			1
	2002	1			1
	2000	2			2

Table 2. Countries investigated as data sources

Territory		Qualitative	Quantitative	Mixed Methods	Total
WORLD					47*
Africa	Botswana			Botswana	18
	Gambia (2)				
	Ghana				
	Kenya		Kenya		
	Malawi				
	Morocco				
	Namibia				
	Nigeria				
	South Africa (2)			South Africa	
	Tanzania				
	Tunisia				
	Uganda (2)				
Asia	Bangladesh				12
	Cambodia				
	Indonesia (2)				
	Iran		Iran		
	Kazakhstan				

	Nepal		
	P. New Guinea		
	Sri Lanka		
	Taiwan, China		
	Turkey		
Europe	Albania	Hungary	8
	Austria		
	Czech Republic		
	Germany		
	Italy		
	Poland		
	Slovenia		
N. America	Belize		4
	Canada		
	Panama		
	USA		
S. America	Argentina		5
	Bolivia		
	Ecuador (2)		
	Peru		

**Note: Some papers studied several countries which make the total number exceeded the number of reviewed articles.*

Table 3. Articles categorised according to Approaches/Domains

Authors	Key Approaches/Domains
<i>Networks and Governance</i>	
Thapa (2018)	Collaborative engagement, Knowledge management
Islam, Ruhane and Ritchie (2018)	Stakeholder collaboration, adaptive co-management/governance
Hummel & van der Duim (2016)	Multi-stakeholder approach
Reggers, Grabowski, Wearing, Chatterton and Schweinsberg (2016)	Participatory approach
Situmeang (2016)	System thinking approach, collaborative management
Wu and Tsai (2016)	Actors' engagement
Ssenyonga (2016)	Management and networking
Raditloaneng and Chawawa (2015)	Networking, partnerships, governance practices
Jiricka, Salak, Arnberger, Reder & Pröbstl-Haider (2014)	Stakeholder involvement, collaboration
Giampiccoli, Jugmohan & Mtapuri (2014)	International cooperation
Orbasli (2013)	Stakeholder involvement

Nzeda Tagowa and Nformi Buba (2012)	Relations and public engagement and strategic regional approach
Panyik, Costa & Rats (2011)	Integrated approach and collaborative management
Crabbe, Martinez, Garcia, Chub, Castro & Guy (2010)	Collaboration, action plan approach, power enhancement
Caffyn & Jobbins (2009)	Governance capacity and stakeholder interactions
Moscardo (2008)	Strategic alliances
Rabady and Jamal (2006)	Community-academic partnership
<i>Community Empowerment and Development</i>	
Bello, Lovelock and Carr (2018)	Community participation
Singalen and Simange (2018)	Community development
Ghaderi, Abooli and Henderson (2018)	Community development/ leadership
Panta and Thapa (2018)	Community empowerment and impacts
Butler (2017)	Community capacity building strategies
Manwa and Manwa (2014)	Community-led lifelong learning support
Teare, Bandara & Jayawardena (2013)	Community capacity
Bennett, Lemelin, Koster and Budke (2012)	Human, physical and financial capitals, community coordination
Koutra & Edwards (2012)	Community empowerment and partnership
Lapeyre (2011)	
<i>Knowledge Management</i>	
Aura, Osore, Musa Hassan, Morara & Mwihaki (2017)	Knowledge management and specialised education
Carlisle, Kunc, Jones & Tiffi (2013)	Knowledge transfer, innovation and entrepreneurial capacity
Aref (2011)	Organisational and individual capacities
Novelli and Burns (2010)	Knowledge exchange
Cosmi, Fiore & Ragone (2010)	Management strategies
Oettle, Arednse, Koelle and Van der Poll (2004)	Knowledge exchange
Weiler & Ham (2010)	Training and education
Hale, Amaral, Issa and Mwandotto (2000)	Integrated management
Victurine (2000)	Learning by doing, training for community-based operations

The Interslavic Language: An Opportunity for the Tourist Branch

Jan van Steenbergen¹, Vojtěch Merunka²

Abstract

One of the many faces of globalisation is a huge increase in mass tourism. The Slavic countries of Central and Eastern Europe are no exception: not only have they become popular tourist destinations, people from that region have discovered the pleasures of travelling the world themselves, too. However, how to handle the language barrier between them and their local hosts? The standard solution, English, does not work well, because most people in the Slavic countries speak it either very poorly or not at all. Slavs can manage some simple communication by using their language, but this method is limited in scope, and in general works only for neighbouring languages. As a result, many people are forced to refrain from any communication at all, leaving many possibilities and opportunities unexploited.

The Interslavic language can solve this problem. It is a so-called zonal constructed language: a lingua franca created for speakers of a family of closely related languages. It consists entirely of words and grammatical elements that are understandable to most, if not all, Slavic speakers. Extensive research and practical experiences have shown that speakers of any Slavic language can understand about 80–93% of an Interslavic text without prior learning. Consequently, Interslavic can bring great benefits to the tourist branch. Hotels, restaurants, museums, churches, beaches and other attractions can reach a very large audience at once by offering flyers, brochures, menus, signs and websites written in Interslavic—which incidentally relieves operators, owners and managers from the undoable task of having their materials translated into many different languages. Furthermore, some active knowledge of Interslavic would allow tour guides to serve multi-Slavic audiences and also help them in passively understanding other Slavic languages.

Keywords: Central and Eastern Europe; Communication; Tourism; Slavic languages; Zonal constructed language

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the era of globalisation, the world has witnessed a huge increase in mass tourism. Whereas thirty years ago it was still customary for many people to spend their vacations at the nearest beach or in the nearest forest, travelling to exotic destinations is no longer a prerogative limited to the happy few. Nowadays, jumping on an aeroplane, travelling the world and visiting remote places has become a way of life for the average European citizen. This is beneficial for both sides: the traveller can see with his own eyes that the world does not end at the borders of his own country, and for citizens in the receiving countries, tourism has become an indispensable source of income.

A problem every traveller encounters while being abroad is the question how to communicate with the locals, or more specifically: how to cross the language barrier. Local populations cannot be expected to speak the language of every visitor, and likewise, tourists cannot reasonably be expected to learn the language of every country they visit. Any experienced traveller can tell how awkward, cumbersome and sometimes dangerous it can be if one is unable to speak with a shop owner, to ask for directions, to understand the answers, to read signs, etc. To cope with this problem, our traveller has two options to his disposal:

- using an intermediary language that both he and the local population can speak and understand,
- speaking his language in the hope of being understood, and doing his best to understand the language of the locals.

It is often taken for granted that English, the world's primary language of international communication, can solve the problem. While it is undeniably true that in large parts of the world tourists will easily get by using English, its possibilities are often overestimated when it comes to other parts. Among these other parts are the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Especially older people – often the best tourists, because they have more money to spend and care more for service – often speak English poorly or not at all, and even the younger generations are often unable to have a conversation in English. For the same reason, people from other parts of the world visiting these countries have difficulties communicating with the local population. In this article, we will attempt to demonstrate how a zonal constructed language, Interslavic, can help in overcoming this problem.

2. A LINGUA FRANCA FOR CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE?

The region between Western Europe and Russia covers roughly one-third of the European continent. It consists of twenty, mostly small countries, seventeen of which have a population smaller than Belgium. Most of these countries are inhabited by Slavic-speaking populations. To be precise, twelve of them have a predominantly Slavic population, and

most of these can be considered Slavic nation states, four others have a considerable Slavic minority. In other words, a vast majority of the populations of Central and Eastern Europe, as well as Russia itself, speak a Slavic language. The region is a patchwork of small linguistic islands because practically every country has its language. The Slavic languages have a very strong position in the places where they enjoy official status, but in most cases, this luxury is restricted to one country only. Outside the borders of those countries, knowledge of these languages is rare even in neighbouring states, being limited mostly to mixed families and language professionals. The only exceptions are the populations of younger countries due to their long-time exposure to the dominant languages of the states they used to be part of till the late 1980s or early 1990s: Czech in Czechoslovakia, Serbo-Croatian in Yugoslavia and Russian in the Soviet Union. These languages, however, are generally not spoken outside the territories of these former multinational states either, and even within these territories they are no longer automatically spoken by younger generations.

The rise of mass tourism has also affected Central and Eastern Europe. Croatia, Montenegro, Albania, Macedonia and Bulgaria have become popular alternatives to the overcrowded beaches of Spain, Italy and Greece. Among tourists from countries like Poland, the Czech Republic, Ukraine and Russia, these countries enjoy huge popularity for their beauty and climate, but especially also because their price level makes them reasonably affordable. This leads to the question of how a tourist from, say, Poland should communicate when visiting this part of Europe.

The most obvious choice for an international lingua franca is English, and people from one Slavic country visiting another are no exception. However, most inhabitants of Slavic countries are either monolingual, or their command of any foreign language is on a less than a basic level. In the countries of former Yugoslavia, many people can have a simple conversation in English, but in Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Bulgaria, English is spoken by only 13–23 % of the population (Eurobarometer 2006). Especially in the countryside, a traveller is unlikely to get by with English, and the further East one travels, the harder it becomes to find a person able to communicate in English or any other foreign language. In Russia, less than 5.5% of the population of the Russian Federation knows English (All-Russian Census 2010). Besides, these figures give little information about people's ability to use the language in practice. In Poland, for example, only 12.7% of those who know a foreign language can speak it fluently (Eurostat 2015). Although statistics are gradually improving and English is generally taught in schools nowadays, the ability to speak and write in it remains at a persistently low level even among young people.

Among English speakers, the Slavic languages have the reputation of being very difficult to learn, but Westerners often forget that this works in both directions: for Slavs, English is an outright alien language. For example The Slavic languages have 5 or 6 vowel phonemes, English ca. 20, diphthongs and triphthongs included. Also, the discrepancy

between spoken and written English is difficult to grasp for Slavs, who are used to rather straightforward orthographies. What complicates the learning process, even more, are the huge differences in morphology, semantics, syntax etc. In the Slavic languages, the role of words in a sentence is defined by grammar endings, so that word order is relatively free. In English sentences, on the other hand, everything depends on word order, even whether a word is a noun, an adjective or a verb. For that reason, computer translations between Slavic languages with English-based software like Google Translate rarely give satisfying results.

Apart from these practical problems, there is also a psychological factor. English represents a different culture and lacks a vocabulary for typically Slavic things, such as culinary terminology. Many Slavs perceive the global domination of Anglo-Saxon culture as a threat to their own culture, and the English language as a symbol of Western arrogance. Using it in contacts with other Slavs is therefore often felt as inappropriate.

One might wonder if another language could serve as a lingua franca in the region. The most logical candidate would undoubtedly be Russian, mother tongue of almost half of the Slavs and spoken as a second language by another ca. 20%. The problem with Russian, however, is that the various Russian and Soviet regimes have been trying to impose it as a lingua franca with brutal force, using it as a tool for political domination. For that reason, it never gained much acceptance in the remaining Slavic countries, where it is perceived as the language of the oppressor, and even those who were forced to learn it in school are generally unwilling to use it (Donskis 2014). Besides, Russian has a complicated grammar, very specific phonetics and many words and constructions that are unknown in other Slavic languages, which makes it hard to for speakers of other Slavic languages to understand, and places it far from the imaginary centre of the Slavic-speaking world.

Because the Slavic languages are considerably less differentiated than other language families of Europe, some people have argued that Slavs do not need a lingua franca at all, because everyone can simply use his language to make himself understood. One might, therefore, wonder how well our Polish tourist in Croatia or Bulgaria would manage by speaking his language to the local population, while simultaneously trying to understand the language of the latter. This method of communication is known as “receptive multilingualism” or “passive multilingualism”. It is based on the assumption that a person can understand a different language without actively knowing it if both languages are closely related and sufficiently similar to each other. This phenomenon is very common in the Scandinavian countries and has been institutionalised in the Nordic Council. One clear advantage is that each participant of the conversation can express himself freely; all he needs to concentrate on is understanding the language of the other side.

Language inter-comprehension is a relatively new field in linguistic research. One research project that explores the inter-comprehensibility of the Slavic languages is MICReLa (Mutual intelligibility of closely related languages) of Groningen University. The

conclusions of this study demonstrate that receptive multilingualism is common among Czechs and Slovaks in a way similar to the Scandinavians. To a lesser extent, the same is possible for the combinations Polish/Slovak, Slovak/Croatian and Croatian/Slovene, although in these cases more effort and experience is needed. Other combinations, however, are problematic, especially when Bulgarian is involved (Golubović 2015, 368). Although the MICReLa project deals with the languages of the European Union only, it is not unreasonable to assume that the same conclusions apply to the remaining Slavic languages as well. Thus, a Pole will be able to understand Ukrainian or Belarussian reasonably well if spoken slowly and clearly, but in the case of more remote languages communication is unlikely to succeed without the help of gestures or some other, intermediary language. Of course, our hypothetical Polish tourist in Bulgaria will be able to convey certain information anyway, but nothing even remotely close to a conversation, and important details are likely to be lost or misunderstood.

In written communication, a particular problem is posed by the fact that the Slavic languages are written in two different alphabets, which split the Slavic world into two halves. Among West Slavs (Poles, Czechs, Slovaks), knowledge of the Cyrillic alphabet is a rare phenomenon. In the former Soviet Union and Bulgaria, many young people have trouble understanding Slavic texts written in the Latin alphabet, due to their misunderstanding of letters like *č* and *ĵ* (Kocór et al. 2017, 19). Yet, the possibilities of Slavic inter-comprehension are even more limited when it comes to auditive transfer, because the advantages of prosody and the lack of problems with regard to orthography stand in no proportion to phonological problems, such as the incorrect identification of phonemes and word boundaries, as well as misinterpretations on a morphological and lexical level, caused by deceptive cognates and wrong associations (Heinz 2009).

Slavic inter-comprehension can be enhanced with some additional training. Pioneer in the field is the Russian Slavish Lew Zybatow, who initiated EuroComSlav, a project aimed at demonstrating to the learner how much he already knows without knowing he knows. This is achieved using “seven sieves”, the most important of which are: international vocabulary, common inherited vocabulary, and recognizing correspondences between languages in sound, spelling and pronunciation (Zybatow 2002). This kind of knowledge would undoubtedly help our Polish tourist in having a better understanding of Russian, Serbo-Croatian or Bulgarian.

Nevertheless, this method has its limitations as well, because every Slavic language has idiosyncrasies that stand in the way of full understanding by speakers of other Slavic languages. Examples of such idiosyncrasies are specific phonological alterations, grammar changes, shifts in the meanings of words and borrowings from neighbouring, non-Slavic languages. The next step is, therefore, to consciously avoid these idiosyncrasies and replace them with elements that are commonly understandable to Slavs, in other words, to apply

the seven sieves *actively*. The result of this approach is Interslavic; an experimental language extrapolated entirely from words and grammatical elements that can be found in most, if not all, Slavic languages.

3. AN ALTERNATIVE SOLUTION: THE INTERSLAVIC LANGUAGE

Interslavic (autonym: *Medžuslovjansky*) is a so-called zonal constructed language: an artificially created lingua franca for speakers of a family of closely related languages. Languages of this type are governed by different principles than artificial languages created to serve as a universal second language, such as Esperanto. Typically, the latter are expected to be culturally neutral and easy to learn. In zonal languages, on the other hand, every single element is dictated by the source languages. Their main purpose is to be as familiar as possible to the speakers of these languages and to be understandable to them without prior learning. This does not mean a zonal language cannot be simple, only that the level of simplification is determined by the characteristics of the language family it serves, in this case the Slavic languages.

One might wonder in how far Interslavic can be considered a constructed language at all. Similar languages that are the direct result of human intervention are usually considered natural languages. Examples of such languages are Rumantsch Grischun, devised in 1982 as a common standard for various Rhaeto-Romance dialects; Katharevousa, an extremely archaic form of Greek from the late 18th century, intended to unite many Greek dialects; and successful attempts at reviving and modernising extinct languages, such as Modern Hebrew and Revived Cornish. The process of creating Interslavic bears much more similarities to the codification of the languages above than to the creation of languages like Esperanto, as it is entirely based on research and does not involve any creative activity. For the lack of a binary distinction between natural and artificial languages, all that can be said is that Interslavic is somewhere in the middle of the scale.

The Interslavic language goes back to the 9th century, when Konstantin the Philosopher, better known as St. Cyril, standardised the oldest attested Slavic language, Old Church Slavonic. Just like modern Interslavic, this language contained several elements typical for a constructed language (Meyer 2016, 290). It served as a literary language on different Slavic territories for centuries and is still in use as a liturgical language. Because its sacral character prevented it from undergoing any natural development, it had become way too archaic for contemporary communication already by the 16th century, and efforts to adapt it to modern requirements mark the beginning of modern Interslavic. The oldest known example dates back to 1583 when the Croatian priest Šime Budinić translated the works of Petrus Canisius into a language he called Slovincsky, which was mostly based on Church Slavonic, Serbo-Croatian and (to a lesser degree) Czech and Polish. In the years 1659–1666 another Croatian priest, Juraj Križanić, was the first to write a grammar. From that moment onwards, authors from various Slavic countries have attempted to describe a

Pan-Slavic language that was essentially a modernised version of Old Church Slavonic. Today's Interslavic is a direct continuation of that tradition. It reached its final form in 2017 with the merger of two active projects, Slovianski and Novoslověnsky. Currently, Interslavic has a complete grammar, a dictionary of ca. 18,000 words, textbooks in several languages, hundreds of texts, including a few books, a scientific journal titled *Slovjani.info*, a news site and a wiki. The main portal of the language (<http://steen.free.fr/interslavic>) also features a transliteration tool, a spell checker and a word learning tool. Interslavic has a community of ca. 2,000 active and passive users, active mostly on Facebook.

The main purpose of Interslavic is that speakers of any Slavic language can understand it without even knowing which language they are dealing with. It has an inflecting grammar, similar to that of the Slavic languages: three grammatical genders, four basic noun declensions, seven noun cases, singular/plural distinction, adjective agreement, two basic verb conjugations and verbal aspect. The language has few irregularities, which makes it relatively easy to use. Although Interslavic can be considered a modern and simplified version of Old Church Slavonic, its main ingredients were taken from the modern Slavic languages:

a) International vocabulary. Like the Germanic and the Romance languages, the Slavic languages have incorporated lots of international words, most of them originating from Latin and Greek, but also French, German and English. The advantage of these words is that they look and sound practically the same in every language and that their meanings are usually identical.

b) Pan-Slavic vocabulary. The Slavic languages are characterized by a relatively large number of words inherited from Proto-Slavic. More than anything, these words form the key to mutual comprehension. Unlike international vocabulary, however, they have undergone sound changes that differ from one language to another and are reflected in different spellings. Even so, these words might as well be written in one orthography that allows for multiple pronunciations, just like English orthography fits both British and American pronunciations. For example, the numeral "five" (Russian *pjať*, Polish *pięć*, Czech *pět*, Slovak *päť*, Serbo-Croatian *pet*) can be written as *pěť*, a spelling that covers all five pronunciations and shows clearly that they are the very same word.

Of course, if the Slavic languages consisted purely of international and Pan-Slavic vocabulary, they would not even be separate languages to begin with. The truth is, however, that many Proto-Slavic words survived only in part of the Slavic languages, and in some cases, their meanings drifted apart to such a degree that a logical connection can no longer be made. To deal with these problems, Interslavic strictly adheres to the following three design principles:

First of all, Interslavic usually follows the majority. This majority is neither based on the number of speakers nor the number of languages, as both approaches would give undue weight to specific input languages. Instead, it is based on equal treatment of all six major Slavic sub-branches (Russian, Ukrainian/Belarussian, Polish, Czech/Slovak, Serbo-Croatian/Slovene and Bulgarian/Macedonian). When two options are both supported by at least two of the sub-branches, both options are included. Because the South Slavic languages are relatively often “outvoted” by the rest, measures were taken to compensate them.

Secondly, to ensure etymological coherence, Interslavic never borrows its words directly from any Slavic language. Instead, it follows a system of regular derivation from Old Church Slavonic or reconstructed proto-forms. This prevents the language from becoming a hodgepodge of elements taken from different languages and makes Interslavic words both recognizable and predictable for Slavic speakers.

At last, every Slav should be able to write Interslavic on his keyboard and read it in a familiar orthography. For that reason, both the Latin and the Cyrillic alphabets are used, and texts are often given in both orthographies in a parallel manner. The standard Latin orthography contains four letters with a diacritical mark: č š ž ě, but those who cannot write ě are free to write e instead (much like the Russian letter ё is often written as e), Poles can write cz sz ż instead of č š ž, and those who have problems distinguishing between y and i can write i in all cases. Similar mechanisms apply to Cyrillic as well.

Any Interslavic text will inevitably contain elements that not every Slav can understand. A Slovene will not understand some words that are obvious to a Russian and vice versa. In most situations, ignoring these will not prevent the message from getting through. Still, much depends on an individual’s knowledge, intelligence and experience, and one monolingual speaker of a language may understand much less than another monolingual speaker of the same language. Also, listening to a language one does not actively know requires a level of concentration that can be achieved only if the listener is willing to cooperate. A person who has something to gain from the conversation will try harder than a person who is tired, annoyed and uninterested.

During recent years, several research projects have been carried out regarding the intelligibility of Interslavic among various nations, including a full-scale international Internet survey, organized in 2015–2018 by Vojtěch Merunka. Based on 1822 valid responses, the conclusion of this survey is that there are no major differences between the various Slavic nations when it comes to understanding Interslavic, although Czechs and Slovaks score somewhat higher than average (90% and 93% respectively) and South Slavs somewhat lower (80%), while the subjective appreciation of the language is slightly higher among South Slavs. There is, however, a correlation with education: Slavs who completed higher education have 88% of mean intelligibility, Slavs with secondary or primary education only 72–73% (Kocór et al. 2017, 24). Other surveys, organized in 2017 and 2018

among students of the University of Rzeszów (Poland) and Trakia University in Stara Zagora (Bulgaria), give similar results: participants are generally positive in their assessment of Interslavic and can understand it well (*ibidem*).

The effectiveness of spoken Interslavic is harder to quantify, especially since practical experiences usually happen on an individual level. However, some insight is given by two Conferences on the Interslavic language (CISLa) that took place in the Czech Republic in 2017 and 2018, both attended by 60–70 participants from many different Slavic countries. Most presentations were either held in Interslavic or translated consecutively into Interslavic. This turned out to be sufficient for all Slavic participants—including Poles and Bulgarians—to understand almost everything. These experiences demonstrate that spoken Interslavic is understood equally well as written Interslavic and that one translator/interpreter can serve an entire conference.

The research above pertains to people with no prior knowledge about the Interslavic language. Considering how many speakers picked up Interslavic simply by reading and listening, even better results can be expected after a minimum amount of preparation. This could easily be achieved if a few basic Interslavic lessons were introduced at some level of the education systems in the Slavic countries. These lessons should not necessarily encompass the study of the language itself, but rather teach people how to recognise correspondences using techniques as provided by the EuroComSlav project.

4. HOW INTERSLAVIC CAN SUPPORT THE TOURIST BRANCH

Let us now return to our Polish tourist in Bulgaria, Macedonia or Montenegro. The first question is: how can Interslavic help him in making himself understandable to the local population? If he has learned using Interslavic actively, that should not be a problem, but learning a language is not an easy task, and should he decide to do so anyway, he might as well choose English. There is one critical difference, however. For a Slav, learning Interslavic is not a matter of learning an entirely new language, but merely of learning how to manipulate his language. Thus, the learning process is substantially different from learning English, because every learned item can be put to practical use immediately, and every learner can decide for himself how much he wishes to learn and use. For those unwilling to learn any grammar at all, there is also Sloviato, a simplified form of Interslavic that contains only the most necessary grammar, intended mostly for non-Slavs.

Realistically speaking. However, our tourist has probably never even heard of Interslavic, and the odds that he can speak it are minimal. Let us, therefore, see what the other side can do. Any place that is frequently visited by foreign tourists should be equipped with means to address them. This is not only a matter of hospitality, but also of sheer self-interest and even self-preservation, because tourism is an indispensable source of income, and customer satisfaction plays a crucial role in that. Of course, nobody can be expected to

know the language of every visitor from every country, nor do most hotels, restaurants, museums, churches, and other attractions have the means to have all their materials translated into dozens of languages. Instead, they provide materials in English, sometimes also in languages like French, German, Italian and Spanish. As we have demonstrated above, however, these materials are not very helpful to the average tourist from a Slavic country. Statistically speaking, the odds are that this tourist can understand the same text a lot better when it is written in Interslavic. Thus, given the enormous increase in the number of tourists from these countries, Interslavic provides a great opportunity for the tourist branch: websites, flyers, brochures, menus, signs and information boards written in Interslavic can reach a very large audience, while simultaneously relieving travel operators, owners and managers from the undoable task of having them translated into many different languages.

Since translations can easily be commissioned, none of the above would require anybody to learn Interslavic actively. Those who decide to learn it anyway, have the additional advantage of being able to communicate directly, not only by making themselves better understood but also because Interslavic helps them in passively understanding other Slavic languages. Especially tour guides could benefit greatly from speaking Interslavic actively, as it would enable them to serve any multi-Slavic audience.

5. CONCLUSION

Due to a massive increase in tourist numbers from and to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, finding a means to communicate with the populations of these countries is more necessary than ever. Interslavic might be the best solution to this problem because the average Slav can understand it much better than English or any other international language. Active knowledge of Interslavic enables a traveller to make himself understood to the local Slavic population and to passively understand much of the local language. Likewise, Interslavic can be very helpful at places that are frequented by tourists from Slavic countries: a travel guide who speaks Interslavic can use it to show around mixed groups, and printed matter in Interslavic (information brochures, leaflets etc.) can provide tourists from Slavic countries with useful information. Because of the positive role, it can play in making Slavic tourists feel comfortable, while simultaneously saving local hosts both trouble and money, Interslavic can be immensely valuable to the tourist branch.

APPENDIX: TWO EXAMPLES

1. Hotel Oasis

In 2012, Interslavic was implemented by Hotel Oasis at the Dead Sea coast in Israel (Merunka 2018, 156). The following is a fragment from an information leaflet for Slavic guests:

Dragi gosti! Do hotela se možete prigrasiti od 15:00. Iz hotela treba se odglasiti do 11:00.

Vreme otvorenja restavrant Marine (na 1. etaži): zajutrak 7:00 – 10:30, večerja 18:00 – 20:30.

Lobby-Bar jest otvorenjy vsaky den od 11:00 do 22:30. Lobby-Bar ves den predlagaje Vam male jedenja. Večerom Vas v Lobby-Baru priglašajemo na veseljenje s živoju muzikoju.

Kompleks SPA jest otvorenjy od 8:00 do 18:00. Uslugy SPA sodrživajut basen s vodoju iz Mrtvogo Morja, jacuzzi, saunu, turečko kupanje i fitness. Sovetujemo Vam, že byste uslugy sobě najskoro rezervovali v recepciji SPA ili po telefonu na čislu 8040.

Hotel takože imaje svoju privatnu plaž. Plaž jest na drugoj straně ulice desno (napravo) od Ambulancije. Vstup na plaž jest črěz velike zelene vrata. Hotelova plaž jest otvorena od 7:30 do 18:00. Na plaž takože ide hotelovy transport vsakyh 15 minut od centralnogo vhoda.

2. Prague astronomical clock

The following is part of a description of the famous Prague astronomical clock (Van Steenbergen/Merunka 2018, 53).

Orloj jest astrolabovy časovnik izobražajuči vrěme, poziciju Solnca, Luny i zvězd. Pražsky orloj jest jedin iz najstarših dodnes rabotajučih astronomičnyh priborov srědnogo věka. Orloj běše postavjeny v 1410 mehanikom Mikulašom iz Kadanje i matematikom Janom Ondřejův řečenym Šindel, byvošim profesorom i jednym iz prvych rektorov Karlovogo Universiteta v Praě. Jest to jedno iz tehničnyh čudes češského naroda.

Pražsky orloj jest astrolab dviženj časovnikovoju mašinoju i ješče imajuči mnoge tehnične ulěpšenja. Ime orloj jest iz latinskogo slova "horologium". Na obrazu orloja jest planarna projekcija globusa Zemje iz pozicije Pragy na kosmičnu ravninu (jest to projekcija obraza iz 3D na 2D), kde možemo viděti ekvator, tropične paralelne linije od konstelacije Raka i Kozoroga, zvězdnu sferu, Lunu, Solnce i nebo.

Astrolab jest originalno pribor antičnyh astronomov, astrologov i morjskyh navigatorov. S pomočju astrolaba jest možno znati svoju poziciju na Zemji, vrěme itd. Prvy astrolab je možno stvoril grečsky astronom Ipparhos Nikajsky v 2-om stolětju přěd Hristom ili grečska filozofica Ippatija Alexandrijska v 5-om stolětju našej ery. Potom astrolab sut ulěpšali Arabi i Persijci, najpače matematik Muhammad ibn Musa al Hwarizmi v 9-om stolětju.

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A Conceptual Analysis of Birdwatching as a Nature-Based Tourism Activity

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Abstract

As a kind of special interest tourism, in particular, the birdwatching represents one of the significant interests for particular tourist destinations. Birdwatchers are considered as the largest group of eco-tourists, and well-educated, wealthy and committed which give rise to be them treated as ideal eco-tourists. Besides, this kind of tourism has a high economic contribution as well as potential to propel the financial and environmental well-being of local communities while educating locals about the value of biodiversity and increase awareness to protection and preservation of natural landscapes. Despite these benefits, in the existing literature, it is seen that studies examining and discussing the significance of the concept as a research theme are still limited. Besides, considering studies dealt with the issue of birdwatching in the tourism field the majority of them have been conducted in the context of motivation while experience related dimension of the concept remains under-examined. From this perspective, the aim of the present conceptual paper based on the current literature is to discuss the concept of birdwatching while shed light on the significance of the experience dimension of the birdwatchers.

Key Words: Birdwatching, Birdwatchers' motives, Birdwatching experiences, Eco-tourists, Sustainable tourism

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1. INTRODUCTION

Birdwatching tourism or avitourism is regarded as a niche sector that pertains to nature-based tourism market (Collins-Kreiner et al., 2013; Steven et al., 2015). This nature-based tourism is described “as the active observation, identification, and photography of birds for recreational purposes” (Glowinski, 2008: 67). Birdwatchers considered as a form that is postulated as the largest group of eco-tourists, and well-educated, wealthy and committed which give rise to be them treated as ideal eco-tourists (Sekercioglu, 2002). Ecotourism can be regarded as a tool in terms of community-based conservation if it is implemented with an emphasis on the well-being of local ecosystems and human communities (Sekercioglu, 2003; Valentine, 1992). On the other hand, birdwatching tourism can also be classified within the wildlife tourism products (Newsome, 2017) while wildlife and ecotourism are categorised as the forms of nature-based tourism (Wolter, 2014).

Besides, this kind of tourism provides a lot of contributions to both local and national as well as potential to propel the financial and environmental well-being of local communities while educating locals about the value of biodiversity and increase awareness to protection and preservation of natural landscapes. (Hvenegaard et al., 1989; Son & Van, 2016; Welford & Barilla, 2013). Since the eco-tourism provides the sustainable nature-based tourism in essence it potentially paves the way in which environmental and cultural values accelerated by providing interactions among tourists and the locals (Rodriguez, 1999). Even though this kind of tourism provides the considerable benefits the existing literature omitted to discuss and explore the significance of the concept as a research theme in detail. Moreover, considering the studies investigating the issue of birdwatching in the tourism field the majority of them have been conducted in the context of motivation while experience related dimension of the concept remains overlooked. From this perspective, the aim of the present conceptual paper based on the current literature is twofold:

- a) To discuss the concept of birdwatching while shed light on the significance of experience dimension (demand-side perspective) of the birdwatchers, and
- b) to argue if birdwatching can potentially contribute to sustainable tourism of a particular tourist destination where birders are engaged in participating nature-based activities.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Birdwatching Motivations

Birdwatching tourism is a major component which regarded as one of fastest developing forms of ecotourism, is given remarkable attention due to several issues such as creating major economic income, providing bird conservation and protection of bird species (Bonta, 2010; Kronenberg, 2016; McFarlane & Boxall, 1996). Because of the reasons mentioned above today many countries are aware of and improving ecotourism activities particularly by investing in birdwatching tourism (Lee et al., 2010). Birders are

often considered as tourists those are a heterogeneous group of recreationists having diverse skills and interests (Scott & Thigpen, 2003).

Hvenegaard (2002) offers three different specialisation levels of birdwatching tourism by taking birders' interest into account namely novice, advanced-active and advanced-experienced. According to this segmentation, the advance active birders were found to be less interested in non-birding activities as compared to novice birders while advanced-experienced birders had the highest degree of interest in birding-related activities (Maple et al., 2010).

Overall birdwatching motivations are an escape, relaxation, viewing the scenery, social and place novelty and getting closer to nature for outdoor recreational or nature-based activities (Hassell et al., 2015; Pearce, 2005; Young, 1999). Travel motivations of birdwatching are mainly based on both pull (destination attributes) and push factors (referring to tourists' desire or personal characteristics) (Chen & Chen, 2015). For instance, motivations to see rare bird species that can be attributed to a destination's feature generate pull factors while family bonding and appreciative motivational factors engender the push motivational factors of birders (Moore et al., 2008). On the other hand motivations of birdwatchers are grouped into five main categories namely as emotional, intellectual, physical, social and spiritual (Sali & Kuehn, 2007).

Birdwatching motivations are usually addressed as seeing birds, being with friends, experiencing nature and the outdoors, taking action in the conversation of wildlife, fascination with specialised equipment and escaping from daily routine life (Cooper & Smith, 2010). Moreover, birdwatchers are ranging from casual to dedicated participants whose experiences are based on different levels (Callaghan et al., 2018). According to Moscardo and Saltzer (2004), wildlife/birdwatching tourists are mostly motivated to experience to be able to get close to rare and unique wildlife in a natural environment. However, McFarlane (1994)'s study is addressed as the prominent one that identifies birders' motivations as affiliation, achievement, appreciation and conservation underscoring and grounding the theoretical underpinnings of the birdwatching motivations (Scott et al., 1999).

3. CONCLUSION

In the extant literature, there are many major contributions and benefits of birdwatching tourism activity, to both local and national levels (Connell, 2009). Given benefits of this kind of nature-based tourism activity it can be posited as an outcome of this paper that birdwatching can potentially contribute to sustainable tourism of a particular tourist destination where birders are engaged in participating nature-based activities since the birders are considered as well-educated, committed, wealthy largest group of ecotourists (Sekercioglu, 2002; 2003) while they are able to play a crucial role to conversation of wildlife (McFarlane & Boxall, 1996). Also, this kind of special interest tourism makes a great deal of contributions to environmental and cultural values through interactions between tourists and the locals (Rodriguez, 1999).

Considering the benefits made by birdwatching tourism makes it necessary touristic activity for industry practitioners to accelerate birdwatching experiences (Sali et al., 2008). Given the existing literature it is clear that birdwatching motivations mostly emerge as heterogeneous and reflect push and pull motivational factors (Chen & Chen, 2015). Despite the increase the significance of birdwatching existing literature lacks to explore and discuss the issue of birdwatching experiences while studies mostly deal with the motivational factors of birdwatching tourism. From this perspective, much work is needed to examine experiences of travellers those are engaged in birdwatching that this conceptual paper attempted to highlight.

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Shoulder Functional Ratio in Basketball Players

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the dominant and non-dominant shoulder internal rotation (IR), external rotation (ER) isokinetic muscle forces and shoulder functional ratios of male and female basketball players. Eight female ($\bar{X}_{age} = 21,57 \pm 2,87$ years, $\bar{X}_{bodyweight} = 65,42 \pm 16,28$ kg, $\bar{X}_{height} = 171,86 \pm 12,82$ cm) and 12 male ($\bar{X}_{age} = 20,36 \pm 1,12$ years, $\bar{X}_{bodyweight} = 87,09 \pm 15,71$ kg, $\bar{X}_{height} = 190,18 \pm 9,60$ cm) active basketball players participated voluntarily in this study. The shoulder rotational forces of the athletes were measured with isokinetic dynamometer (CSMI Humac Noran m Testing Rehabilitation System, USA). Internal and external rotator muscle forces of dominant and non-dominant shoulders were tested in concentric and eccentric modes at angular speeds. In the concentric and eccentric modes, internal (IR) and external (ER) rotators were evaluated as force variable. For the peak torque functional ratio, the eccentric force of the outer rotators and the concentric forces of the inner rotators were calculated. According to the obtained results, there was a significant difference in the dominant and nondominant values between the females and males ($p < 0,05$) at 60°/s and 180°/s both in the internal and external rotations in the concentric phase, while there were no significant differences within groups dominant and nondominant values of female or male ($p > 0,05$). In the eccentric phase, a significant difference was found between dominant values of female athletes and the male athletes ($p < 0,05$). When the functional ratio (eccentric / concentric) was taken into consideration, the dominant values of both male and female athletes were found to be higher than the nondominant shoulder values. This finding suggests that the eccentric force of the external rotation for all groups is greater than the concentric strength of the internal rotation. For dynamic stability and optimal performance, the appropriate functional ratio is critical. As a result, it is thought that female and male basketball players have imbalance in the strength of the shoulder rotator muscles, which can increase the risk of injury and affect performance negatively.

Keywords: shoulder, isokinetic, basketball

1. INTRODUCTION

The shoulder region is the most active joint region with a complex structure in the human body. Shoulder joint movements occur with the possibility that the muscles forming the shoulder region have strength, coordination and force at a certain level. For this reason, muscle imbalance and fatigue in the shoulder region will adversely affect performance. The balance of rotatory muscle groups in the shoulder region is very

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important regarding movement quality and muscular injuries (Ainsworth and Lewis 2007).

Many types of research support this situation (Cools et al. 2008; Wang, Macfarlane and Cochrane 2000). Measurement of the force and strength produced at a given angular velocity is necessary to determine the performance that occurs during dynamic muscle contraction (Lanza et al. 2003). These values can be quantified easily with an isokinetic dynamometer. Shoulder internal and external rotation strength due to the functional importance of the rotator muscles in the shoulder region, objective assessment of work values is important regarding performance level and prevention of injuries. Examination of sports movements does not have only concentric contractions. Especially at high speeds, eccentric contractions are more common.

For this reason, it is important to determine the eccentric force instead of the concentric contraction and to find the related ratios in order to prevent injuries and to increase the performance of the athletes. The ability to make a good shot in the basketball is closely related to the strength of the muscles in the shoulder region as well as the technical skill. As a result, studies of strength evaluation of shoulder muscles and examination of athlete performance have been intensified in the sports where the upper limb is used extensively like basketball (Kim and Jeeoung, 2016; Bozoğlu, 2014). Muscle strength is one of the most important components of sports for both disability prevention and high performance (Magalhaes et al. 2004). Today, isokinetic devices are used for muscle training and rehabilitation as well as determining muscle balance and strength (Alangari 2004). The isokinetic force is the highest torque value that is released during contraction that occurs at a given speed (Laskowski 1996). The determination of the isokinetic force profiles of the players is of great importance regarding the fulfillment of the requirements of the sports branches and the continuity of the high performance of the athletes (Magalhaes 2004)

The purpose of this study was to examine the dominant and non-dominant shoulder internal rotation (IR), external rotation (ER) isokinetic muscle forces and functional shoulder ratios (FR) of male and female basketball players.

2. METHODS

Eight female ($\bar{X}_{age} = 21,57 \pm 2,87$ years, $\bar{X}_{bodyweight} = 65,42 \pm 16,28$ kg, $\bar{X}_{height} = 171,86 \pm 12,82$ cm) and 12 female ($\bar{X}_{age} = 20,36 \pm 1,12$ years, $\bar{X}_{bodyweight} = 87,09 \pm 15,71$ kg, $\bar{X}_{height} = 190,18 \pm 9,60$ cm) active basketball players participated voluntarily in this study. The shoulder rotational forces of the athletes were measured with isokinetic dynamometer (CSMI Humac Noran m Testing Rehabilitation System, USA).

Athletes warmed for 5 minutes at 60 W in a hand cycling ergometer (Monark Ergomedik 891 E) for 5 minutes before starting to measure, then they performed shoulder stretching exercises. After warming, the athlete was placed in the supine position when the upper body device stabilised around the chest and waist around the

table. As testing the force values in the concentric and eccentric modes the inner (IR) and the outer (ER) rotators were evaluated first concentrically tested at an angular velocity of 60 degrees/s then eccentrically tested with 180 degrees/s. Three submaximal repetitions were performed at each speed. After that five repetitions at 60 degrees / s, five repetitions at 180 degrees / s with 1-minute rest between sets.

3. FINDINGS

Table 1. Concentric Internal and External Rotational Isokinetic Force Values

		Female (n=8)		Male (n=12)	
CONCENTRIC		Dominant	Nondominant	Dominant	Nondominant
INTERNAL ROTATION	PT/BW 60°/s	0,34±0,08*	0,35±0,06**	0,49±0,10	0,45±0,09
	PT/BW 180°/s	0,18±0,09*	0,25±0,12**	0,41±0,10	0,41±0,11
	TW/BW 60 °/s	0,46±0,09*	0,49±0,10**	0,72±0,16	0,65±0,15
	TW/BW 180 °/s	0,20±0,11*	0,23±0,13**	0,51±0,13	0,49±0,13
EXTERNAL ROTATION	PT/BW 60°/s	0,32±0,06*	0,30±0,06**	0,40±0,09	0,39±0,08
	PT/BW 180°/s	0,19±0,06*	0,19±0,08**	0,36±0,09	0,33±0,10
	TW/BW 60 °/s	0,44±0,07*	0,41±0,12**	0,56±0,15	0,55±0,13
	TW/BW 180 °/s	0,20±0,13*	0,24±0,13**	0,39±0,12	0,42±0,15

* Significant difference with dominant values of males

The** Significant difference with nondominant values of males

Table 2. Eccentric Internal and External Rotational Isokinetic Force Values

		Female (n=8)		Male (n=12)	
ECCENTRIC		Dominant	Nondominant	Dominant	Nondominant
INTERNAL ROTATION	PT/BW 60°/s	0,46±0,14	0,56±0,31	0,51±0,11	0,48±0,12
	PT/BW 180°/s	0,40±0,09*	0,49±0,15	0,56±0,17	0,51±0,08
	TW/BW 60 °/s	0,48±0,14*	0,57±0,28	0,70±0,14	0,65±0,27
	TW/BW 180 °/s	0,46±0,12	0,55±0,15	0,71±0,25	0,64±0,20
EXTERNAL ROTATION	PT/BW 60°/s	0,48±0,17	0,62±0,47	0,51±0,20	0,47±0,09
	PT/BW 180°/s	0,48±0,23	0,43±0,11	0,59±0,26	0,50±0,08
	TW/BW 60 °/s	0,47±0,11*	0,47±0,20	0,60±0,15	0,59±0,24
	TW/BW 180 °/s	0,48±0,09*	0,44±0,12	0,54±0,16	0,60±0,23

* Significant difference between dominant values of female athletes and male athletes

Table 3. Isokinetic Force Ratio and Functional Ratio Table Between External and Internal Rotation (ER / IR)

		Female (n=8)		Male (n=12)	
		Dominant	Nondominant	Dominant	Nondominant
CONCENTRIC ER/IR	PT 60°/s	0,97±0,19	0,85±0,13	0,82±0,08	0,86±0,11
	PT 180°/s	0,17±0,32	0,89±0,38	0,87±0,16	0,83±0,16
	TW 60 °/s	0,98±0,20	0,83±0,17	0,77±0,07	0,85±0,13
	TW 180 °/s	3,17±2,17	1,08±0,36	1,12±0,26	0,85±0,19
ECCENTRIC ER/IR	PT 60°/s	1,09±0,26	1,05±0,24	0,98±0,17	0,97±0,12
	PT 180°/s	1,17±0,32	0,90±0,11	0,87±0,16	0,99±0,16
	TW 60 °/s	0,79±0,09	1,05±0,18	0,88±0,19	0,94±0,15
	TW 180 °/s	0,79±0,09	1,46±1,70	0,80±0,21	0,93±0,15
Functional Ratio: Eccentric ER / Concentric IR					
PT 60°/s		1,46±0,47	0,70±1,11	1,03±0,20	0,04±0,26
PT 180°/s		3,11±1,98	1,89±0,86	1,48±0,85	0,31±0,44

4. RESULTS

There was a significant difference in the dominant and nondominant values between the females and males at 60°/s and 180°/s both in the internal and external rotations in the concentric phase ($p < 0,05$), while there were no significant differences within groups dominant and nondominant values of female or male ($p > 0,05$). In the eccentric phase, a significant difference was found between the dominant values of female athletes and male athletes ($p < 0,05$). When the functional ratio (eccentric/concentric) was taken into consideration, the dominant values of both male and female athletes were found to be higher than the nondominant shoulder values. This finding suggests that the eccentric force of the external rotation for all groups is greater than the concentric strength of the internal rotation. For dynamic stability and optimal performance, the appropriate functional ratio is critical. As a result, it is thought that female and male basketball players have an imbalance in the strength of the shoulder rotator muscles, which can increase the risk of injury and affect performance negatively. This work can also be done by examining of the effect of different training methods or different age groups on functional shoulder ratio and comparing the arm strength and shoulder functional ratios of the athletes in different sports branches.

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Ecological Aspects of the Recreation Areas of Kayseri Kocasinan District in Urban Area Usage

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Abstract

It is imperative that the sustainable use of natural resources in planning studies in landscape architecture discipline be carried out without regard to the ecological characteristics of the area. Ecological planning is the most important thing to do.

This study was conducted in Kocasinan District of Kayseri. The ecological compatibility of this potential recreational potential in the study was investigated. For this purpose, the natural structure of the area and the available area in the area are mapped using Geographic Information Systems and linear combination technique. The generated maps and the recreation areas were identified as two different types of recreation and non-water recreation areas. Potential eligibility criteria for designated recreational areas; land skill classes, hydrology and current field uses. The order of suitability for each potential fitness criterion was made; the fitness value and fitness (sum to be 1) are given as very appropriate (3), appropriate (2), less suitable (1) and not suitable (0). With the information obtained from these data, a potential fitness map has been obtained for recreational areas. With this map, contradictions between available space usage and legal limiters have been determined and interpreted by creating optimal land usage map which can be suitable for recreation areas within the framework of the obtained results.

Key Words: Kocasinan district, Recreation areas, Linear combination model, Ecological planning, Urban land use, Multi-criteria analysis.

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1. INTRODUCTION

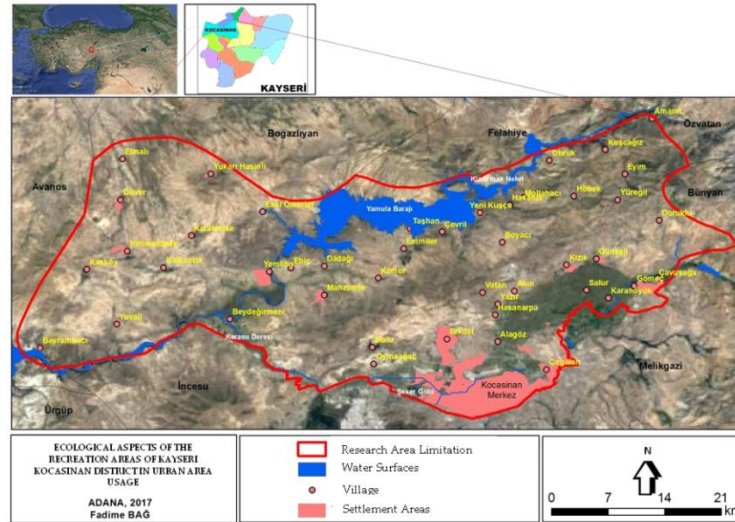
The determination of field uses without planning, and inadequacies in the implementation of plans, in the event they exist, leads to misuse of space. The realization of the vital role of ecological planning in the creation of viable environments, particularly in urban scales continues to rise given the problems encountered. In this regard, Kayseri-Kocasinan District, which continues its rapid development, was chosen as a research area. The conservation of urban ecosystems, the sustainability of urban development, and some studies on the protection and development of them as a whole are thought to be very beneficial for the rapidly developing Kocasinan District. If the rapid growth and change process in the province is not realized within the scope of a plan based on conservation of natural and cultural resources, it is inevitable to bring problems such as irregular settlement, a decrease of green area, environmental pollution, accessibility in transportation. The planning of the use of the area in the right places for them is a mandatory application regarding leaving the resources we are using for future generations and more and taking advantage of natural resources. In this study, in line with all these explanations, it was aimed to plan the recreation areas with a comprehensive approach to ecological sustainability in the Kayseri-Kocasinan District.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Material

The study area covers the area of 150 186, 63 hectares between 38 ° 43 ' - 39 ° 04' northern latitudes and 34 ° 58 ' - 35 ° 46' east longitudes (Figure 1). The digital elevation model of the 30 * 30 resolution ASTER (2011) image has been utilised in determining some properties of the natural structure in the research area. The ArcGIS 10.0 program was used to evaluate and map the data. Provided for field skills classes in the field General Directorate of Village Services; Kayseri was produced from the Land Existence data. The hydrological data were obtained by comparing the vector data prepared by Open Street Map (OSM) with the LANDSAT (2016) satellite image. In the determination of the current land usage, 30 * 30 resolution LANDSAT (2016) satellite image with the 432-way band and Open Street Map (OSM) data were used as the base. Maps were digitised and UTM WGS 84 zone 36N coordinate system was used.

Figure 1. Research Area



2.2. Method

'Linear Combination Technique' was used in the study. Searching the literature about the topic, obtaining the existing data and determining the current situation of the research area, environmental problems and legal limiters; constitute the first phase of the study. In this context, as far as the current situation is concerned, the analysis consists of four parts, namely the revision and the conclusion, the conclusion and the suggestion of the contradictions — current state of the area; natural factors (soil, hydrological structure); current land uses (settlement, industry, recreation, agriculture, pastureland, protected areas and other areas); legal limiters (environmental plan and development plan).

The analysis part of the study includes the step of determining the suitability of the research area for potential land uses. Criteria have been set by taking into consideration the natural structure and the use of available space in the creation of potential fitness maps for recreation areas. The field is preserved as if there are "water surfaces". Also in the field, "1st and 2nd Degree Archaeological Sites" shown in the Environmental Plan; "protected areas" and no potential compliance map for protected areas due to lack of sensitive biotopes. The 'Linear Combination Technique', one of the multi-criteria analysis methods, has been used in the preparation of the potential fitness mapping. This method is based on the method used by Güzelmansur (2012). Linear Combination Technique; each of the potential eligibility criteria affecting the type of field use is assigned a weighted score based on the importance of each. Since these criteria are also subdivided regarding their characteristics, these subscales are also scored. For this purpose, as in Güzelmansur (2012), sub-criteria are called S1, S2, N1 and N2 according to their importance. According to this; S1 Very Suitable 3, S2 Suitable 2, N1 Less Suitable 1, N2 Not Applicable 0 weight points. The criterion is

determined by multiplying the sub-criterion scores by the sub-criteria. In this study, a gradual calculus (rank sum) technique was used. This weighting is determined by the degree of importance of the potential use of the area concerned. When weighing the specified criteria for each user, the total weight value is 1 (one), and these given weights form the Coefficient of Conformity. Conformity scores are obtained by adding the results obtained by multiplying the fitness score of an area by the usage pattern and the weight values of these scores.

The compliance score of the plan squares in each land use is found by the following formula. Calculated for each pixel separately. Cumulative fitness score calculated for each factor = Conformity value given to sub-factors for each field use × Coefficient of fitness for the factor determined for each field use. ($UP_n = UD_n \times UK_n$). A four-level potential fitness map was obtained after these operations were performed for the proposed site use. Potential fitness maps provide continuity of these uses, where settlement areas and protected areas exist, while eligibility criteria are established for any use. The detailed form of the factors used in the eligibility criteria is shown in the charts below.

While determining eligibility criteria for recreation areas; land recruitment areas, hydrology and available field use have been investigated (Table 1 and Table 2).

Table 1. Eligibility Criteria for Recreational Areas Connected to the Water in the Study Area

	Compliance Value				Coefficient of Conformity (UK)
	3 (Very suitable) S1	2 (Suitable) S2	1 (Less Suitable) N1	0 (Not Applicable) N2	
Water Based Recreation					
Land Ability Classes	VI-VII-VIII Class	IV-V Class	III Class	I-II Class	0.30
Hydrology	0-250 m	250-500 m	500-750 m	750-1000 m	0.50
Current Area Usage	Recreation Areas	Other Areas	Settlement Areas Industrial Areas Meadow-Pasture Areas	Farming areas Protected Areas	0.20

Within the scope of land capability classes, the eligibility criteria for water-dependent recreational areas are determined; VI-VII-VIII. class 'Very Suitable', IV-V. class facilities 'Suitable', III. class 'Less suitable', I-II. class is classified as 'Not Applicable'. Conformity coefficient is 0.30 weight point. When the hydrological structure is examined, the distance

between the Kızılırmak River and the Yamula Dam is calculated. 0-250 m distance is classified as 'Very Suitable', 250-500 m distance is 'Suitable', 500-750 m distance is 'Less Suitable', and 750-1000 m distance is 'Not Suitable'. The fitness coefficient was 0.50. Regions, where recreation areas are located, are classified as 'Very Suitable', other areas are 'Eligible', residential areas, industrial areas and pasture areas are 'Less Suitable', and areas protected with agricultural areas are classified as 'Not Applicable'. Conformity coefficient was 0.20 weight points.

Table 2. Eligibility Criteria for Off-shore Recreation Areas in the Research Area

	Compliance Value				
	3 (Very suitable) S1	2 (Suitable) S2	1 (Less Suitable) N1	0 (Not Applicable) N2	The coefficient of Conformity (UK)
Land Ability Classes	VI-VII-VIII Class	IV-V Class	III Class	I-II Class	0.30
Hydrology	750-1000 m	500-750 m	250-500 m	0-250 m	0.50
Current Area Usage	Recreation Areas	Other Areas	Settlement Areas Industrial Areas Meadow-Pasture Areas	Farming Areas Protected Areas	0.20

Determination of eligibility criteria for non-water recreation areas; VI-VII-VIII within the scope of land ability classes. Class areas are 'Very Suitable', IV-V. Class areas 'Suitable', III. Class areas 'Less suitable', I-II. Class grounds are classified as 'Unacceptable'. Conformity coefficient is 0.30 weight point. When the hydrological structure is examined, the distance between the Kızılırmak River and the Yamula Dam is calculated. 750-1000 m distance is classified as 'Very Suitable', 500-750 m distance is 'Suitable', 250-500 m distance is 'Less Suitable', and 0-250 m distance is 'Not Applicable'. The fitness coefficient was 0.50. Regions where recreation areas are located are classified as 'Very Suitable', other areas are 'Suitable', settlement areas, industrial areas and meadow-pasture areas are classified as 'Low', and areas protected by agricultural areas are classified as 'Not Applicable'. Conformity coefficient was 0.20 weight points. In all these data, the result is discussed and an optimal usage map is obtained.

3. RESEARCH FINDINGS

Compliance maps have been formed by adhering to the working method for the determination of recreation areas in Kayseri Province Kocasinan District. The recreation

areas of the research area are parks, picnic areas, hobby gardens, fishing areas and picnic areas near Yamula Dam and Anatolia Harikalar Diyarı recreation area. These areas occupy the least space with 180,22 hectares and 0,12%.

3.1. Determination of Potential Suitability for Recreational Areas

As a result of the registration process, 44.53% of the survey area is not suitable for water-related recreation areas, 3.39% is less suitable, 27.83% is suitable, and 13.87% is a very suitable value. Water surfaces and residential areas account for 10.38% of the survey area. As a result of the registration process for non-water recreation areas, 44.53% of the survey area is not suitable, 3.39% is less suitable, 27.83% is suitable, and 13.87% is a very suitable value. The obtained maps are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Figure 2. Recreational Areas Connected to Water Potential Compliance Map

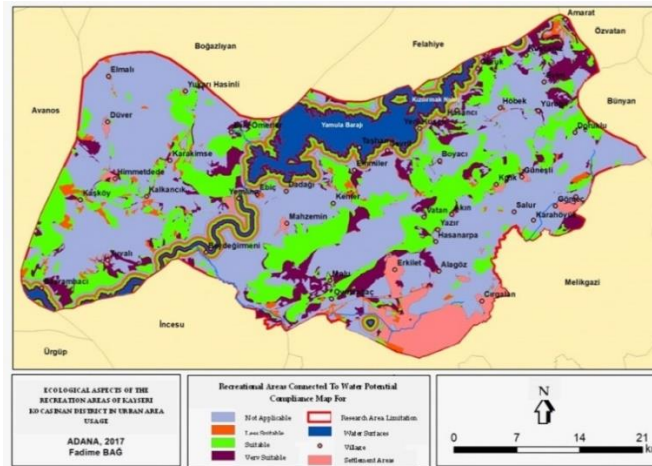
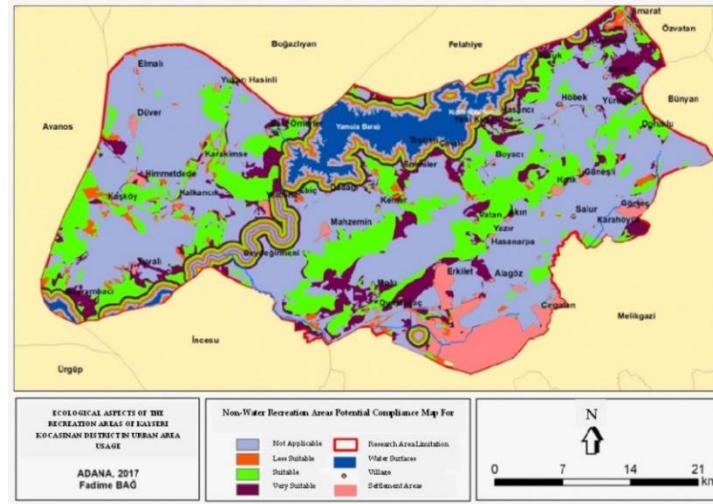


Figure 3. Non-water Recreation Areas Potential Compliance Map



When the potential fitness map in the research area is examined; recreation areas; 15 048,70 area (hectare) and 10,02% ratio (Figure 4.); When the available space usage is examined, it is seen that the recreation areas cover 180,22 hectares and 0,12% (Figure 5).

Figure 4. Potential Compliance Map

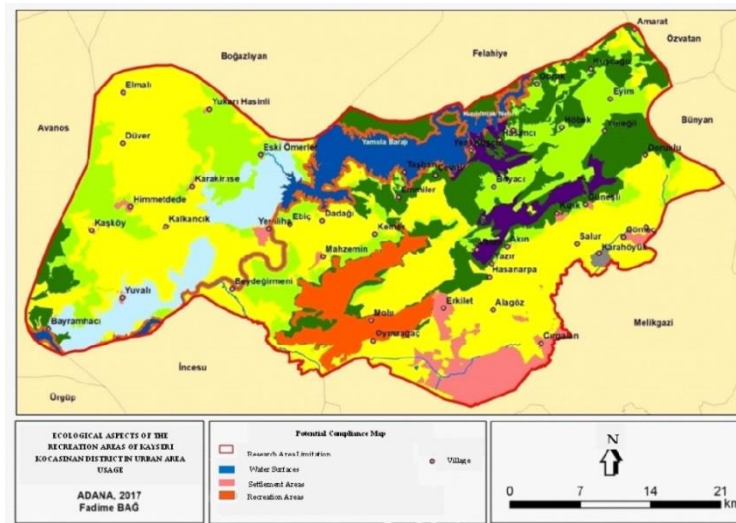
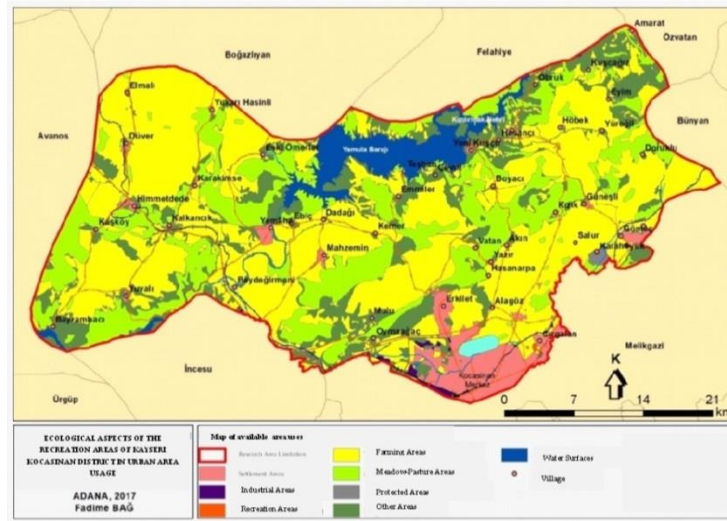


Figure 5. Map of Available Area Uses



4. CONCLUSION

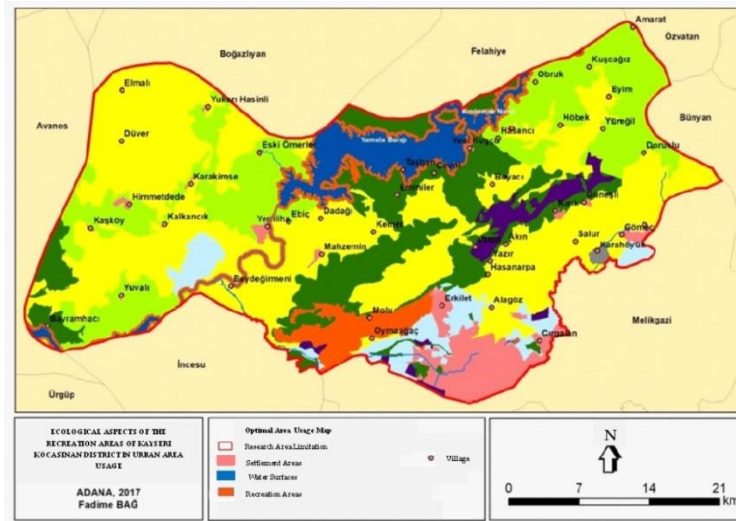
In this study; Kayseri Province Kocasinan District is planned to make use of sustainable land use for recreation areas within the scope of ecological factors. For this purpose, we can synthesise both natural and socio-economic factors together; the planning of the use of the area in which the optimal use of space is ensured by considering the protection-use balance in the planning has been examined.

As the final product of the study, the 'optimal area utilisation map' was established in order to eliminate these contradictions by considering potential appropriateness and current land usage together and contradictions between them (Figure 6). While establishing the optimal land usage map, a potential fitness map created by ecological criteria was taken as a basis, and a sustainable area utilisation plan was tried to be developed considering the socio-economic structure of the research area. The generated optimal land usage map and the obtained results are given in Table 3 and Figure 6.

Table 3. Current Land Uses, Potential Land Uses and Areas and Rates Covered by Optimal Land Usage

Field Usage Type	Current Area Usage		Potential Suitable Field Usage		Optimal Field Usage	
	Field (Hectare)	Rate (%)	Field (Hectare)	Rate (%)	Field (Hectare)	Rate (%)
Recreation Areas	180,22	0,12	15 048,70	10,02	9 052,55	6,03
TOTAL	150 186,63	100,00	150 186,63	100,00	150 186,63	100,00

Figure 6. The optimal area usage map



Recreation areas; covers an area of 9 052.55 hectares and 6.03% on the map of optimal land uses, covers 15 048.70 hectares and 10.02% on the potential fitness map. Recreational lands have been reduced in optimal land uses, which is because potentially suitable recreational areas are allocated to afforestation areas. The following suggestions were made regarding the use of space in all these data.

In the area of research, the surrounding area of Yamula Dam has suitable areas for daily recreational activities and camping. However, landscape design studies and afforestation work have to be improved. Public participation in recreational activities due to cold winter in Kayseri Province is more common in summer and spring. It is thought that it may be useful to arrange the recreation areas to allow activities such as nature walks, bicycle tours and picnic areas. It is also expected that increasing the proportion of hobby gardens in the research area will be beneficial for effective use of recreational areas.

Kocasinan District also has similar problems with the central districts in other provinces. For this reason, planning studies can be done through interdisciplinary studies and taking into account natural factors. Plans should be in harmony with high-level plans such as the Environmental Plan when plans are being made. Thus, the ecological base planning footprint of the area has been established and the obtained data has been corrected by serving the aim of socio-economic structure. These plan decisions are also crucial to the prevention of climate change, an important issue of our time. As a result of the study, ecologically significant results were obtained as well as socio-economic structure. For this reason, the study is likely to lead to the establishment of sustainability-based bases in the identification of new development areas.

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The Potential of İslamköy Traditional Houses for Spatial Use Towards Cultural Tourism

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Abstract

Tourism activities, which have improved in recent years, have increased the tendency of individuals for travelling due to the influence of culture factor. Cultural tourism has become a powerful tool through the reflection of the culture in the architectural environment. Recently, various tourism activities in the Lakes Region in Turkey created a potential for cultural tourism concerning the traditional housing stock, which carries traces of culture in this region. Therefore, the significance of these houses, which demonstrate cultural and spatial interactions, considerably increases and planning attempts are initiated to transfer tourism potentials to future generations.

The present study was conducted with the objective of establishing, in light of cultural tourism, the interior space utilisation potential of the traditional houses of İslamköy, which is a village town in the district of Atabey in Isparta province, located in the Lake District in Turkey. From field studies, observations and interviews with the village residents, we determined that the most suitable areas regarding tourism were the streets around Süleyman Demirel Development and Democracy Museum. A SWOT analysis was done to investigate the viability of the preservation-sustaining strategy for the registered houses located in the determined streets. This analysis was carried out by an expert team that consisted of 13 faculty members participating in the KTU BAP06 project, "Spatial Evaluation of the Traditional Houses: Case of İslamköy", initiated in 2018. The SWOT analysis on the was conducted on the characteristics of traditional texture, which was identified with the assistance of the expert group. According to the findings of the present study, it was concluded that the determination of the spatial characteristics of the traditional houses of İslamköy that carry cultural value, the completion of the building survey drawings for the restoration of the houses, highlighting the advantages and disadvantages associated with the reuse potential of these buildings, and raising the awareness of the property owners were essential.

Keywords: cultural tourism, İslamkoy traditional houses, interior space, spatial use potential

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1. INTRODUCTION

Although there are diversities in tourism activities globally, the number of tourists and tourism revenue continue to increase each year. Besides these diversities, the emergence of different preferences in tourism, which experiences such a rapidly changing process, have become inevitable (Durgun, 2007). Cultural tourism ranks first on the list of these different preferences. Culture tourism is a type of tourism that reflects the lifestyle of the individuals, the history and values of a setting, and provides the necessary sustainability measures for transferring these values to future generations (Gökçe, 2006). Accordingly, the existence of culture alone in a region is not enough by itself but is an important factor in defining the prominence of a region. Turkey is located among the wealthiest countries regarding cultural tourism potential.

Turkey has become one of the focal points of direct tourism activities as a result of its geography, being the centre of different civilizations and the pot of cultural density (Yılmaz, 2008). Also, the interaction between tourists who visit for other tourism activities and cultural tourists is an important potential for cultural tourism (Akkuş, 2015). Similarly, regions that offer interaction of cultures are also assumed to have a potential for cultural tourism. It is thus possible for some factors which have not to effect on general tourism activities to present immense potential for cultural tourism. One of the most significant of these is the cultural spaces. Cultural spaces may be defined as the destination centres for studies on tourism (Gökçe, 2006). Architecture is considered the most significant element of cultural tourism resources. Others include language, traditional handicrafts, festivals, famous people or historical events, traditional food, religious buildings, and architectural style (Swarbrooke, 1999, 306). The architecture may be said to be one of the factors, within the cultural heritage sources, that best expresses cultural tourism potential (Ertaş et al., 2018a). These architectural values bring high significance to the historical settlement areas which are quite many in Turkey. For instance, residential areas with high cultural potential such as Safranbolu and Beypazarı are important settlements that were introduced to cultural tourism over time. İslamköy is also an example of a residential area with existing architectural values and cultural potential.

İslamköy, a village in Atabey district of Isparta province, is located in the region, called the Lake Region, to the north of the Mediterranean Region. Currently, various cultural assets, such as water structures, public buildings and civil architecture exist in İslamköy (Ertaş & Koç, 2018). Cultural assets were identified in order to reveal the tourism potential, and it has found that the traditional houses were the densest and specific constructions (Ertaş et al., 2018b). These traditional houses are highly convenient for cultural tourism, concerning their characteristic texture, the quality of their rooms and their inclusion of both semi-open and open spaces. The present study was conducted using a

SWOT analysis method performed by an expert group in order to reveal the interior spatial use potential of the traditional houses in İslamköy. The SWOT analysis investigated the use of the interior spaces of the houses, which are considered a cultural resource and heritage, with the intention of determining how these houses, which are not yet used for tourism purposes but have potential, could be utilised. Data regarding the possible cultural tourism were revealed through the determination of the interior space use potentials.

1.1. Cultural Tourism Potential of Historical Settlements

Cultural tourism, which is defined as a type of excursion aiming to share and recognize all the tangible and non-tangible cultural heritage products such as natural areas, monumental or civil architectural structures, art products, collections, cultural identities, traditions and different languages (Dedehayır, 2012), also aims to disclose the potentials of the existing settlements, thus, mobilize the dynamics such as economy, preservation activities and information production.

Cultural tourism, which is considered a niche market (Pekin, 2011: 13), is currently regarded as a mass tourism activity according to the World Tourism Organization data. Accordingly, it is estimated that cultural tourism constitutes 37% of all tourism activities and this demand is expected to increase by 15% per year (McKercher and Cros, 2002: 135). Thus, cultural tourism represents an important market segment, with a rapidly increasing demand. In this respect, thoroughly understanding cultural tourism and cultural tourists, and introducing cultural resources to tourism through a planned development based on sustainability principles is of utmost importance (Meydan-Uygur and Baykan, 2007).

According to Wang et al., the aspiration of individuals to visit different and more authentic places leads to an increase in visits to cultural sites (Wang et al., 2006: 49-50). Cultural assets being visited by tourists could provide a wide variety of benefits to the local community and governments. Primarily, the historical, cultural and natural areas become preserved (Huh, 2002: 8). Correspondingly, various countries are taking measures to protect the natural environment. This is because international tourism demand could be increased and sustained only when it depends on the sustainability of environmental assets (Troel et al., 2005: 68). Also, cultural or heritage tourism plays a crucial role both for local communities and the tourists who acknowledge the history and culture of the region (Huh, 2002: 8).

In order to identify the areas with a potential for cultural tourism and to initiate related the relevant development efforts, it is first necessary to define the planning system. One of the most important means to achieve this is creating a social potential by raising the awareness of the individuals (Abacılar, 2008). It also helps when places that possess such culture have economic potential. Pekin asserts the significance of cultural tourism in connection with the abovementioned issue as follows: “cultural tourism is the only means

for a country to gain a real and permanent competitive capacity in economy in general, in tourism industry in particular, to contribute to the local and regional economies and to render the natural, historical and cultural heritage sustainable. In addition, cultural tourism is the most important component in the development of intercultural dialogue, the preservation of natural, historical and cultural heritage, the access to a multicultural atmosphere, the development of cultural consciousness, the transfer of the natural and historical heritage to future generations and the realization of a sustainable economy” (Pekin, 2011: 13).

Matei, who examined the potential for cultural tourism as part of development in rural tourism in the north-eastern part of Romania, indicates that preserving the traditions, culture, gastronomy and the diversity of rural tourism resources constituted a rich and diverse potential (Matei, 2015). Despite the richness of cultural tourism resources in Turkey, which is the cradle of numerous civilisations, the number of incoming cultural tourists and the tourism revenues generated thereupon show that this type of tourism is not yet sufficiently developed. However, it is also a fact that priority should be given to the development of this type of tourism, given its economic and socio-cultural benefits (Meydan-Uygur and Baykan, 2007).

Akkuş and Güneş, in their study that focused on proposals for a sustainable tourism development within the scope of cultural tourism in the Mersin-Aydıncık district, indicated that Turkey had significant destinations and outlined the means to reveal the potential of these areas. Accordingly, the most important step is tied to local ownership and participation of the local administrations. Another important issue was determined as the preparation of a Tourism Master Plan; hence a detailed inventory of the natural and cultural tourism resources could be compiled, tourism potential and transportation capacity could be determined, district-based cultural tourism and other types of special interest tourism could be put forward (Akkuş and Güneş, 2016).

Considering that the visits to these cultural areas and their inherent diversities have recently increased, a supposition could be made that a systematic review and research on the activity opportunities regarding cultural tourism in this region could be beneficial in providing the relevant set of information on cultural tourism. Thus, the spatial, environmental and cultural potentials of these regions could be translated into significant economic, informatics and intellectual gains.

2. METHOD

The present study was conducted to reveal the potential interior space use in traditional houses. Traditional civil, architectural structures that symbolise the characteristics of the city were taken into consideration. In this respect, after the

determination of the objective of the study, a literature review was completed to collect data on the fundamental concepts.

In the study, SWOT analyzis was conducted to determine the capacity of a preservation-sustaining strategy with regard to revealing the potential of the grouped structures in case they should be functionally converted for tourism purposes. The analysis was carried out with an expert team that consisted of 13 faculty members participating in the KTU BAP06 project, "Spatial Evaluation of the Traditional Houses: Case of İslamköy", initiated in 2018. The traditional texture, identified with the assistance of the expert group, were analysed by their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. a SWOT analysis is an important method for identifying the existing problems of the spaces and their adequacy in accommodating the proposed functions and as well as developing suggestions for potential issues. For the analysis, analysis forms were prepared for evaluation criteria for each sub-topics of the SWOT analysis, The forms were prepared based on the outcomes of the seventh semester interior architecture design course "Reuse and Re-functioning with Tourism Purposes in Traditional Settlements" during the 2017 and 2018 academic year; the interviews conducted with the locals and visitors in the area; the information gathered from previous studies for similar settlements; expert opinions; field surveys and on-site observations. The significance value of the evaluation criteria was determined using "Ranking Technique", and the priority values were numerically defined (Yılmaz, 2009; Kılıçaslan et al., 2012). The SWOT factors were scored via a "nine-point scale", the intervals were defined between extremely insignificant and extremely significant. The values 2, 4, 6 and eight were used as mid values, and the sum of effect values and significance values regarding the criteria were ranked based on each criterion (Kılıçaslan et al., 2012).

Based on the findings of the SWOT analysis, the sustainable development created in the tourism potential was defined regarding the unique characteristics of the structures, undergoing a change in function for the intended use, concerning the preservation-sustaining principle.

3. CASE AREA: VICINITIES OF THE SULEYMAN DEMIREL DEVELOPMENT AND DEMOCRACY MUSEUM, İSLAMKÖY

The study area İslamköy is a village town in the Atabey district of Isparta province, located in the Lakes Region (Figure 1). İslamköy has a deep history with ruins that date back to the Roman and Anatolian eras. The remains of two churches dating back to the Roman rule are part of this history (Apaydın, 2017). Besides the Roman ruins, there are various water structures, public buildings and civil, architectural structures. Although the location is said to have had a wealth of religious structures in the past, by several sources in literature, these structures did not reach to the present day (Ertuş & Koç, 2018).

Figure 1: The location of Isparta province and İslamköy



Source: Personal Archive, 2017

Due to its flat geographical morphology, İslamköy is suitable for agriculture and industry (Apaydın, 2017). Besides, there are various architectural structures in the center of the village. The most qualified of these are the examples of civil architecture. In this respect, the traditional houses were observed to generally have two storeys (Figure 2). The ground floor had a courtyard known as “hayat”, “yerden ev” “haney altı”, barn, hayloft, and in the first floor, the sofa, rooms and the main rooms were organized (Apaydın, 2017).

Figure 2: Civil Architecture Examples in İslamköy

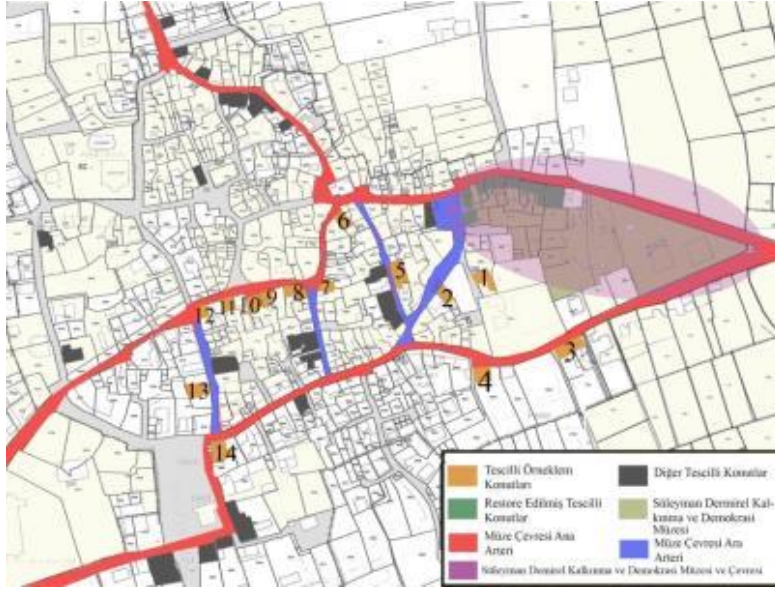


Source: Personal Archive, 2018

There are 41 registered houses in İslamköy. Within the present study, the sample was determined as the 14 registered houses in the most suitable area in terms of tourism, the vicinities of Süleyman Demirel Development and Democracy Museum, based on observations and interviews conducted with the locals (Figure 3). Nine houses in the area were restored for cultural tourism. Therefore, these 9 houses were not included in the study

for being already introduced to tourism. 7 other houses were not accessible, therefore excluded from the scope of the study (Table 1). As a result, 14 houses were taken into consideration.

Figure 3: Layout Plan of the Sample Area



Source: Personal Archive, 2018

4. FINDINGS

The SWOT analysis conducted subsequent to obtaining all abovementioned data helped to determine the functional volume and interior architectural characteristics of the registered case studies. Accordingly, the indoor spatial use potential, in other words the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, depended on the results of the survey conducted with a group of 13 experts. In the surveys, there are the house classifications and the photographs and features of the spaces that affect interior space. The questions were prepared in the light of these information. The results of the SWOT analysis are provided below.

Once the results were evaluated, it was determined that “Open sofas existing in each house” (0.117), “Enabling the utilization of the elements such as kitchen and furnace in the sofa, depending on the given function” (0.117) and “Floor area of the open sofas” (0.114) were the strongest aspects (Table 1).

Table.1. Strong aspects

EVALUATION CRITERIA		Sum of Effect Values	Significance Value (%)
Strengths	The original plan schemes of the houses	81	0.111
	Gardens of the houses	79	0.108
	Open sofas existing in each house	85	0.117
	Floor area of the open sofas	83	0.114
	Integrated use of ground floor spaces with the garden	79	0.108
	Roof extension allowing different spatial use	81	0.111
	The possibility of suggesting independent structures in the garden, depending on the given function	75	0.103
	Enabling the utilisation of the elements such as bathing cubicles and closets in the rooms, depending on the given function	81	0.111
	Enabling the utilisation of the elements such as kitchen and furnace in the sofa, depending on the given function	85	0.117
	TOTAL	729	1.000

The weakest aspects of the sample were determined as “Rooms with small floor area” (0.220), “No wet spaces in the original interior space” (0.216) and “Inadequate daylight in rooms at the front façade” (0.200) (Table 2).

Table.2. Weak aspects

EVALUATION CRITERIA		Sum of Effect Values	Significance Value (%)
Weaknesses	Rooms with a small floor area	85	0.220
	Non-closed open sofa	75	0.195
	Lack of quality of ornaments	65	0.169
	No wet spaces in the original interior space	83	0.216
	Inadequate daylight in rooms at the front facade	77	0.200
	TOTAL	385	1000

The expert group evaluated the criteria, “Houses with different total floor areas for alternative tourism types” (0.177), “Contribution to the promotion of İslamköy” (0.173), and “Advancing restoration in the region through utilizing the potential of the houses with tourism purposes” (0.169) as the most important opportunities (Table 3).

Table.3. Opportunities

EVALUATION CRITERIA		Sum of Effect Values	Significance Value (%)
Opportunities	Houses with different total floor areas for alternative tourism types	85	0.177
	Increasing interest by attributing functions to the spaces based on the use of local products	73	0.153
	Contribution to the promotion of İslamköy	83	0.173
	Advancing restoration in the region by utilising the potential of the houses with tourism purposes	81	0.169
	House gardens with different floor areas suitable for alternative tourism types	77	0.160
	The contribution of exterior, interior space relationship in houses for alternative tourism types	81	0.168
	TOTAL	480	1000

The following criteria, “Several houses are out of usable condition” (0.207), “The original interior elements face the risk of loss” (0.207) and “Building survey drawings do not exist” (0.207) were considered as the most important threats (Table 4).

Table.4. Threats

EVALUATION CRITERIA		Sum of Effect Values	Significance Value (%)
Threats	Several houses are out of usable condition	85	0.207
	The original interior elements face the risk of loss	85	0.207
	Building survey drawings do not exist	85	0.207
	The existence of quality housing in the region that are not registered	79	0.192
	Unawareness of the locals on the potential of the houses	77	0.187
	TOTAL	411	1000

The SWOT analysis conducted with the expert team revealed the strengths and weaknesses and the related opportunities and threats were developed. These determinations based on advantages and disadvantages of the traditional house typology of İslamköy were influential in identifying the potential of the indoor spatial use.

5. CONCLUSION

Isparta, which hosts important cultural assets within the Lakes Region, has great potential hidden in the historical structure of İslamköy. In İslamköy, where public, religious and civil architecture once existed, some of the civil, architectural buildings have survived the wear of history and most have preserved their originality. This study considered İslamköy to have a potential for cultural tourism concerning its stock of traditional housing. By the principle of preservation and sustaining of cultural heritage, the strengths and weaknesses of these traditional houses, which have not yet been introduced to tourism, were evaluated by experts. The presence of residential gardens and the availability of these gardens for reuse and re-functioning when necessary increases the potential of the houses

and helps maintain the cultural heritage through advancing the building survey drawing preparation and restoration work. On the other hand, the houses that do not have building survey drawings, that are not subject to any restoration intervention and several houses that cannot be utilised due to being out of condition constitutes the risks identified by the present study.

As a result, it was established that the traditional houses of Isparta-Islamköy hold an important place regarding cultural heritage for both Isparta and the Lakes Region. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that Islamköy presents a development opportunity in its own culture and lifestyle that could be exploited to advance cultural tourism. On the other hand, due to undeveloped tourism in the region, traditional housing potential is not yet introduced and cannot be facilitated into service by the tourism industry. Through the present study, the important structures in this area were evaluated for their tourism potential, the advantages and disadvantages were revealed, and it was emphasised that the identities of the structures could be preserved and transferred to future generations through tourism activities, once the region becomes an attraction for cultural tourism.

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The Effects of Coastal Buildings on the Coastal Tourism: Coastal Facade Silhouette Studies of Architecture Students (Trabzon Beşirli Coastline)

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Abstract

In coastal cities, natural shorelines are decisive factors in spatial planning of the surrounding area. Natural lines are changing over time, depending on the population growth and intensity of use in recent years. The reshaping of these shorelines, which are changing their natural structures, causes the deterioration of the historic structures and the irregular construction of the coast.

In this study, an application was designed in collaboration with the 3rd year students of the Department of Architecture at the Trabzon Eurasia University, within the context of their '*Convergence in Coastal Areas*' class. In the study, the coastal structures in Trabzon Beşirli were grouped and the facade proposals designed. Students were asked to use wood and stone, which are traditional materials, and to pay attention to the integrated modern appearance of the facades when the coating materials are applied to the building facades. A visual survey study was prepared by over ten student groups which were selected as a different model and application technique from 20 groups. Eighty architectural students were asked to indicate what views they thought to be more effective in organising the facade in the coastal areas. As a result of the survey studies, it was concluded that the facade arrangements regarding colour, material and shape are visually influential in the use of the shore.

Keywords: Coastal, C planning, Sustainable coasts, Coastal areas, Coastal tourism

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1. INTRODUCTION

The semantic achievement of identity by cities is the result of the mutual interaction between their population and activities through the components of natural environment depending on internal and external conditions (Karadağ and Kocaman, 2007). On the other hand, coastal regions greatly contribute to coastal urbanisation by ensuring urban development is given their specific qualities (Breen and Rigby, 1994). When coastal cities are taken into consideration based on the feature of being a coastal area, the reality that coastal zones are used for other purposes including trade and industrial activities increases the rate of transformation to lost areas. In recent years, the rapid rise in the world population and urbanisation has led to intense pressure on ecosystems in the coastal areas leaving the coastlines ecologically exposed to degradation due to abuse by users (Roberts and Hawkings, 1999, Dugan vd., 2008). Coastal areas have created an ecological order on each level of subunits that it consists of. The ecological order has a system resulting from the mutual interaction among living creatures starting from the smallest creatures (microorganisms) to human beings (Karabey, 1978). Ruth and Baklanow (2012), in this regard, have suggested that more attention is paid to the several factors which determine the quality of life in urban areas and are involved in an interaction. A city that wants to be successful must balance its social, economic and environmental needs.

Protecting the natural structure of coastal area does not imply simply overcoming the planning and administrative problems. In this sense, a multi-perspective approach is required to be able to solve the problems correctly in the planning phase. The crucial point in seeking a solution for the administrative problems is the determination of the contributing factors and how they to affect the coastline usage and the natural environment. Serdaroğlu and Yıldırım grouped the problems encountered in the coastal areas into three categories in their studies in 2011; problems arising from urbanisation, those arising from organisational structure and management and those arising from planning and regulations (Table 1).

About the city of Trabzon, new land usages have come into existence as a result of land reclamation, particularly after 2002. However, studies and observations done recently have led to the realisation that the land reclamation process in Trabzon has not been done successfully because the areas generated after the reclamation are disjointed and were not planned under a holistic decision (Mumcu, 2009, Özkan, 2011).

Table1. Problems encountered in coastal areas (Serdaroğlu and Yıldırım, 2011)

<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Problems arising from urbanisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degradation in natural appearance of coastline because of housing purposed structures • Due to existing natural beauties, infrastructure facilities and people's desire to be near the sea, second dwellings progress in parallel to the coastline, while homeowners with a second home bring into connection with the coastline, residents break the connection • Illegal housing appeared on coastal areas becomes legalised as a result of zoning forgiveness law (a development plan law), public properties in the jurisdiction of municipal administrations are assigned for second homes • To demolish productive agricultural lands as a result of second-housing demand, to cause "secret disuse" namely waste of national resources by utilising local resources without bearing the cost (only in the summer months) • Excessive increase in land price because of the demand for land which domestic and foreign tourism stir up, difficulties residents have with housing that will meet their need for shelter, • Concretion and pollution of the coastal zone by hotels and motels which are built to serve as a tourism facility but have no landscape and infrastructure design • Several public institutions build their non-public service plazas and dwelling-houses which only their staff takes advantages of on coastal areas, tourism facilities that must be open to the public are closed to public use using wire fences and walls • Beaches lose a considerable part of their natural appearance because highways usually stretch along the coastline • Unlicensed and unplanned hatcheries cause marine pollution by draining various antibiotics sinking to the bottom in bays
<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Problems caused by Corporate Structure and Governance</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The existence of many authorised institutions in coastal zones, and they do not co-ordinately make decisions and the decisions they make neutralise each other. Confusion of authorisation/task/responsibility concerning the protection of coasts for the public weal • Coastal city administrations cannot find a solution for infrastructure matters and conduct an inspection and planning because of rapid urbanisation and temporarily increasing population on the coastline, • Local governments usually receive help from centralised administration on behalf of settled society and population who arrives in summer is not given financial support in order to meet their needs including infrastructure, superstructure, and transportation services.

Problems arising from planning and regulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ever-changing legislation concerning border and legal gaps in statutory provisions • When examined closely, legislation concerning border has de facto principles as well as includes no particular conditions, offers no solution for local configuration and architecture • Coastal planning problems are today encountered on the shoreline in the strict sense. The absence of efficient planning in the area found between coast - shore edge line - coast line K • Seeking for solutions using acquired rights, partial housing, zoning forgiveness, incentives and some institutions, loss of a large area that will be able to be utilised for the benefit of society as a result of structuring • planning system concerning the coastal zone is not competitive, speculative, flexible and does not work up a connection between social, economic and environmental structure
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2. SHOREFRONT SILHOUETTES

Today, in modern cities, urban identity has been emphasised by newly-built structures and their facades that are the most important section of a building. When considered schematically, facades are the most critical components in developing the physical appearance identity of the environment where they exist due to being the exposed face of buildings (Aydın, 2010). Social, cultural, geographic and climatic factors are the basics of architectural design in the process of building design (Aluçlu, 2000). Today mass housing projects have stayed on the scheme and got a negative identity. Most mass housing projects that have been conducted so far have prioritised functionality and utilitarianism without considering whether they meet the individual's physical needs (Akar, Başkaya, 2005).

Particularly as a consequence of urbanisation process, buildings have become essential actors of modern city centres. For this reason, facades contain geometric and attributive information relating to various fields. Among these facades, one could find different aesthetical designs as well as commercial notices and advertisement. Beside this, individual's value judgments and favours play an essential role in forming the structural environment in cities and so does the cultural structure of society by social lifestyle and morals (Aydın, 2013).

The aesthetic is the essential factor that increases visual effects. The aesthetic is a design feature. The "balance" concept can be used for functional features of the structure as well as the aesthetic evaluation of design. In a city design, equilibrium of buildings is related to aesthetic appearance. That is, an evenly distributed density is desirable. Aesthetic evaluation is parallel to functional evaluation, and it is assumed that the good one is also beneficial (Enön, 1992).

A ratio is defined as a complement of mathematical relationships that are calculated between dimensions of configuration or place (Ching, 2002). Width/length ratio of street and building height/street width ratio is important for street life and use. Protectiveness and

restrictiveness of street come to a full stop due to misapplying these ratios (Yıldız, Öztürk Kerestecioğlu, 2011). Colour is considered one of the restrictive elements to the acquisition of different quality by the streets. Other factors are a vacancy, occupancy rate, and construction material. The data concerning structural plans have a role in making space enriched, attractive and interesting (Giritlioğlu, 1991). Two basic characteristics are used to define visual features; The first one is visual configuration elements like shape, colour and texture which are visual features of objects. The second one is features of these elements. The shape is related to visual mass, colour to value, magnitude and texture to observed surface roughness. The visibility of the identified configuration elements varies depending on distance. From a distance, big objects are singly seen formally. Therefore, a remote city may be perceived as a rough surface. Moreover, distance also decreases colour clarity (Özgüç, 1999).

3. SELECTION OF FACADE MATERIALS

When the residential culture in Anatolia is analysed, it is seen that wooden and stone structural culture plays a great role. When considered traditionally and culturally, Eastern Black Sea Houses consist of stone-wall groundwork and generally one or two wooden floors on it (Gür, Batur, 2000). In the present study, students were asked to modernise coastal facade silhouettes by using wood and stone as façade materials.

Due to its unique advantages, wood is one of the most favourite construction materials (Sayar vs. 2009). Apart from wood, stone, known as one of the earliest construction materials, has also been used as a construction material by being shaped or dressed through human history. Stone materials can be utilised as sustainable construction materials owing to being durable by nature, environment-friendly during the process of production and application and recyclable (Aydın, Lakot Alemdağ, 2015).

4. MATERIAL AND METHOD

4.1. Material

This study was conducted as an as part of coursework in the *Settlement on Coastal Zones* class, a sixth-term elective course at the Department of Architecture of Trabzon Eurasian University. In the study, coastal structures along Trabzon Besirli seaside were categorised and design proposals for facades suggested. The field of study is presented in Figure 1.

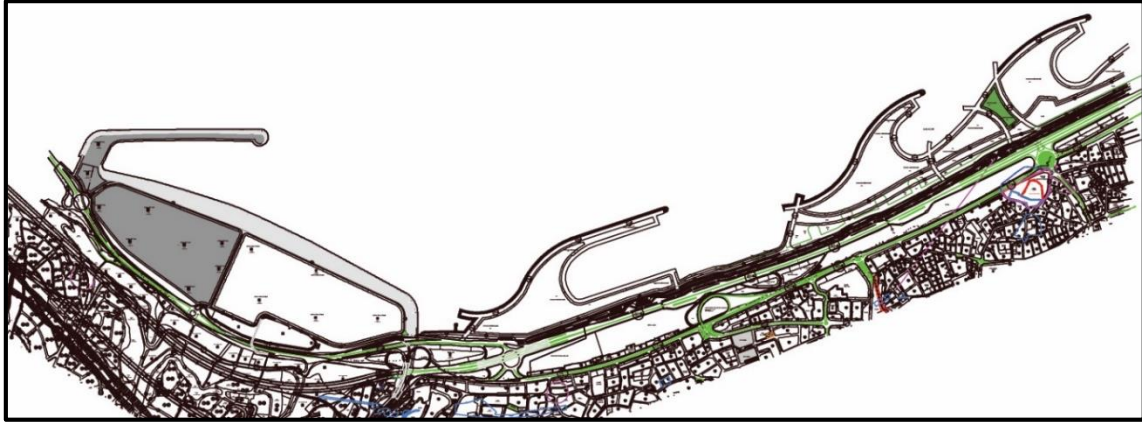


Figure 1. Trabzon Coastal Line

The students were asked to use indigenous wooden and stone materials and also pay attention to modern views of facades integrated with coastline during application of coating materials to the building facades. A visual questionnaire study was prepared based on ten student groups who preferred a different model and application technique out of 20 groups categorised by land parcels.

4.2. Method

Seventy-eight students who were enrolled to the *Settlement on Coastal Zone* class were grouped, and 10 group studies were taken under review. Eighty architecture students were asked to declare which ones of the images they thought would be more influential if they were designed to be the facade on coastal zones. The students who participated in the survey were randomly selected from among the first, second, third and fourth year students of the Architecture Department. Percentage of the survey questions was calculated according to the frequency value of data through the instrument of SPSS Statistics 24.

5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Eighty students who participated in the survey were randomly selected from among four different class groups at Architecture Department of Eurasian University. The distribution of the participants by grade and gender is shown in Table 2 and 3.

Table 2. Distribution of the Participant Students by Grade

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.class	20	25,0	25,0	25,0
	2.class	11	13,8	13,8	38,8
	3.class	16	20,0	20,0	58,8
	4.class	33	41,3	41,3	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

Table 3. Distribution of the Participant Students by Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	31	38,8	38,8	38,8
	Male	49	61,3	61,3	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

The students were initially asked to declare their opinions about Trabzon Coastline Facade Silhouette, and then the facades were grouped as either ordinary or aesthetic. Without gender and grade distinction, 80 of the participant students all found Trabzon Coastline Facade Plans as ordinary. Today mass housing settlements that appeared as a result of reutilisation have stayed on the scheme and have a negative identity. The solutions have not included cultural continuity because function and technology have taken precedence in mass housing settlements (Akar, Başkaya, 2005). In reply to the question “if it were you, what would you preferably pay attention to regarding facade plans”, they said they would attach importance to texture, colour, domination, material, similarity and size respectively. Table 4 illustrates the distribution by grade.

Table 4. Factors Which Must Be Primarily Taken into Consideration regarding Trabzon Coastline Facades

		emphasis	texture	colour	material	similarity	size	
class	1.class	4	8	4	3	1	0	20
	2.class	0	5	3	2	1	0	11
	3.class	3	1	3	4	2	3	16
	4.class	9	10	7	4	2	1	33
Total		16	24	17	13	6	4	80

On the understanding that architecture students know material and construction, they were asked about the construction materials which could be used for facades. The students were initially asked to make two selections from among the proposed materials. The first selection by the students was wooden material and the second one was stone according to the survey results (Table 5, Table 6). The survey revealed that the students wanted to use natural materials more.

Table5. The First Priority Coating Material Selected by the Students for Facades

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	wood	49	61,3	61,3	61,3
	stone	22	27,5	27,5	88,8
	steal	3	3,8	3,8	92,5

	composite	5	6,3	6,3	98,8
	facade paint	1	1,3	1,3	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

Table 6. The second priority coating material selected by the students for facades

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	woos	23	28,8	28,8	28,8
	stone	48	60,0	60,0	88,8
	steal	3	3,8	3,8	92,5
	composite	4	5,0	5,0	97,5
	sheathing	2	2,5	2,5	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

Application studies conducted as part of the *Settlements on Coastal Zones* class, a sixth-term elective course at Architecture Department of Eurasian University were visually demonstrated. According to the replies by the students to the survey questions, utilisation of wood and stone seemed to be primary, and the students were also informed that wood and stone were predominantly utilised in these studies (Figure 2).

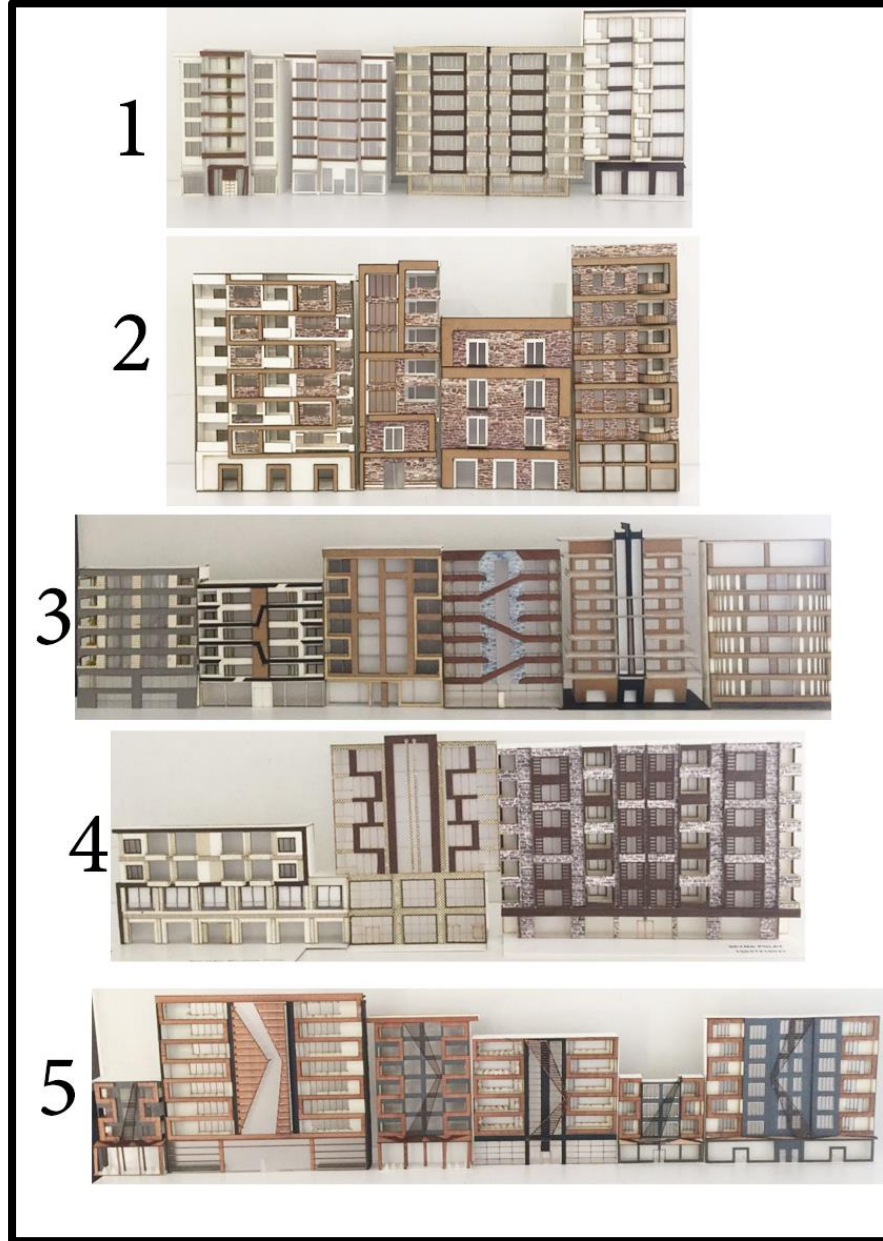


Figure 2. ten different coastal area facade application student studies

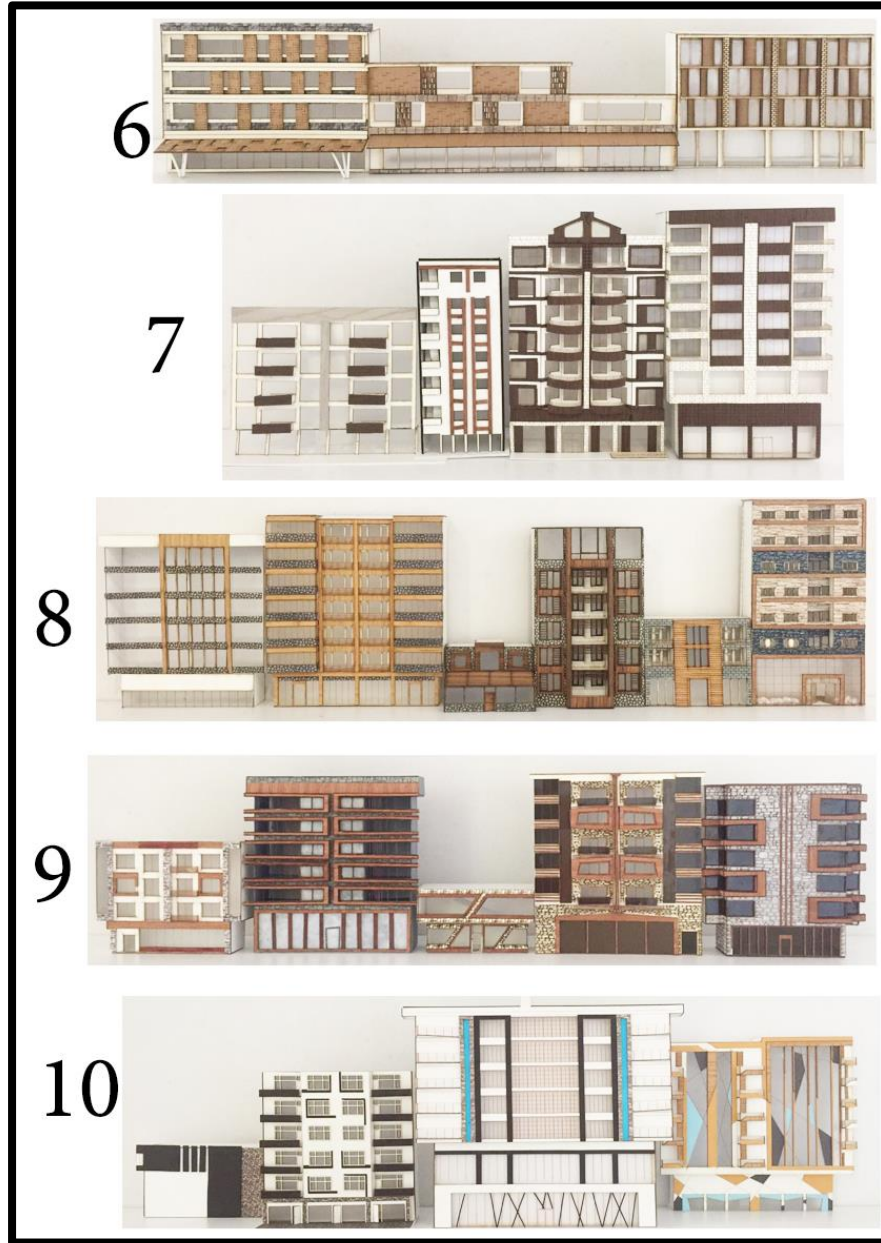


Figure 2 continued. 10 different coastal area facade application student studies

The students were asked to declare one they liked from among ten different images and explain the reason for their preference. The students mainly liked the sixth and ninth images. The third, fourth and tenth were the least preferred (Table 7). The images being liked were the designs which were compatible with each other and contained the more modern line.

Table 7. Distribution of Preferences of 10 Different Facade Recommendation Models
According to Students

		1.pic.	2.pic.	3. pic.	4. pic.	5.pic.	6.pic.	7.pic.	8.pic.	9.pic	10.pic	
class	1.class	0	1	1	1	1	8	0	3	4	1	20
	2.class	1	2	0	0	0	2	1	3	2	0	11
	3.class	1	0	0	1	1	5	1	2	5	0	16
	4.class	4	3	0	1	2	8	2	5	6	2	33
Total		6	6	1	3	4	23	4	13	17	3	80

The students liked the utilisation of wood and stone for their most favourable facade application due to the aesthetic formation (Table 8).

Table 8. Reasons for Preference of Facade

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Naturel view	17	21,3	21,3	21,3
	Modern view	5	6,3	6,3	27,5
	Aesthetic formation	48	60,0	60,0	87,5
	Traditional view	9	11,3	11,3	98,8
	Extraordinary	1	1,3	1,3	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

The students were finally asked what they would attach more importance to if they carried out a facade application on a coastal zone. In reply to the question, %38.8 of the students said historical and cultural texture and %32.5 said climatic change (Table 9).

Table 9. Factors to Which Architecture Students Primarily Attach Importance for Coastal Facade Applications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Climatic change	26	32,5	32,5	32,5
	Natural silhouette	15	18,8	18,8	51,3
	Historical and cultural texture	31	38,8	38,8	90,0
	Modern appearance	2	2,5	2,5	92,5
	Material quality and texture	2	2,5	2,5	95,0
	Façade design	4	5,0	5,0	100,0
	Total	80	100,0	100,0	

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In architectural studies, colour/ texture alternatives must be taken into consideration, but aesthetic must be prioritised. For coastal facade plans, climatic data must be initially analysed. Attention must be paid to the historical protection texture and how to assure the growth of social, psychological and structural environment. Preventive precautions against visual pollution must be taken while plannings are being done. In the present study conducted together with the architecture students of Eurasian University, we examined the visual preference of the coastal facade silhouettes today. The students suggested that aesthetic appearance has the highest priority and preferred traditional construction materials. The natural wood and stone construction materials are the ones that reflect traditionalism much more. The study has shown that the students took notice of monotony and mostly preferred models in which wooden and stone materials are utilised aesthetically in a balanced manner. Moreover, the study concluded that climatic changes must be initially analysed while carrying out facade designs. Also, projects which could modernise and reflect the cultural and historical aspects of a city were favoured more by the students, which means that students who have had architectural education will be able to continue their profession. This study on pre-analysable visual is expected to be a resource for further planning decisions and increase the architectural quality of visual evaluation in the field of education.

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Interior Spaces that Change with Cultural Tourism: The Case of Sille Museum

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Abstract

One of the most effective ways of creating livable spaces is to change/transform the physical environment. Alternative tourism activities also arise from this transformation. Tourism is a journey that provides many needs such as resting and travelling. However, there are many types of tourists and demands. Cultural tourism is among these alternatives. In order to respond to all these needs and desires, several different interior spaces are changing and acquiring a new function. In other words, culture tourism affects and changes interior spaces. This study evaluates the effects of indoor studies regarding exchange and impact on regional tourism about cultural tourism. The study includes the sections of literature review, fieldwork, photographic documentation and evaluation of previous studies. In the scope of the study, the Sille Museum was examined. The Sille Museum has assumed different functions in different periods during its lifespan. The city of Konya in Turkey has hosted many civilisations throughout history due to its location and historical heritage. Today, the building that is used as Sille Museum has been used for different functions, such as a school and a cultural centre. The building, which still serves as a museum, earned this function in 2010 with the purpose of improving tourism. This function was designed based on a new conservation development plan. In this context, the function and functional changes in the tourism of the Sille Museum are examined from the past to the present. In this context, the museum's location, area in square meters and domain situation have sped up this change. It has been revealed that the historical building has undergone a sustainable change regarding interior space. As a result of the study, the acceleration of cultural tourism is discussed as a case study. Although the structure has previously changed its function before being a tourism centre, it may be stated that the change that has been experienced under the tourism period is possible with the functions that provide it. It is believed that the processes experienced may provide ideas to similar examples.

Keywords: Culture tourism, Recycling, Spatial change, Sille

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1. INTRODUCTION

Advanced technology and increased needs have led to an increase in tourism needs and directed people towards alternative types of tourism. There are various views on the reasons for the emergence of alternative tourism. These reasons may include diminishing and deteriorating resources, the emergence of the sustainable tourism approach, development of the approach of spreading tourism along the entire year, consumers' boredom from the conventional approach on tourism and different expectations, and creation of different excitement opportunities and holidays (Uygur and Baykan 2007). One of the common objectives in the development plans of all types of alternative tourism is creating opportunities for the region and the local people (Bahçe, 2009). At the end of the 20th century, tourism had turned into a phenomenon that is social, culturally and economically significant. While only its economic contribution was prominent previously, its ecological, social and cultural qualities have also become important today, as they create resources for tourism (Aklanoğlu, 2010). Especially after the WWII, tourism became one of the sectors that grew the fastest globally through increased opportunities of accommodation, transportation, comfort and education, development of a new middle class, and developments in tourism infrastructures. With its natural beauties and historical heritage, Turkey has become one of the significant tourist attraction centres in the world. While marine tourism, yacht tourism, and entertainment tourism are prominent especially in the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts, culture tourism, sports tourism, faith tourism, conference tourism, winter tourism, eco-tourism, specialty tourism, health tourism, tableland tourism, mountain tourism and nature-adventure tourism have also developed in recent years (Aydın, 2018). Turkey's geographical location and the fact that it is a centre several civilisations have used so far have led Turkey to become a country that is rich in historical, natural, social and cultural aspects, and Turkey has become a centre for culture tourism due to this richness (Aklanoğlu, 2010). Tourism, which is one of the fastest-developing phenomena in the world, has become an important sector today. Because of this, all countries in the world, in general, have competed with having a bigger slice of the economic pie that is provided by international tourism. Since the last quarter of the 20th century, as a result of the maturation and saturation of the tourism sector, a search for new markets has begun, and consequently, various types of tourism have emerged. These types of tourism are speciality tourism, adventure tourism and culture tourism. Among these, cultural tourism has been one of the fastest-developing types of tourism (Günel, 2005). The contributions of the tourism sector in the national economy constitute a known fact. These are contributions on the balance of payments, employment and regional development. Tourism activities not only provide countries with opportunities to utilise their beautiful natural environments but also lead to more employment and equal distribution of income by usage of values that are otherwise idle or unusable (Öztürk and Yazıcıoğlu 2002).

The most important difference that separates culture tourism from others is that it has a learning function. Culture covers the elements humans think of (attitudes, beliefs,

ideas and values), do (behaviours and lifestyles) and form (artworks, handicrafts, other cultural products). Thus, culture reveals processes (thoughts and lifestyles of people) and the products resulting from these processes (buildings, art and traditions). So, culture tourism is based not only on visiting spaces and monuments of past cultures but also on the lifestyles of people in a region or a country (Richard, 2001; Aklanoğlu, 2010). The culture and cultural assets of all nations are very valuable. Such a value becomes sustainable only if it is preserved and well-managed. In this sense, it is important to present and protect museums and historical spaces (Samidi, 2001; Uygur and Baykan, 2007). The historical and cultural attractions of cities have unique values. It is believed that these historical and cultural attractions in the ever-changing tourism industry have significant contributions to the destination in the economic sense (Atsız and Kızıllırmak, 2017). During a process of project development based on culture, it is not easy to protect the culture, cultural elements and the natural resources that provide an infrastructure for the culture. Touristic development is firstly taken on in the economic sense by administrators, entrepreneurs and the public. Objectives such as natural, social and cultural protection and development are held back. Considering that international tourism movements are ongoing increasingly every year, the type of tourism that requires the least amount of sensitivity for development is culture tourism. Here, culture is the past, the present and the future of a society that is opened for tourism; in short, it is the identity of a society. If the necessary precautions are not taken, this identity has a high potential to be harmed (Bahçe 2009). Several examples may be provided for cultural tourism in Turkey. These examples especially include Mardin-Midyat, Ankara-Beyazıt, Karabük-Safranbolu, Bursa-Cumalıkızık and Konya-Sille.

In these regions, while roads and architectural characters change with tourism, interior spaces also change and gain different functions. This change brought along due to acquisition also changes the relationship between the person and space. Thus, space is an entity that is loaded with various meanings and a soul which may change in parallel to the change in the society. Harvey, who argued that a space is not only an ontological category but also a dimension that shapes the person and is shaped by the person, explained this issue as the following: "Spatial forms should not be considered to be inanimate objects where social processes take place, but they should be considered to be things that 'contain' social processes in the same way as the spatial nature of these processes" (Yıldız and Alaeddinoğlu 2011). This study investigated the Sille Museum located in the historical location of Sille and was subjected to different functions in different periods. Within this context, it investigated the functions of the museum that took place in the past and its functional transformation with tourism. As a result of the study, acceleration of cultural tourism and its effects on buildings were discussed over the structure that is now being used as the "Sille Museum". In this process, although the structure also changed functions before tourism, the change it has experienced due to tourism gained comprehensiveness with its new function that feeds it.

2. THE EFFECTS OF TOURISM ON CULTURAL INVENTORIES

The most important ones of the positive effects of tourism on cultural assets are economic effects such as increasing quality of life and creating new job opportunities. Economic development brings sociocultural development. Increased social awareness of the local people leads to increases in investments in preservation. The economic gain obtained with culture tourism would provide the financial support needed to preserve the cultural heritage. Expenditures that are made towards protecting the environment and cultural heritage lead to positive economic developments in the long-run. Therefore, culture tourism and cultural heritage are two phenomena that need each other regarding sustainability and economic development (Akgül, 2003, Uygur and Baykan 2007). Tourism promotes arrangements that will maintain old structures with their new identities. In a sense, it plays an effective role in endowing old buildings with a modern look without losing their values. This way, their attractiveness is also increased (Kousis, 2000). Visitation of cultural assets by tourists may provide a very diverse set of benefits to the local people and governments. Firstly, historical, cultural and natural areas are kept under protection this way.

Moreover, culture and heritage tourism play a highly important role in terms of acquisition of knowledge on the history and culture of the region by both the local people and tourists (Huh, 2002; Uygur and Baykan, 2007). In general, functional change refers to the formation of new usage opportunities that include interventions that will serve spatial needs by protecting the architectural, aesthetical, social and cultural values of historical structures and in a way that will meet user needs. Functional change in historical structures is a modern protection approach. This protection approach saves structures that are left unused or cannot meet the needs of the era or their users from extinction, creates new opportunities of usage for structures in unusable states that correspond to the spatial and structural characteristics of these structures, and therefore, ensures the historical structures continue to exist and participate in urban life. In other words, functional change is a tool for leading the historical values that facilitate the society's interaction with its past to come back to life (Gazi and Boduroğlu 2015). The reasons for the inability of historical structures to sustain their functions was summarized as that they have lost their unique functions and have got old in the functional sense (Altınoluk 1998; Aydın and Şahin, 2018). Hence, the connection between tourism and spatial functions is highly important. The contributions of structures, which gain function by tourism decisions, on especially the city and the country are undeniably abundant.

3. MATERIAL and METHOD

The main material of the study was the Sille Museum that is located in the Sille neighbourhood in the province of Konya - Turkey (Figure 1). While Sille had been an independent municipality until the 1980s, it became a neighbourhood under the district of Selçuklu after 1989 (Erdem et al., 2010). The museum, which is located in the Sille neighbourhood that has a history of 5000 years, has reached from the past to the present with different functions such as a school building and a cultural centre. The building which still serves as a museum obtained this function in 2010 with the effects of tourism. This

function was conceptualised as a project based on the new protection-based master plan. The study followed a method involving on-site observation photography, literature review and review of previous studies on the building.

Figure 1: Study Area



Source: Google Maps, 2018

4. FINDINGS

The Sille Museum, which was investigated within the scope of this study, was previously used in different functions such as a school building (1941), a town hall and a cultural centre (2004). There were no available documents regarding which restorations were made in the period where it was used as a town hall or its state in that period. The slowly increasing interest, though not as much as the previous times, with the protection-based master plan (KAİP) that was approved in 2001, promotion of the phenomenon of tourism and the positive process that was experienced in the practice of protection (after 2004) led to a mobilization in Sille (Erdem et al., 2010). After this master plan, the cultural centre was restored, and it still serves as the Sille Museum today (Figure 3) (Figure 5). The spatial differences that have come along functional change show themselves with some activities in the interior space. With the restoration work carried out on the structure, which experienced transformation in various aspects in its transition from a cultural centre (Figure 4) to the Sille Museum, spatial changes occurred. When it was a cultural centre, it took on functions such as exhibitions, displays, folk dances, whirling dervish show stage and resting space in the basement floor yard of the building, and tile-ceramic exhibition area, handicrafts studio and rug- and carpet-making studio in the entrance. On the first floor, it included functions as a kitchen, meeting-conference room, attendant room, guest room, exhibition areas, floor cover, and sitting and resting areas (Figure 4).

Figure 2: The Schema of the Building's Changing Functions



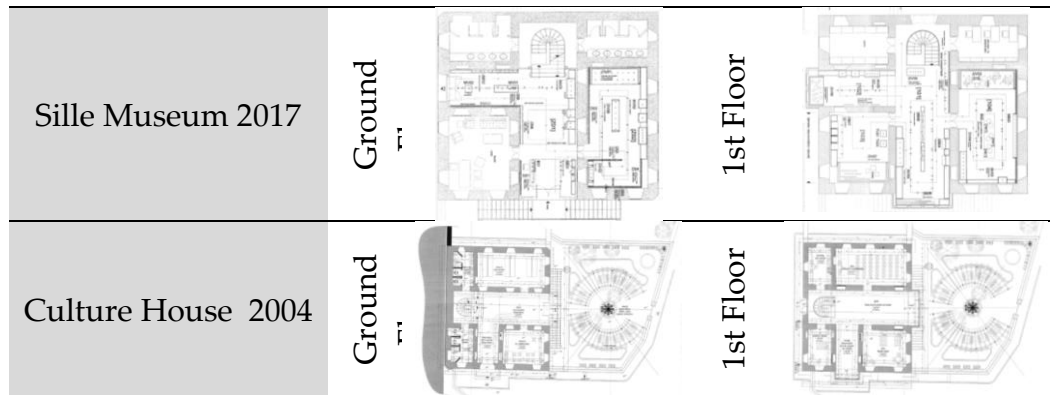
Source: Google Map, 2018

Figure 3. The Sille Museum which functions varying based on periods



Source: Erdal Zeki Tomar archive, 2018

Figure 4. The Silile Museum and Cultural Center



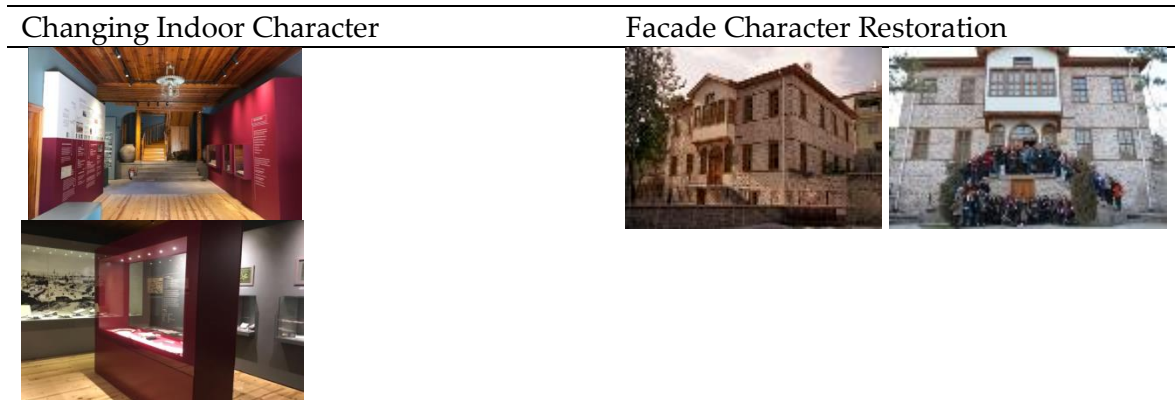
Source: Erdal Zeki Tomar archive, 2018

The structure, which served several different functions, turned towards the function of the Silile Museum as tourism developed (Figure 5). This process has had highly abundant contributions to the district regarding both tourism and other parameters. These contributions differ based on different professional disciplines and parameters. Nevertheless, in the scope of this study, the relationships of the contributions that are related to tourism were investigated, and consequently, the contributions of the museum may be listed as the following;

- The museum has economic effects such as increasing the living standards of the area and creating new job opportunities.
- It is an attraction point for domestic and international tourists.
- It is among the memory spaces of the Silile neighbourhood, as well as being among the recreational locations in both the city and the country.
- It facilitates economic and sociocultural development.
- It accelerates tourism.
- It increases the interest in and awareness on tourism by the local people.
- The economic gain obtained with tourism contributes to the financial support that is needed to protect the cultural heritage.

- It provides contributions to the city within the trinity of cultural tourism, cultural heritage and sustainability.
- It increases the tourism potential of the city and the district.
- It revives the traditional culture and provides direct advantages in increasing income. The revived traditional culture helps transfer history to future generations.
- It helps to increase the demand for domestic and international tourism. It helps the continuation of this demand and the continued existence of environmental values.

Figure 5. The Silile Museum with Its New Function



Source: Erdal Zeki Tomar and Şebnem Ertaş archive, 2018

5. CONCLUSION

Tourism is a social phenomenon that has existed throughout the entire history of humanity with various names and in various forms. Initially, tourism emerged with essential travel practices, while it started to change in time. Considering the historical buildings that have undergone functional change, successful outcomes have been achieved in these buildings. As we saw in the case of the Silile Museum, when the right function is provided to examples of civil architecture, losses are prevented by facilitating the recycling of the unique setup and architectural elements of the historical building. This building's involvement in several different functions brought about its destruction and transformation of its unique qualities. This showed that the historical building had to turn into one of the functions that were required in the area in order to sustain its life and keep it available for future generations.

Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that the most important factor in functional transformation is the suitability of the function for the building. Hence, before providing

historical buildings with a new function, one should foresee a usage that is suitable for the qualities that the building has and will not disrupt the unique perception of the structure. As seen in the case of the Silile Museum, the sufficient volume of a building which was constructed as a school and its transformation as a restoration process has provided an opportunity for the formation of a setup that is suitable for its original form and creation of new functional conditions with qualified additions. The architectural characteristics of the building have become more pronounced via functional change. While the Silile Museum is an example that was examined in this study, these issues are common for almost all buildings. When the compatibility between the architectural character and the function is correctly ensured, this transformation affects the city positively and feeds the tourism sector. In this sense, the goal should be finding the most suitable function for the unique character of the target building. Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that, if the purpose is to protect the historical heritage, the best tool is "repurposing". Repurposing allows transferring historical buildings and areas to future generations, accelerating tourism, achieving physical and cultural continuity and facilitating the contributions of areas to the economic and cultural environment by reusing them.

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Analysis of the Tourist Presence and Movements Using Cell Phone Data and Geomatics

Salvatore Amaduzzi¹

Abstract

The Big Data phenomenon has left research laboratories and has become a central topic in the innovation debate.

The project that the geomatics lab of the University of Udine is developing aims at the reconstruction of the dynamics of complex systems such as cities, tourist destinations, transport systems, ... using anonymous and aggregated data acquired from telephone operators and social networks with ad hoc mathematical/statistical models.

The questions you can address are of the type:

- How many tourists/people are present in a place at a certain time?
- Where do they come from?
- Where will they go?
- What is the average stay?
- Which places do they visit?
- Where do those arrive yesterday with a certain flight?
- How do behaviours change according to origin?
- How is the territory/event perceived?
- What are they discussing on social media?
- ...

The data supporting these analyses are of two types:

- presence in space and time, from cell phone operators
- tweets and data posted on social media

All the data are geocoded so the GIS is the most indicated tool for the analysis.

We have here two case studies, one regarding the analysis of a summer rainy day in Grado seaside resort and the second regarding the origin, presences and movements of people in Udine Friuli DOC event.

Keywords: Big Data, GIS, Cell phone data, Presence data, OD matrix

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1. INTRODUCTION

Analysing and understanding the movements of humans within a geographical area (city, territory, country, ...) is crucial in various situations such as urban planning, public transport, planning and management of an event, emergency management, marketing strategies, etc. With the rapid development of web 2.0 applications, people publish messages and multimedia information on their daily lives, share opinions and emotions online.

Social media cover a wide variety of topics, from simple information on events and products to more complex issues related to finance, culture, politics, religion, food, epidemics, famines, etc. Twitter is one of the most popular tools of the social network. Every day about 150 million active users publish over 500 million tweets. The speed and ease of publication have made Twitter an important means of communication for people regardless of the social class they belong to. Twitter is used to share information and reports on damage to populations during major natural disasters, as well as to provide information on leisure or work travel.

An additional source of information for studying movements and behaviour are the data collected by the cell phone network. These data accurately represent human mobility. Roaming ensures that a wireless device travelling is connected to a network. Cell phone data is also very relevant for mobility and transport statistics. The study of the incoming and outgoing tourist dynamics, the number of trips, the number of days and nights spent, the number of unique visitors, the country of residence, the main destination, the secondary destination, the transits, the repeated visits, ...

Some of the analysis made using cellular data are tourist applications and event monitoring: Mobile Landscapes: Graz in real time, directed by C. Ratti, A. Shevtsuk and other; MIT & Ratti Associates Real Time Rome, conducted from MIT to study a Madonna concert in Rome and the Milan football matches analysed by the Fraunhofer Institute in 2008.

In this contribution we describe the process of acquisition and structuring of the database and the results of the first elaborations that we have prepared to understand the potentiality of this information.

2. DATA DESCRIPTION

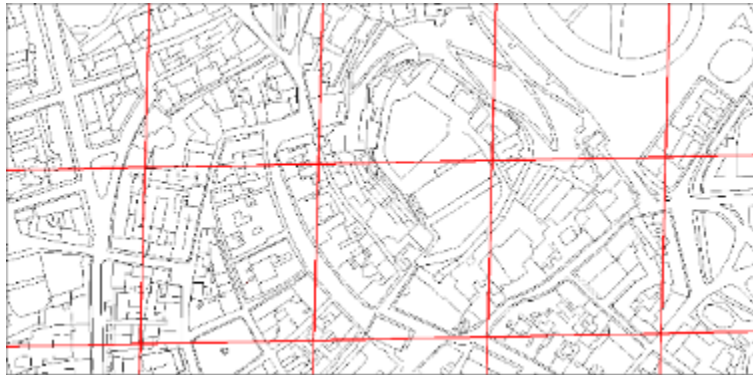
During this first phase of the project, we had the confirmation if any were needed, of what is the fundamental difference between data and information. We have acquired and are continuously acquiring a stream of data that we have to organise and from which we need to extract information. We experienced how often the simplicity in the definition and management of information is inversely proportional to the amount of data available.

Below we describe the data that were used for these analyses.

2.1. Cell Phone Data

The cell phone operators can provide the number of people present within a cell of 150x150 meters. The data is available every 15 minutes with the origin information. In addition to the presence data, the OD (Origin-Destination) matrix is also available to analyse the movement of people platoons pre-defining the date of presence at the origin and the time of presence in the destinations.

Figure 1: sample of the 150x150 metres cells maps



2.2. Social Network Data

From social networks, in addition to location/presence information, further information can be acquired. In particular, the text and therefore sentiment in the case of Twitter, photos and multimedia information posted by users in Flickr and Instagram,...

We'll speak later about Twitter; the next design step will be to use images to be able to recognize

- places, there are applications that can compare an image loaded with images on the web to automatically recognize the place where a photo was taken
- situations, if the photo of an open-air landfill is loaded with the associated text *it's a mess*, it is possible to automatically recognize the type of situation and understand from the text whether the comment is negative or not.

To the analysis of presence, we will, in the future, add those, much more complex, of images and sentiments.

2.3. Twitter Data

As part of this project, we used the Twitter API (<https://dev.twitter.com/streaming/overview>) to download and organise a tweet database. The connection with Twitter makes all the tweets posted on the platform available in real time. Considering that there are about 5,000 per second, one can easily imagine that, if not properly filtered, the Data Base on which they will be saved will grow rapidly. For this

reason, an application was developed to pre-filter and download to the local DB, only the tweets that correspond to the filters set. The DB that we created is about 270,000 records that correspond to the geo-referenced tweets posted in a year by foreign visitors while in Friuli Venezia Giulia.

3. USED TOOLS

The definition of the sources and suppliers of information and the preparation of the automatic methods of integration with the related portals have been the first step of the project. So, we focused on the choice of IT tools for storing, organising and retrieving data in order to have adequate response times.

It is evident that the amount of data to be organised and analysed quickly would have assumed huge dimension so that the issue of data management is a fundamental theme in these projects. We decided that it is necessary to develop a WebGIS platform that makes available a user-friendly interface to the different types of users in order to allow them to represent and analyse the information available.

3.1. Tweet Download and Analysis

The first application developed is designed to download data from Twitter. Upon activation, the application allows the insertion of the parameters which will be used as a filter and, connecting to Twitter, downloads in real time all the tweets that are compliant with the inserted parameters. The interface allows you to enter search keys for all the attributes available in the API that are:

- the text of the tweet
- language used
- coordinates
- date and time
- country of origin
- alias of the user
- account creation date
- number of followers
- number of follow-ups

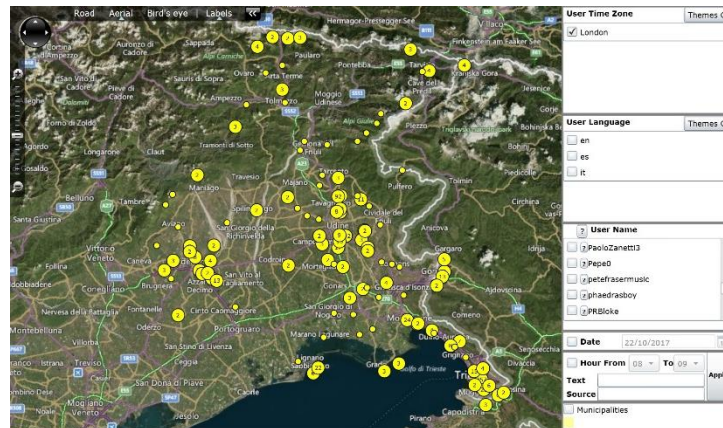
These conditions can be composed in AND or OR.

At this point, all the tweets that meet the selected conditions will be stored in the local database. It is, therefore, possible to activate "listening" campaigns of days, weeks, months, filtering for example tweets that:

- contain certain words
- were posted by users of a certain nationality
- are written in a certain language
- have been carried out in a certain region
-

In this way, for each analysis, all the tweets related to the specific theme will be available. It is, therefore, possible to analyse when who, where and what is said about, for example, illegal landfills, wine and food, high voltage lines,...To improve the results of the analysis we have also started a test with machine learning technology in order to verify how sentiment analysis will help in better understanding the contents of the posted information.

Figure 2: Tweet did in FVG containing the word “wine” by people coming from London

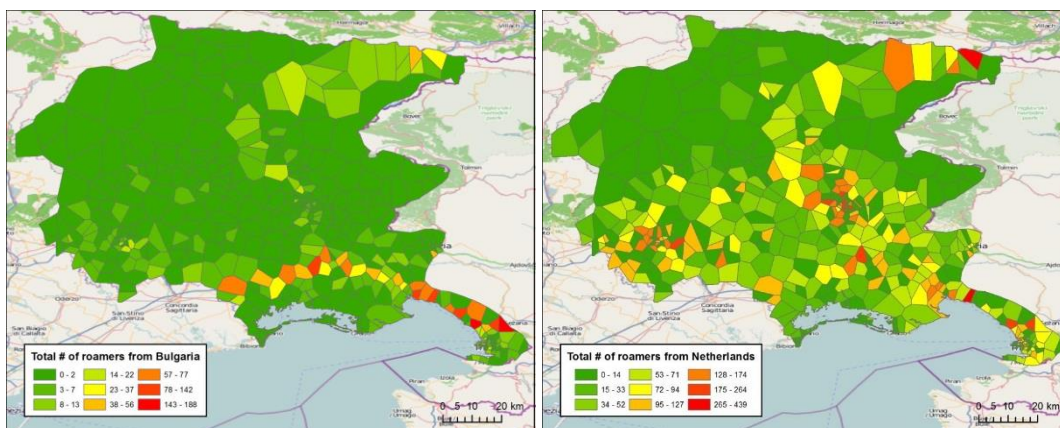


3.2. Cell Phone Data

The first problem is managing the huge amount of data. Consider that Friuli Venezia Giulia is composed of about 350,000 cells of 150 by 150 meters. As this information is repeated every 15 minutes approximately 35 million records are generated every day and about 12 billion records a year. We, therefore, found ourselves having to design a database that would allow adequate performance during the information search phase.

In this phase an online PostgreSQL platform is being tested, able to historicize and make available these data to the applications that will be developed to analyse the data acquired from the various sources. An example of the use of this information is the following:

Figure 3: sample of the presence of foreign people (Bulgaria and Netherland) in FVG



In these two maps, there is a photograph at a certain moment of the number of Bulgarian (left) and Dutch (right) present on the regional territory. It is clear that the Bulgarians are mostly on the highway network both in the East-West route, with entry from Slovenia, and in the North-South route, with entry from Tarvisio. It is therefore evident that they are, for the most part, truck drivers crossing Friuli Venezia Giulia. The Dutch are instead distributed on the regional territory and, from initial analysis, they are present in great numbers on the most popular bike paths; it is, therefore, likely that they are tourists with particular attention to "slow" fruition of the territory.

3.2.1. Municipality Based Presence

To understand the potential of this information, it was decided to carry out the first analysis by aggregating the data at the municipal level. A first database has been prepared that contains approximately 2 million records with the following characteristics:

- period: 1st March 2016 to 30th September 2016
- Four daily moments per municipality at 00, 06, 12, 18
- subdivision between Italians and foreigners
- foreigners based on the country of origin
- Italians divided by
 - type of presence
 - resident
 - occasional visitor
 - regular visitor
 - region of origin

Several GIS tools have been used to prepare the analyses that will be described in the following paragraphs.

3.2.2. OD Matrix

There are another type of data that can be bought by telephone providers that can be used to analyse the movement of platoons of people. For the time being these have been structured in a DB of over 4.5 million records that contains the total movements per month and day of the week from each municipality to every other municipality divided between Italians and foreigners. With this information, it will be possible to answer questions such as:

- where are today the people with a Russian cell phone who were at Trieste airport yesterday at 9 pm
- how many people enter Udine between 7 and 8 and which municipalities they come from
- ...

3.3. GIS Tools

In this phase of the project (test, analysis, prototyping and data quality) some standard products were used according to the skills present in the working group and in particular ArcGIS, QGIS and MapInfo. As soon as the detailed objectives are defined, a WebGIS will be developed. We will implement the functions for downloading, organising, analysing and representing the downloaded data.

4. CASE HISTORIES

The first tests were performed using cell phone data analysing some events and situations of the regional territory, in particular: Friuli DOC presences and rainy day in Grado seaside resort.

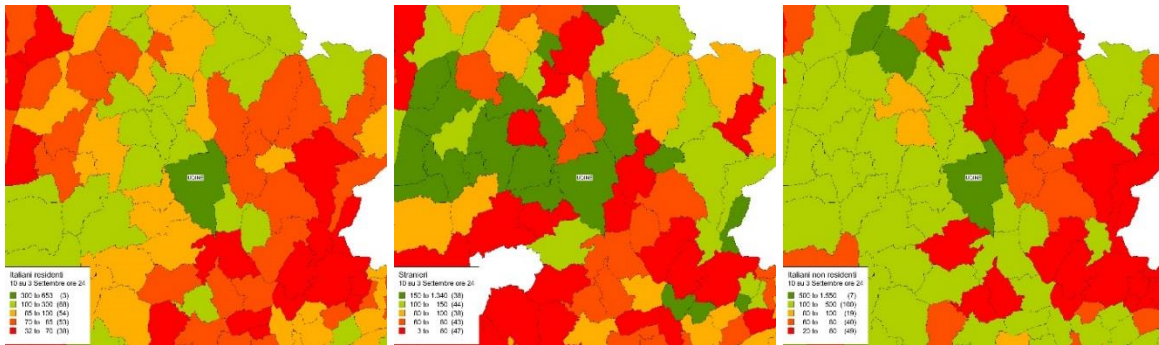
4.1. Friuli DOC

Friuli DOC is an event that sees the city of Udine becoming, for four days, a showcase of the end-gastronomic, artisanal, artistic and cultural production of the region. In the stands and kiosks of the street centre the typical Friulan products can be tasted, the San Daniele and Sauris ham, the Montasio cheese, the frico, the cjarsons, the wines, the grappa and many other products. The opportunity to taste the treasures of Friulan enogastronomy is combined with exhibitions, shows, conventions, art exhibitions and handicrafts, always respecting the most ancient local traditions. This event attracts visitors from the hinterland, from other Italian regions and from abroad. In 2016 it was held from 8 to 11 September.

It was decided to compare the day of Saturday 10th September 2016, the day with the highest attendance, with the previous Saturday 3rd September. These two days are usually similar to each other and, in this case, they also had a similar weather situation. The 6 pm and 12pm hours for the following categories of attendance were analysed:

- Italian non-residents in FVG
- Italian residents
- Foreigners
- Austrian

Figure 4: Presence Data at Friuli DOC Event at Midnight



The percentages of presence and absolute values were analysed and compared. The results are very interesting. For all the categories the presences in the municipality of Udine drastically increased. The difference between the two days at 6 pm is noteworthy, on September 3rd there are 67,000 Friulans in Udine while on September 10th they are 107,000. After 6 hours, at 12 pm, the Friulan in the municipality of Udine is 179,000 against the 59,000 standards. Below is a table that describes the absolute values

Table 1: Friuli DOC Presence Numbers

	Friulan		Italian		Foreign	
	6pm	12pm	6pm	12pm	6pm	12pm
03-set	67.463	59.249	3.336	2.791	856	499
10-set	107.006	178.701	9.936	16.200	1.238	804

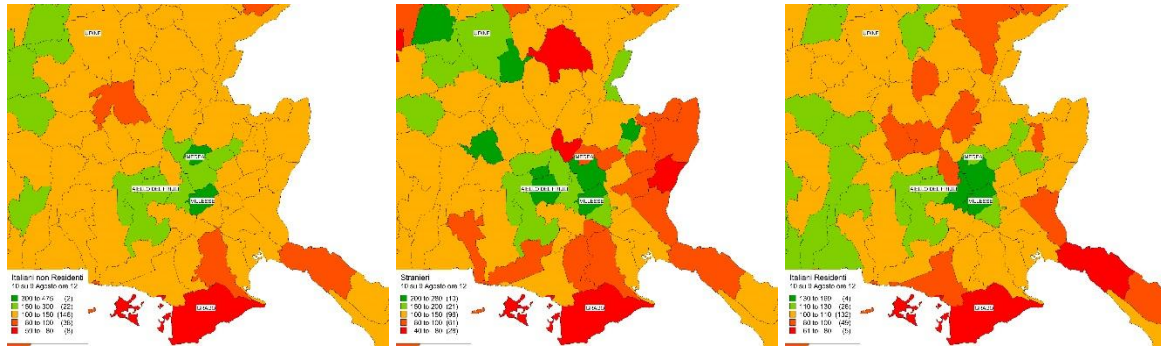
It is interesting to see the drop that usually occurs between the 18th and the 24th for the Italians is a total countertrend during the event where there is an increase of 400%, but foreigners have a certain decline probably because part of the Slovenians and Austrians return home late in the evening. It can also be verified that at 6 pm there are many Italian non-residents in the Udine hinterland, especially in the Collio municipalities, then between 18 and 24 they get back to the city. Analysing in greater detail the different time slots, remember that you can arrive at a 15-minute time granularity and a territorial granularity of 150x150 meters, you can understand where and who stops to sleep in the territory, which are the paths used to access the city and for its outflow, etc.

4.2. Grado Sunny Island

Grado, the Island of the Sun, together with Lignano and the Triest coast is one of the most attractive seaside destinations of the Friuli Venezia Giulia Region. In 2016 it saw around 400,000 arrivals, including 250,000 foreigners, for a total of about 1,600,000 admissions. Here we wanted to analyse the behaviour of Italian and foreign tourists during a rainy day in August. Using a meter website (https://www.ilmeteo.it/portale/archivio-meteo/Grado/2016/Agosto/9?refresh_cens) we chose Tuesday, August 9th 2016, a sunny

day, and Wednesday, August 10th, a rainy day, to analyse the behaviour of tourists. These two weekdays are not affected by weekly changes that usually take place on Friday or Saturday and by the closure of commercial activities.

Figure 5: Movements from Grado to Other Municipalities at Midday of a Rainy Day



Interesting is it to highlight, during the rainy day the presence of the three categories analysed (Foreigners, Friulans, Italians from other regions) in the municipality of Grado is reduced by an average of 50% and is distributed as follows:

- Italians not resident in FVG and Italians residing in FVG
 - Villesse, where a large shopping centre is located with the presence of Ikea
 - Medea where the Ara Pacis is located, a famous monumental complex that symbolically recalls the fallen of all wars
 - alternatively, neighbouring municipalities
- Foreigners
 - Villesse
 - They visit the municipality of Aiello, which is famous for the presence of over 100 sundials
 - They go so far as to visit the city of Udine, which sees an increase in attendance of 60%
 - They are not attracted to the Ara Pacis because it is not advertised in the tourist guides.

Table 2: Grado rainy day presence numbers

COMUNE	ITA res.			ITA non res.			Foreign			Austrian		
	9/8	10/8	%	9/8	10/8	%	9/8	10/8	%	9/8	10/8	%
GRADO	16.201	9.997	62	5.057	3.700	73	4.768	3.721	78	1.971	1.520	77
VILLESSE	2.639	4.449	169	353	1.186	336	582	1.288	221	18	120	667
AQUILEIA	1.674	1.516	91	307	379	123	256	271	106	91	77	85
UDINE	69.480	72.909	105	3.576	4.014	112	1.179	1.874	159	127	340	268
AIELLO DEL FRIULI	1.797	2.145	119	346	961	278	607	1.648	271	47	270	574
MEDEA	365	445	122	4	19	475	17	15	88	0	0	

Interestingly, also the nearby seaside resort of Lignano undergoes an exodus during rainy days but not the same size because Lignano offers a greater variety of shops and places to "take shelter" in the gloomy days.

5. CONCLUSIONS

It is evident, although these are only the first tests of use, how accurate this information is and how much it can be useful for analysing the dynamics of the presences and movements of the various categories of people in events, tourist resorts, depending on weather, holidays,

The next activities include, in addition to the development of an online database containing all the data made homogeneous and updated real time, the development of a WebGIS that will become the interface for querying and analysing information.

There is another aspect that has to be taken in consideration: accessibility to information of presences and displacements with high spatial and temporal granularity implies an analysis of the issue concerning the confidentiality and security of the data.

It is in the project a discussion with the actors present in the territory that could necessarily use this infrastructure for their decision-making process. The first two identified "customers" with whom a dialogue will start shortly are:

- PromoTurismoFVG which is the Regional Agency for the planning and promotion of the tourism offer of the Friuli Venezia Giulia Region and which evidently could greatly benefit from this platform
- Regional Directorate for Infrastructures and Transport that could plan the offer of public transport by road and rail with better knowledge of the facts and situations.

The more the potential users will be involved and interested in the use of this new technology and the more it will be easy to have opportunities to work on.

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Tourism Development Planning in Montenegro: Critical Review

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Abstract

Tourism is the pillar of economic and social development of Montenegro. The planning of tourism development is of the greatest importance to the sustainability of a tourist destination such as Montenegro. This paper aims to present the most important tourism development strategies with the special focus on the newest marketing strategy of Montenegro as the tourist destination from 2018 to 2022. A special contribution of the paper is reflected in the identification and studious analysis of the critical points of the new marketing strategy. The paper also provides guidelines on how to improve the strategic planning and how to ensure that the realisation is in line with the plan more efficiently and effectively. Scientific methods of analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, abstractions and generalisation are used in this empirical research. The results of the research indicate that strategic analysis is essential but must be done by professionals who live and work in a tourist destination. Furthermore, all levels must be included in the planning process, and strategic planning cannot be performed in isolation from the environment and current trends in tourism which has been diagnosed by our findings.

Keywords: Tourism, development, Destination management, Critical review, Montenegro

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1. INTRODUCTION

Marketing can be defined as a process by which companies create value for customers and develop strong relationships with them in order to ultimately deliver this value to the buyer, thereby earning a profit. The goal of marketing is to attract new customers, to promise superior value and retain current customers, satisfying their needs (Kotler, Armstrong, 2011).

In line with the service characteristics (inseparability, indivisibility, heterogeneity, inability to store), care must be taken of the correct choice of marketing strategy (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2010). The question arises: is there a unique marketing strategy that can provide success? It does not exist. Marketing strategy is specific for every tourist product (macro and micro).

Also, marketing strategy can be defined as planning and coordinating all marketing resources available, with the integration of a marketing mix of elements, all in order to achieve the desired results in previously targeted markets. An important element of marketing strategy is to show how enterprises, as well as national economies and the state, will achieve competitive advantage and diverse from competitors. More specifically, marketing strategies consist of selecting and analysing the target market and creating and maintaining an appropriate marketing mix (product, price, place, and promotion) that will satisfy this market. It contains a plan for the best and most efficient use of available resources and tactics for achieving goals. A successful strategy can only be the one that determines the basic long-term goals of an enterprise, adopts the direction of actions and allocates the resources necessary for their realisation (Kotler, 1999).

A good marketing strategy is characterised by a clear market definition, a good mix of organizational forces and market needs. Marketing strategy is one of the basic steps in the process of creating value for consumers. After analysing the market and the needs and desires of potential consumers, the design of a marketing strategy is needed. The next step is to build an integrated marketing program that delivers superior value, and then build profitable relationships and create satisfied customers. All this leads to the final step, which is the delivery of high-quality products and services and assuring added values that both can meet consumers' expectations (Kotler, Armstrong, 2011).

The strategic plan defines the overall mission and goals of the organisation. Consumers are at the centre of attention. The goal is to create value for customers and build profitable relationships with them. The company decides which clients will be served (segmentation and targeting) and how (differentiation and positioning). Furthermore, a company identifies the total market, then divides it into smaller segments, chooses the most perspective segments and focuses on serving and satisfying customers in these segments (Kotler, Armstrong, 2011). In addition to the traditional four elements of the marketing mix

(product, price, place and promotion), service providers have to pay attention to three more elements: people, physical evidence and the process. Because most services are provided by people, the choice, training and motivation of employees can make a huge difference in customer satisfaction. Ideally, employees in the service need to be competent, have a caring attitude, responsible, creative, proactive and with the ability to solve problems (Kotler, 2002).

A special strategy can be created for each element of the marketing mix. Compilation of different strategies for each element of the marketing mix in tourism is a unique strategy for both the tour companies and the tourist destinations. It is important to emphasise that the marketing strategy of the tourist destination (enterprises) is created on the basis of a detailed environmental analysis. For our work, we will give a short overview of the latest trends in tourism at the global level.

2. CONTEMPORARY TRENDS IN TOURISM

Contemporary trends in tourism have emerged as a need to adapt to the demands of the tourist market. Some of the contemporary world tourist trends are the strong growth of international travel, despite natural disasters and terrorist attacks; the current transition to "safe destinations" and controversial protests against too many visitors to the destination; "over tourism"... In addition to the trends mentioned above, there is also a steady growth when it comes to foreign trips realised by Asia. Also, in the United States, certain trends are highlighted, such as travelling to Europe and Latin America. New international tourist consumers will be Muslim millennials, who will travel in larger numbers in the coming decades. A vertical transformation has also been seen in the segment of luxury catering. Luxury hospitality is one of the leading tourist trends. A unique experience is at the moment unavoidable elements of every luxury trip. The trend in this segment is to offer a personalised, authentic, impressive, unique and exclusive experience. Here technological advancements come into focus. Personalised services and tourist products are becoming very demanding. Guests will be able to use hotel smartphones, smart devices for issuing commands, booking and other hotel services (ITB Berlin, IPK International, 2018).

Analysing contemporary trends in tourism seems to be the main frame for strategic planning, especially for designing a marketing strategy. In the next section, we will investigate strategic documents which include guidelines for tourism development in Montenegro.

3. STRATEGIC TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PLANS OF MONTENEGRO-ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

There are several strategies for tourism development in Montenegro. In this section we will look at the three most important documents: National Strategy for Sustainable Development until 2030, Strategy for Tourism Development in Montenegro until 2020,

Strategic Marketing Plan for Tourism in Montenegro 2018-2022. It should be pointed out that due to the complexity of the issues we were not able to deal with detailed analyses of the advantages and disadvantages, and that we highlighted only the most important ones.

a. National Sustainable Development Strategy until 2030

One of the documents of a recent date, which defines sustainable development when it comes to tourism in Montenegro, is the National Sustainable Development Strategy until 2030 (NSOR). It presents a long-term development strategy with defined sustainable management solutions. It will be discussed in the following text.

From the aspect of tourism, this strategic document identifies several key dangers per destination. Namely, the development of tourism implies great consumption of natural resources. Tourism is treated as a carbon-print producer (accommodation, food, drink, transportation, etc.) (Ministry of sustainable development and tourism, 2016). The strategy of sustainable development emphasizes the greening of tourism and the rational use of natural resources, adequate generation of waste, the development of green innovations, green entrepreneurship, the outgoing management of tourist destinations and promotion of domestic products, domestic entrepreneurship, etc. The main aim of this strategy is achieving a greater competitive advantage.

We can conclude that the strategic direction of Montenegro as a tourist destination is very well defined. Disadvantages cannot be identified. The future of Montenegro as a tourist destination depends only on strategy implementation.

b. The strategy of the tourism of Montenegro to 2020

The Strategy for the Development of Tourism by 2020 is the result of a comprehensive review of the previously established strategy by the Ministry, created with the support of the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development of Germany (BMZ), the German Investment and Development Corporation (DEG) and the German Organization for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) with international market expertise provided by the Consulting House for Tourism and Marketing – CREATOP (Ministry of tourism and environmental protection, 2008).

The vision foreseen by this strategy refers to the presentation of Montenegro as a Mediterranean destination with diverse offer throughout the year, unique and attractive attributes that attract segments of the middle-class and luxury markets. By the above, it is necessary to develop appropriate luxury tourism products, such as yachting and golf, a new type of nature-based tourism. One of the priority goals that decision makers want to achieve through the implementation of the vision is to attract foreign investors. It is very important to invest in human resources, their education and training, and to achieve cooperation with partners from the private sector. To offer sufficient accommodation capacities not only on

the coast, but also in the central and northern regions, is some of the basic goals of this strategy (Ministry of tourism and environmental protection, 2008).

The introduction of tourist clusters and the creation of unique tourist products is the main specificity of this strategic document. According to the scheme from this document, Montenegro is divided into six tourist units - clusters, which differ in each other according to characteristics of fields and cultures. The first three clusters belong to the tourist region of the Montenegrin coast: the rocky coast from Luštica to Ulcinj, with numerous bays, the center of beach tourism with famous, mostly modern 3S sites, such as Budva and Becici; Ulcinj, a city with the remnants of Orientalism and the longest sandy beach on the southern Adriatic, Ada Bojana and Valdanos. The Long Beach is a great development potential of the Montenegrin tourism industry. The third cluster - the Boka Kotorska Bay, is surrounded by cliffs that rise high above the sea level, with the remains of Venetian culture. This cluster is unique on the Mediterranean, most suitable for the development of high quality and diversified offer (nautical tourism, golf courses and other) in the Tivat bay and the peninsula Luštica, provided that infrastructure problems are resolved. The central region belongs to the cluster that includes the capital of Cetinje and Skadar Lake, also two unique ones because of their historical significance, diversity of flora and fauna and fascinating landscapes. The remaining three clusters are in the Northern Region of Montenegro: the mountainous districts of Durmitor and Sinjajevina with the Tara canyon and the National Park, as well as the Bjelasica, Komovi and Prokletije Mountain Range, with one, soon two national parks, monasteries and mosques. (Ministry of tourism and environmental protection, 2008).

The main idea, the vision of Montenegro as a tourist destination, is well designed. However, in the technical sense, it is not properly formulated. The vision statement should be short, precise, not to rely too much on superlative, relevant but ambitious enough. Furthermore, a well-formulated vision consists of simple phrases that can be used later for marketing purposes and presented as slogans (Rothaermel, 2015).

On the other hand, the idea of clusters is generally somewhat controversial. Are the clusters the same as the tourist destinations? If you try to define a tourist cluster, you will get a definition of a tourist destination. Grouping a products or so-called clustering is a good strategy for achieving competitiveness on the tourism market. However, is Montenegro big enough to split into more clusters? Does this mean that clusters will compete among themselves? What is not precisely defined in this document is how clusters will be connected. The criteria that are used for defining clusters is also debatable. However, we must not forget that this strategy was preceded by a strategic plan that did not even take into consideration the north of Montenegro, nor its potential for tourism development. In this regard, the Tourism Development Strategy, despite evident shortcomings, represents a significant change and the good basis for the development of future strategies. Strategic

analysis (internal and external) is well done, the critical points of Montenegro's tourist development are recognised, as well as the main advantages. Leading tourism trends, chances and hazards are identified properly. The main marketing activities are properly defined, as well. As the environment changes rapidly, the update and revision of this strategy are necessary, so that Montenegro can respond to the current challenges from the sphere of tourism.

c. Strategic Marketing Plan 2018 - 2022 - Advantages and Disadvantages

In this chapter, we will briefly present the Strategic Marketing Plan for Tourism in Montenegro from 2018-2022. And extract the most interesting details. Then we will highlight the main advantages and disadvantages.

The Strategic Marketing Plan for Tourism in Montenegro 2018-2022 is the project organised by the Ministry of Sustainable Development and Tourism and the National Tourism Organization, whose work was entrusted to a Spanish renowned consulting company with many years of experience - THR (THR, Asesores, WITH). The project is organised in four phases. The first phase involves the preparation of a marketing strategy, the second its formulation, the third phase involves marketing strategy planning, while the fourth involves the implementation of a marketing strategy (Ministry of sustainable development and tourism, 2017).

Montenegro's Tourism Vision until 2022 implies that Montenegro will position itself as a destination for the whole year and will attract higher-class tourists who will be motivated to visit Montenegro by its cultural and natural offer as well as the diverse coastline (Ministry of sustainable development and tourism, 2017). The most interesting conclusions of this document are:

- Montenegro has the highest number of tourists from the region, Russia, Ukraine and Poland, while the share of tourists from major emitting markets (England, Germany, France) is very small.
- In the territory of Montenegro, three products can be considered as particularly competitive. That are adventure, nature and rural tourism and cultural tours and arrangements. Products of nautical tourism and 3S tourism are identified as mature products. Wine and gastronomy, wellness and health tourism, mice tourism are defined as products with development potential. These products should be improved.
- Montenegrin tourism is characterized by high seasonality as a basic motive for visiting Montenegro are relaxation (72%) and entertainment (41%). Montenegro is recognized as a destination for "passive holidays".
- Natural and cultural activities with high experiential value have been identified.

- Tourist offer of Montenegro is not favourably rated by tourists from England, Germany and France.
- The highest percentage of overnight stays of tourists has been made in private accommodation, over 65%.
- Most of the tourists from England, Germany and France for the brand Montenegro Wild Beauty binds holiday in nature parks, nature-based tourism.
- 56% of the state budget is spent on B2B activities, most of it at tourism fairs.
- Most of the financial resources are allocated for communication over the Internet, only 13% for PR, 11% for brochures.
- Large tour operators from England, France and Germany are selling Montenegro as a 3S destination, while specialised tour operators sell other tourist products.
- A greater emphasis is placed on quantitative analysis and less on qualitative.
- Cross-sectoral cooperation is declining. Several strategic partners have been lost in the past few years.
- The NTO governance model appears to be insufficiently effective. Coordination and networking of LTOs are not at a satisfactory level. (Ministry of sustainable development and tourism, 2017)

The marketing strategy has defined several strategic goals. We will summarise the most important:

- Increase the number of tourists from the main emitting areas. Priority markets are classified in 3 levels. The first level priorities are Germany, Great Britain, Russia, Austria, Poland and France. After attracting these markets, it is necessary to pay attention to the region of Italy, Scandinavia, the Netherlands, Belgium, Ukraine and China (second level priorities). Third-level priorities are: USA, South Korea, Japan, UAE, Turkey, Hungary, Switzerland and the Czech Republic.
- Work on strengthening three basic strategic products for Montenegro: sun and sea, tours and culture and adventure. Not to neglect other forms of tourism in order to reduce strict seasonality, or to increase the number of tourist arrivals outside the main summer season.
- Ensure the experiential values of Montenegro, primarily through the development and activation of programs of characteristic experiences. Encourage the development of DMO and DMC.
- Improving the quality of the tourist offer and increasing the satisfaction of tourists.
- Increasing the strength of the brand of Montenegro, to strengthen the level of association of the brand of Montenegro with other tourist products that Montenegro can offer. Development of digital marketing, launching the BUY Montenegro concept, etc.
- Work on strengthening the connections between the public-private sector. (Ministry of sustainable development and tourism, 2017)

The Strategic Marketing Plan for the Development of Tourism in Montenegro from 2018 - 2022 provides a plan of implementation including timeframes and bodies responsible for implementation.

We can conclude that this plan is well conceived, relevant and sufficiently detailed. The strategic planning process has been met in total. The presented vision is feasible, clear and simply formulated. However, it is not entirely specific and precise, and it is not sufficiently recognizable. Compared to the vision from Montenegro's Tourism Development Strategy until 2020, the vision presented by this document is much better formulated. Furthermore, the picture of the current situation is analysed in real terms, all the key development points are recognised as well as weaknesses of Montenegrin tourism.

On the other hand, we cannot say that all advantages of Montenegro as a tourist destination, and especially not in the part of activities with high experiential value, are recognised. Of course, the story of identifying activities with high experiential value is only in its infancy, and it is a very complex task. The development of thematic products (selective forms of tourism) is a real instrument for combating high seasonality and for ensuring sustainability. Although the concept of tourism development does not emphasise sustainability, in particular, it is indirectly addressed through all the stated strategic directions of development. What is particularly important is the fact that Montenegro wants to grow into a destination that will be attractive to demanding markets like England, France and Germany. However, neither the current most significant market for Montenegrin tourism should be neglected. Therefore, to work on the development of new high-quality tourism products, to strengthen and stabilise the development of existing is certainly a good development path. Although the Asian market is not recognised as the most important, it has been identified. Tourist products for Asians should be developed. Tourists from Asia, primarily China, represent the most important emitting market at a global level. The Chinese are top 1 consumers, and this trend will continue in the future. The integration of local products is of essential importance for the prosperity of Montenegrin tourism.

The introduction of the DMO and DMC model is also a good development path. What can only be disputable is the strategy implementation. The time limits are given. However, the strategy has not yet been adopted, so it cannot be started with the realisation. Accordingly, the time limits have already been broken, and it does not seem that four years are enough for achieving all strategic goals. The National Tourism Organization is presented as the main implementer. However, cooperation with the private sector, with local tourist organisations, is quite challenging and we can conclude that this would be a critical point, a stumbling block in implementing of marketing strategy. This is a good marketing plan, a strategy that could make Montenegro grow into a highly competitive destination that will be recognised on the market by unforgettable experience and unique tourist products.

4. CONCLUSION

To find the right development path, it is of the utmost importance for each country, and especially for the small, developing countries such as Montenegro. Strategic analysis is the basis for strategy creation. A strategic analysis must provide a complete picture of the internal and external environment. Tracking trends are one of the requirements for high-quality marketing planning. From the enclosed, we have seen that the planning of tourism development in Montenegro is largely based on detailed strategic analysis. It is not realistic to expect a small, economically weak destination to flush all the trends, but the existing potentials should be used. Successful case studies from EU countries can be helpful. For example, the concepts of BUY Montenegro, the strengthening of digital marketing, DMO and DMC etc. are a good policy.

However, the standardisation of services, products should be taken into account, especially in the context of the negative effects of tourism on the destination. Although local tourism organisations are primarily engaged in the promotion and creation of products, it is necessary to expand its scope of action and to ensure sustainability.

Analysing the marketing strategy of tourism development in Montenegro, we conclude that Montenegro must work hard in all fields. Also, weaknesses should be minimised and wherever it is possible eliminated. Such a process requires continuous efforts and monitoring of implementation. Great Britain and Germany, mapped as first level priorities recognised the problem of poor quality accommodation in Montenegro. This issue has been already solved at great scale by the opening of high-category accommodation facilities (four and five stars' hotels). On the other hand, similar steps should be taken when it comes to private accommodation. The focus should be on active analysing tourists' needs, adaption to modern trends, preservation of the environment and providing a service of high quality.

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An Example for Art of Late Ottoman Period: Sinop Meydankapı Süleymaniye Mosque

Lect. Duygu İlkhan Söylemez¹

Abstract

Sinop, which has been a continuous settlement since the Early Bronze Age to the present day, has always been one of the most important cities of the Black Sea. All the tribes who wanted to dominate the Black Sea in Sinop since ancient times due to its geographic location left the remains of their civilisations. Sinop; Romans, Byzantines, Seljuks and It has become the sovereignty of the Ottoman Empire. Sinop at the time of Candarogullari protected a port. The most important city of the Black Sea in antiquity was one of the capitals of the Pontus state in the Hellenistic period and the centre of Christianity in the Byzantine period. Roman, by Byzantine, Seljuks in 1214 and Ottoman rulers in 1461. These changes are felt at every corner of the city of Sinop. In this study, architectural and ornamental characteristics of Meydankapı Süleymaniye Mosque, which is an Ottoman late period structure, will be mentioned and the value of place, importance and value added in this cultural change process will be emphasised

Keywords: Art of late Ottoman period, History of art, Ornament

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1. HISTORY OF SINOP

Sinop is a city in the middle Black Sea region, located on the peninsula of İnceburun, the northern end of Anatolia. Sinop is one of the most beautiful natural harbours of Turkey's Black Sea coast (hometurkey.com, 30.11.2018).

According to legend, Sinope was founded by the Amazons, who named it for their queen, Sinova. The city's ancient inhabitants ascribed its foundation to Autolycus, a companion of Hercules. Destroyed by the wandering Cimmerians, it was refounded toward the end of the 7th century BCE by a colony of Milesians. It ultimately became the most flourishing Greek settlement on the Euxine (Black) Sea. As a terminus of the trade routes from Upper Mesopotamia, it commanded much of the maritime trade of the Pontic region and by the 5th century BCE had established many colonies on the coast and enjoyed naval supremacy in the Black Sea. In 183 BCE it was taken by Pharnaces I and became the capital of the Pontic kings. Under Mithradates VI Eupator, who was born there (as was the 4th-century-BCE founder of the Cynic sect, Diogenes), it enjoyed a high degree of prosperity and was embellished with fine buildings, naval arsenals, and well-built harbours. The Roman General Lucius Licinius Lucullus captured the seaport in 70 BCE, and the city was nearly destroyed by fire (Brittanica, 30.11.2018).

Sinop is famous as the birthplace of the Ancient Greek philosopher Diogenes, who lived a beggar's life on these streets around 300BC. His lifestyle earned him the nickname 'the Cynic', a word derived from the Ancient Greek word for 'dog'. The philosopher is often credited with the founding of Cynicism – the belief that social conventions impede personal freedom and hinder one's path to the good life while living according to nature is the quickest way to satisfaction (Allen, 2017).

Because of the difficult transportation of land, Sinop has been the most important economic gain since Antiquity. Sinop maintained this characteristic in Byzantine, Seljuk, Candarogullari and Ottoman administrations and became one of the most important military bases of the region with its castle and shipyards. The natural harbour of Sinop was named Akliman due to its calm sea. Sinop's old name is Greek Sinopolite. There are many opinions about where this name comes from.

In the Sinop region, the continuous settlement has been identified from the Chalcolithic to the present. Strabon states that the city was founded by the Milesians, and after long periods of independence, the kingdom of Pontus was captured by the Romans. Sinop, BC In the 4th century, it was connected to the Persians and then to the Kingdom of Cappadocia. During the reign of Alexander, the Great came under the sovereignty of Macedonia. Sinop, in the period of the kingdom of Pontus BC in 220 BC, the city became an important capital city. It is thought to have been built in Sinop Castle for the first time in this period.

In the last quarter of the 11th century, during the first period of the conquest of Anatolia by the Turks, it remained under the Byzantine rule in Sinop, like other coastal cities (Öz, 2009: 252-253). On 1 November 1214, Sultan I. İzzeddin Keykavus announced that Sinop had officially passed the sovereignty of Sinop. Sultan Izzeddin Keykavus organised a dinner ceremony called “Bezm” in front of the castle on the same day (Koca, 1997: 33).

Fifty years after the conquest of the Seljuks, the city was captured by the Pontic Greek Empire. Later, Muinuddin Suleiman Pervane took back the city and made the city of Sinop property on itself. Muinuddin Suleiman Pervane's son Muinuddin Mehmed founded the Pervaneogullari Principality in the second half of the 13th century in the surroundings of Sinop, where his father had made a private property (Turan, 1993: 626-631).

Candarogulları Süleyman Pasha had taken the city of Sinop into his own country. Candarogulları Süleyman Pasha ended the Pervaneogulları principality (Kesik, 2007: 246).

Then, Ibrahim Bey, son of Suleyman Pasha, was appointed as the governor of the city which joined the Candarogullari Principality. In the Ottoman history, this principality was also called Isfendiyoğulları Principality (Uzunçarşılı, 1988: 84-85). In 1461, Fatih Sultan Mehmet was annexed to the Principality of Candarogullari by taking Kastamonu and Sinop (Yucel, 1991: 149).

Evliya Çelebi and the information provided by P. Minas Bijinskyan in the nineteenth century are very important for the information about the city of sinop, which has been the subject of the travels since antiquity. As a result of the evaluation of the information provided by the travellers and the archive documents, important information about the physical structure of the city was determined.

2. SINOP MEYDANKAPI SÜLEYMANIYE MOSQUE

According to the information given by Salami, there are 17 mosques in the city. One of these mosques, also called Yeni Cami (New Mosque), is located on Sakarya Street. It is thought that the first builder was Şeyh Ömer Efendi and it was dated 1722. However, the building was repaired in 1877 with the fortification of Kale Mosque (Yılmaz, 2017: 187).

Photograph 1: General View of the Mosque



The stones of the Old Castle Mosque today are seen on the eastern and western walls of the Süleymaniye Mosque. The mosque, which has a rectangular interior close to the square, is covered with a flat wooden roof. The north facade is covered with wood, and the building is entered with a window with a window. The upper floor of this section is in the form of wooden women opened to the interior. The interior of the mosque is similar to the interior of the mosque in Sinop. The wooden pulpit decorated with plaster mihrab and empires has no artistic value. The minaret with zinc plating and wooden balustrade rising in the northwest corner of the last congregation is a remarkable detail of the structure. The balcony arrangement in the form of eyebrow arches is seen in honor of the minaret, which is an application that is frequently encountered in the Orientalist movement. It is seen that the minaret ended with a pyramidal plate.

Remnants of the remains of the Byzantine period in the northern garden of the building, as well as reused column bases in the last congregation place, were used (Esemenli, 1990: 91).

3. CONCLUSION

As a result, although the building was built in the late period, it is not perceived as a late work because of the stones of a mosque from the early period. In this mosque, only the

interior of the wooden pulpit and minaret of the late period features reflecting the ornamental and architectural form that draws attention.

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Tourist Experience and Environment Perception in Recreational Places: Example of Sazova Park

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Abstract

The different qualities and quantities of open green spaces in which recreational activities can be carried out are considered as the primary attractiveness of the various destinations and enhance the tourism potential. Therefore, this research aims to reveal the relationship of the visitor experience with the environment. In this context, environmental characteristics were emphasised regarding visitor experience and planning and design criteria of recreational spaces. A sample questionnaire was administered to 416 people who visited Sazova Science and Culture. As a result of the survey; Social experience, Activity experience, Visual perception, and Environmental aspect dimensions were established. In the findings obtained, it was found that the education level had a meaningful difference in the social experience dimension and the duration of the visit also returned a meaningful difference regarding environmental perception. Also, there is a positive correlation between environmental perception and visual perception, and a low correlation between social perception and environmental perception.

Keywords: Recreation, Recreational space, Planning and designing recreational space and recreational experience.

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1. INTRODUCTION

When we look at the academic studies of recreation, it is often defined by its various characteristics such as far from necessity, volunteering, entertainment and satisfaction. Butler, Hall and Jenkins (1998) defined recreation based on these characteristics. According to them; based on the principle of voluntarism it is an activity or conscious inactivity carried out for entertainment and satisfaction in a remote way from the necessities of life. In other words, recreation can also be defined as emotional or inspirational activities that are outside of vital needs and that the individual decides to do for himself (Clawson and Knetsch, 2013). In the sense of renewal, Karaküçük and Akgül (2016) defined it as leisure time evaluation with freely preferred activities to renew, socialising, living a qualified life happily and healthily which is previously planned or spontaneously organised by organisations. Recreation in open spaces is an active way of life that teaches people to reveal their creative powers to the people living in the cities and gives them the feeling of having diversity and many colours in life in the easiest way (Addams, 1912).

Although the definitions made are generally directed towards individuals, it is important to consider that recreation also affects the physical and psychological health of society as a whole. Recreation allows the interaction between socialisation and natural environment in the areas where the community comes together. For this reason, artificial environments suitable for recreational events are organised in destinations by public and private sector support.

Architecture and design construct these artificial environments by changing the intangible structure of the service sector with tangible factors to increase the value of the experience in the recreational areas. To draw on feelings and thoughts of an individual, tangible factors are created using society. The understanding of visual art based on architecture and culture, personality, lifestyle, etc. are some of the factors that architectures and designers benefit from.

As living conditions change over time, human use and pleasure are prioritized in the creation of artificial environments suitable for social life (Booth, 1989). Therefore, recreative spaces that allow memorable experiences and have an impact on emotions and thoughts should be designed based on the nature of the recreational activity. The experience in these areas, which are designed based on the nature of the recreational activity, is defined by Holbrook (2006) as the "Three F". Three F includes fantasy, feeling and fun. Fantasies are dreams, imagination, unconscious desires, and so on. Feelings are love, hate, anger, fear, joy and sorrow. Finally, fun is defined as hedonic pleasure derived from entertaining activities or aesthetic enjoyment. Using 3F in the design of the space is, in fact, beneficial to eliminate the factors which are said to be over 300 and affect the space sensation as much as possible.

It is necessary to consider some variables related to the space design regarding the maximisation of the experience. External variables, general spatial variables, location and design variables, purchasing point, decor variables, spatial design elements and

humans are spatial designing factors that influence perception (Turley and Milliman, 2004). Evaluating these elements with an integrative approach and eliminating the contradictory elements will have an impact on maximising experience (Pine and Gilmore, 2012).

From the perspective of recreational spaces; visitor-focused, business-related and non-business criteria are concrete and abstract environmental elements that can be effective in the preference of visiting and maximizing the experience. Visitor-oriented criteria can be defined as the creation of open spaces that address the needs of all age groups and give the opportunity to the visitors to select, monitor and participate in renewable activities by changing needs. In other words, attractiveness that can accommodate the quest for diversity, exciting innovations, education and live entertainment opportunities (Raluca and Gina, 2008; Milman, 2009; McClung, 1991; Hun Sun and Uysal, 1994). These visitor-oriented criteria can be evaluated as the expected criteria for meeting 3F.

Unlike the visitor-oriented criteria, business-focused criteria are under the control of the operator. These criteria can be developed or changed. Examples here include the capacity and route planning, integration of physical evidence, design, food variety, security and cleanliness (Milman, 2009; Raluca and Gina, 2008; Borrie, 1999). Also, the business-oriented measures play an important role in driving one destination ahead of the competition. Because of this, there is an expectation to correctly use and manage the hints (Lynch, 2015) that are used to structure and define the environment in designs such as colour, form, motion, light, smell, sound, touch, and direction.

The elements that arise from environmental or natural factors and that the operator cannot intervene in any way are non-business elements. Among these elements, seasonality and availability are mentioned the most in studies (Hu, 2013; Raluca and Gina, 2008; McClung, 1991). On the other hand, laws and regulations for recreational spaces can be regarded as another dimension in which the adherence by the operator is compulsory or where there is little or no chance of intervention. Laws and regulations issued by local and central governments are restrictive and pose regulatory obligations in recreational planning and design. Therefore, understanding the laws and regulations is important.

Because of the rapid urbanisation that took place in Turkey after the 1980's, the Reconstruction Regulation No. 3194 was introduced. According to this regulation; it became compulsory to have a zoning plan in places where the population exceeds 10,000. The Planned Buildings Type Zoning Directive prepared according to the provisions of the Construction Law No. 3194 dated 3/5/1985. The Zoning Directive has divided recreational spaces into two areas within the social and cultural infrastructure areas namely Green spaces and Sports and playgrounds.

According to the Regulation, an area of 10 m² per person was determined in the active green areas depending on the population. However, in the regulation on

Implementation Plan and Amendment published by the Chamber of Landscape Architects, the green area per capita was reduced from 10 m² to seven square meters.

Some of the provisions related to the green areas in Regulation No. 3194 are:

Parks: To be determined by the zoning plan and considering the existing tree texture and to be covered with natural earth or ground level, ground covered with enough depth for afforestation and planting and with the standards being provided, parking and swimming pool with open sports and playground, toilet, = 4.50 m and the floor area floor number should not exceed 0,03 in total, provided that it is made of detachable material; open tea garden, buffet, security etc. where facilities can be built and where residents of the city are covered by green vegetation and recreational needs.

Picnic and recreation areas: Because of the cities' need for open and green spaces and for excursions these areas are determined by the zoning plan. Restaurants, casinos, coffee shops, tea garden, buffet, parking places can be situated in this area to entertain, rest and have a picnic. Visitors also meet their sportive activity needs with tennis, swimming, mini golf, autocross etc. in this area.

Sports and playgrounds: Sports and playground facilities are areas of open or closed facilities for sports activities. These are separated in the city, district or neighbourhood scale with the decision of the zoning plan. These areas may include open or closed car parks and commercial units for buffets, restaurants, pastry shops, tea houses and sports activities for the needs of the audiences and athletes.

Based on the fact that spatial regulation is also regulating social life, TMMOB updated the Law no. 3194 in 2014. It suggests that;

- All parties should be involved in planning through a holistic planning approach,
- The minimum standards for social and technical infrastructure, clear and green area regulations should be established regarding providing the requirements of creating a livable environment in order to provide equal access and access to human rights,
- "Public benefit" should be met as a requirement of the social state in determining the size of open and green areas of social and technical infrastructure areas and to determine the choice of location. Urban services should be abandoned from the "privatisation/commercialisation" approach, and demand-oriented regulations should be made.

In recreational spaces that are designed by the laws and regulations, it is necessary to make plans to keep the physical development in order. Also, keeping the good sense or aesthetic pre-plan is needed to determine which occupation or activity will take place in what part of the recreational area. In this context, a guiding and stimulating plan is needed. Planning with a guiding and stimulating qualification means; designing for the

future by performing systematic actions in order to reach specific goals and targets (Keleş, 2016).

Planning guides the use of many elements of different qualities in the context of the geographical characteristics of the region, the social and cultural characteristics of the residents, and the necessities of the area. In this direction, in the process of planning and design of green spaces, criteria such as the needs and requirements of the community to be addressed, the characteristics of the community and the integration of planning and location selection are directly related to planning as Yucel (2007) suggested. The location choice expressed here is considered as the first criterion that decision-makers should make in the context of the needs and characteristics of the community.

Facilities, environmental conditions and their qualities in places where human communities live often reflect the attitudes and behaviours of planners and environmental designers with local and private decision-making mechanisms. Therefore, these attitudes and behaviours also determine the quality of life (Marans, 2003). In this context, local governments develop green areas for multi-use.

Multi-use policies are used to determine what activities are suitable for the recreational area and to plan these activities. In recreational area regulations made under multi-use policies; an attempt is made to ensure that the green areas can allow different user activities in different seasons. One of the issues to be considered in the formation of such areas is how the area is used, by whom, and why it is loved or not loved (Gobster, 1995). These areas are created as leisure areas for free time, and they are usually in line with agricultural areas, conservation of nature, urbanization and industrial development (Lier and Taylor, 1993). Therefore, the terrain or topography of the area needed to be identified to understand the terms of usage.

The terrain or topography of the area in which recreational spaces are established guides the spatial perception as an artistic and utilitarian design element. It can be said that terrain or topography is necessary for both microclimate and drainage and it effects the overall appearance (Booth, 1989). From another point of view, topography effects the area in every sense. Thus, it creates a strong image of the recreational spaces. Moreover, when constructing a recreational area, it limits the locations of the facilities and facilities should be located incompatible and secure places. The quality of the social space or location must be high (Ballester, 2014). When choosing the location, the criteria should not only be evaluated at the planning stage, but the quality of the park should be considered as important. The quality of the park is a matter of designing the equipment or the environment.

Depending on the quality of the recreational space, the design can be made within the scope of planning. The quality of these areas created by planning and design improves the moral and ethical responsibility towards the environment by satisfying the personal satisfaction and entertainment feelings. It also creates positive patterns of behaviour on the social scene (Ariffin et al., 2012) thus, as it is mentioned in the laws and

regulations all parties such as visitors, employers, and other stakeholders should be involved in planning.

According to Deniz (2002), when designing a recreational area, depending on the characteristics of the land, it is necessary to take into consideration the wishes and needs of all stakeholders and also it should be created to be based on the imagination of the designers. This way, each of the recreational areas can differ regarding the themes or subjects they have, the goals they set and the tools they use (Ersoy, 2007). However, the wishes and needs stakeholders should be in line with the characteristics of the land making it possible to create a legible park in a design.

The legibility required in urban planning theories means that the various parts of the park are organised in a recognisable and coherent texture. Sağlık (2014) defines a legible area as a well-defined space with a physical plan and usage models, with easy access, open orientation and well-defined boundaries. According to the author, easy access, clear orientation and effective pedestrian circulation with well-defined boundaries make the area legible. There are some factors that may lead to deterioration of the legibility of the parks. These factors are the complexity of the parking lot and the vehicles, the excess of garbage containers, the visual pollution generated by the buffets, the non-ergonomic stairs, the floor covering of concrete materials. In addition to this, some of the ready-to-use elements may cause loss of the naturalness of the area, monotony and create an inconsistent image (Aksu, 2015). In a park that is designed without such elements that distort legibility, the depth and intensity of experience in the direction of the image created by the individual can be increased.

On the other hand, the intensity of the experience of visitors requires a legible placement of visual stimuli and designs that emphasise aesthetic sensibility. Among the criteria that should be taken into account when making these designs are; creation of opportunities for active and passive activities, construction of the area, the vegetal and climatic design of the area (Yücel, 2007).

2. METHOD

This part of the study provides information on the research method.

2.1. Data Collection

The sample group of this study is the visitors to Eskişehir Sazova Science and Culture Park. The study was conducted through questionnaire and quantitative research methods. Questionnaires were administered to people who visited Sazova Science and Culture Park using group sampling method. In this context, the survey was first conducted using a sample of 75 people for a pilot study; and it followed by a survey of 428 people. Due to inadequacy, 12 of the questionnaires which are not in line with the validity conditions of the questionnaires were removed from the scope of the study.

In the first stage of the study, 39 questions were prepared by the 7 Likert Rating Scale in the direction of the data obtained from the literature in order to measure the perceptions of the recreational experience and the physical environment of the park. In

the first part, 39 questions were presented to 75 participants. After the results of the analysis, the number of questions was reduced to 14 due to the non-reliability and the invalidity. The demographic section of the which is intended to collect the personal information of participants consisted of five questions. The study was thus conducted over 14 questions and five demographics with 428 people.

2.2. Analysis of Data

In this study, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 22 program was used to analyse the data obtained from 416 questionnaires. The data are defined by calculating the mean, frequency, and percentage distribution tables. In the study, descriptive factor analysis was applied to determine recreational experience, preferences and environmental perceptions using varimax rotation and principal component methods.

According to kurtosis and skewness values and histograms of the scale questions in the survey, data was found to be normally distributed. Therefore, Independent Sample T-Test and One-Way ANOVA test were also conducted to determine differences in perceptions of the dimensions identified in factor analysis depending on the demographic characteristics of the participants. Tukey test for homogenous groups and Tamhane's T2 test for non-homogeneous groups were used.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part of this study is analysed under three subheadings.

3.1. Findings related to personal characteristics of participants

In this section, the personal characteristics of the participants were determined by frequency and per cent analysis. Participants are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Findings Related to Personal Characteristics of Participants

	Groups	F	%		Groups	F	%
Gender	Female	216	51,9	Occupation	Private sector	104	25,0
	Male	200	48,1		Public sector	132	31,7
Age	0-25	116	27,9		Student	96	23,1
	26-35	184	44,2		Unemployed	28	6,7
	36-45	80	19,2		Self-employment	56	13,5
	46-55	36	8,7	Number of visits	1-5	320	76,9
Education	Primary sch.	20	4,8		6-10	64	15,4
	High sch.	72	17,3		11 +	32	7,7
	Bachelor	236	56,7				
	Graduate	88	21,2				

As shown in Table 1, 216 of 416 participants were female, and 200 were male. 27.9% were aged 0-25 years; 44.2% were 26-35 years; 19.2% are between the ages of 36-45 and 8.7% are between the ages of 46-55. When the educational status is examined, 4.8% of the sample group have a primary school, and 17.3% have a high school education; 56.7% have bachelor's degree, and 21.2% have a graduate degree.

When the sample is examined according to group professions; 31.7% are working in public sector; 25% are private sector workers; 23.1% students; 13.5% of them are self-employed while 6.7% of the group sample is unemployed. In addition to their demographics, the question asked how many times the sample group visited Sazova Park in the last year. 76.9% of the group answered 1-5 times; 15.4% answered 6-10 times, and 7.7% answered 11 and over.

3.2. Reliability and Validity

The values of kurtosis and skewness concerning the questions in the scale were found to be -1,5 / + 1,5 when the histograms were taken so that the data were distributed normally. After determining the distributions of the data, factor analysis was performed considering the Cronbach alpha coefficient model for internal consistency. Factor analysis yielded four dimensions of 14 expressions in the questionnaire. The dimensions categorised under the headings of the physical environment and experience are Environmental perception, Visual perception, Activity experience and Social experience. In Table 2, expressions for four dimensions are given in short titles.

Table 2. Distribution of Dimensions of Expressions

Social Experience	Visual Perception	Activity Experience	Environmental Perception
Staying alone	Attractiveness	Active needs	Maintenance
Being together	Quality	Sportive needs	Green space
	Enjoyment	Adventure Opport.	Cleanliness
			Security
			Environmental Compl.
			Routes

Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.858 was found for the environmental perception dimension; 0.882 for the visual sense dimension; The activity experience was found 0.719 for the dimension and 0.620 for the social experience dimension. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.857 for the whole scale. In this context, the scale is considered reliable in all dimensions. According to the results of the factor analysis, the explanation rate of the total variance of the variables is 70,121%.

Four dimensions (factors) of 14 statements in the questionnaire obtained from factor analysis and their eigenvalues (Eigenvalue), the variance of rate, cumulative variance rate, factor loadings of each item included in the questionnaire are shown in

Table 3. Also, in the table, the results showed reliability analysis of the factors, arithmetic mean and standard deviation values which calculated separately for each factor.

Table 3. Results of Factor Analysis of Visitors' Perceptions of Environment and Experience

Questions and Factors	Environmental Perception	Visual Perception	Activity Experience	Social Experience
C1	,794			
C2	,758			
C3	,746			
C4	,681			
C5	,662			
C6	,641			
G1		,875		
G2		,795		
G3		,751		
A1			,826	
A2			,798	
A3			,673	
S1				,814
S2				,744
Eigenvalue	3,526	2,534	2,122	1,635
Variance Expl. Rate (%)	25,187	18,102	15,155	11,676
Cumulative Variance	25,187	43,289	58,445	70,121
Cronbach's Alpha (Each)	,858	,860	,719	,620
Cronbach's Alpha (Whole)		,857		
Mean for Factors	5,870	5,830	4,189	4,644
Standard Deviation	,796	1,050	1,290	1,406
Cumulative Variance		70,121		

According to Table 3, the eigenvalue of the Environmental Variable dimension is 3.526, the variance explanation rate is 25.187, the arithmetic mean is 5,870, and the standard deviation is .796. For the Visual Perception dimension, the eigenvalue is 3.526, the variance explanation rate is 18.102, the arithmetic mean is 5.830, and the standard deviation is 1.050. In Table 3, the results obtained for the dimension of the Activity Experience is 2.122, the variance explanation rate is 15.155, the arithmetic mean is 4.189, and the standard deviation is 1.290. Also, values of social experience dimension are eigenvalue 1.635, variance explanation rate is 11.676, arithmetic mean is 4.644, and the standard deviation is 1.406.

After factor analysis, Pearson Correlation analysis was performed to determine the relations of dimensions to each other. In factor analysis, it is expected that the relationship between dimensions will be as low as possible. As seen in Table 4, according to the analysis results, the Perception of Environment and Perception of Visuality are the

dimensions having the highest level of relationship ($r = 0.644$). On the other hand, the lowest correlation ($r = 0.289$) was found between Social Experience and the Perception of the Environment. The relationship between the other dimensions was also found to be weak ($r < 0.50$).

Table 4. Correlation Results Between Dimensions

	Environment	Visuality	Activity	Social
Environment	Pearson Corr.	1	,644**	,339**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,003
Visuality	Pearson Corr.	1	,351**	,293**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,003
Activity	Pearson Corr.		1	,390**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			,000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

3.3. Perceptions of Environment and Experience Perceived by Demographics of Participants

The physical environment perceptions and experience perceptions related to the individual characteristics of the Sazova Park were examined by applying one-way variance analysis (ANOVA). After applying the one-way ANOVA test, multiple comparison tests were applied to determine the mean differences between the two groups and to compare them. Tukey test for homogenous groups and Tamhane's T2 test for non-homogeneous groups were also used.

The ANOVA test showed a statistical difference in the dimension of social experience according to the educational status of the participants ($F(3, 103) = 2.823$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.078$). The Tukey test revealed that the source of diversity is amongst those who have graduate degrees and high school, graduates. According to the findings, respondents in the dimension of social experience ($x = 5,3333$) are much more positive for the participants who have graduate degrees than the participants who have high school education ($x = 4,0909$).

The other statistical difference determined by the Anova test is about the visual perception and environmental perception. The data obtained showed that there was a statistically significant difference ($F(3,103) = 5.644$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.100$) between the participant's number of visits of 1-5 and the participants of 11 and more. The P value in the environmental perception dimension was 0.005, and a difference of .012 was found. The number of visits was 1-5 ($x = 5.7417$), the number of visits was 11 or more ($x = 6.5625$), and the negative perception of the perceptual dimension was reported. There is also a statistically significant difference in the Perception of Visuality ($F(3,103) = 5.803$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.103$). Similarly, regarding visual perception, 11 and above ($x = 6.9167$) showed a more positive view of visitors who visited 1-5 ($x = 5.6833$).

4. CONCLUSION

There are many factors that affect recreational activity participation, experience and environmental perception such as individual demographic characteristics, psychology, economy and social status. Within the scope of this study, statistically, significant differences were found between education status and social experience and also between a number of visits, and environmental perception and visual perception.

Working on inequalities in leisure time behaviour, Hyung, Scott and Floyd (2001) emphasised that income and education together have an impact on participation in recreation. Ardahan (2013) points out that the level of education is important in the context of healthy recreation. In this study, it was found that income had no effect on the experience obtained from recreation, but the social experience obtained from recreation differs regarding high school and graduate groups. Graduate groups can gain more experience from Sazova Park in a social sense. The social experience here is not only related to communication with others but also with the situation of being alone.

Another finding in the study is a statistically significant difference between visit frequency and environmental and visual perception. As the number of visits to Sazova Park increases, the perception of the environment and visuality is also increasing. So as a destination, Sazova's image is increasing when the participants spend more time in the area. Similar to the findings of this study İlban, Köroğlu and Bozok (2008) suggests that the frequency of visits positively affects the image of destinations.

Another finding of the study is related to the correlation between the four dimensions with each other. As a result of the analysis, the dimensions of visual perception and environmental perception were determined as the most related dimensions. Changes in the visitor's perceptions of the environment affect the visual assessment of the area as a whole. In other words, the perception of quality or impressive landscapes in the visitor's mind depends on the well-maintained, clean and safe area.

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Evaluation of the Positive Effects of City Branding on Tourism Development: City Center of Eskişehir Case

Evrin Koç¹

Abstract

Through globalisation, cities have confronted with the concept of competitiveness; therefore, this has led cities to produce projects through branding. Cities prepare and implement branding projects in various fields. Cities create attractiveness through such projects: creating mega-events, developing tourism destinations, renewing historical places, making urban transformations. In this respect, these attractions are used by residents and investors in the city and as well as by visitors of the city. Eskişehir city has increased its brand value with the changes it has experienced since 2000, and the city has been developing in urban tourism. In this sense, Odunpazarı Historical Site Area, Porsuk River Seaside regulations and newly created urban open green spaces are the basic urban design and renovation areas that contribute to the city tourism and create a brand in the city. In this article, the positive effects of the branding of urban renewal and development areas on urban tourism will be evaluated through the case of Eskişehir.

Keywords: City branding, Urban tourism, Urban planning and design.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Eskişehir is one of the unique cities in Turkey showing great efforts in urban tourism at national level. Tourism is one of the global habits of people which is a result of travelling for various reasons and which is developed after the increases inconvenience of transportation. Tourism is a wide and dynamic concept, and today in my presentation my goal is to inform the evaluations of the positive effects of city branding on tourism development in the city centre of Eskişehir case.

Therefore, this article discusses the topic through two parts. Firstly, “Eskişehir City and the Rise of City Branding with Urban Transformations”, and then “Evaluation of the Positive Effects of City Branding on Tourism Development in the base of City Center of Eskişehir Case”.

2. ESKİŞEHİR CITY AND THE RISE OF CITY BRANDING WITH URBAN TRANSFORMATIONS

Eskişehir is a medium-sized city with a population of eight-hundred-sixty thousand (860,620) in 2017, and the city is located in the Central Anatolia Region. Through the centre of the city, Porsuk River flows dividing the central area into two municipalities as Tepebaşı and Odunpazarı. **The big majority of the provincial population belongs to the city centre with an eighty-seven per cent (87.45%)²**

- **46.41% Odunpazarı with 399,451 inhabitants, and**
- **41.04% Tepebaşı with 353,179 inhabitants.**

After 2000, the city has had many transformations in the urban structure, and this made an increase in the awareness of the city and brand value. Moreover, the brand of the city has many positive reflections on the tourism development of the city. Moreover, these main urban transformations can be divided into three headings: Porsuk River and its shores, Odunpazarı Site Area and Big Parks. In the following, these three headings are introduced.

3. EVALUATION OF THE POSITIVE EFFECTS OF CITY BRANDING ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE BASE OF CITY CENTER OF ESKİŞEHİR CASE

3.1 Porsuk River and its shores

Through this transformation, the city experienced various implementations which create physical, visual, social and cultural changes that connect people through a river. These implementations are boats and gondolas, sculptures, bridges, landscaping, tram (transportation), entertainments, recreative activities, sportive activities, and cultural activities.

² <https://www.nufusu.com/il/Eskişehir-nufusu>

3.2. Odunpazarı Site Area

The second implementation area is including historical conservation, and also social and cultural changes through restoration and street revitalization, museums, Islamic-Ottoman Social Complex (Kurşunlu Külliyesi in Turkish) and this structure is the core of the UNESCO 2013 intangible cultural heritage), handicraft center and marketplace, traditional cuisine, and festivals (wooden sculpture festival and glass festival).

3.3. Big Parks

The third main implementation area is “creating Big Parks” with the provision of two main parks: Sazova Science and Culture Park, and Kentpark. These big parks provide recreative activities, concert area, kids playing gardens, Science Center, Planetarium, Fairy Tale Castle (Masal Şatosu in Turkey), artificial beach and sculptures. This implementation area also includes physical, visual, social and cultural changes that connect people through using the impression of a river and green areas.

Shortly, these three main urban transformation areas have led the city of Eskişehir to a more aware in national level with an increase its brand value and resulted in development of tourism.

The positive effects of city branding on tourism development can be outlined in five headings. Firstly, urban tourism starts especially after 2004 and adds vitality to the city centre. Secondly, the city is advertised in the national media, and the awareness of the city has increased as an urban tourism destination. For example, in TV programs on travelling show the transformations in the city in an inviting way. Moreover, in the news on media write on the European style of Eskişehir and the attractions in the city. Thirdly, the tour agencies start to organise tours in the urban area of the city from various cities, İzmir, İstanbul, Ankara, Konya, etc. Moreover, the three main transformation areas are visited through these tours as routes (Porsuk River and its shores, Odunpazarı Site Area, and Big Parks).

Fourthly, the ability of accommodation increases through new constructions of hotels. The numbers of foreign and domestic tourists increase since two thousand (2000). While in two thousand (2000), the total number of tourists is about eighty-five-thousands (85.000), in a sixteen-year time it increases more than four times and reaches about three-hundred and fifty-thousands (350.000)³. In the following map, the yellow circles illustrate the hotels which are built after 2004 in two main regions: Odunpazarı Site Area and enlargement area of Central Business District Area.

³ <http://yigm.kulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,201131/tesis-istatistikleri.html>

Figure 1. Hotels developed after 2004



Odunpazarı Site Area experienced the provision of hotels through restorations and reconstructions as boutique mansion thermal hotels after 2008. These hotels are Han Royal Hotel (2008) which passed into **Paşa Mansion Hotel** in 2016, **Abacı Mansion Hotel** (2011), **Arslanlı Mansion Hotel** (2014), FRZ Mansion Hotel (2014) which passed into **Arasta Mansion Boutique Hotel** in 2016, **Rixos Thermal Hotel and Spa Center** (2014) which passed into **Tasigo Hotels and Resorts** in 2016, and **La Vie Mansion Hotel** (2016).

The second region for hotels is the “enlargement area of Central Business District Area” which was the location of brick, tile and flour factories in Republican Period after nineteen-twenty-three (1923) till nineteen-seventies (the 1970s). This area is called the Factory District and includes culturally listed structures which have had a conservation area since two-thousand-ten (2010) and urban design since two-thousand-eleven (2011). In the Factory District, hotels were constructed as 4 or 5-star hotels after two-thousands-nine (2009). Dedepark Hotel (2009), Verman Hotel (2010), Sör Hotel (2013), Divan Hotel (2014), Merlot Hotel (2014), Arus Hotel (2014), Modernity Hotel (2015), and Hilton Hotel (2018).

Moreover, in the city centre restorations were done for hotel provisions. For example, around the railway station, a silo structure of the Republican period in the 1950s was restored in 2007 as İbis Hotel. Another example is Eskişehir Turing Hotel which was restored as Porsuk Thermal Boutique Hotel in 2015 in the city centre. Furthermore, in other places new hotels were constructed which are Anemon (2004), İbis

Hotel (2007), Madame Tadia Hotel, Roof Garden, Beyoğlu Palace Thermal Hotel (2016) in Atatürk Street and Turunç Hotel (2014) which passed into Park Dedeman in 2018 in Atatürk Boulevard. Therefore, through the increase in hotel provision in the city, the bedding capacity has increased in the city.

As a fifth and last contribution of city branding on tourism development, traditional Cuisine and Handcrafting services increased in city centre around Porsuk River, in big parks and in Odunpazarı Site Area, which is çibörek, met halva, pudding with floss rhoeados syrup, and as handcrafting such as meerschaum and Glass Works.

To sum up, urban transformations implemented after two-thousand (2000), the city has changed physically, visually, socially, and culturally. These changes made an increase in the awareness of the city and brand value. Therefore, the brand of the city has many positive reflections on tourism development of the city through an increase in the number of visitors, increase in awareness as a destination in the national level, increase in the number of city tours, increase in the accommodation capabilities, an increase in serving traditional assets.

In order to have more positive effects, some features are needed to be developed. Firstly, city guiding should be professionalised. Secondly, tourism information desks should be developed and placed in different locations. Thirdly, Phrygian and Yazılıkaya Region also should be added to the routes of the tours (which is a culture and thermal tourism development region in the plans of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism). Fourthly, three industrial heritage areas should be integrated into the city tourism: Factory District, Republic of Turkey Railways-Turkish Locomotive and Engine Company Inc.) Area (TCDD-TÜLOMSAŞ), and Sugar Factory. These three areas include cultural listed structures. Adding these four areas to tourism destinations and strategies can both make the awareness of the importance of these areas and also increase the number of stays overnight by visitors. Moreover, lastly, all these suggestions should be covered under a strategic plan which regards city branding and city tourism issues.

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An Eclectic and Ecological Getaway: Dengeköy

Nedim Kemer¹

Abstract

An ecological life style integrated with nature, soil and environmental resources: Dengeköy. Dengeköy is an eclectic ecological settlement which is an ongoing project designed and developed to be a pioneer ecovillage project of Turkey thanks to its comprehensive size and unique features. The *Dengeköy* project collectively presents the best features of various types of ecovillages. It is located on a 700 ha partially wooded terrain within the *Muğla* province in the Mediterranean coast. The project boasts a rich and diverse agricultural production program while its well-being and recreation-oriented services constitute its more significant characteristic. From agriculture to well-being, from recreation to education, all these services are intertwined with sustainable use of resources and broad ecological sensitivity in mind. The energy and resources cycle model of nature provides the main production and management principle of this project. The project site is hierarchically organised from private to public. All activities and services are not only planned with short or long-term programs but also organised around the season dependent agricultural programs. A special 'children village' with its educational and recreational facilities is also included in the *Dengeköy*. The agricultural program is essentially developed to revitalise and sustain the traditional local methods. The overall landscape character of the *Dengeköy* is to maintain and represent the Rural Mediterranean landscape characteristics and local cultural architectonic. *Dengeköy's* mission: protecting the natural environment, maintaining the sustainability of natural resources and ultimately to prevent the threat caused by the tourism industry on the land and its environment; and accomplishing all these along with the activities and services that focus on improving the well-being of humans.

Keywords: Rapid urban growth, Ecovillage,

1. INTRODUCTION

City is one of the greatest inventions of human civilizations. It is among the most effective and essential creations which is an organization of instruments and institutions composed by humans. However, the meaning and the functions of the city has drastically changed over the millennia. Cities are places where people essentially live and work. The economic activities have been the driving engine since the very first cities formed in the Neolithic Era. As the economy has been globalized over the past two centuries, the cities are becoming global too. They are turning into market places for the global economy. The contemporary cities are producing new names for themselves according to their functions, locations and sizes i.e. 'world city, global city, alpha city, urban agglomeration etc.' Particularly during the postmodern era which mainly

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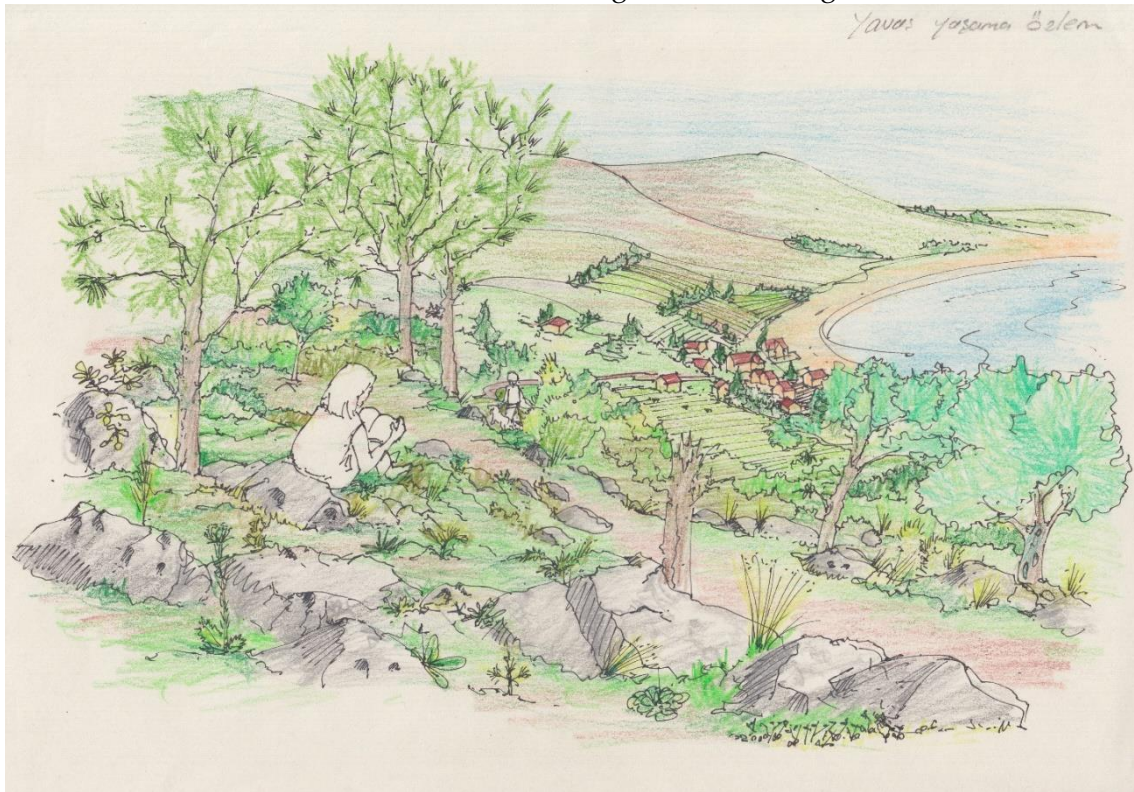
inherited its norms from the era of industrial revolution, the cities are undergoing a rapid horizontal and vertical expansion. Although the global economy is still the main factor, the eminent cause of the expansion for today is the migration. People have always sought better opportunities for more prosperous lives in other geographies. Migration continues to be the biggest issue in the global world. Today, millions of people of the world are in the course of relocating and settling new regions. In general, when people migrate over the nations and the continents, regardless they originate from the rural regions or developed cities they usually end up settling in cities. While a whole host of “push factors” may seem to be the main cause a large number of “pull factors” of the cities also play the important role in the migration. Hence the further the metropolitan cities of the world developed it is likely that they find themselves under more pressure. As the cities are rapidly expanding, they are getting denser and more congested.

Metropolitan cities of today have serious negative impacts on both the mental and the physical well-being of modern humans. Ever increasing levels of mental distress and physical ailments have unfortunately been accepted as the permanent and inevitable consequences of contemporary urban life. Today’s consumption-oriented, fast-paced and intense lives of modern cities are helplessly trying to compensate flaws with new flaws and new burdens. The cities are suffocated by new agenda items, new sectors, new tools and instruments, in general, new consumption channels to rectify the self-induced ailment of cities. Contemporary lifestyle in big, dense and fast-paced cities intensify both the internal and external conflicts of city dwellers. Individuals lose their health in those cities, which makes them dependent on the treatment opportunities offered by the same cities, thereby eventually getting stuck in a paradox. It is also widely accepted that the trauma caused by the city life can no longer be compensated by weekly rests or even annual escapes. Meanwhile, well-managed, safe and clean retreat facilities that offer various services are in great demand.

2. YEARNING FOR SLOW LIVING

Modern humans are increasingly longing for a much simpler lifestyle that requires less complex and fewer activities. They want to live in places that are governed by fewer rules and that contain the bare minimum amount of goods and social interactions. The Slow Living movement is getting increasingly popular in the developed Western societies as well as in Turkey. For today, 15 small-scale traditionally slow towns of Turkey have been registered as the members of the global Cittaslow community. Although this movement has initially started as appraising existing conservative and traditional settlements and communities, lately it has been exercised as the source of inspiration in planning and designing the basics and principles for newly established settlements.

Picture1. Yearning for Slow Living



Source: Nedim Kemer

3. ECOVILLAGES

Ecovillages offer such Slow Living conditions in the environments that they create for short term or long term get away opportunities. Their overall management principles, production methods, diversified daily activities, social organizations and internal administration dynamics are all adaptable to the conditions and ecological cycles of the natural environments they are located within. These ecologically-benign settlements can either be constructed from scratch in a completely independent manner or be developed by transforming traditional settlements' existing physical structures and social patterns to address the contemporary needs. The sustainability principles of all natural, cultural and economic resources are the defining characteristics of the general life styles and the administration models of such ecologic settlements. Circularly integrated working principle of nature provides the ideal model for the production and management organizations of eco-village establishments. Such ecologically benign settlements can be structured in a completely independent manner and started from scratch, as well as being developed upon the traditional settlements by transforming their existing physical structures and social patterns while answering the contemporary needs of the day.

Anatolian rural landscapes present rich and diverse vernacular architecture samples that are in harmony with nature. Likewise, from the social and cultural point of

view, *imece*, an Anatolian rural collective work tradition, constitutes yet another ideal example of the mutualism between the man and nature. In the eco-village settlements, strong, unifying and participatory social structures can be integrated with the agricultural productions just like the *imece* tradition of Anatolia. Such organizations would provide suitable grounds to implement the sustainability principles along with the alternative agricultural production methods. Ecovillages primarily depend on the soil and agricultural production, and the basic principles of sustainable use of resources shape the main production and productivity goals. However, many different types of ecovillages can be seen in different geographies with varying ecological and climatological conditions around the world.

Ecovillage settlements and establishments present a rich diversity regarding their establishment principles and objectives, user profile and especially the management types. They are grouped into two types of ecovillages for this study according to their basic goals and operating principles: 1) Agricultural Production and 2) Health and Service. There are radical differences between the two. While the management of the first type revolves around agricultural production, the second type focuses on tourism, accommodation and services that offer education, recreation, various health services, spiritual cleansing and rehabilitation opportunities. However, for both types, a healthy natural environment is a must. All social and physical structures should adhere to the basic principles of conservation of nature and the phenomenal ability to renew itself.

4. THE ECOVILLAGE EXAMPLES PRIMARILY BASED ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Sustainable and nature-friendly agricultural production is the main goal of the ecovillages largely included in this group. Agricultural products have economic importance in this type of establishments with revenue-generating focus. The establishments can be managed as commercial farm enterprises or as an association, a foundation or a cooperative. Agricultural activities mostly run by permanent employees year-round.

Additionally, temporary employees are hired for seasonal activities. However, the members, clientele and visitors of the ecovillage may also be accommodated in the yearly or seasonal activities. Increasing number of ecovillage examples with agricultural production goal is becoming common in Turkey.

Since the agricultural production, which forms the daily activities and general business management, is integrated with the existing natural systems, the relationship with nature in such settlement and business models is direct, physical and organic. Visitors' and guests' participation in the agricultural activities or their recreational gains as passive observers are the by-products in these establishments. Profitability and productivity dictate the land use decisions and site plan works. Production sites and production facilities are clearly distinct from the accommodation facilities. The accommodation units and comfort facilities for the visitors and temporary participants pose relatively less importance in these ecovillages.

5. SERVICE ORIENTED ECOVILLAGES PRIMARILY BASED ON THE WELL-BEING OF HUMAN

The second group of ecovillages are the type of settlements that consist of facilities and institutions to serve the nature of humanity in the social, behavioural and recreational dimensions. This kind of eco-village samples, which have a relatively wide range of diversity, are the establishments where the nature of the human being is relatively at the forefront, where the soil, the environment and the agricultural production activities are considered as only instruments providing ideal clinical and environmental conditions. Due to differences in service objectives and operational themes, such settlements also vary within themselves. Agricultural practices are only to provide ground for recreational and therapeutic activities. They are not necessarily needed to be profitable and economically viable. Agricultural production activities within these establishments do not go beyond being recreational activities as rehabilitation opportunities. Agricultural products are utilised only within the enterprise. In all day-to-day activities and social organisations are desired to be positive, diverse and powerful. A healthy and well-balanced natural environment, nature's ability to replenish itself, the never-ending energy and the power to sustain life under every condition are the most crucial inputs of these social behaviour-based eco-villages. Nature takes place in the mottos of these establishments as a mentor, a school, a library and a vast source of knowledge that has been acquired over the millions of years of experience. In addition to the main services such as health, rehabilitation and therapy, visitors can enjoy many benefits in cultural, educational, sportive, artistic and, most importantly, agricultural activities in these facilities where they can stay for a period of one week to one year. Recreation and rehabilitation are the two main services offered by these ecovillages. It is essential to consider the health service as a profitable commodity, starting from the planning and installation stages throughout the service and management objectives. Operating programs of such ecovillages can harmonise the holistic healing methods of eastern cultures with the methods of modern medicine. Small or medium-sized health care units can be combined in short, medium or long-term accommodation facilities. These complex therapy centres collect diverse modern clinics and traditional holistic treatment methods under one unit: such as dialysis, eye, dermatology, cosmetics, orthopaedics, sports medicine, physical therapy, Ancient Chinese Medicine, Ayurvedic Indian Medicine, Uygur Medicine. While both types of eco-villages provide wonderful services and respond to different demands within their area of practice, rich and more beneficial programs can be obtained by the eclectic synthesis of the two models. So that, a large profile of clientele can be reached out.

6. DENGKÖY: AN ECOLOGICAL LIFE STYLE INTEGRATED WITH NATURE, SOIL AND ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES

Dengeköy is an eclectic ecological settlement designed and developed to be a pioneer ecovillage project of Turkey thanks to its comprehensive size and unique features. The *Dengeköy* project collectively presents the best features of both types mentioned above. It is located on a 700 ha partially wooded terrain within the Muğla province in the Mediterranean coast. The project boasts a rich and diverse agricultural production program while its well-being and recreation-oriented services constitute its more significant characteristic. *Dengeköy's* size, capacity and diverse activities make this project unique. From agriculture to well-being, from recreation to education, all these services are intertwined with a broad ecological sensitivity in mind and sustainable use of resources. The production and management principle of this project mimics the cyclic model of nature's energy and resource conservation. The zoning of the project site is based upon a hierarchical classification from private to public.

Along with the short- and long-term activities and services, there will also be season dependent agricultural programs. A special 'children village' with its educational and recreational facilities is also included in the *Dengeköy* project. The agricultural program is essentially developed to revitalise and sustain the traditional local methods. The overall landscape character of the *Dengeköy* is to maintain and represent the Rural Mediterranean landscape characteristics and local cultural architectonic.

7. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this work and study with its scientific motive is to provide comprehensive research and an opportunity for implementation of sustainability, tourism, health services and ecological recreation facilities.

Dengeköy's mission: protecting the natural environment, maintaining the sustainability of natural resources and ultimately to prevent the threat caused by the tourism industry on the land and its environment; and accomplishing all these along with the activities and services that focus on improving the well-being of humans.

The purpose of this work and study with its comprehensive scientific motive is to provide comprehensive research and an opportunity for implementation of sustainability, tourism, health services and ecological recreation facilities.

This work is the first step of a road map for a unique project with a unique vision, and management plan. It is an instructional hand guide for the design and implementation process of the project. The project will be executed within phases which will also be classified according to the principles framed in this work.

Precautions for the Prevention of Global Warming, Climate Change and Other Environmental Problems: The Case of Eastern Black Sea Region Cities

Osman Üçüncü¹, Öner Demirel²

Abstract

In the Eastern Black Sea Region of our country, the rate of surface water flow can reach up to 80-90% because of high precipitation rate and the sloping land character as well as the fact that the soil is saturated, and evaporation is low. However, the fact that the river valleys are usually, narrow and irregular, causes another negative situation regarding flood risk. Under these circumstances, at the region where floods happen every five years without exceptions, high amounts of rainfall which occurs in short durations causes important damage and casualties as well as damaging the infrastructure. When the meteorological data obtained between 1961-2013 from meteorological stations located at Eastern Black Sea cities are statistically evaluated (with Mann-Kendall statistic method and regression analysis), it can be seen that a global climate change creates a serious risk at the region (Trabzon, Giresun, Rize and Artvin). Rainfall and river flow relationships have been examined with this warming at the region, and by considering the dimensions of the ongoing Hydro-electric power plant construction work built as an alternative energy resource in the energy sector, a relationship was tried to be established between the today and future of these power plants and Eco-Tourism.

In this presentation, it has been discussed what the potential ecological effects of global warming could be on nature and nature tourism and what precautions could be taken in order to minimise the negative effects of climate change on the tourism sector.

Key Words: Climate, Climate Change, Eastern Black Sea Region, Environment, Tourism, Eco-Tourism, Renewable Energy, HEP

1. INTRODUCTION

Climate and Climate Change: Climate is the average of weather conditions in a place called the average calculated over time and region. The branch of science that studies climate is called climatology. The factors that determine the climate in a region are temperature, wind, humidity, the pressure in the air and how they change in day and year.

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In this concept, it is important to know that climate and weather events are two different phenomena. Climate change is generally defined as long-term and slow-developing atmospheric events with global and local effects of change in climatic conditions regardless of the cause. The weather events are defined as "short-term, sudden changes and covering a certain area

Snowfall, storm, drought and other incidents that we see in daily life are examples of weather events. Climate change will not take place in a short time such as entry or exit to the ice age and the effects that can last for a long time can be given as an example.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY AREA

In the Eastern Black Sea Region, meteorological stations are operated in three different ways: small stations (automatic observation stations), large climate stations and synoptic stations. The meteorological data in this study was taken from the large stations in the provincial centres. Figure 1 between the position of the Eurasian continent and Eastern Turkey shows the position of the Black Sea coast yet.

Figure 1. The eastern Black Sea region



The distribution of precipitation in the Eastern Black Sea Region, where this study is carried out, varies greatly at some points. In this difference, elevation, view, air masses, orographic characteristics and location-related effects. In the analysis of the data in the provinces where the study was conducted, the average annual precipitation heights were; 846.5 mm in the province of Trabzon, 1286.1 mm in the province of Giresun, 2268.6 mm in the province of Rize and 716.0 mm in Artvin province. In the region where the study is carried out, the most rainfall occurs in winter, and the least rainfall occurs in summer.

3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

In order to examine the change in temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and precipitation heights (mm) between 1961-2013 in the Eastern Black Sea Region, the data of the observatory station in Trabzon, Giresun, Rize and Artvin provincial centres were examined.

3.1. Regression Trend Analysis

The regression analysis is used to determine the relationship between two or more variables, including causal relationships. Also, it is a method which is characterised by

a mathematical model which is formed in order to make estimations about the subject. The Linear Regression test is a parametric test that assumes a normal distribution of data.

3.2. Mann- Kendall (MK) Test

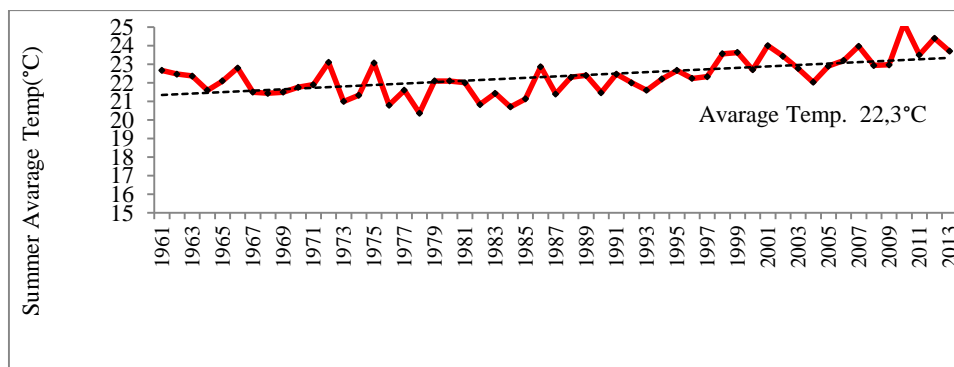
The level of significance of this test is generally predicted for bi-directional confidence intervals with a probability of 0.10 ($\alpha = 10\%$) and 0.05 ($\alpha = 5\%$) in most engineering applications.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Trabzon Province

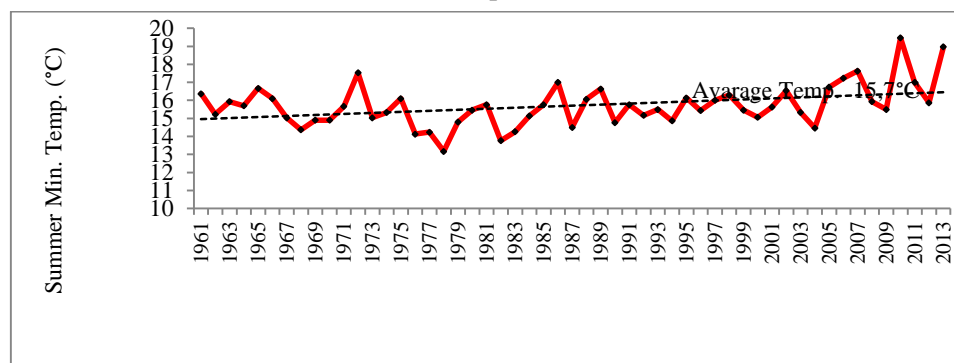
Figure 2 shows the time series of the average annual average temperature of Trabzon between 1961-2013. For many years the average temperature of the summer season was calculated as 22.3°C.

Figure 2. The Average Temperature-Year Series of Summer Season in Trabzon Province



The graph in Figure 3 shows the minimum temperature change for the summer season of Trabzon in 1961-2013 period. The average summer temperature minimum temperature values for many years are 15.7 °C.

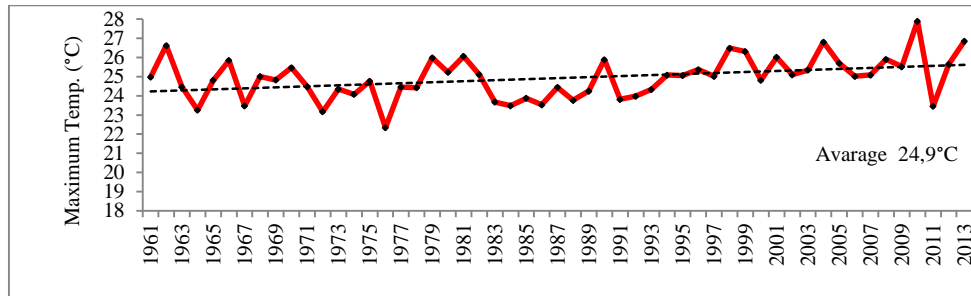
Figure 3. Summer Season Minimum Temperature-Year series in Trabzon Province



4.2. Rize Province

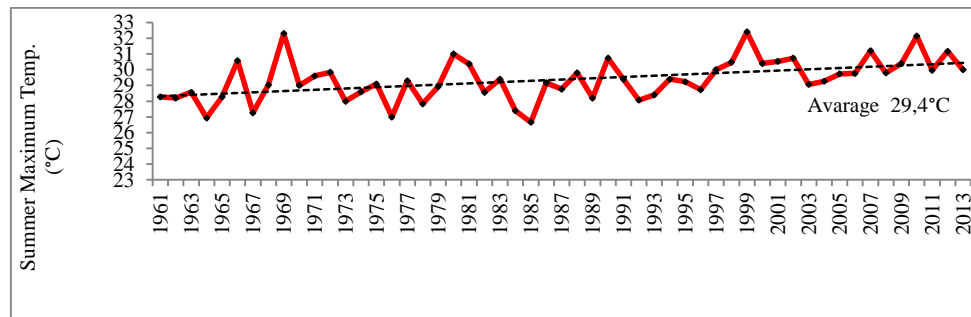
The graph in Figure 4 shows the annual maximum temperature average for many years in the period 1961-2013 of Rize Province. The average monthly maximum temperature values for this period are 24.9 °C.

Figure 4. Rize Province Annual Maximum Temperature-Year Series



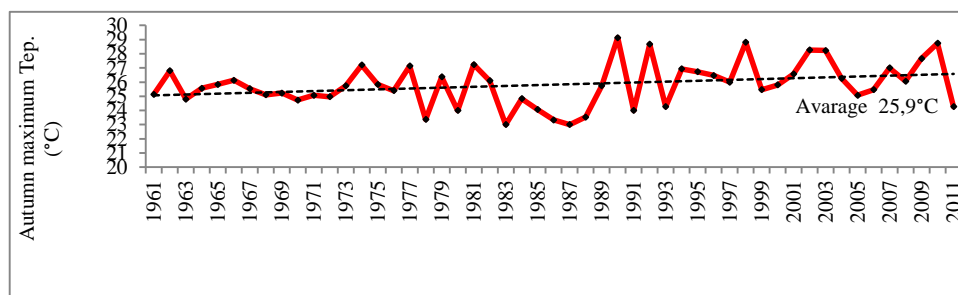
The graph in Figure 5 shows the annual maximum temperature average for the summer years of Rize province in the 1961-2013 period. The average summer temperature of this period is 29.4 °C.

Figure 5. Rize Summertime Maximum Temperature Mann-Kendall Statistic



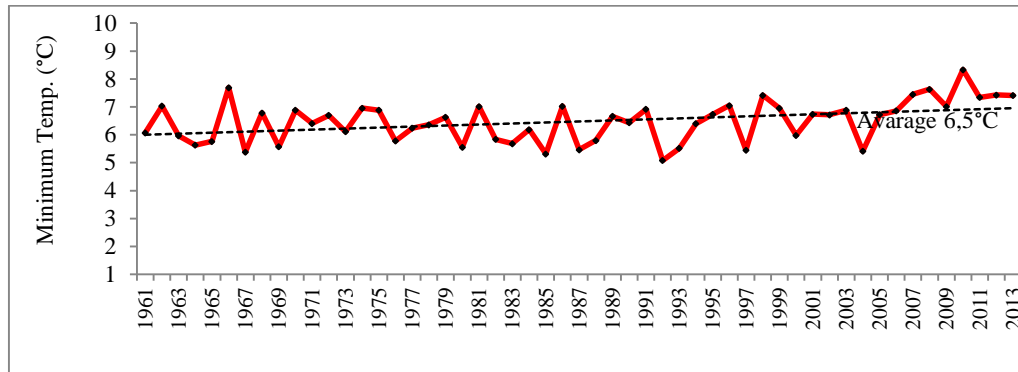
The graph in Figure 6 shows the average autumn maximum temperature for many years in the period 1961-2013 of Rize Province. The average of the maximum temperature values for the autumn of this period is 25.9 °C.

Figure 6. Rize Province Autumn Season Maximum Temperature-Year Series



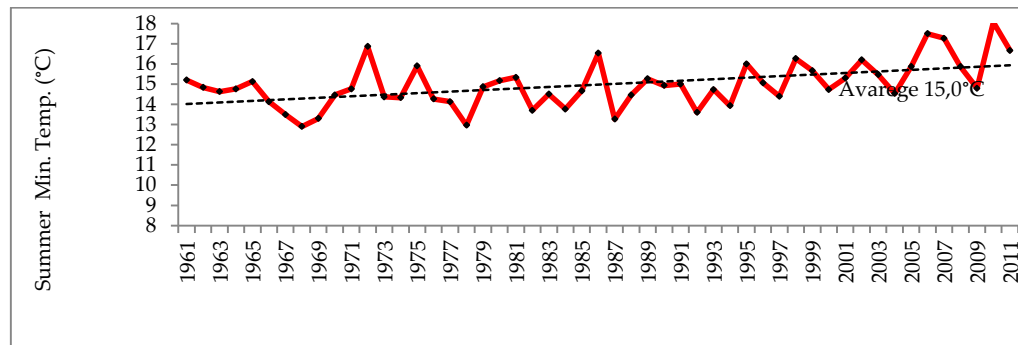
The graph in Figure 7 shows the average annual minimum temperature of Rize Province in 1961-2013 period.

Figure 7. Rize Province Minimum Temperature-Year Series



The graph in Figure 8 shows the average annual minimum temperature for the summer season of 1961-2013 in Rize Province. The average minimum temperature values for this period are 15.0 °C.

Figure 8. Rize Province Summer Minimum Temperature-Year Series



The chart in Figure 9 shows the average annual minimum temperature of the autumn season in the period 1961-2013 of Rize Province. The average minimum temperature for this period is 8.1 °C.

The graph in Figure 10 shows the annual average temperature values of Rize Province from 1961 to 2013. The average temperature values of this period are 14.2 °C.

Figure 9. Rize Province Autumn Season Minimum Temperature-Year Series

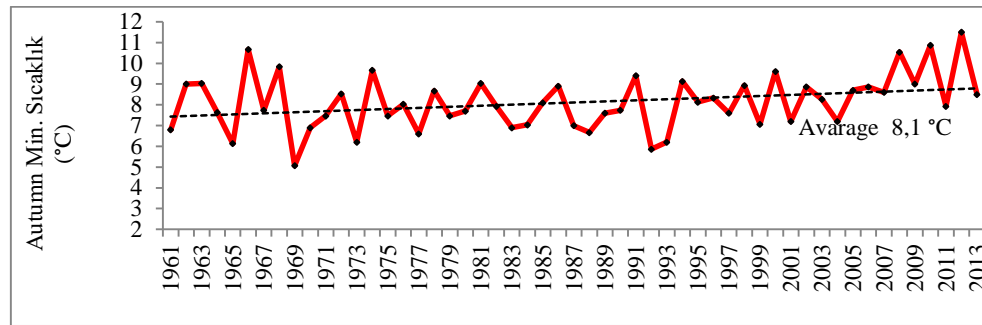
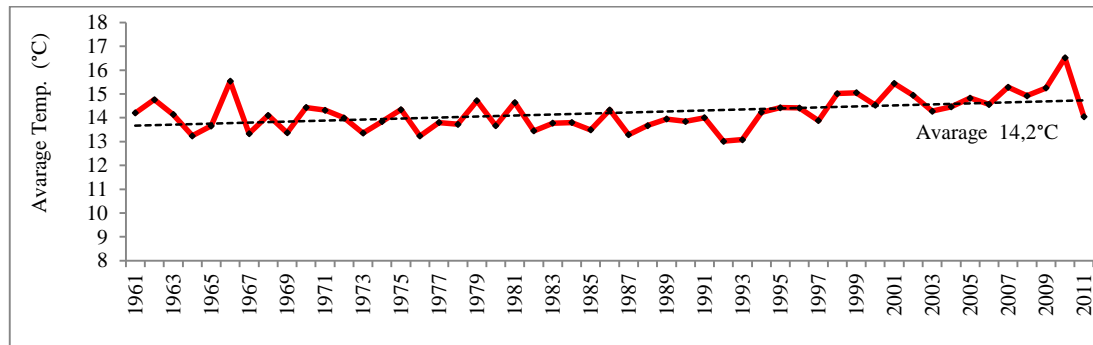
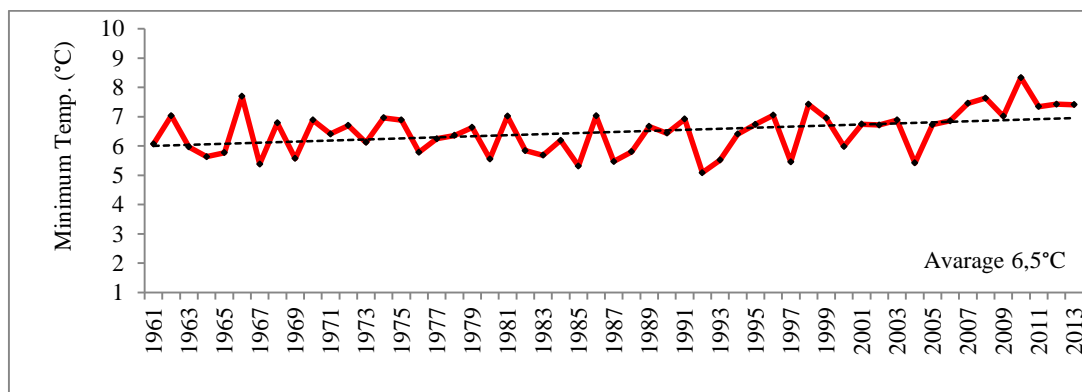


Figure 10. Rize Province Autumn Season Minimum Temperature Mann-Kendall Statistics



The graph in Figure 11 shows the average annual minimum temperature of Rize Province in 1961-2013 period. The average annual minimum temperature for this period is 6.5 °C. The graph in Figure 12 is the MK test of the same data. The coefficient MK (z) = 2.72. The time series has an upward trend in the 95 % confidence interval. The year in which the trend started was 2006.

Figure 11. Rize Province Minimum Temperature-Year Series



The graph in Figure 12 shows the change in the average annual temperature values of the autumn season in the period 1961-2013 of Rize Province. The average annual average temperature of the autumn season of this period is 15.8 °C.

Figure 12. Rize Province Autumn Season Average Temperature-Year Time Series

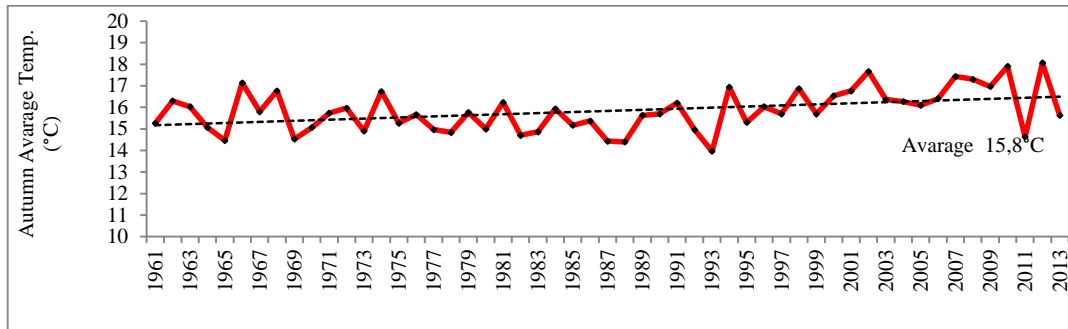
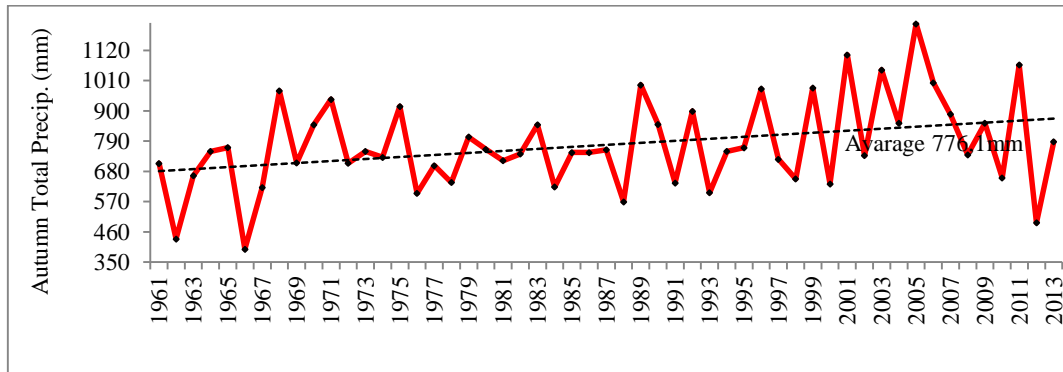


Figure 13 shows that the annual total rainfall in the autumn season of the province of Rize has been on an upward trend for many years.

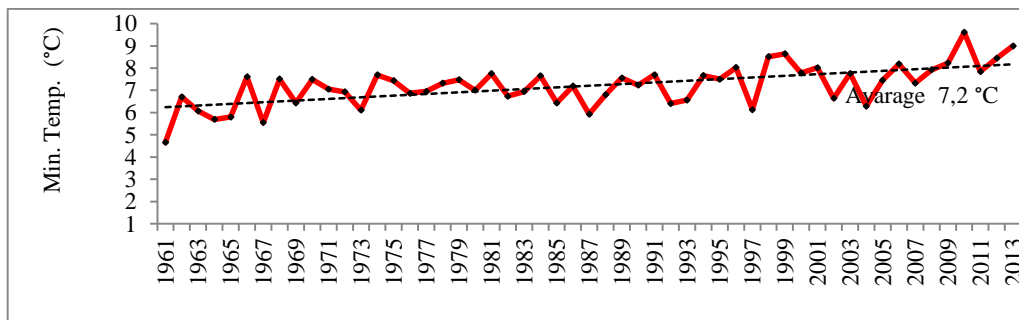
Figure 13. Rize Province Autumn Season Total Rainfall Amount-Year Series



4.3. Giresun Province

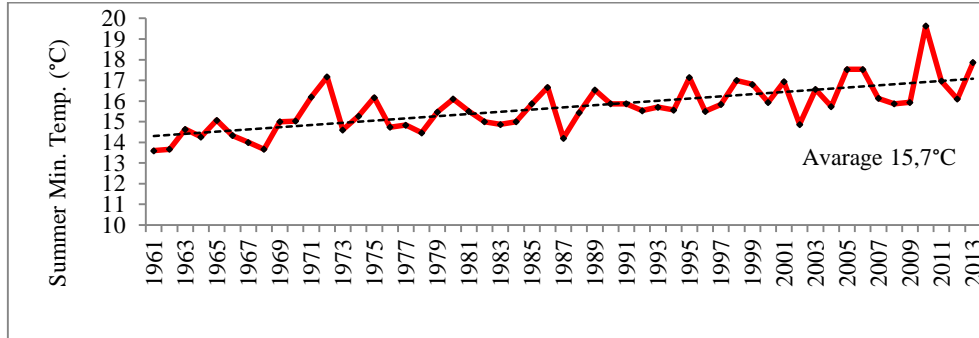
The graph in Figure 14 shows the average annual minimum temperature of Giresun 1961-2013 period. The average annual minimum temperature for this period is 7.2 °C.

Figure 14. Giresun Province Minimum Temperature-Year Series



The graph in Figure 15 shows the change in the minimum temperature values of the summer months of Giresun province in the period 1961-2013.

Figure 15. Giresun Province summer season minimum temperature-year series



The graph in Figure 15 shows the change in the annual minimum temperature values of the winter years of Giresun in 1961-2013.

Figure 16 shows the variation of the annual minimum temperature values of the spring season of Giresun Province in the period of 1961-2013 for long years. The graph in Figure 17 shows the change in the minimum temperature values of the autumn season yearly in Giresun province 1961-2013 period. The average annual minimum temperature of the autumn season is 8.9 °C.

Figure 16. Giresun Province Winter Season Minimum Temperature-Year Series

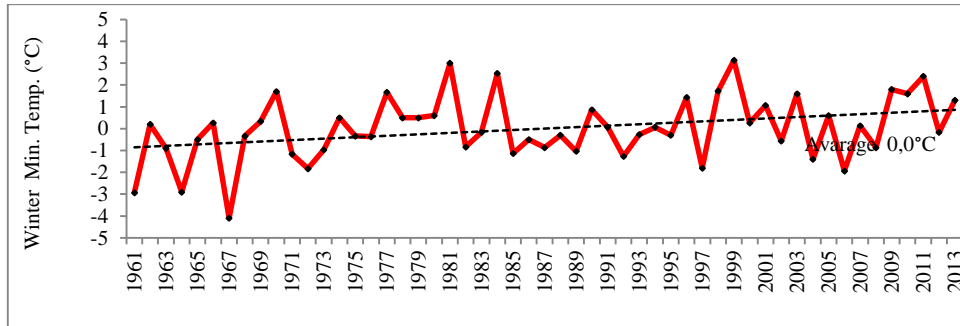


Figure 17. Giresun Province Spring Season Minimum Temperature-Year Series

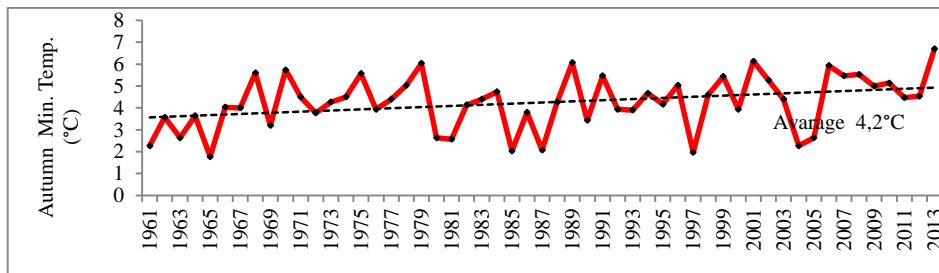
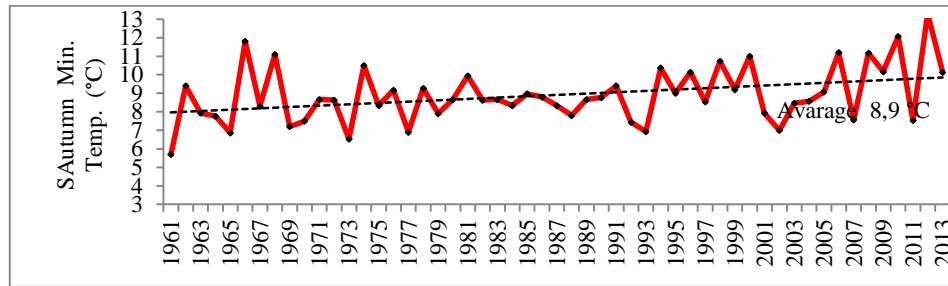
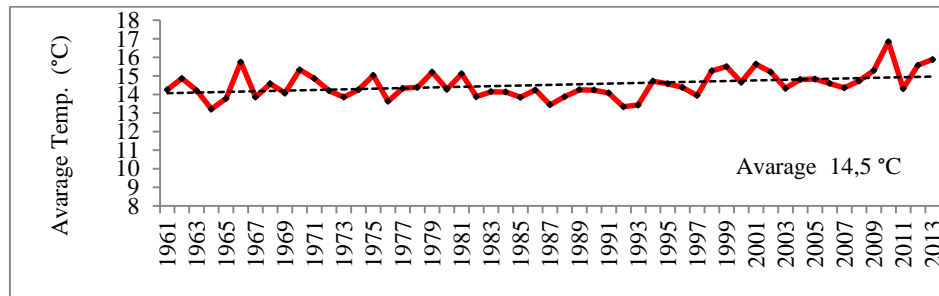


Figure 18. Giresun Province autumn season minimum temperature-year series



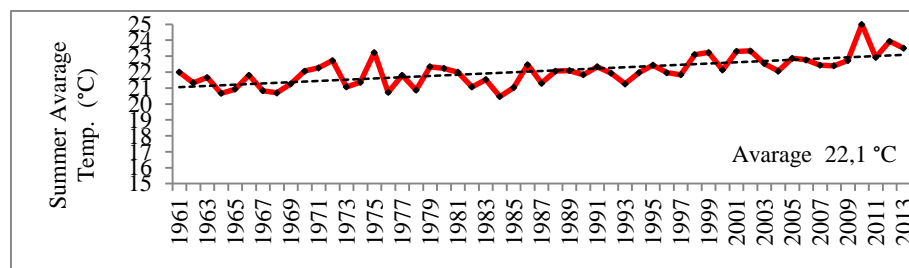
The graph in Figure 18 shows the change in the annual average temperature values for long years in Giresun province 1961-2013 period.

Figure 19. The Average Temperature-Year Series of Giresun Province



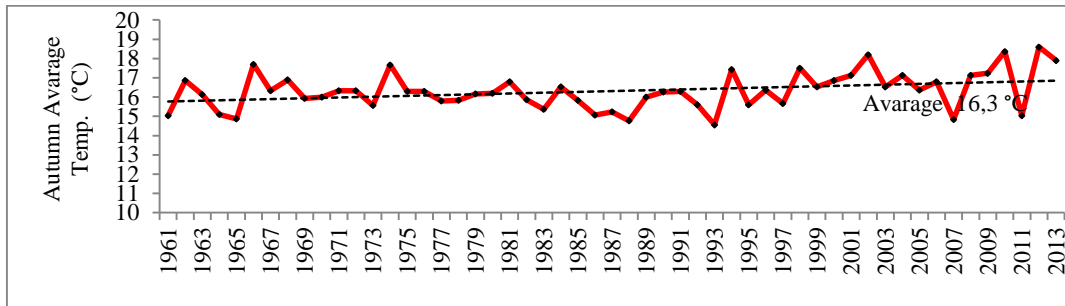
The graph in Figure 19 shows the annual average temperature values of the summer years of Giresun in the period 1961-2013. The average annual temperature of the summer period of this period is 22.1 °C.

Figure 20. The Average Temperature-Year Series in the Summer of Giresun



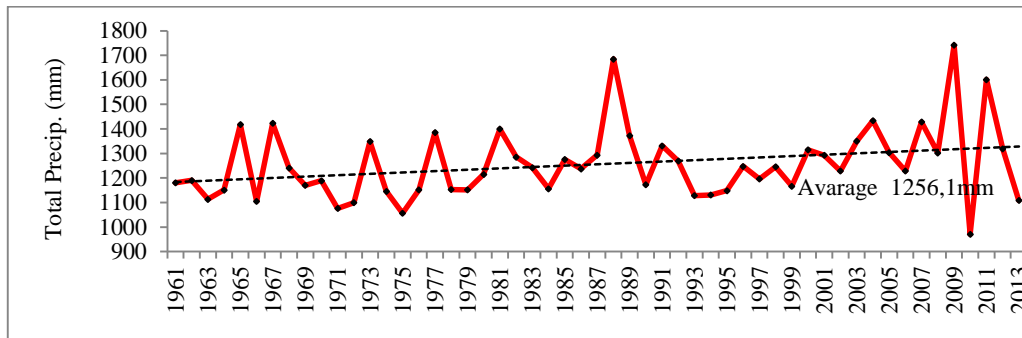
The graph in Figure 20 shows the change in the average annual temperature values of the autumn season for long years in Giresun province 1961-2013 period. The average annual temperature of the autumn season is 16.3 °C.

Figure 21. The Average Temperature-Year Series of the Fall Season of Giresun Province



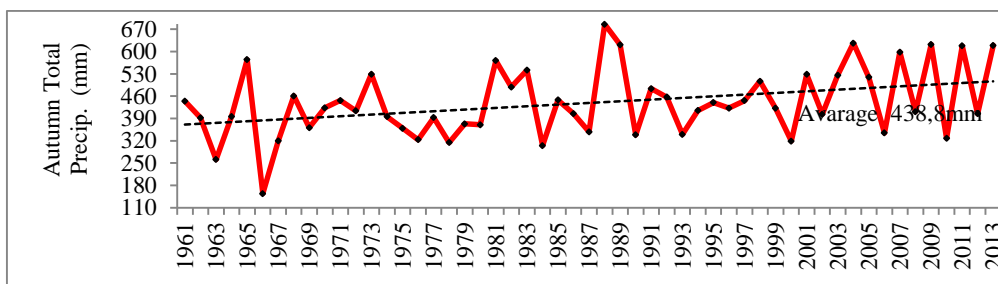
The graph in Figure 21 shows that the annual total rainfall in Giresun Province tends to increase for many years.

Figure 22. Annual total precipitation in Giresun province-year series



The graph in Figure 23 shows that the annual total rainfall in Giresun Province has an increasing trend over the years.

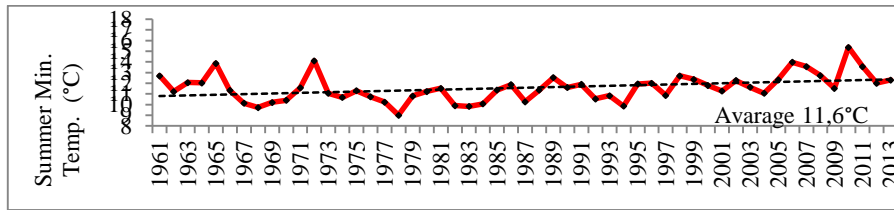
Figure 23. Yearly Total Rainfall in Giresun Province



4.4. Artvin Province

The graph in Figure 24 shows the change in the minimum temperature values of the summer year of Artvin in the period 1961-2013. Average annual minimum temperature values for this period are 11.6 °C.

Figure 24. Artvin Province Summer Season Minimum Temperature-Year Series



The graph in Figure 24 shows the change in the average annual temperature values of the summer season of Artvin in the period 1961-2013. The average annual temperature of the summer period of this period.

The graph in Figure 25 shows average annual temperature values is 20.0 °C.

Figure 26 shows that the annual total rainfall in Artvin Province in the summer of the tendency to increase for many years.

Figure 25. Artvin Province Summer Season Average Temperature-Year Series

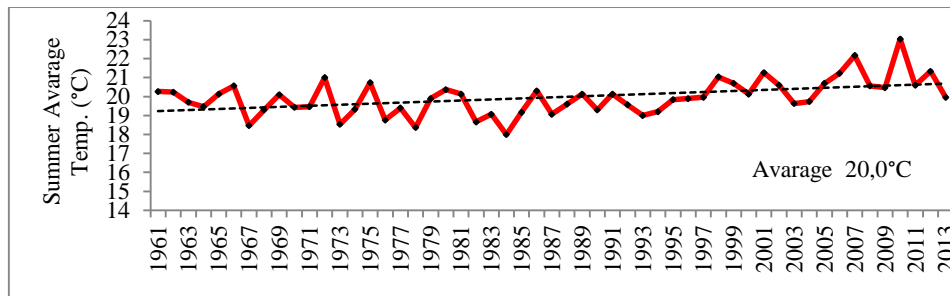
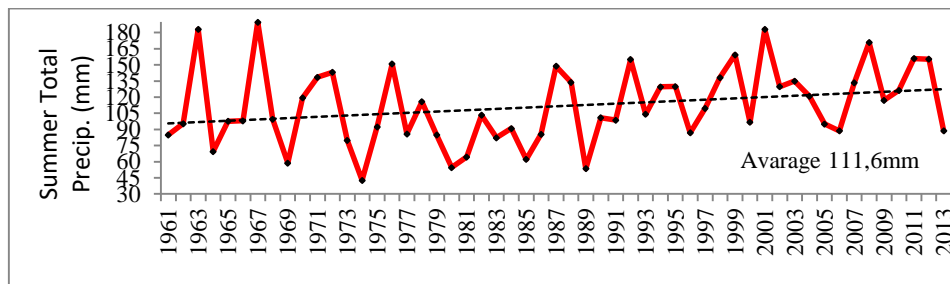


Figure 26. Artvin Province Total Summer Season Total Rainfall-Year Series



5. RESULTS

The annual average of minimum temperature values in Giresun Province tends to increase in the time series of values which are both long-term average and all seasons. The increasing trend started in summer minimum temperatures in 1988 and was observed in different seasons until 2003 in all seasons. The average temperature for the same years, the average temperature in summer and autumn months are also in an

increasing trend. The increasing trend in average temperature and the autumn average temperature for many years 2008; The average temperature of summer season began in 1998. Also, there is an increasing trend in the total annual rainfall and the total rainfall in the autumn months for many years.

There is an increasing trend in the time series of minimum, maximum and average temperatures for summer and autumn seasons in Rize Province. Also, the annual maximum, minimum and average temperature values of the long years of the time series is also a growing trend is seen. This increasing trend in temperature values started in the early 2000s. It is concluded that the values of $u(t)$ values are above the critical value 1.96 when the graphs of MS statistics are examined. Therefore, the upward trend is significant in the 95% confidence interval according to the MK statistics. The rainfall in the same city has an increasing trend in the fall season. It has been determined that the trend has been continuing until 1989.

In Artvin province, it is determined that there is an increasing tendency in summer and total precipitation in summer and minimum temperatures. This increasing trend in temperature and rainfall values started in the early 2000s. When the statistics of the MK statistics are examined, it is seen that the values of $u(t)$ are above the critical value of 1.96. Therefore, the upward trend is a significant result in the 95% confidence interval according to the MK statistics. When the significance values in Mann-Kendall Trend graphs are examined according to the seasons, the following inferences are reached;

It is observed that there is a significant trend in Giresun province in the spring season minimum temperature trends. In general, it was found that positive temperatures were observed in the 52 years of 1961-2013 period. These positive trends, which are seen in the positive direction, indicate the increase in night temperatures at minimum temperatures. That is, it is concluded that the radiative cooling is suppressed by the greenhouse effect. This increase in temperatures indicates that global warming is effective in spring.

Trends in autumn data also tend to increase. Besides the minimum and average temperature data in Giresun province, there is an increasing trend in total rainfall values. In the regions where precipitation increases with temperatures, precipitation will be shorter but more severe. This situation will increase the severity of erosion. At the same time, such a situation that may occur in the sowing period will cause damage to the sowing lands. The increasing trend in the average temperature data of the autumn season in Rize province will increase the temperature of T_d (saturation point) in this season when the precipitation increases and this will cause decreases in the amount of precipitation in this period.

When the distribution of trends in winter temperature minimum temperature data is examined, it is seen that there is a positive, meaningful trend in Giresun province. This situation will cause changes in the rainfall types seen in the winter time. For example, when the rain falls, the number of floods and floods will increase.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result, the provision of social welfare and the sustainability of daily life in order to ensure the sustainability of water resources regarding quantity and quality is sufficient to be sufficient. Nowadays, water resources are under pressure by various factors such as population growth, consumption habits and changes in land use. Climate change has been added to these factors in the last century. In summary, since water resources are under pressure with population, consumption rate and climate change effects, the most effective way to reduce these negative effects are to increase the water potential using pollution prevention, technological means and saving methods, and to put emphasis on the policies that lower the demand.

These rates should be lowered in the Eastern Anatolia Region, where the loss rates are up to 80%. The use of grey water is an application that has significant returns in metropolitan cities, where water consumption amounts and unit water prices are high. The use of grey water should be encouraged in the regions located on the south and south-west coast, where it is expected to be adversely affected by the effects of climate change. In the use of grey water, especially in new housing projects and industrial facilities, dissemination activities are of great importance. Considering the rainwater harvest as regions, priority should be given to Black Sea Region, Aegean and Marmara Region; especially with the savings to be made to the workplaces will reduce water consumption and financial return will be high. In other regions, the you invaluable olduğ feature of water has been highlighted and it can be said that all these investments are economical when they are taken from the perspective that can be evaluated with non-cost components.

When the re-use of rainwater in the basins is examined, Antalya and East Black Sea Basin come to the fore. With the effects of climate change, it is expected to increase in the precipitation of these basins. Reducing the amount of rainfall that may cause floods and storing them for later non-rainy days will reduce the negative effects of climate change. In addition, it is estimated that the effects of climate change and tourism pressure and forest fires will increase during the summer. It is possible to use the rainwater collected in this basin in order to combat forest fires. Although the North Aegean, Gediz, Büyük Menderes, Burdur and Seyhan Basins in the south and southwest regions, which are sensitive to the effects of climate change, are in the middle ranks of rainfall, their priority should be put forward.

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Gained by the Water or Gone with the Decay: Urban Culture – Coastal Design – Tourism

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Abstract

The major intention of this special session and project presentation is to demonstrate the interaction of urban culture and waterfront design via articulating different contextual, natural, historical, and contemporary criteria and design cases. We discuss selected projects ON TASARIM (On Design) from ten years' experience, designated competition, concept, and application projects focused on coastal urban environments. The designing interface of cities and water bodies is a crucial and very inevitable part of urban landscape and architecture.

Urban design is not merely a firm design exercise and being bound by the rules of a single discipline; rather it is a cumulative process of forms, functions and reflections of architectural, cultural, economic, ethical, historical, legal and technical aspects and connections. It is important to note that urban design and landscape architecture in an urban milieu needs to be handled as a “mediator”, i.e., an action of controlled adjustment of urban texture. This puts us forward to be more conscious and considerate about architectural and urban in-fills and new waterfront designs. Since any coastal project also represents the city behind or welcomes an urban environment in front, visa vis, we, landscape architects, urban designers, architects, and planners, need to pay necessary responsiveness to collective memory, dynamics and transformation of cities.

In any design activity, we must consider certain critical issues such as urban identity, heritage, local culture, universality and sense of place. Contextual compatibility, cityscape and scale, use and modifications of the existing environment must be paid attention. Environmental concerns that give character and meaning to that urban context must also be concerned as project guidelines, i.e., districts, functions, architectural monuments, natural resources, native planting and microclimate.

Keywords: Waterfront, Culture, Tourism, Heritage, Nature, Collective memory, Urban Transformation, Recreation

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1. INTRODUCTION

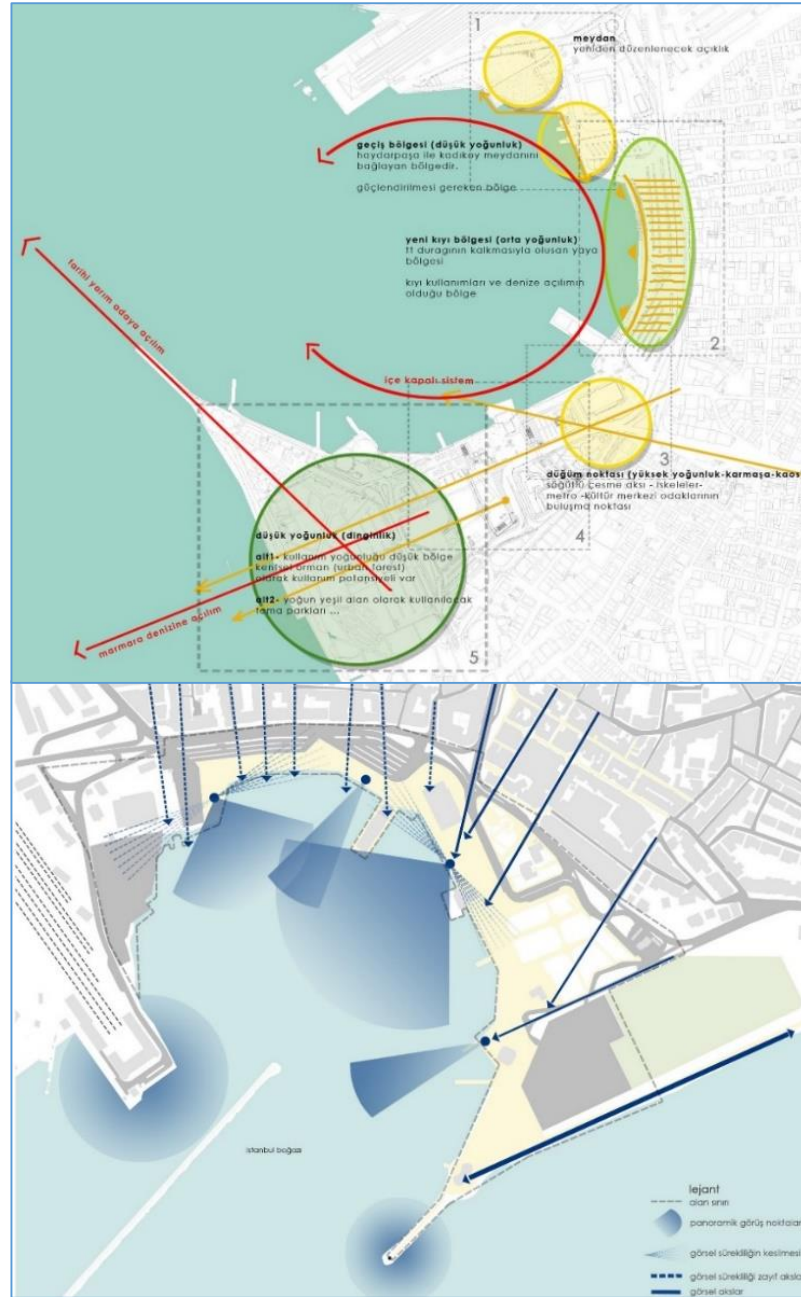
Urban design, as a knowledge domain, requires all related disciplines' guidance for design and application, particularly for city and nature encounters, waterfront projects, and cultural heritage. *ON TASARIM* claims an argument that there is no gap between conceptual/theoretical approach and design project, every project needs initial research and analysis (Figure 1, 2, 3, 4). Urban design, urban landscape architecture for our recent projects, is not a formal and aesthetic design exercise and being bound by the rules of a single discipline, rather it is a cumulative process of forms, functions, meanings, and reflections of architectural, cultural, economic, ethical, historical, legal and technical considerations.

It is important to note that urban design and landscape architecture in an urban milieu needs to be handled as a “mediator”, i.e., an action of controlled alteration of nature to integrate with the urban texture, or an action of a change of urban environment to respect and recall the existing nature. Urban design must contain dialogue with the user /customer, the inhabitants of an area or those likely to use.

“The users hold the knowledge of how an existing area works, its needs and possibilities. Collaborative planning and design processes and a shared understanding of the issues ensure attention to local concerns and reduce possible antagonism from local communities to change” (Yeang, 2000, p.10).

As Meyer claims (cited in Swaffield, Ed., 2002, pp. 21-31), the theory is a ‘bridging and reconciling device’ of new urban reality for practice within the field of urban landscape architecture. Designers and users, engineers and artists, historians and investors, policymakers and the public need to work together, to have a shared think tank, and to prospect for the future together. This situation puts us, architects and designers, forward to be more careful and respectful about in-fills and changes for new waterfront designs. Since any coastal project also represents the city behind or welcomes an urban environment in front, *visa vis*, we, landscape architects, urban designers, architects, and planners, need to pay necessary attention to heritage, collective memory, environmental factors such as climate, vegetation, and landform, universal design, sense of place, and transformation of cities.

Figure 1. Contextual Analyses of Kadıköy – Haydarpaşa Meeting: Collective Memory and Urban Integration



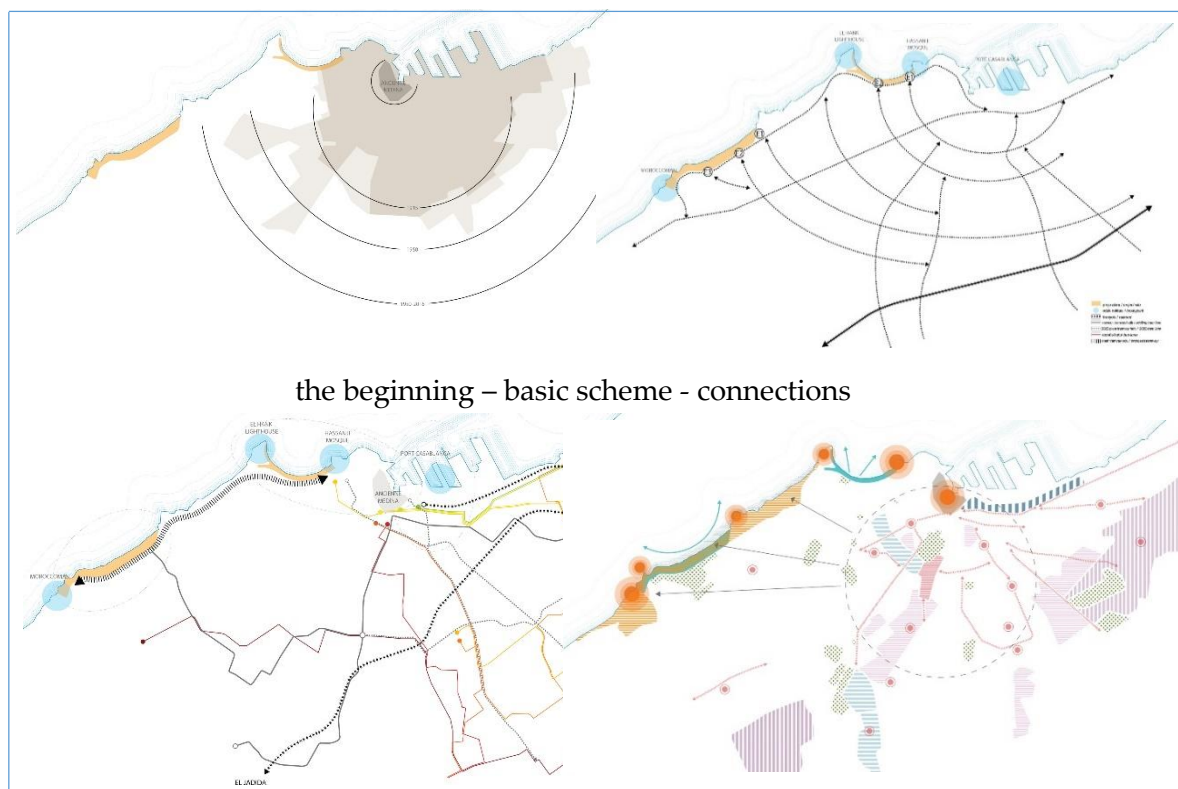
Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

Figure 2. Urban Skyline of Kadıköy, Scenery from the Sea



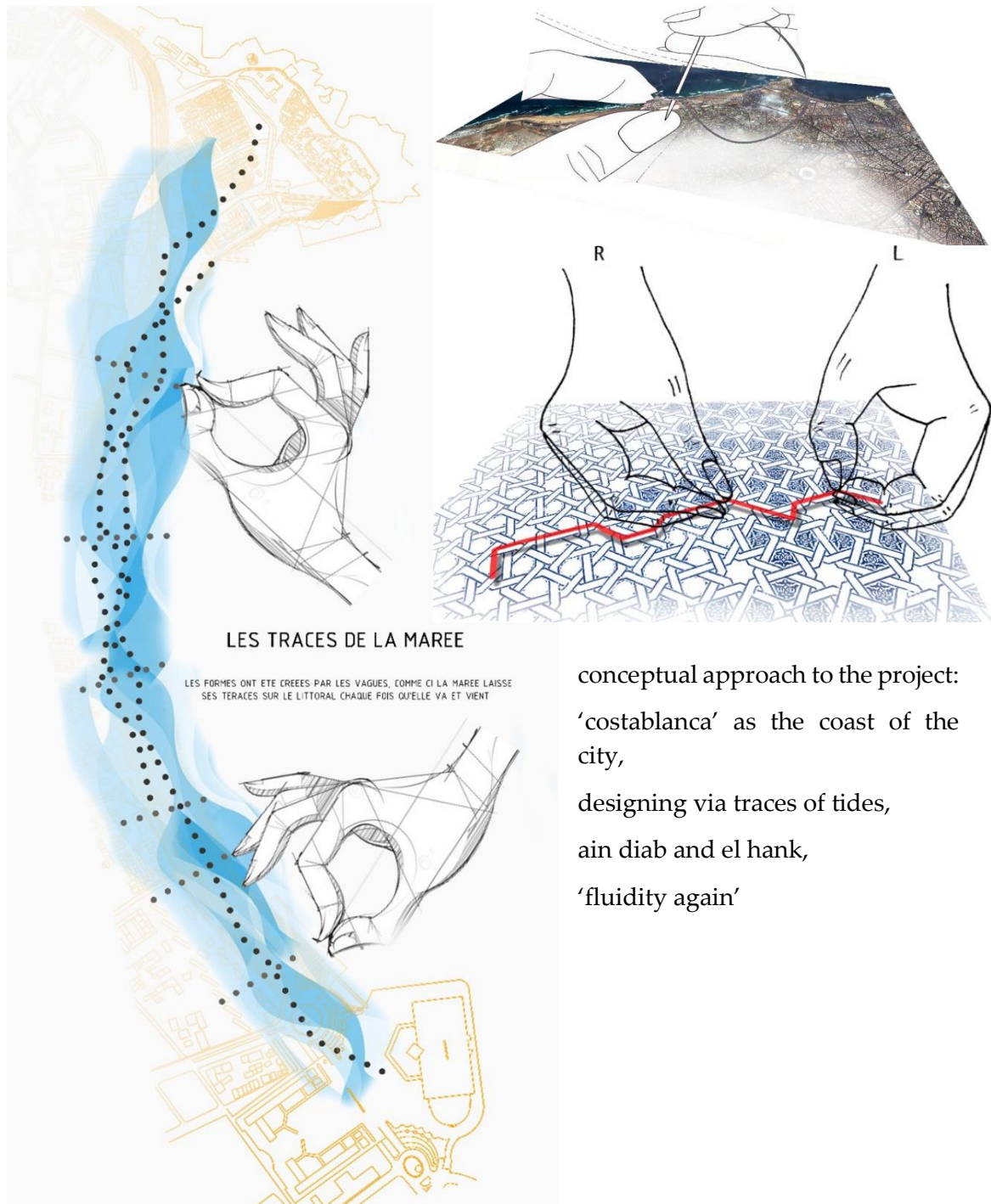
Photo credit: Koray Kalay

Figure 3. Analyses of Morocco Casablanca Waterfront Design and Architectural Project



Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

Figure 4. Casablanca and the Atlantic Ocean: being tied up!



conceptual approach to the project:
 'costablanca' as the coast of the city,
 designing via traces of tides,
 ain diab and el hank,
 'fluidity again'

Source: ON TASARIM Concept Team

2. NATURE – TOURISM and COASTAL DESIGN

Nature is the ultimate guide of our coastal design projects mostly in the way of landscape preservation and/or restoration, urban coastal rehabilitation, environmental sustainability, recreation, and definitely of eco-tourism. After initial design research, analyses, and site studies we make nature and tourism-oriented design projects in the form of linear parks, waterfront promenades, riverfront design, wetland design, greenways, coastal squares, ports, and of marinas.

Interdisciplinarity, or rather trans-disciplinarity of urban landscape projects bring an additional effort of design programming, concepts and themes for urban resilience and ecological stance. Designing in a city requires not only concerning the future of natural assets but also bringing natural forms back.

The major aim of 'Kurbağalıdere Valley– Kuşdili – Kadıköy Ecological Renewal' project is to develop a discourse that will breathe life into İstanbul's Kadıköy, Kurbağalıdere a Kuşdili meadow, and to integrate old and new by re-connecting the overall project site to nature (Figure 5). The project does not only offer a planning and design model for Kurbağalıdere but, for all the endangered valley systems of İstanbul. Along the Kurbağalıdere Valley, river rehabilitation projects are planned to restore the natural balance that has been lost throughout the years. With ecological restoration, functions such as permaculture, biological filtering and ecological shelters will be renewed.

the reproduction and spawning periods of the water birds. The elevated main pedestrian promenade of the project, 'Ecological Coastal Line', runs as a unique green bridge penetrating the heart of the city; symbolising the co-existence of the city and nature with mutual respect and tolerance.

Figure 6. General View of 'İzmit Ecological Coastal Line'



Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

The main aim of the 'Alanya Urban Square and Seaside' project is to create an open-space network that takes reference and inspiration from historic landscapes, that efficiently invites the residents of the city to the waterfront, and that encourages the use of the seaside. The project strives to move Alanya to the edge of the Mediterranean again by devising a strong pedestrian network as its spine. The most important architectural element of the square is the existing Municipality Hall that contributes to it an urban scale and identity (Figure 7).

Figure 7. History, Info and Exhibition Hall – Hasbahçe and the Mediterranean Sea



Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

3. URBAN CULTURE and COASTAL DESIGN

In any urban design and landscape architecture project on existing and historical coastal sites, we consider certain critical issues such as cultural heritage and historical preservation, urban identity, local culture, urban and architectural rehabilitation, and natural revitalisation. Social and physical urban contexts lead our various scale waterfront projects, always keeping in mind future predictions, design programming, contemporary needs, and functional requirements.

The main design principle of the environmentally focused Culture Park, namely ‘Sekapark’ (Figure 8), is to create a regional park that will become the mirror of Kocaeli by supplying every need of its residents, to preserve natural, industrial, and architectural heritage, and to protect all existing historic structures for future generation by repurposing them as form industrial archaeology, and by uniting them with green texture.

Figure 8. Organic Fishermen Pier



Source: ON TASARIM Archive

‘The Zonguldak Lavoir Protection Area and its Surroundings’ project aims to produce a synergy between industrial archaeology and contemporary architecture while reconfiguring the relationships of city-sea and centre-pedestrian. The claiming of the TTK and Lavoir areas for public use will breathe life into a very narrowly east-west oriented city, which is currently being torn apart by these very areas themselves (Figure 9). The project revolves around design decisions that aim to re-establish the balance between nature and the city while replenishing collective urban memories such as a funicular system proposed between the new urban square to the west of the project area; transforming the Lavoir structure into an art node; an abstract and permeable structure right next to the partly ruined Coal Washery building; a black granite monumental miner statue, called the ‘black diamond’, located inside the permeable structure; cypress trees symbolizing miners planted along the boulevard.



Figure 9. Contemporary Arts Center and Multi-purpose Lawn Area

Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

“Ağadere Field Hospital” is one of the spatial witnesses of the most dramatic memories of the Çanakkale War. The experiences there both symbolise despair and hopelessness while describing pride and hope. The feeling of death experienced in these lands is the sadness of not being able to defend the land of one’s own. The aim of the soldiers brought to the field hospital is to get better as soon as possible and to go back to the trenches. Thus, to experience eternity as a martyr is the end of hope, a kind of regret, but never the fear of death. The project is shaped around these sentiments, aiming that the visitors experience the events and feelings of the past in their purest form: Hope on one side, an eternity on the other... A picture of combat... Water, which accompanies the visitors since the start of the journey, follows them to the end. This is a modest design approach that forefronts the geography and respect of topography, and that departs from the ‘less is more’ principle. The martyred soldiers are symbolized by human-size lit steel rods in the rural landscape, the main pedestrian axis is ‘the way of eternity’ (Figure 10) leading to the ‘memorial wall’, the marine transportation of the hospital is symbolized by ‘the deck of hope’, while the memory park symbolizes the natural landscape that witnessed the collective memory (the valley, pine forest, olive trees and herbaceous plants).

Figure 10. The ‘Way of Eternity’ and the Gallipoli Peninsula



Source: ON TASARIM Design Team

4. CONCLUSION

Interdisciplinary design and research teams, conceptual and visual representations of several ideas and spaces, and ten years of experience show that urban landscape architecture deserves more awareness for its critical importance and necessity of the field by public and private institutions, professionals, and educators.

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The Perceived Influence of Slow City (Cittaslow) Status on Tourism and Local People: A Study in Aylsham, United Kingdom
Dr Yeşim Coşar¹

Abstract

There are two extreme cases in the world of tourism. One is seeking happiness by taking vacations in quieter places, while the other is accepting the advantages and disadvantages of mass tourism in a busy environment. The concept of a slow city was initiated to be of help to the former world of tourism while being a crucial response to the latter as well. As there has been a limited empirical investigation of the slow city concept and its influence on tourism development in a specific field, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceived influence of a slow city on the local people in light of tourism development. The study includes a historic market town located in the Norfolk region of the UK, and the findings suggest that the perceived benefits of slow city status appear to be neutral, albeit some people are in favour of its economic advantages. In the concluding remarks, the study further compares the results with those of other previous studies and provides both theoretical and practical implications.

Keywords: Cittaslow, Slow city, Slow food, Sustainable tourism, Tourism development

1 INTRODUCTION

Not only the world population but also the international tourist population has had an immense increase over the last few decades. Improved transportation and information technology networks and the introduction of new destinations have played leading roles in such a positive consequence on the industry side (Kozak & Baloğlu, 2011). On the supply side, the rapid increase in tourism demand has caused rapid urbanisation, congestion of air, road and rail travel, and noise pollution; and social and natural resources face the risk of deteriorating. This continued until the beginning of the new millennium, and in the meantime, numerous solutions have been considered and included into implementation, such as sustainable tourism, sustainable development, sustainable demand (Fletcher, 2011), and others such as the introduction of destination management practices (Kozak & Baloğlu, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Pike, 2004). With the

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combination of both trends, there are thousands of articles, conference papers and books that have been published in the tourism literature.

On the other hand, over the last few decades, the impacts of the globalisation process have been observed in the areas of economics, culture, politics and social welfare worldwide. With its expansion into all of the living environment of humanity, globalisation has led to the creation of new movements and responses. One of these is the movement of ecotourism that takes into consideration the practice of responsible travel with the primary purpose of conserving the natural resources and cultural values of local communities and building respect both from visitors and hosts (Fletcher, 2011). In the context of sustainable tourism, ecotourism has close ties with the principles of the slow city, which is based on the idea of slow food that was promoted in 1989. The extension of both slow food and slow cities into tourism studies became prominent in the early 2000s. In this context, the literature on tourism in recent years has included research into the close nexus between the management of slow cities and the application of sustainable forms of tourism (e.g., Knox, 2005; Mayer & Knox, 2006). Some of these impressive applications, in various countries across the world, are discussed in a book entitled *Slow Tourism: Experiences and Mobilities* (Fullagar, Markwell, & Wilson, 2012).

As a consequence, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceived influence of slow city status on the local people in light of tourism development. To accomplish this objective, the study has followed the steps of the qualitative research method, namely by conducting interviews among residents, owners and managers of tourism establishments. According to Table 1, no tourists were interviewed. Making observations in Aylsham, a slow city of the Norfolk region of the United Kingdom (UK). In light of the assessment of the qualitative data, the study revisits the objectives mentioned above and provides empirical evidence to understand the extent to which it has been accomplished. In the concluding remarks, the study further provides both theoretical and practical implications.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1997, the first movement of the concept of “slow food” was initiated in Italy, as a response to the widespread influence or multiplier effect of the concept of “fast food” throughout the world. Successful implementation of this movement led to other forms of additional slow movements. As a consequence, the concept of a “slow city” (Cittaslow) was also introduced in Italy in 1999. The structure of this term comes from the combination of the words “citta” in Italian and “slow” in English and is used with the meaning of a “slow city” (Ekinci, 2014). In a symposium organised by the fellows of this movement, a network of slow cities was formed with the co-signature of the mayors of four small villages in Italy who reached a consensus on the fact that the problem should be taken into consideration by urban politics. These villages include Greve, Bra,

Orvieto, and Positano. Since then, the concept has spread to other countries worldwide, becoming an international symbol of slow life from Canada to Australia.

The concept of the slow city was highly influenced by the introduction of slow food (Radstrom, 2005). Although the aims of these two movements are distinct, they are complementary in several relevant respects. For example, both movements emphasise the protection of local and traditional culture, and both envisage spending time in a relaxed, slow and enjoyable manner (Knox, 2005). With less traffic and smaller population sizes, slow cities challenge the trend of the bustling “homogenised world” which results from the consequences of globalisation (Knox, 2005).

Since the years dating back to the end of World War II, migration has caused the emergence of an increase in populations leading to an uncontrollable degree of overdevelopment not only in metropolitan cities but also in tourist destinations (Fletcher, 2011). The “slow city” approach was introduced as an alternative to the concept of “the current modern life,” in order to make it possible for the inhabitants of particular cities to lead a comparatively comfortable life, away from noise and environmental pollution, in a naturally and culturally unspoiled atmosphere (Coşar & Kozak, 2014; Gunn, 2015). In the tourism context, slow cities have been recently seen as an instrument offering first aid to maintain the sustainability of tourist destinations and their marketing efforts (Coşar, Timur & Kozak, 2015).

In current modern cities, called metropolitan areas, working conditions place great restrictions on people’s time, due to the length of time spent travelling from one place to another; in addition, fulfilling one’s daily responsibilities and duties puts pressure on people, and transportation from one place to another causes environmental and noise pollution. As a result, metropolitan residents are rarely able to come into contact with one another on common ground. The basic distinction between metropolitan life and the concept of a slow city can render a service to tourism, with respect to sustainability. Sustainability is a perspective aimed at conserving living standards, thus making it possible for contemporary people and tourists to benefit from natural, cultural, and economic assets obtained for the fulfilment of their fundamental needs (Aransson, 1994; Liu, 2003).

Conversely, sustainability is also a perspective that will guarantee the fulfilment of the needs of future generations, which can be imagined engaging in similar lifestyles in the years to come. This perspective has been approached quite differently in recent years and across a range of countries, both due to the way that the tourism industry operates and because natural, cultural resources directly supporting tourism are limited. These resources are not only for the use of the current generations but will also be used by prospective tourists in various periods as necessities as long as humankind exists (Garrod & Fyall, 1998).

The conducting of empirical studies on the slow city in tourism has been on a steady increase over recent years. Although not common for all slow cities accepted into the family of Cittaslow, there are at least a few representations of empirical investigations in the tourism literature. These studies originate mainly from European countries such as Italy, the UK and Turkey (Coşar & Kozak, 2014; Coşar, Timur & Kozak, 2015; Ekinici, 2014; Gunn, 2015; Nilsson, Svard, Widarsson & Wirell, 2011). With its increasing number of Cittaslow fellows, Turkey takes the lead regarding putting more effort into conducting academic studies on slow cities and slow food; although Italy, as the home country for Cittaslow, has been ranked the first place regarding the number of fellow cities.

In his master's thesis, Gunn (2015) has investigated the major motivations for becoming a slow city and its possible effects on tourism in Aylsham, the representative town of the UK. The findings of this qualitative study carried out among business owners conclude that being in Cittaslow has had very little impact on tourism businesses, but the participants remain optimistic about increasing their customer numbers and profits as long as the right promotional strategies are to be followed in the future. This study lacks the consideration of the opinions of residents but looks at the issue from an economic perspective through the eyes of business operators.

According to the results of another empirical study in Turkey (Coşar & Kozak, 2014), the impacts of slow city status on the local people of Seferihisar can be assessed from both the positive and negative perspectives. Firstly, it can be argued that the positive outcomes show parallels with the positive impacts mentioned previously. That is to say, the local people particularly emphasise the economic and cultural outcomes and consider the following as the economic gains: Seferihisar achieved the status of a branded city as a result of running successful promotional campaigns, which in turn increased visitor demand and enabled the implementation of the local market concept. Employment opportunities increased, new areas of employment for housewives were created and manufactures began to explore new product ideas. Following this, the local economy started to thrive, and the local people's income began to rise. Secondly, despite such benefits on the economic side, unfortunately, the town has been under risk of losing its natural appeal due to the uncontrollable number of visitors and the influx of migration that has led to a major impact on the construction business.

Although the tourism products, to a great extent, rely on destination resources, these resources are not under the control of the tourism industry. Because destinations have become popular with the support of their visitors but, at the same time, may follow a pattern that tourism development can itself lead to the loss of popularity of destinations (Davidson & Maitland, 1997). Therefore, the significant issue is the application of sustainability practices in destinations, and also the establishment of city

identity management (Ratcliffe & Flanagan, 2004). The principle of a slow city is expected to play a major role in the accomplishment of these goals. For example, in its recent branding studies, Slovenia has been promoted as a slow tourism destination with its six characteristics, namely slowness, sustainability, time, contamination, emotion, and authenticity (Georgica, 2015), all of which refer to the mission of a slow city.

Finally, in response to any possible problems that may occur as a result of the slow city status, various cases can be examined. For instance, in Levanto, another representative of the slow city in Italy, the city refused to welcome the American cruise ship travellers as they did not respect the principles of Cittaslow (Nilsson, Svard, Widarsson, & Wirell, 2011). Furthermore, the local municipality of Seferihisar, the first slow city in Turkey, has encouraged the local farmers and housewives to pay more attention to increase the production of the traditional types of organic food, both in the field and in their kitchen, and sell them in the local market (Coşar, Timur, & Kozak, 2015).

3 METHODOLOGY

First, the literature was extensively reviewed before the development of the structure of this study. As there have been a limited number of empirical studies on the introduction and influence of the slow city concept on the development of the local tourism industry, the use of qualitative research would be appropriate for the investigation of the subject. Qualitative research employs various academic disciplines and has a strong theoretical foundation. It aims to understand human behaviour from different perspectives and conduct research in natural settings (Whittemore, Chase, Susan, & Carol, 2001). This method is effective for collecting data in order to gain insight into the natural settings and perceptions as they are, without manipulation.

There are various data collection techniques within the qualitative research method. For this research, interview techniques were used to collect the primary data. This involves the preparation of appropriate research questions and then asking the participants of the research these questions (Smith & Eatough, 2007; Brotherton, 2008). The significant feature of this technique is that in-depth face-to-face interviews bring to light the viewpoints of the participants (Smith & Eatough, 2007; Brotherton, 2008). In order to minimise the limitations of this technique and collect the desired data in detail, appropriate research questions were designed for semi-structured interviews, and hand-written notes were taken during the interviews. As indicated below, a list of 10 questions was prepared; seven questions referred to the meaning or the influence of being a slow city, and three questions included socio-demographic characteristics such as the length of being a resident, profession and age.

1. Do you know if Aylsham is a slow city?
2. Do you know about the meaning of the slow city?
3. What kinds of benefits do you think living in a slow city provide you?
4. Have you observed any negative effects of being a slow city? If, yes, what?
5. How likely are you to be happy with living in Aylsham?
6. Does being a slow city support the improvement of tourism? If so, how?
7. Does being a slow city support economic recovery?
8. How long have you lived in Aylsham?
9. What is your profession?
10. How old are you?

As indicated on Map 1, the application of the slow city concept is accommodated in five locations in the UK, namely Aylsham, Berwick-upon-Tweed, Llangollen, Mold, and Perth. Among these, with its low population of over 5,000, Aylsham is a small village located in the south-east part of the country close to London, the capital city of the UK, and was accepted into the slow city family on 3 May 2008. It is a historical city trying to attract more visitors. Interviews were conducted among 12 people residing in Aylsham, Norfolk, England. The entire interview process took one full day on 29 August 2015. The participation in the interview was voluntary, and the level of the knowledge of participants about the slow city concept was taken into consideration. The length of the interview devoted to each interviewee varied between 15 and 35 minutes. As suggested by the literature (Whitemore, Chase, Susan, & Carol, 2001), observations were completed in the natural settings of this Cittaslow town.

Table 1. The Profiles of Interviewees

No	Profession	Age	Length of Residency in Town (in years)
1	Café owner	33	5
2	Florist	49	2,5
3	Butcher	42	23
4	Real Estate Agent	48	30
5	Secondhand Shop Owner	52	2
6	Carpet Seller	50	10
7	Bookstore Owner	80	42
8	Teacher	45	12
9	Stationary Shop Owner	71	19

10	Sales Agent	34	5
11	Service Staff	24	3
12	Restaurant Owner	39	17

4 RESULTS

As a part of this research, interviews were carried out in Aylsham, Norfolk. Almost all of the participant's highlight that being a Cittaslow town has provided no contribution to the development of tourism services in any way. Only one participant suggests that tourism began to become developed after the slow city status was granted in 2008. Another participant points out that having the slow city status has helped the promotion of the town, and for this reason, the number of visitors to the area has increased and would likely further increase in time:

Being a slow city helps the promotion of Aylsham. As a slow city, it captures the interests and curiosity of visitors. (Participant 6)

There has been an increase in the publicity of the town. Tourism has already developed in its neighbouring locations but is partially supported in Aylsham, too. (Participant 7)

Also, as suggested widely by some respondents, there are several nearby facilities and beaches that attract tourists, and this is likely to create a spillover effect on further intentions to visit Aylsham as a complementary location for shopping and dining at cafes and restaurants that serve homemade food. The two respondents state that:

There are several touristy places in the neighbourhood such as Blickling Hall so that Aylsham had attracted tourists before being granted status as a slow city. Aylsham is more attractive for its slow food image and local markets. (Participant 1)

Although it is a small town, the residents are perceived to be friendly towards foreigners and appear to be happy living in Aylsham because it has a wide variety of facilities to meet the needs of its residents. Also, Aylsham is considered to be an easy town to travel around locally, and one that is noise-free and tranquil. Even though it is a tranquil town, it is also pleasant as festivals, local markets, farmer's markets and food festivals are organised on a regular basis. Although these events boost the local economy and the level of the quality of life, the local products and festival organisations had been supported and become significant before the slow city status being granted. Two respondents explain that:

A variety of festivals are organised on a regular basis. These festivals create dynamism for the local economy. I have already sold out all my flowers in the shop for an upcoming event. (Participant 2)

I am so happy and proud of living here. The life in Aylsham is comfortable and enjoyable. Festivals are organised, and as a result, the number of visitors is increasing these days. (Participant 3)

To sum up, the interviewees in the first stage confirm that being a slow city has had a limited influence on the development of the welfare in Aylsham and its residents. However, the influence of other organisations such as festivals have had a greater influence on the economic welfare of the town, but the organisation of such festivals is not closely linked with the slow city status, rather such festivals have been occurring for a longer period in the history of the town.

As to the second category of the data analysis that summarises the perceived negative consequences of being involved in tourism activities, generally speaking, the residents have observed no significant influence. However, only one respondent claims that the town has been likely to become busier due to the consequences of more incoming visitors particularly during the festivals being held (Respondent 3). This may create the reluctance of dealing with traffic problems that the residents are not used to in other periods of the year.

5 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Since Aylsham became a slow city, there has been no considerable change in the living standards or welfare of its local people, although it did not create any influence on raising their expectations, either.

Additionally, no tangible impacts have been observed in the town.

Furthermore, the slow city status did not have any visible effect on the development of tourism; however, this is expected to change in the future. In his recent similar study carried out in Aylsham, Gunn (2015) also reached similar conclusions. By our observations, Aylsham, in general, is a better fit for the criteria of being a slow city. There are dynamic activities organised particularly for maintaining the conservation of local products and local cuisine. The organised festivals, local markets and cafes and restaurants selling homemade food contribute to the boosting of the local economy.

As suggested by Ekinci (2014), many locations, such as those in Turkey, lack the capacity for the rules to fulfil the official requirements of being accredited as a slow city. However, the comparison of the findings with other similar studies reveals that Aylsham fulfils the criteria to become a slow city. The results of the observations and interviews reveal that having slow city status has had partial positive impacts on

Aylsham. These include a rise in the number of festivals organised and the promotion of the town. Participants predominantly believe that the slow city status has had no meaningful impact on the town as well as no undesirable impact, either. The research discovered that the local people in Aylsham have received the information that Aylsham is a slow city, but are not very well informed about the meaning of being a slow city.

On the other hand, in another study in Seferihisar, a Turkey-based slow city, all participants had some kind of knowledge about the concept of slow food and the local people in Turkey are better informed about the concept of a slow city. They are aware that they are living in a city that has been accredited as a slow city (Cosar & Kozak, 2014). However, before the period that Aylsham was awarded the status of the slow city, the cooking of homemade food, the operation of local markets and organisation of local events had already developed. However, in other slow cities like those in Turkey, these have begun to be developed, and events have begun to be organised since the slow city status was awarded.

It is also interesting to note that Seferihisar and Aylsham are distinct from each other regarding the size of the population and the land area, the former being much larger than the latter. Such a difference can be expanded to include the variations in the benefits sought. For instance, Seferihisar, like any other slow cities in Turkey, has taken advantage of being a slow city, which has resulted in more visitors, more facilities and more opportunities to generate income. Among the disadvantages, there are the increasing population size, increasing price levels and the loss of the natural environment, resources and local traditions, etc. Aylsham appears to have experienced neither such advantages nor disadvantages as its planning does not rely on the consequences of being a slow city nor of tourism development; rather it has created and followed its practices in town planning.

As to the implications for the practice, the study findings together with their comparison to other similar destinations suggest that slow city status is not a single factor itself in maintaining sustainability in any destination. Furthermore, destinations can successfully adapt their practices or measures into place regardless of whether they are a part of the slow city family or not. Departing from this point as a theoretical implication, the implications for the practice may underline the fact that destination authorities should always be prepared to implement the best practices for the sake of the welfare of their residents and their tourism services even though there is no factor that can be externally driven such as slow city status. Externally– driving practices, such as observed in many slow cities of Turkey, may not be as influential or as welcomed as those practices that are developed within a location's natural settings.

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Map 1. List of slow cities in the United Kingdom



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