STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN TURKEY: ŞANLIURFA PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING CASE

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

BAHAR GEDİKLİ

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING

OCTOBER 2004

Approval of the Graduate School of Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences.

_____

Prof. Dr. Canan ÖZGEN
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

_____

Prof. Dr. Ali TÜREL
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

_____

Prof. Dr. Melih ERSOY
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. İlhan Tekeli (METU, CRP) _____

Prof.Dr. Melih Ersoy (METU, CRP) _____

Prof.Dr. Can Hamamcı (Ankara Unv.) _____

Assoc.Prof.Dr.H.Çağatay Keskinok (METU CRP) _____

Assoc.Prof.Dr.H.Tarık Şengül (METU ADM) _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name : Bahar Gedikli

Signature :

ABSTRACT

THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING AND
ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN TURKEY:
THE ŞANLIURFA PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING CASE

Gedikli, Bahar
Ph.D., Department of City and Regional Planning
Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Melih Ersoy

October 2004, 275 pages

This thesis aims at analyzing the strategic spatial planning, which has received widespread acceptance both in developed and developing countries. Turkey is one of the countries that has been trying to adopt this new tendency. Recently, Provincial Development Planning has been introduced into the Turkish planning system as a strategic planning attempt. This thesis evaluates the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning case with respect to a set of criteria; underlines the role of contingent factors (specific actors in the process and their roles) in the satisfaction of these criteria; and highlights the role of place-specific factors (quality of social capital, level of economic development) in the planning process. The strategic planning is not merely concerned with the planning process; but also with implementation and monitoring stages. Therefore, the thesis stresses that these three integral stages –*planning, implementation and monitoring*—should be equally considered with agents, roles and resources so that the plans can be implemented.

Keywords: strategic spatial planning, communicative rationality, collaboration, social capital, contingency

ÖZ

STRATEJİK MEKAN PLANLAMASI VE TÜRKİYE'DE UYGULANMASI:
ŞANLIURFA İL GELİŞME PLANLAMASI ÖRNEĞİ

GEDİKLİ, Bahar
Doktora, Şehir ve Bölge Planlama Bölümü
Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Melih ERSOY

Ekim 2004, 275 sayfa

Bu tezin amacı, hem gelişmiş hem de gelişmekte olan ülkelerde giderek yaygınlaşan stratejik mekan planlamasının incelenmesidir. Türkiye bu yeni planlama yaklaşımını benimseyen ülkeler arasındadır. İl Gelişme Planlaması, yakın geçmişte Türk planlama sistemine giren bir stratejik planlama deneyimidir. Bu tez Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planlaması örneğini genel bir ölçütler kümesine göre değerlendirmekte; bu ölçütlerin sağlanmasında rol oynayan olumsal faktörlerin (aktörler ve roller) altını çizmekte; ve yerele özgü özelliklerin planlama sürecindeki rolünü (sosyal sermayenin niteliği, ekomonik gelişmişlik düzeyi) vurgulamaktadır. Stratejik planlama sadece planlama aşamasını değil, uygulama ve denetleme aşamalarını da kapsayan bir yaklaşımdır. Bu nedenle, tez ayrıca, planların uygulanabilmesi için, bu üç birbiriyle bağımlı aşamanın (planlama, uygulama, denetim), aktörler, roller ve kaynaklar ile beraber, eşit ölçüde dikkate alınması gerektiğini belirtmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: stratejik mekan planlaması, iletişimsel akılcılık, birlikte çalışma, sosyal sermaye, olumsallık

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I express sincere appreciation to Prof. Dr. Melih Ersoy for his guidance, advice, criticism and encouragement throughout the research. I would like to thank the examining committee members Prof. Dr. İlhan Tekeli, Prof.Dr. Can Hamamcı, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Çağatay Keskinok, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tarık Şengül for their suggestions, comments and the time they patiently devoted.

I would like to acknowledge the assistance of various experts who worked for the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning, especially Filiz Doğanay and Rıfat Dağ. I also would like to thank my friends and colleagues Ela Babalık-Sutcliffe, Pınar Aypek Türker, Müge Akkar, Nil Uzun, Bora Egemen, Anlı Ataöv, for their contributions and comments.

Besides I offer sincere thanks to my friends; Zeynep Esra Alkan, Colin Sutcliffe, Ayşe Uras, Atila Uras, Kutay Karabağ, Demir Devecigil, Özlem Savacı, Alpaslan Savacı, Didem Kılıçkıran, who showed me a great deal of patience by listening all my complaints throughout this study. I would like to extend my thanks to Prof. Alessandro Balducci and Prof. Luigi Mazza for their support and comments.

Finally, I am fully indebted to my parents Selçuk and Saime Gedikli; my sisters Pınar, Damla, Şule; and all my family (Gediklis), who supported me in every aspect throughout the study. This thesis is dedicated to them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It has been argued within the spatial[1] planning community especially for the last fifteen years or so that in the face of the rapidly changing circumstances of the world order, traditional planning methods seem to have become insufficient. The current need is defined to be a more flexible planning approach, which has come into the picture as the “strategic spatial planning”.

The rapidly changing conditions of the world order imply new conditions of market and technology. Urban areas have found themselves in need of adapting to these new conditions, which they can no longer do with the mainstream planning tools. The planning community considers these tools out of date, and shows a growing interest in the *strategic spatial planning.* Healey et al. (1999) describe the strategic spatial planning as deliberate plan-making, through which people in diverse institutional relations come together to determine plan-making processes and to develop strategies for the management of spatial change (Healey et al. 1999, 339-341).

In fact, the strategic planning was already experienced during the 1960s, when national governments in Europe and abroad assumed a proactive role in the construction of the welfare state (Salet and Faludi 1999, 1). However, in its contemporary form, it comes into the picture with different policy agendas and

[1] For another study, a precision might be required in using the terms “spatial planning”, “urban planning”, “territorial planning”, “land-use planning” and so on. In this study all are utilized in place of each other referring to any planning scale.

institutional relations. In the globalization era, the “competitiveness agenda” has become widespread. The spatial manifestation of this agenda is the provision of competitive conditions in a locality such like much investment in infrastructure and urban redevelopment. Meanwhile, in the turmoil of globalization processes, protection of regional/local identity also becomes important. I.e. there is also an “environmental agenda”, which means the maintenance and improvement of quality of life in specific places. So, spatial planning has increasingly fallen between economic and environmental policies, as Blotevogel (1999) stresses. The targets of spatial planning seem to oscillate between the economic and environmental poles in the contemporary era. “Sustainable development” has become a crucial and widely used concept at this point, covering all economic, environmental, cultural and social objectives related to territory.

Achievement of these new agendas can relate to any scale from international to municipal level, since the two features of globalization –i.e. new form of capitalism and technological innovations— have diminished the significance of borders and have deepened the interrelations between different scales. Therefore, new policy agendas come into being with attempts to widen the range of actors involved in policy processes, with new alliances and stakeholder partnerships. Different levels of government are encouraged to work together (multi-level governance) and in partnership with actors in diverse positions in the economy and civil society. Besides the impact of globalization, the multi-actor involvement in planning is also an outcome of the penetration of post-modern thinking into urban planning in the late 1980s. In the philosophy of post-modernism, all persons concerned must be able to assert their claims, and a decision must be made after reaching a consensus. Planning, thus, has increasingly become a collaborative activity. *“Communicative rationality”* in planning comes into effect here contrasting *“instrumental rationality”* (Albrechts 2003, 7; Healey et al 1997; Albrechts et al 2001, Albrechts et al 2003, Blotevogel 1999).

So, the strategic spatial planning in its “revived” form not only refers to new policy agendas, but also new inter-institutional relations in the planning process. Some authors put the emphasis on the “what”—i.e. content side of strategic planning. Nevertheless, others define it as a social process; putting a great emphasis on the “how”— i.e. the process side (Albrecths 2003, 5). Considering the ever-growing

interest in collaborative[2] plan-making for the late 1980s, this dissertation puts equal emphasis to both sides—i.e. content and process; and attempts to explain the contemporary strategic spatial planning in three dimensions:

1. The *contextual* dimension draws a framework with its new time-space conceptions and tendencies towards deliberative democracy;
2. The *organizational* dimension involves the collaborative planning through networking of stakeholders;
3. The dimension of *new aims and standards* relates to urban competitiveness and urban sustainable development.

The literature justifies the interest in strategic spatial planning through noting the "dramatic impact" of globalized capitalism on urban areas, and the insufficiency of the existing planning tools to cope with them. Obviously, the so-called impacts can be "dramatic" only on the metropolitan cities of core countries, as these are the places where global operations are greatly performed. However, these big cities have not been the only ones that have called for strategic planning. Both core and peripheral countries have shown willingness to adopt this new approach into their planning systems. There exist two basic reasons behind the motivation of developing countries: Since modernity's claim towards "total design" has failed, the generality and flexibility of strategic planning have become attractive for any country's planning system. Secondly, as the democracy theory is currently highlighting deliberative (communicative) decision-making, planning (as a decision-making process) could not remain untouched; and deliberative approach has entered into planning systems of different countries at varying degrees. Besides these basic reasons, a third reason can be the desire to catch up with the developed world: Since strategic spatial planning has become widespread in developed countries, developing ones may desire to adapt themselves to this new trend.

[2] There may exist differences in the meanings of planning approaches that assume the communicative rationality: Planning through collaboration, communication, participation, deliberation and so on may refer to differing degrees of interaction between parties. Being aware of these differences, however, the study will use these terms in place of each other. Because, the study wants to emphasize the "interaction" of parties in a planning process; not to show how these methods differentiate from each other.

Contemporarily, the instructions of strategic spatial planning are applied in different countries; yet there do exist peculiarities in each of these processes. Because, strategic planning is a contingent process, though it has common instructions. As it is a multi-actor process in its revived form, the parties that come together, and their way of involvement change from one strategic planning process to another.

This dissertation aims at elaborating the strategic spatial planning, and analyzing its implementation in Turkey. Since the date the Republic of Turkey was set up, it has had a concern for keeping pace with the Western World. Spatial strategies were particularly included in this attempt. Especially for the last fifteen years, it can be inferred that the Turkish urbanism has become more familiar with principles, tasks and urban management structures that are prevalent in the western countries. As *the strategic spatial planning through communicative rationality* is currently widespread in these countries (and actually in the entire planning community) in terms of urbanism, it has entered in the agenda of the Turkish planning system.

This study has three principle aims:

1. To apply a general “set of criteria” for evaluating a strategic spatial planning process (both process and plan),
2. To underline the role of contingent factors (specific actors in the process and their roles) in the satisfaction of these criteria,
3. To highlight the role of place-specific factors (quality of social capital, level of economic development) on the process.

With these aims, this dissertation will elaborate a recent strategic planning case from Turkey; i.e. the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning. The first two aims are to be attained via analyzing the Şanlıurfa case. The third aim, i.e. the role of place-specific factors, can be best attained through examining a contrasting case. Şanlıurfa is a peripheral province where the above place-specific factors reveal inferior figures. Handling a contrasting example, the role of these factors can be better comprehended. Therefore, the research is to deal with a contrasting strategic planning case held in a “developed” locality of Turkey: The

Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process.

The literature stresses that the strategic planning is “action-oriented”. This is to say that this planning approach is not merely concerned with the planning process; it is equally concerned with implementation and monitoring phases (Albrechts 2003, 8; Kaufman and Jacobs 1987, 25). Therefore, the research also highlights the “crucialness” of defining the agents and roles in the implementation and monitoring stages.

The study is composed by two main parts. First part (i.e. Chapters II, III, IV, V, VI) draws a “theoretical framework” on the strategic spatial planning. Second part (i.e. Chapters VII, VIII), on the other hand, elaborates its implementation in Turkey, with the intention to attain the three aims of the research. Below are given the content of each of the chapters:

Chapter II is to examine the leading factors to the emergence of strategic spatial planning. The chapter will demonstrate that the circumstances created by globalization are the so-called leading factors. The two peculiar features of globalization are highlighted as the *new logic of capital accumulation* on one hand; and *particular pattern of technological innovations* on the other hand. These two features have shaped human practices in any fields, one of which is “territorial planning”.

Chapter III will show that the new tendencies in planning, which have emerged with the globalization processes, can be treated as a “paradigm shift” from the instrumental rationality to the communicative rationality. Strategic planning is not a new paradigm, rather, it comes into the picture as a convenient tool to apply the communicative rationality paradigm. To displays the shift towards the communicative rationality, the Chapter will apply the conceptions derived from Thomas Kuhn.

Before going into the details of the strategic spatial planning that applies communicative rationality, **Chapter IV** will elaborate the evolution of spatial planning until the contemporary strategic planning. The rational-comprehensive

planning of the 1960s will be particularly elaborated in this chapter. After this elaboration, the chapter will also include the criticisms directed to the rational-comprehensive planning. These criticisms point to the deficiencies of instrumental rationality, and the need for a communicative approach in planning, thus, they can be considered as the first evidences towards the current collaborative planning.

Having examined the evolution of spatial planning in the previous chapter, **Chapter V** will examine the strategic spatial planning in its three dimensions mentioned above. ***First dimension*** refers to the contextual framework, which has two key facades: 1) the tendencies towards deliberative democracy, 2) time-space comprehension of the new (non-Euclidean) world order. ***Second dimension*** relates to the organization of the planning process. Planning is now organized in a collaborative manner. It necessitates the interaction of public agencies, private agencies and citizens. Finally the ***third dimension*** associates with the new aims and standards of strategic spatial planning.

Obviously, there do exist critical views towards this new approach besides the confirmatory ones. **Chapter VI**, thus, will mention these criticisms under two headings: 1) Those directed to the forces of globalization, and 2) those directed to the communicative rationality.

The chapters so far compose a theoretical framework on the strategic spatial planning. From **Chapter VII** onwards, the dissertation will discuss a recent strategic spatial planning attempt from Turkey; i.e. Provincial Development Planning (PDP). Before elaborating the PDP, evolution of collaboration in the Turkish planning will be described, since the contemporary strategic planning stresses the collaboration of affected parties. Then, the Provincial Development Planning (PDP) is to be elaborated as a strategic planning activity.

The PDP emerges as a component of the current *regional development strategy* of Turkey in the 8th Five-Year National Development Plan. Therefore, the position of PDP in the regional policy is to be discussed. Meanwhile, where PDP stands within the current Draft Law on Local Government will be stated, too.

Having described the PDP as a new approach in the Turkish planning system, and thus having provided a basis for the case study in Chapter VII, **Chapter VIII** will examine the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning. The first two aims of this research are addressed in the Şanlıurfa PDP case. Then, the Kocaeli case is to be handled so as to attain the third aim.

CHAPTER II

LEADING FACTORS TO THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING: CHANGING CIRCUMSTANCES CREATED BY THE GLOBAL CAPITALISM

Traditional approaches to spatial planning seem to have become less and less relevant in the face of the changing circumstances of the world order. In order to respond these changes, planning community began searching for new approaches, and brought about the strategic spatial planning as a more suitable planning approach in the contemporary era.

What are these rapidly changing circumstances and what implications have they provided for the sphere of spatial planning?

Those circumstances are gathered under the broad title of “globalization” which has been created and fostered by the operations of multinational economic blocs (e.g. the European Union, North American Free Trade Association); advanced technologies enabling rapid information exchange; and liberalization of trade and capital flows. The emergence of multinational trading blocs and regional alliances has diminished the political significance of national boundaries towards the creation of a global market of goods and services.

As the world economy is reshaped owing to these more flexible relationships, urban areas[3] have experienced dramatic shifts in their vertical and horizontal relations, since all these political-economical processes are materialized on territories. So, many urban theorists share the idea that the "urban" cannot be clearly understood unless it is considered as an element of the wider –i.e. global-- socio-spatial matrix. Globalization apparently deepens the relations between places; ties them into multiple webs of capital, technology, services, interaction and ways of thinking. Consequently, the mainstream spatial planning is said to have become unable to respond these processes, and the so-called "flexible" planning approaches have been introduced. Before examining those new approaches, the globalization process being the "wider socio-spatial matrix" is handled below to provide an initial framework for this study (Smith 2001, 101; Graham and Healey 1999, 623; Lever 1999, 1029).

II.1. HOW DIFFERENT THE GLOBALIZATION ERA IS

What makes the current change –i.e. globalization-- so peculiar? It is presented in most of the literature as a radical transformation period of a dizzy speed. Schon states that there have been other times of transition and disruption like Greece during the Hellenistic period, Europe in the fifteenth century, etc. "Change per se" has always existed throughout human history; and human beings have always developed adaptive or reactive responses to changing circumstances. As Schon already wrote in 1971:

> "*…we seem always to have been in process of change and to have believed in the value of change, and we seem never to have had a national stable state…"* (Schon 1971, 12-14).

When talking about globalization, technological advances are put forward as an important peculiarity. However, the presentation of the contemporary era as the most striking one that the human beings have ever experienced would not suffice, if it were simply associated with the massive explosion of technological

[3] Actually the spatial impacts of the so-called global processes are not naively "urban". Their impacts are beyond the urban scale. Nevertheless, urban space emerges as the scale, where these impacts are more tangible.

improvements, advances in information and communication. Any one passage from one period to another would have disruptive effects.

It is for sure that technological advances are among the most significant factors that would lead changes in other aspects of life. According to what Schon (1971) suggests, since social and technological systems interlock, a change in technology would force an organization to transform its theory and structure. Technological, theoretical and social systems exist as aspects of one another; change in one provokes change in the others. Appreciating the interaction among the mentioned systems, the peculiar characteristic of the globalization comes into being as the introduction of a *new logic of capitalism*. One should distinguish the enabling role of technology in the diffusion of this new form of capitalism, rather than considering it as the particular feature of globalization.

Şengül criticizes the groups that consider global processes as inevitable results of *technological advances*. Such considerations imply that criticisms directed towards globalization are oppositions towards technological advances. Associating globalization only with the technological developments, it appears to be a natural advancement process that is beneficial for the humanity. However, through a critical realist perspective, globalization should be associated with *capital accumulation process* rather than technological improvements, and relatedly, it should be comprehended as an economical and political process in which there exist “winners” as well as “losers” (Şengül 1998, 1). In a study of globalization, the complex interconnections between the power structures should be examined. The growth and decline of economies now depend on the decisions of the network of global investors.

Castells, likewise, also avoids the over-emphasis of the technological advances. He avoids the debate over whether technology determines social development or whether social actors use technology merely as a tool (Castells 1996,5; Smith & Marx, 1994). He states that although technology is present in practically everything we do on this planet today, it should be understood only as a part of the human subsystems of economy, society and culture (Wilenius 1998, 269-270).

In brief, societal development is influenced by the combined effect of the new logic of capitalism and technological improvements, yet, former constituting the particular impact. Below are given particular features of these two interrelated channels of development.

II.1.1. THE NEW LOGIC OF CAPITAL ACCUMULATION

The *new form of capitalism* has developed since the 1980s and matured at the end of this century: global in its character, hardened in its goals, and much more flexible than its predecessors. What differentiates the new global economy from the world economy of previous ages is that *"it is an economy with the capacity to work as a unit in real time on a planetary scale"* (Castells 1996, 92).

The emergence of the new flexible regime of capital accumulation is attributed to the crisis of the Fordist regime of accumulation. National economic planning which was a feature of the early post-war years has been abandoned in favour of *deregulation*. This deregulation at the national level has been accompanied by the re-regulation of the economy at an international level by means of multinational organizations. In parallel, new roles to national and local governments have been introduced, and government-society relations have been redefined. Nation-states are regarded too small to control and direct the global flows of power, wealth and technology of the new system; and too big to represent the plurality of the social interests and cultural identities of society. Meanwhile, in such a situation, localities have emerged as more flexible bodies potentially capable of adaptation to the variable geometry of power flows (Preteceille 1990, 27; Newman and Thornley 1996, 9-10; Borja and Castells 1997, 5-13).

Harvey underlines that the drive for capital accumulation is the central theme in the historical-geographical transformation of the Western world in recent times, and seems to have diffused in the whole world into the 21st century. Capitalism is always about growth and life-style changes, and is always conflictual. The drive for capital accumulation has helped create cities as diverse as Los Angeles, Atlanta and Boston, and transformed ancient cities like Athens, Rome, Paris and London. It has likewise led to a search for new product lines, new technologies,

new life styles, new ways to move around, new places to colonize (Harvey 1992, 42).

According to Lloyd, capital must constantly circulate, multiply or die like a shark that must constantly eat to survive. In the process of globalization, capitalism requires greater efficiency derived from greater scale, greater speed and greater elimination of barriers to transactions (Lloyd 2000, 262).

Sassen sums up the key aspect of the new form of capitalism followingly:

- The growth of the international financial market
- The expansion of the international trade in services
- The re-patterning of direct foreign investment (Sassen 1991, 323).

In such a system of world capitalism, there is the need for “nodal points”, namely the so-called world cities, to coordinate and control the global economic activity, which leads to a global network of cities --to be discussed later under the title of The Network Society (King 1990, 12-13).

II.1.2. TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

Technological improvements are inevitable as long as scientific activities are carried on. As mentioned, the association of globalization merely with these improvements would be an oversimplification. Nevertheless, the distinct pattern of the technological improvement of the late 20th century should be appreciated, which has a crucial role in the formation of the current socio-spatial relations.

Castells names the current era as the “Information Age” owing to the dizzy speed of technological revolution and changed logic of capitalism. He also talks about a critique of culture, which would be the scope of another study. The structural aspects of the Information Age are the reorganized forms of the core economic activities, which have been affected by new spatial and temporal conditions. At the base of this reorganization, there stands the pervasive implementation of technological innovation since the 1970s, clustering around the convergence of computing and telecommunication.

According to Castells, information technology constitutes an “informational mode of development" due to its different pattern than previous technologies: a flexible, pervasive, integrated and reflexive evolution rather than an additive one. The reflexivity of the technologies, the fact that any product is also raw material because both are information, has permitted the speeding up of the process of innovation.

The ancient world lasted for 3000 years, the medieval age for less than 1000 years, and the industrial era for about 100 years. The current post-industrial era has occurred just in 25 years and its pace is quickening (Savitch 1998). Comparing some technological parameters from the seventeenth century to the present time, Schon finds out the length of time required for technological innovations to spread to users: The time required for the diffusion of steam engine was 150-200 years, while that of automobile was 40-50 years. Followingly, vacuum tube was diffused in a 25-30 year time, whereas this time was 15 years for transistor. This is to say that coming to the current era, the time required for the diffusion of major technological innovations would approach to zero. As diffusion times have diminished from 120 to 60 to 30 to 15 years, the adaptation of social systems has had to be shorter (Schon 23-27).

His inference could be associated with what Harvey calls the “time-space compression”. To Harvey, the experience of time and space has periodically been radically transformed. This radical transformation has been seen since around 1970: the impact of telecommunications, jet cargo transport, containerization of road, rail and ocean transport, the development of futures markets, electronic banking and computerized production systems. Harvey’s “time-space compression” will also be discussed later.

In the below table, major characteristics of globalization are summarized depending on the explanations of Amin and Thrift (1995, 93-95):

TABLE 1-MAIN FEATURES OF GLOBALIZATION

• **Increasing power of *finance* over production**	Through this structure, credit money is created, allocated and put to use.
• **Increasing importance of *knowledge***	Knowledge is considered to be a factor of production. The production, distribution and exchange of knowledge have become a crucial element of both the global and local economic systems.
• **Trans-nationalization of *technology***	Globalization of technology allows an access to any information databases, but, due to the great uncertainty created by this complex environment, only the "adaptable" can survive.
• **Rise of *global oligopolies***	Corporations are forced to become global vis-à-vis the new methods of production, greater transnational mobility of capital, ease of transport and communication.
• **Rise of *transnational economic diplomacy***	In the present era, governments and firms bargain one another on the world stage. Besides, transnational authorities like the UN, G7, EU and so on have become increasingly powerful.
• **Rise of *global cultural flows* and "deterritorialized" identities**	This is a fusion of different cultures to reappear in places as new influences mixing with local/national settings.
• **Rise of new *global geographies***	Global processes have produced borderless geographies. The geography is now "globally local".

Developed referring to Amin and Thrift (1995).

II.2. IMPLICATIONS ON THE SPATIAL PLANNING

Schon (1971, 17-20) suggests that in a transition period, established institutions find themselves threatened by present complex changes, and they are somehow forced to become more relevant to the dynamics of the new era. He states that the threat to the stability of established institutions also carries a threat to the stability of the theory and ideology associated with those institutions.

Territorial planning is one of the fields the theory and practice of which have been influenced by the dynamics of the globalization era; namely the socio-economic restructuring of capitalism and the particular pattern of technological revolution. These two fields of change have led to a new time-space comprehension. Space and time are no longer seen as naive external conditions in which the human life is played out. Rather, they are both the effect and cause of human experience. Currently, multiple webs of time-space shape human practices in any field. So, planners have had to develop new tools in order to respond to the new spatio-temporal context. That is why the new urban politics in general and the strategic spatial planning in particular have been introduced as a “reaction” or “adaptation” to this context.

Having a brief look at the new urban politics, they seem to have offered a way to transform local government so as to make it more relevant to the dynamics of the contemporary economies. The vital task now is identified as the “reconstruction of local governance around the agenda of competition” beyond carrying out routine public work. I.e. the entrepreneurial governance style has been promoted rather than a regulatory one. In such a system, spatial planning stands at the interface between the market and public interest.

In parallel, the strategic spatial planning has come into the picture to serve the both sides: In the face of the economic and social re-structuration processes, it is supposed to be an instrument of creating conditions for investors, while also seeking to attain the community interests. The distinctive characteristic of current strategic spatial planning is its dependence on a *participatory approach* in both the analysis of a situation and selection of strategies. Healey et al. (1997) describes that the concerns of strategic planning are the *process, institutional*

design and mobilization of local capacity (Lovering 1995, 110; Healey et al 1997, 15; Newman and Thornley 1996, 4-6; Mazza 1996, 3-6).

II.3. CRITICAL VIEWS RELATED TO THE IMPACT OF GLOBALIZATION ON PLANNING

As stated before, to maintain the global capitalist processes, there is the need for nodal points, namely the "world cities", acting as the coordination centers of the interflow of capital, goods and services. However, not all cities can have a place in this global urban network, since they are not able to compete at the world scale. This determination basically associates with the nature of a capitalist system, the very dynamic of which is said to be the "asymmetric power relations".

So, although there is a growing interest towards the strategic planning within the planning community, some approach its economic policy agenda in a critical manner in the face of this asymmetry, which more and more sprawls at the global scale. They question whether the strategic planning is a tool mostly to serve to the global forces rather than community interests.

As global capitalism has advanced, it has prepared the basis for interurban competition; which is the very process that has demanded new roles for nation-states and local states together with more flexible planning tools. Within this framework, state institutions are increasingly considered to be the *instruments of activating the "productive forces"*, rather than the mechanisms of establishing social balance, overcoming social disparities and promoting social cohesion (Brenner 2000, 372). In the critical views, strategic spatial planning seems to be a proper tool to provide conditions for the interurban competition. These views will be handled in a detailed manner, after the elaboration of the strategic spatial planning with its key aspects.

Observing the planning experiences of the last fifteen years, some scholars talk about an emerging paradigm in planning. The following chapter will discuss whether these experiences in the field of urban planning can be viewed as a new paradigm.

CHAPTER III

NEW PLANNING: A PARADIGM SHIFT?

The strategic spatial planning has achieved a wide acceptance in the planning community with the expectation that it can legitimate publicly performed planning once again: Mainstream public planning has been for long criticized as being an exaggerated attempt of state regulation in the face of the above-mentioned changes created by the global capitalism.

It is quite commonplace to see the culture of modern urban government and planning as part of a greater project of *modernism*. As the nation-states were set up after the 2nd World War, planning in its general sense was considered as a tool in their hands to improve social, economic and physical reality. Nation-states –as named welfare states—aimed at providing a stable environment through overcoming inequalities and committing redistributive functions. Urban planning, being a part of the general field of planning, was legitimized as state intervention, guided by a comprehensive, rational model of problem solving and decision making (Blotevogel 1999, 125; Tekeli 2002; Balducci 2001).

The tendency to see urban planning as the systematic consideration and evaluation of alternative means in the light of the preferred goals *as rationally as possible* has prevailed until the present day. Nevertheless, the so-called *rationality* and *comprehensiveness* that have stood at the very core of the urban planning have been criticized increasingly especially for the last fifteen years or so. Traditional planning that has prevailed since the 1960s is said to become

insufficient vis-à-vis the changing rationale of capital accumulation processes, as to be explained followingly.

While the world economy is reshaped owing to the new logic of production, employment and distribution, urban areas have found themselves in need of adapting to these new conditions of market and technology.

With ever-increasing mobility of the capital at the global scale, particularly after 1990s, cities or localities began defining themselves as *"…units improving themselves to attract the globally-wandering capital to their areas; rather than simply being subordinate to their nation-states"* (Şengül 1999, 11-12). I.e. they began searching the ways of attracting investors, creating employment and increasing the productivity of cities. Meanwhile, related to the achievement of this aim in the long-run, a rapidly growing concern for environmental sustainability and urban quality of life has also come into the picture (Williams 1999, 20).

The picture drawn above reveals highly unstable political systems, power structures, use of capital and population trends (Balducci 2001). In such a situation, the success of urban governance is not only to be measured by the ability to deliver and coordinate local services, but also to develop a *strategic vision* for the development of the locality together with other local actors. Increasing competition and priority given to economic objectives have led to the greater involvement of the private sector in the planning process (Newman and Thornley 1996, 8). Mainstream master plans have been considered to be out of date, as they fall short, given rapidly changing economic processes. It has been claimed that plans do not take account of new values and concerns, only embodying statist 'command and control' models of regulation. These models have been said to hold back development, when the need is now a practical attitude towards development.

I would interpret the insufficiencies of the mainstream planning in two approaches, which then intersect: *First,* the crisis of the spatial planning can be interpreted as part of a wider crisis of modernism's claim to *rationality*. Post-modern critical deconstruction first emerged in the 1950s and 1960s from the North American literary criticism, then penetrated to architecture and aesthetics, then philosophy,

and in the second half of the 1980s reached urban planning. Post-modern thinkers question the legitimacy of modernism's claim to hegemony over other forms of knowledge such as the common-sense knowledge, stories, myths, and implicit understandings shared in the community. In the philosophy of post-modernism, the concept of *truth* is replaced with the concept of *discourse*. All persons concerned must be able to assert their claims, and a decision must be made after reaching a consensus. *"Communicative rationality"* comes into effect here contrasting *"instrumental rationality"* (Blotevogel 1999, 121, 130). This approach has been based on the ideas of Habermas and supported by many others (Innes 1995, 86). While instrumental rationality has suggested that technology and knowledge can make the world better and that planning can be an important tool for social progress; communicative rationality pays attention to discourse and planning is seen as an interactive process.

The *second* challenge is the renaissance of the strategic spatial planning –which was first emerged after the 2nd World War--. In fact, the public sector has already been experienced in the strategic planning during the 1960s, when national governments in Europe and abroad tried to construct the welfare state (Salet and Faludi 1999, 1). As it has been explained in Chapter I, this time it comes into the picture together with different policy agendas and institutional relations. Its aims now oscillate between two poles: At one pole, there is a concern for economic competitiveness. At the other pole, however, there is a concern for maintenance of place identities. As far as new institutional relations are concerned, there is a movement towards horizontal articulation and negotiative forms. Planning is currently organized as a collaborative activity of national and local governments, civil society, and private sector.

Combining the two approaches, *the strategic spatial planning that associates with the communicative rationality* is to be elaborated in the following chapter. This so-called planning has found popularity in the planning community, whereas the traditional planning depending on the instrumental rationality is being criticized. Before going into the elaboration of the strategic spatial planning, in this chapter, *"whether this new tendency can be considered as a paradigm shift in the field of urban planning"* is to be investigated.

III.1. PARADIGMS AND PARADIGM CHANGES

It is claimed that what is being experienced in the field of urban planning is a “paradigm shift” from the instrumental rationality to the communicative rationality. The revival of the strategic spatial planning cannot be treated a new paradigm alone; rather, it is a convenient instrument to apply the new paradigm. Below is to be examined the concept of the paradigm, and “how a paradigm shifts” (the reconstruction of the prior theory) is to be involved, which was best argued by Thomas Kuhn, one of the best-known historians and philosophers of the history of science in the 20th century.

Kuhn distinguishes between two stages of science; i.e. normal and revolutionary. For him, normal science is governed by a “paradigm”, which he defines as universally recognized scientific achievements that provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners (Keat and Urry 1975, 55). A paradigm is acknowledged by “*some particular scientific community… for a time as supplying the foundation for its further practice*" (Kuhn 1970, 10). During this relatively stable time period, most scientific research is built upon the prevailing paradigm, and empirical observations are interpreted with reference to it.

By contrast, revolutionary science has a relatively brief period, in which the scientist meets some empirical evidence that does not fit neatly with the prevailing theoretical framework. Many scientists suppose that one day someone will explain how it fits within the framework of the current paradigm. Nevertheless, Taylor states that truly creative scientists develop a new theoretical framework that replaces the old paradigm. Once a new paradigm is accepted, most scientific research begins to operate within this framework (Taylor 1998, 158).

According to Kuhn, a new theory is seldom or never just an increment to what is already known. Advances in scientific thought have rarely occurred in a steady manner, rather, he calls it “scientific revolution”. Its assimilation requires the reconstruction of prior theory and the re-evaluation of prior fact, a revolutionary process that is seldom completed by a single man and never overnight. Kuhn explains that a paradigm change is actually a fundamental shift in people’s view of

the world; that is why he describes paradigm shifts as *revolutionary* (Kuhn 1970, 7; Taylor 1998, 157; Lan and Anders 2000, 140-143).

III.2. TOWARDS A PARADIGM SHIFT IN URBAN PLANNING

The introduction of the communicative rationality versus the instrumental rationality --that has shaped the rational-comprehensive planning prevailing since the 1960s-- could be treated as a paradigm shift in Kuhnian terms. A paradigm is a source of methods, problem-field, and standards of solutions accepted by a mature scientific community at a given time. As problems change, this would mean changes in the standards of governing problems, concepts and explanations (Keat and Urry 1975, 56-57).

I would display the paradigm shift in the field of planning with reference to the conceptions of Kuhn:

(a) Can we talk about a *reconstruction* of prior theory and knowledge in the field of spatial planning?
(b) Does the new paradigm include a new worldview (to relate the facts to it)?
(c) Is the previous paradigm criticized to become insufficient, and is the new one supported by the community of planning?
(d) Kuhn states that paradigms do not have to be entirely inclusive. That is to say that multiple (or competing) paradigms can exist within one discipline. Can we talk about such a co-existence in the field of urban planning?

First question can be answered through searching for the knowledge (epistemology) of planning together with the ontological assumptions related to social actors.

It is in the epistemology of the rational-comprehensive planning that has utilized the instrumental rationality paradigm that *truth* is supposed to be uncovered by scientific methods. This implies that the truth is static, certain and universal. Planning as a rational and methodological activity is considered to use objective knowledge and solve problems. The treatment of knowledge in the rational-comprehensive planning seems to correspond to the positivist approach. For the

positivist, scientific theories consist of sets of general *universal statements*, whose truth can be assessed by means of systematic observation and experiment. Such statements must not be restricted to any space and time; they must hold true for *all times and places*. Meanwhile, positivist supposes that the observations provide an *objective* foundation; and the results of the systematic observations and experiments can be known either with total *certainty*, or at least with a greater degree of certainty (Keat and Urry 1975, 13-16).

However, coming to the current period, truth does not seem to be firmly established. Instead, there are increasing attempts to establish it through *discourse* in communities. It is recognized to be dynamic and uncertain, which cannot be understood apart from the society where it emerges. So, planning is seen to be an activity that uses communication and feedback to solve problems (Boswell 2000, 23). This is to say that the "instrumental rationality" within planning is replaced by the "communicative rationality" which is mostly advocated by Forester, Sager, Innes, Healey and others.

As far as the ontological assumptions of the two paradigms are concerned, in the former the main actors are the *provider state* which aims at maximizing the public interest and the *passive community* that provides labor for the maintenance of the system and consumes goods and services. Meanwhile, in the latter, *enabling state* replaces the provider state, it becomes a partner of global governance, that is, it cooperates with other states. There emerge *NGOs* as new actors that aim at influencing governance. *Private enterprises* are other powerful actors that operate at the global scale. Planning is seen as an interactive decision-making process of all the actors. Rather than improving the welfare, the aims have turned to be innovation not only in production technologies, but also in social and political organizations as well.

It must be noted that the first paradigm's ontological assumptions were not modified overnight and those of the second paradigm did not emerge all of a sudden. Some intermediary stages existed coming to the second one; however they cannot be considered revolutionary in Kuhnian sense. They could be regarded as contributions to the development of the planning theory and to be handled within the paper, to give an insight about the path that led to today's

paradigm.

Second question asks for a new worldview in the new paradigm: Innes (1997,228) states that the worldview of the –let's say— previous (or modernist) era was grounded in the rational deductive and mechanical cause and effect framework of the *Newtonian universe*. Similarly, Tekeli (2002) explains that in that era, the Newtonian causality and determinism of the natural sciences influenced on social sciences. However, the recent developments of the chaos theory have implied the difficulty of perfect predictability through a positivist way of observation and experiments.

Chaos is defined as "order without predictability". That is, there are systems, which can be described by a finite set of rules, and yet are fundamentally unpredictable. What chaos implies is a kind of "uncertainty principle". The new worldview is grounded on the concepts of non-linear systems, complexity, and networks. This leads to the inference that planning needs to be performed with incomplete information. Planning strategies that depend on perfect foresight are inappropriate and sometimes misleading, in the understanding of the new paradigm (Cartwright 1991, 44-45, 53; Innes 1997, 228).

Meanwhile, Friedmann also underlines a changing worldview. We are moving into a non-Euclidian world of many space-time geographies in Friedmann's words. The new world order is defined with its two key facades; namely the contemporary collapse of the time-space continuum. Friedmann proposes that the *time* of such a planning is the "real time" of everyday events rather than imagined future time. As for the space of planning, he suggests to privilege regional and local over national and transnational space (Friedmann 1993, 482).

It is the recognition of this move toward a Non-Euclidean world order that obliges us to think of new and more appropriate models of land-use planning. The "engineering model of planning", as Friedmann (1993) calls it, that served us until recently, with its claims of superiority to other forms of decision making because of its scientific character, is said to be no longer valid.

Third question relates to the insufficiencies of the previous paradigm. Examining the literature, traditional methods have been criticized more and more especially since the 1990s. The insufficiencies are mainly related to the unstable environment created by the new logic of capitalism with the help of advanced technology. So, the problem-field of the spatial planning seems to have changed. They can be explained as follows:

Vis-à-vis the global processes, there have emerged two levels of outcomes to govern the present problems of urban areas: First level refers to an administrative/managerial field; i.e. local governance processes with *horizontal and network-based arrangements* within and between urban areas. Meanwhile, the second relates to the instrument of urban development; that is territorial planning in which *development of strategic ideas in a participatory manner* stands as the core issue. The very aim of urban development has been described to be the *attraction of inward investment* in an "entrepreneurial" style (Alden et al. 2001, 1).

The two levels constitute the concern matters of *new urban politics* that contain new methods and standards of solutions to solve the newly-emerged problems of urban areas. In the first channel a way to transform governance is offered so as to make it more relevant to the dynamics of the contemporary economies. The vital task here is identified as the *"reconstruction of local governance around the agenda of competition"* (Lovering 1995, 110). I.e. the entrepreneurial governance style has been promoted rather than a regulatory one (Healey 1997, 15). In fact, the two channels are interrelated; since the aims in the first channel (i.e. new tasks of local governments fostered by the interurban competition, and establishment of horizontal coalitions related to the aim of local economic development) have implications on the planning instruments.

The final item is about the co-existence of paradigms. It is possible to see this co-existence in the field of urban planning. Conventional planning approach (systematic analysis and precise design of regulations, and implementation strategies with the aim of improving welfare of local community by the rational planner) is continued in producing city master plans in most of the countries' planning systems. Nevertheless the strategic spatial plan as *a general model of*

spatial organization can exist simultaneously with the mainstream master plan to guide it. It is a politic-programmatic text that describes the general objectives of administrative action, and because of this, it is also a frame of reference for public and private actors. In its revived form, it is a fruit of an interactive, communicative activity.

When saying "What we experience in the field of planning is a growing interest in the strategic spatial planning", it is not meant that the comprehensive approach in planning is no longer valid. Rather, it seems to be reformulated and be still in use in the strategic spatial planning process. As stated above, blueprint master plans are not completely left. Here, it should be noted that although the interest in the strategic planning entered into the literature in a –let's say-- glorious manner in the last years, Mazza (2000) states that at the practical side, the activities of strategic planning have not been diffused yet, except England, in a systematic manner. So, the two approaches co-exist today, with latter gaining more importance.

Having justified an emerging communicative paradigm in planning, the strategic planning can be defined followingly: *"the coordination of many actors, each making decisions of his or her own. Such coordination is continuous, and since all actors want to keep options open, timing is crucial. Rather than a finished product, a strategic plan is a momentary record of fleeting agreements reached. It forms a framework for negotiation and is indicative…"* (Faludi and van der Valk 1994,11 cited by Mazza 1998, 561).

In Mastop's words, it is the planning the exercises of which are "*ruled as much by a logic of interaction (thinking in terms of networking, enrichment of solutions, and committing stakeholders) as by the more familiar logic of consequences (thinking in terms of goals, problems and instruments)"* (Mastop 1999, 154 in ed. Salet and Faludi).

Or as Healey et al. (1999) describe "..*strategic spatial planning (that is, deliberate plan-making) is an active social process which builds on and transforms established ways of doing things (institutional relations) and accepted ways of looking at things (policy agendas), in order to create locally new institutional*

capacities for influencing the future". They define strategic plan-making as social processes through which a range of people in diverse institutional relations and positions come together to determine plan-making processes and to develop contents and strategies for the management of spatial change. This generates not only outputs in terms of policy and project proposals, but also a decision framework which should influence relevant parties in their investment and regulatory activities (Healey et al. 1999, 339-341).

The key dimensions of the strategic spatial planning are to be analyzed in Chapter V. Prior to that, the conventional (or mainstream) planning, which has been criticized especially for the last two decades, will be examined. What was lacking in it, so that the strategic approach has been brought into the sphere of urban planning?

CHAPTER IV

THE PATH TO THE INTRODUCTION OF THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING

It is for sure that in the face of changing circumstances that societies have experienced, various theoretical approaches have been developed in the field of urban planning, which could be considered as responses or reactions to these changing conditions. Those approaches have had different weights in different countries' planning systems, depending on their varying historical circumstances. Anglo-Saxon and Continental European administrative traditions differ widely, in which spatial planning operate (Salet and Faludi 1999, 5). Such a distinction would be generalized to the world scale. Bearing this in mind, it would still be possible to make a broad periodization of planning history, as to be attempted later.

"Different national contexts" does not seem to be the only issue that makes planning a field in which many theoretical and practical positions exist. Besides that, "planning" itself is a field drawing its members from a wide range of disciplines. In the effort to describe various kinds of planning, widely differing sets of planning models have been proposed (Alexander 1986, 65-85). This is to say that besides the spatial planning, there exist planning models that are concerned with social and/or economic issues as well.

If the scope of this study were the planning theory in general, then it would be possible to periodize changing approaches in the field under several groups,

considering various variables of all the three fields. However, this research is related to the *territorial planning*, which essentially deals with the shaping of the physical environment. It is in fact difficult to isolate this field from other types of planning; so, keeping the mutual effects with social and economic activities in mind, this study focuses on a recent change from the *traditional urban planning* that have prevailed since the 1960s to the *strategic spatial planning* that revived in the late 1980s.

At first glance, this classification would seem to be a rather broad one; i.e. what is referred to by the term “traditional” requires clarification. Briefly saying, the traditional or mainstream planning refers to the planning of the modernist era, in which *rational thought* and *action* were the underlining issues. So this term is used in place of the rationalist-comprehensive planning. Meanwhile, the strategic spatial planning can be considered as the product of the post-modern era. Post-modernism has led to the deconstruction and reconstruction of the relationship between space and society (Blotevogel 1999, 121).

Another possible classification would be simply related to the plan itself: the *blueprint master plan* vs. *strategic territorial plan*. However, such a categorization would lack crucial points and the rationalities (instrumental vs. communicative) related to the planning process, which Alexander (1986, 7) assumes as “the core of the planning theory”. Planning theory, for him, explores the planning process and examines its components. So, by the term “mainstream planning”, the approach (that is comprehensiveness-rationality), process (who plan) and product (the master plan) are all meant.

The focus of this chapter is the rational-comprehensive planning via instrumental rationality, as being the planning approach prevailed since the 1960s. Nevertheless, to better understand how the rational-comprehensive planning came into the picture, what it brought about, and why it is now criticized; some sort of a historical analysis will take place in this chapter: I.e. first of all, the planning approach before the introduction of the rational-comprehensive planning will be handled. Then, the period of the rational-comprehensive planning, and the criticisms directed to this type of planning will be examined.

The criticisms on the rational-comprehensive planning gave way to the introduction of some intermediary positions in the planning world until the revival of the strategic spatial planning in the late 1980s. They include some early evidences of today's concerns of planning; thus, after the elaboration of the traditional planning, two typical approaches are worth examining: i.e. disjointed incrementalism and advocacy planning.

IV.1. PLANNING DURING PRE-1960s

In fact, the first paradigm shift was experienced in the 1960s in the field of urban planning. Before then, what came to be seen as urban planning was assumed to be carried out by architects. It was architecture on the larger scale of a whole town. This paradigm prevailed even in the early post-war since most planners in these years were architects by training, and it lasted till the 1960s. So, in the first half of the 20th century and at the early post-war; town planning was assumed to be a *design activity* more than anything. Another concept of the early post-war was *comprehensiveness*, based on the realization of the parts that made up the whole.

The rational view of planning (or the mainstream planning as it is referred to in this study) burst onto the screen in the 1960s, which can be seen as a paradigm shift in Kuhnian sense (Taylor 1998, 159; Tekeli 2002, 4).

Together with that, another theory also emerged, which could not be clearly distinguished from the rational view: It is the "systems view" of planning considering the city as a system of interconnected parts.

The emergence of the systems view could be explained as a response to the criticisms of the traditional "physical design" view of planning. In the early post-war period, physical planning was supposed to assist in the realization of aims of other kinds of planning, by locating buildings and roads. Physical environment was seen as a major determinant of social behavior (Webber 1963 in Faludi ed. 1973, 96). In concentrating on the physical and aesthetic qualities of the environment, the planning view of the early post-war period lacked an understanding of social and economic life of cities. Also, this view exhibited a lack

of understanding of the inter-relatedness of urban life. Although the systems view was developed to overcome these lacking aspects, what it did not address was the *process* of planning, and it was underlined within the rational-comprehensive view of planning (Taylor 1998, 60, 66).

IV.2. 1960s ONWARDS: THE RATIONAL-COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING

The shift in the field of urban planning in the 1960s was from a concern purely with the *physical environment* towards intentionally *rational-comprehensive planning*; from a primarily *practice-oriented* profession towards greater dependence *on theoretical understanding*; from the domination of planning by *architects and engineers* towards opening its ranks to various disciplines, mainly in the social sciences (Faludi 1973, 41).

In the framework of a Newtonian determinism (Euclidean space and linear time), the underlining principle of the new paradigm continued to be the "comprehensiveness". As mentioned, the over-emphasis of this principle can be traced back to the periods in which the practices of town planning and architecture did not differentiate (Taylor 1998, 8). The total design tendencies of architecture penetrated into the field of planning, and made its practitioners design cities as if they were architectural objects. Urban life was considered to be represented perfectly. However, since the 1960s, the context of comprehensiveness did not simply related to the physical parts that made up the whole. This time, it included social and economic aspects of urban life as well.

Rational-comprehensive planning implies that "planning is a rational process". Blotevogel names *planning* and *rationality* as the "twin sisters of modernism". Of course, the rationality here implies the "instrumental rationality". Before examining comprehensive urban planning, the term *rationality*, that guided it, needs clarification.

IV.2.1. RATIONALITY

As the spatial planning has been considered as part of a greater project of modernism, and as modernism associates with science and reason, until recently, planning was always seen itself an agent of rationality in society (Blotevogel 1999, 125; Alexander 1986, 11).

The explicit development of the theory of spatial planning only began as the education of planners became academized after the 2nd World War. Rationality has been defined as the central feature of the planning process; a scientific approach to analysis and a particular way of problem solving. The way of problem solving –the rational decision making model- demands the systematic consideration and evaluation of alternative means in the light of the preferred goals.

Seen in this way, rationality is value-neutral; it is not associated with any particular value. In its simplest form, rationality is a way of choosing the best means to attain a given end. This type of rationality is called "instrumental rationality", that means *the choice of optimal means to achieve given goals*.

In planning, rationality implies that a plan, a policy or a strategy for action is based on valid assumptions, and includes all relevant information related to the facts, theories and concepts (Alexander 1986, 11-12).

Since planning was linked to rationality, which was value-neutral, the rational-comprehensive view tended to overlook the political nature of urban planning at the early post-war: It was supposed to have nothing to do with politics. Actually the defenders of the apolitical character of urban planning acknowledged that town planning operated within a political context, in which there existed an elected local authority and/or central government. But given this, the principles of good town planning were assumed to be agreed by all, and thus, the task of town planning was not seen as politically contentious (Taylor 1998, 7).

IV.2.2. COMPREHENSIVE URBAN PLANNING

Alexander describes the comprehensive urban planning as the development of regulatory, developmental, and conservation strategies for land, taking into account the interactions between land (the built and physical environment) and its inhabitants, with their demographic, economic, social, and cultural characteristics, and their institutions, norms and values (Alexander 1986, 9).

With the development of the rationalist-comprehensive view, the idea of the superiority of the physical setting over the social and economic matters was left. In the heydays of the comprehensive urban planning, Webber justifies it against the environmentally deterministic approach of the early post-war as follows:

> *"…we are coming to understand that each aspect (of the city) lies in a reciprocal causal relation to all others, each is defined by…its relations to all others.*
>
> *…we can no longer speak of the physical city versus the social city or the economic city or the political city or the intellectual city. We can no longer dissociate a physical building…from the social meanings…or from the social and economic functions of the activities that are conducted within it."* (Webber 1963 in Faludi ed. 1973, 101).

The comprehensive planning model is based on a technocratic ideology that accepts the scientific legitimacy of the planner's expertise. It assumes that the planner knows or can discover other people's needs, and the planning agency has the authority and the autonomy to develop plans through *rational* analysis, as well as the power to implement them (Alexander 1986, 75).

The ideal planner was conceived as a "generalist", implying that the plans should be "comprehensive". Land-use plans were conceived as overall blueprints for the development of a town as a whole –as master plans "covering everything".

IV.2.3. WHAT THE RATIONAL-COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING AIMED AT

Shaped by the will of "total control" of future, the main aim of the comprehensive urban planning was "total design" at the scale of the master plan (or at the macro scale). The most important functions of the comprehensive planning are claimed to be

(1) creating a master plan which can guide the deliberations of specialist planners;
(2) evaluating the proposals of specialist planners in the light of the master plan;
(3) coordinating the planning of specialist agencies so as to ensure that their proposals reinforce each other to further the public interest (Altshuler 1965 in Faludi ed. 1973, 193).

IV.3. CRITICISMS OF THE RATIONAL-COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING AND INTERMEDIATE POSITIONS UNTIL THE 1980s

Briefly, the need for *certainty* and the fair evaluation of alternatives served as the main concerns of the prewar and postwar periods. "Survey before plan" approach demonstrated the extent to which planning placed its trust in scientific expertise. In addition, spatial planning practice was also characterized by a hierarchical and effective organization. Nevertheless, even when it was highly appreciated, rational-comprehensive planning was criticized in its pioneering aspects: *comprehensiveness supposed to be provided by the planning experts after scientific analysis,* and *instrumental rationality serving to the attainment of the comprehensive plan*. In this part, two typical positions contrasting these aspects will be examined: Disjointed incrementalism developed by Charles Lindblom and advocacy planning developed by Paul Davidoff.

IV.3.1. DISJOINTED INCREMENTALISM

Charles Lindblom (1959) introduced the "disjointed incrementalism" versus the rational-comprehensive planning (he calls it either the *rational deductive* or the *synoptic ideal*). Lindlom's incremental versus synoptic planning debate grew

rapidly. More than thirty years later, the dichotomy is still central: The incrementalism brought criticisms towards the rational-comprehensive planning, claiming that the attainment of the comprehensiveness was beyond one person's intellectual capacity; thus, it gave initial evidences on today's communicative turn in planning. Thus, it is worth explaining in this study. However, Sager (1994) states that its conceptualization of communication is too vague and narrow; and it only modifies instrumental reason without introducing an alternative type of rationality.

Lindblom notes differentiating interests in any society; that further has implications on the political nature of planning. His image of society is an aggregate of individuals and groups in competition. He, thus, stands against making fundamental rational choices affecting large parts or whole of the community. The model he builds on is the *market*, where many small decisions are taken. There are no macro-decision-makers making fundamental choices in his image of society, so that it has been characterized as *atomistic* rather than *holistic* as perceived by the rational-comprehensive view (Faludi 1973b, 154).

When the rational deductive planning is concerned, the database for acquiring perfect information exists at the outset. Therefore, there is little need of communication during the planning process. On the contrary, in incremental planning, initial database is incomplete; thus, there is need of external communication during the process to improve information. Understanding and agreement are important; learning and feedback loops are essential. Lindblom, thus, criticizes instrumental rationality in decision-making that confines itself with the "survey before plan" approach (Sager 1994, 9-10).

Rational-comprehensive planners desire a government to be an organization with centralized decision-making and a common purpose of public interest; whereas the incrementalist view perceives government as a collection of agencies, each having its own clientele in conflict, each with an interest of its own. This view also urges the necessity of the collective decision-making, since the society is not made up of individuals with similar interests. Rather, individuals have conflicting interests, thus the public interest has to be decided via communication.

Lindblom (1965) summarizes his points concerning rational-comprehensive planning under the following propositions:

- It is not adapted to man's limited intellectual capacities
- It is not adapted to inadequacy of information
- It is not adapted to the costliness of analysis
- It is not adapted to failure, which must be anticipated in many circumstances
- It is not adapted to the closeness of observed relationship between fact and value in policy-making
- It is not adapted to the openness of variables with which it must contend
- It is not adapted to the diverse forms in which policy problems actually arise (Faludi 1973b, 150-151).

It is evident that these criticisms apply to "blueprint" planning, the central feature of which is a plan consisting of goal statements that are to be realized over a limited time period. The planning agency operates a program to attain its objectives with *certainty*. Modification during the implementation is not anticipated. Lindblom argues that decision-makers cannot follow its prescriptions in fact. He says that the attempt to plan rationally diverts the decision-makers from more feasible approaches, such as simplifying problems. His disjointed incrementalism does not suggest that rational choices should not be made; rather, the range of alternatives and the range of aims should always be limited. The features of disjointed incrementalism are

1. *Margin-dependent choice*: Decision-makers focus on increments by which alternatives differ from the *status quo.* I.e. their choices are based on the assessment of margins. The strategy is then to limit the number of alternatives for evaluation, which do not differ widely from what is being done at the present.

2. *Restricted variety of policy alternatives considered*: Lindblom states that non-incremental alternatives are often politically unfeasible. Therefore, decision-makers restrict alternatives to those, which are not only incremental, but also possess adequate information.

3. *Restricted number of consequences considered for any given end*: Decision-makers eliminate the consequences which are uninteresting, remote, inconsiderable, intangible and poorly understood; no matter how important they are. The strategy is then to evaluate in the light of only a few well-understood aims.

4. *Adjustment of means to ends*: Instead of simply adjusting means to ends, ends are chosen that are appropriate to available means.

5. *Reconstructive treatment of data*: Initial database is incomplete, thus, external communication is important to improve it during the process.

6. *Serial analysis and evaluation*: Handling information in selecting out of alternatives exceeds the capacity of the short-term memory. Instead of evaluating the alternatives with respect to certain criteria, to evaluate one alternative after the other, to score each, and to select the one with the highest score is a solution.

7. *Remedial orientation of analysis and evaluation*: Analysis and policy-making move away from ills toward known objectives.

8. *Social fragmentation of analysis and evaluation*: Analysis and evaluation in a democratic society take place at a very large number of points. Each of many different approaches is taken simultaneously by more than one decision center (Faludi 1973b, 151-153; Sager 1994, 10-11).

In the case of the incremental approach, planners have inadequate information, and the level of ambition to be instrumentally rational is lower than in the comprehensive planning. One goes for the first solution that is found "good enough", when the degree of support is taken into account. *In other words, it is the "high degree of support" that makes a decision "good", rather than its dependence on "scientific analysis".* Meanwhile, since the impacts are supposed to be incremental, there is no need to make an impact analysis. Long-range forecasts seem a waste of time and money. Lindblom states that since policy makers care about public opinion (as they must in a society in which *willed* rather

than *correct* policies are sought) they turn their limited analytical energies to the analysis of citizen volitions rather than the substance of the policy problem.

So, analytical techniques to gather perfect information do not suffice to produce solutions for urban problems. As Friedmann expresses, the statement *"I am technically competent: therefore, I can tell you how to live"* simply lacks the power to persuade (Friedmann 1988, 129). It simply requires some causes, interests, and groups prevailing over others in a contest of power. The actual human situation in social problem solving is 'uncertainty' about preferences, needs and interests. Then, those wants and interests are not data to be discoverable by any possible observation, although observation of course will take part in problem solving process (Lindblom 1990, 4-7, 19-22). Thus, finding solutions or achieving desirable results *do not call for knowledge, but for political procedures.*

As obvious, more than 40 years ago, Lindblom discussed the non-discoverability of perfect data (since it might not reflect the actual human needs and wants) and impossibility of certainty for future, which constituted the core of the rational-comprehensive planning. Planning does not simply call for technical knowledge, there stands politics at the essence of spatial issues. As mentioned, Lindblom's approach provides the initial clues for today's interest in communicative rationality in planning.

IV.3.2. ADVOCACY PLANNING

It is in the 1960s that the technical scientific aura of preceding decades was replaced by an active social and political proximity. Besides Lindblom's approach criticizing the mere scientism, another important exponent of this development was the concept of *advocacy planning* introduced by Davidoff, a model analogous to the U.S legal system. It bases on the idea that the society is not homogeneous, but consists of many groups with different interests and values. In this plural society, power is unequally distributed, and access to resources is not the same for the rich and the poor, or the educated and the ignorant (Alexander 1986, 77). As clear, Davidoff also stands against the value-neutrality in decision-making in the face of a society of classes.

Davidoff states that in such a society, planning should be a practice, which openly invites political and social values to be examined and debated. To him, appropriate planning action cannot be prescribed from a value-neutral position. Acceptance of this position means the rejection of the idea that the planner would solely act as a technician. In Davidoff's proposal that the planner's role is similar to that of lawyers in an adversary legal system. An advocate represents the positions of an individual, a group or organization in a language understandable to his client and to the decision-makers he seeks to convince (Davidoff 1965 in Faludi ed. 1973a, 277-280).

The advocate planner would be the spokesman for individual or groups with inadequate access to government. He would provide them with the expertise they need to make their voices heard in public decision-making. Davidoff states that citizens should play an active role in the decision-making process for public policy. Appropriate policy in a democracy can be determined through such a process of political debate. In these terms, the dominant position of planning agencies was severely challenged, while on the other hand a new social voluntarism created increasing expectations of planning agencies and their policies. The goal-oriented rationality was directed to new ends (Alexander 1986, 77; Salet and Faludi 1999, 6).

IV.3.3. INFERENCES FROM THE INTERMEDIARY VIEWS ON PLANNING AND EVIDENCES FOR THE CURRENT TENDENCIES

The rational-comprehensive planning had been already criticized by some scholars, among whom Lindblom and Davidoff are distinguished, even when it was highly applied. Lindblom displays skepticism on the validity of the instrumental rationality and comprehensiveness, whereas the focus of Davidoff is on the social conflict and advocacy of the disadvantaged groups in the community. These authors, together with others also underline the political nature of planning; i.e. they challenge the idea of value neutrality.

The political nature of urban planning and its close interrelations with social and economic life were debated during the 1960s, and then received widespread acceptance within the planning theory. The very introduction of land-use planning

assumes an acceptance of some form of state intervention in the property market, which naturally brings about a political ideology. Decisions about how land should be developed involve making choices, which affect the interests of different groups in different ways, thus, these choices are political (Taylor 1998, 7).

Besides the notable views of Lindblom and Davidoff, the political nature was highlighted especially with the contributions of Marxist scholars. Spatial issues cannot be value-neutral, as Lefebvre claims:

> *"Space is not a scientific object removed from ideology or politics; it has always been political and strategic...It is a product …filled with ideologies."* (Lefebvre1977, 341).

To Lefebvre, planned space cannot be as objective and neutral as "mathematics". Of course, there are spatial techniques, calculus, programming and planning. However, these are included in just one of the "levels" of spatiality, and cannot eliminate the political nature of the space. So, planning actually deals with the conflicts among groups of individuals.

The recognition of the political nature of planning has gradually given way to the growing interest in the communicative turn. As Lefebvre states, scientific truth can only constitute one level of spatiality. Interests (public or individual) may conflict with the technical knowledge. Therefore, it can be inferred that it is this recognition, which contributed to the evolution of a communicative approach in planning throughout time.

To summarize the significance of these exponent views, they have noted the deficiencies of the *value-neutral* instrumental rationality, and the need for a communicative approach in planning, since societal interests cannot be decided solely depending on a positivist method of scientific observation. Furthermore, the *comprehensiveness*, which was supposed to be grasped by the rational planner, was criticized, too. Comprehensive approach remains today, but, to be grasped by the political community itself within the framework of the communicative rationality.

CHAPTER V

THE RECOGNITION OF A NEW APPROACH: THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING WITH ITS KEY DIMENSIONS

Throughout the 1970s, theoretical approaches continued to develop, which had a more *procedural* emphasis rather than the *content*, which had been so central in traditional planning. It is for sure that all these approaches contributed to the maturation of the planning theory. Within the 1980s, *implementation* issue dominated the field. The question of implementation arose from the need to increase the effectiveness of the spatial plans. It became clear that the goal-rational planning perspective could no longer flourish in a multi-actor context; as societies became more chaotic owing to the changing logic of capitalism with the help of technological evolution. As passing from the modernist to the post-modernist era, it was understood that the need was to find out new ideas that were no longer drawn by the government as the only planning subject (Salet and Faludi 1999, 6).

V.1. THE ROOTS OF "STRATEGY" AND "STRATEGIC PLANNING"

So, it was not until the late 1980s that the strategic planning came into the picture: The word "strategy" comes from the Greek word *stratego*, a combination of

stratos, or army, and *ego*, or leader. So, the term strategic planning finds its roots in the art of war (Bryson and Roering 1987, 21).

At the centre of the military tradition of strategy, there is the heroic figure of the general himself. He presides at the top of a rigid hierarchy, and makes the final decisions. Plans are prepared in the general's tent, overlooking the battlefield. These plans are executed according to the commands transmitted through obedient hierarchies to the men at the front: The men are sent to the battlefield, and the objective is simple: victory (Whittington 1993, 15).

Thus, military success always depends on the plans to strategically control the large-scale movements of troops. The role of the "strategy" is to never lose sight of the "final" military objective within the continually changing tableaux of the battle (Salet and Faludi 1999, 1). This military notion implies that strategic planning first of all associates with *large-scale actions* and *a general final objective* to be kept within an always changing milieu.

How was the notion of strategy linked to the business practice? This link came early: Nichomachides, a Greek soldier lost an election to the position of a general to a mere businessman. Socrates tried to relax him, explaining that the duties of a general and a businessman were equivalent. Both involve planning the use of one's resouces to meet objectives (Whittinton 1993, 14-15).

Leaving this early linkage aside, the first application of the notion of strategy to business was made by two mathematical economists, von Neumann and Morgenstern (1944), in their Theory of Games and Economic Behavior. The authors formalized the Game Theory in their study, which treats business as a game. Game Theory is the study of *strategic* interactions among rational players. It involves with the processes of move and counter-move; threat and conspiracy; bluff and counter-bluff among the players (Whittinton 1993, 15). So, strategic action implies a reaction to the *external environment*. Since then, economics has supplied the strategy field with many techniques and concepts. Bryson and Roering (1987) talk about six schools of models of strategic planning developed in the private sector; namely the Harvard policy model, strategic planning systems, stakeholder management, content approaches, strategic issue management, and

process strategies. This study does not aim at elaborating these models. Rather than that, it just desires to stress the underlying logic of strategic planning:

Strategic planning assumes that the future is full of unpredictable things; but if you have some kind of a plan including “adaptable” strategies to meet the needs of future uncertainty, it can lead you to success. So, strategic planning is based on the assumption that we can create a future that is desirable, despite the uncertainties.

As it is impossible to do everything on the way to attain the desired future, the strategic planning regards some decisions to be more *crucial* than others. Therefore, the strategic plan is nothing more than a set of decisions or “strategies”. It is through these decisions that the strategic plan sets a direction towards the dreamed future. Everything the organization does or does not do is based on the *dream*, which is literally called the “vision”.

A vision is a picture of the future we desire to create. The vision shows where we want to go (Bell 2000, 75-76). Once the vision is determined, it is followed by the stages of internal and external situation assessments, key issue identification, development of strategies to deal with each issue, decision-making, action and continuous monitoring of results (Bryson and Roering 1987, 20).

Bryson and Roering (1987, 9) state the distinctive features of strategic planning as follows:

- Action-orientation,
- Broader and more diverse participation in the planning process,
- Attention to external opportunities and threats; and internal strenghts and weaknesses,
- Attention to actual and potential competitors.

So far have been expressed the key issues of strategic planning which was developed in the private sector. As has been elaborated in the previous parts, spatial planning community has shown growing interest towards this planning approach, and has named it as the “strategic spatial planning”. Mazza (2000) states that the strategic spatial planning has been attributed a number of

meanings and contents. Among them, he essentially underlines that the main characteristic of the strategic spatial planning is its suggestion of a “general” model for spatial order. In his opinion, if the subject of the strategic planning is considered to be a general strategy for the transformation of a community, then the subject of the strategic spatial planning is a spatial strategy for the community (Mazza 2000, 26).

With the term strategic spatial planning, a voluntary political-technical action is intended: This action is directed to the formation of a coalition aroud some shared strategies. It is assumed that the coalition has the willingness and capacity to put the strategies into action. Mazza (2000, 28) underlines that “strategy” and “formation of a coalition” are two inseparable terms in the sense that each of them is functional with the other: The strategy is meaningful if it is the expression of a coalition; and a coalition is recognizable if it holds a strategy.

The recent literature on spatial planning increasingly notes the collaboration of stakeholders within a strategic planning process. Nevertheless, it would not be correct to name all the collaborative planning processes as “strategic”, unless the above features of “strategy” were included in both the process and the plan.

To perform this type of spatial planning, some instruments from the private-sector strategic planning have been adapted, which will be discussed in Section V.4. Before going into this section, the following part will examine the key dimensions of the strategic spatial planning. Having examined the studies on the new planning carried out since the late 1980s, I would conceptualize its key dimensions as follows: ***First category*** refers to the contextual field; i.e. the framework for urban action. This framework or the new world order is defined with its two key facades; namely the time and space comprehension of the non-Euclidean world order in Friedmann’s words; and tendencies towards deliberative democracy. ***Secondly,*** the organizational dimension comes into the picture. Deliberative or argumentative planning --implying collaboration / participation / coalition / communication / argumentation and so on—has been introduced in this category. All these are to be discussed in the field of “communicative turn” in planning. ***The final dimension*** relates to the aims and standards of the planning

process and the plan, which are shaped by both the global economic, social and political forces and environmental sustainability (in its general sense) debate.

V.2. CONTEXTUAL DIMENSION

V.2.1. DELIBERATIVE DEMOCRACY

Deliberation is the reflective conversation open to a wide range of different views. Deliberative democracy is a theme of political science, and currently the term deliberation is gaining foothold also in planning theory (Sager 367, 2002).

The current move from the representative democracy towards the deliberative democracy can be interpreted in two ways, which actually coincide at certain points. First interpretation explains this move with the important changes introduced by the global economic environment. Globalization involves finance, production and trade of goods and services, ideas and people moving everywhere and more rapidly than previously. Global market operations now dominate social and political life. In this world order, economic base determines the other institutional structures (O'keefe 2000).

Thus, gradually the borders between the public and private sectors have become obscure, and they together form coalitions to respond the demands of both the public and the global market. In this borderless world the nation state cannot see its role as trying to protect citizens from external economic forces, and welcomes investment. Deliberation is assumed to be a just way to shape the relations between public and private sectors and other community layers.

In another point of view, the introduction of deliberation could be interpreted as a reaction to the positivist conception of *truth* of the modernist era. Truth, in the post-modernist era is established through deliberation. The core concept has turned to be the “argument”. In Habermas’ words, *“Argumentation insures that all concerned in principle take part, freely and equally, in a cooperative search for truth”* (Sager 368, 2002). Deliberation, thus, ensures the participation of all individuals in public decision-making.

Interpreted in either way, the deliberative democracy seems to have been highlighted recently. As ever diffusing liberalism is increasingly criticized with following reasonings, deliberative democracy is seen as a way out:

1. The individualistic nature of liberalism weakens a more powerful sense of community, replacing it by mere contractual relations between atomized individuals.
2. Liberalism lacks sufficient resources to deal with problems of equality with its egalitarian rhetoric. Marxists and socialists have long argued that liberalism's emphasis on civil and occasionally on political equality still allows inequalities of different sorts.
3. The fact that the democratic component of liberalism is understood in terms of representative democracy has led to a generally indifferent citizenry all too ready to let its representatives do the work of governing, some of which citizens should be doing themselves (De Greiff 2000).

Sager compares the basic approaches of the two types of democracy (namely the representative –or majoritarian- and deliberative ones) in a collective decision point of view: Decisions to be made by voting or some other technique for amalgamating individual preferences are associated with the representative democracy. Meanwhile, decisions made by discussing and persuading until a particular opinion gains general acceptance is included in the deliberative democracy. That is to say that while the former is based on amalgamation of individual *preferences*, deliberation requires some sort of informal amalgamation of *arguments*. He notes that these two procedures are not mutually exclusive. Rather, associated decision models are often reciprocally complementary.

V.2.1.1. Deliberative Democracy: Its Particularities

The basic principle of the deliberative democracy is that the decision-making process must involve discussion of all the viewpoints, with none of them excluded a priori. The arguments of each party are compared, in consideration of the interests of everyone.

Habermas --the most authoritative theoretician of deliberative democracy-- assumes that an optimal solution can be found for every controversy. This is the backbone of communicative reason.

The deliberative democracy contrasts the representative democracy with its idea that the legitimacy of law does not depend merely on whether it represents a given balance of interests, but rather, on the rational acceptability of a law to all who are affected by it, where the rational acceptability can be established only under conditions of free and open deliberation. This understanding of legitimacy leads to the conclusion that deliberative democracy is committed to the following conditions of ideal acceptability:

(a) Process of deliberation takes place in argumentative form, that is, through the exchange of information and reasons among parties who introduce and critically test proposals.
(b) Deliberations are public. No one may be excluded in principle; all of those who are possibly affected by the decisions have equal chances to enter and take part.
(c) Deliberations are free of any external pressure.
(d) Deliberations are free of any internal pressure that could decrease the equality of the participants. Each has an equal opportunity to be heard, to introduce topics, to make contributions, to suggest and criticize proposals.
(e) Deliberations can be indefinitely continued at any time (De Greiff, 2000).

In sum, deliberative democracy can be defined as a process where citizens voluntarily and freely participate in discussions on public issues. It is a discursive system where citizens share information about public affairs, talk politics, form opinions, and participate in political processes. The whole system is "discursive" and possesses the characteristic of "communicative action" as Habermas (1984) puts forward. In this sense, deliberative democracy is "discursive democracy". For Habermas, discourse is not merely a means of discovering universal validity; but also a form of binding social integration which provides sociologically and psychologically powerful motivations for action. The concept of deliberative democracy covers not only institutional procedures such as the rule of majority, but also the political culture of free discussion and voluntary participation.

The strengths of the deliberative model can be summed up in three virtues.

1. **Civic virtue**: Discussion produces `better' citizens, i.e. individuals who are more informed, active, responsible, open to the arguments of others, cooperative, fair, able to deal with problems, ready to alter their opinions.

2. **Governance virtue**: A decision taken following open discussion has greater legitimacy. It is more likely to be respected because it has been freely settled. Moreover, preferences can be justified in non-selfish terms, that is, private interests can be met in terms of publicly defendable principles.

3. **Cognitive virtue**: Orientation to *success* restricts the terms of the discussion and its outcomes. On the other hand, orientation to *understanding* may enhance the quality of decisions. If opinions and preferences are not fixed, open dialogue may give rise to new or more articulated points of view. Since it is impossible to say a priori which are the most valid arguments, there are no grounds for restricting participation to a minority. Nobody in normal circumstances possesses all the information required to take a collectively advantageous decision. Deliberation is able to produce that information (Pellizzoni, 2000).

As obvious, communicative rationality in urban planning is an integral part of the deliberative democracy. This is to be discussed under the title of “organizational dimension”.

V.2.2. NEW TIME-SPACE COMPREHENSION

The other ingredient of the new contextual framework for urban action is the change of the mainstream time-space conception. We are moving into a non-Euclidean world of many space-time geographies in Friedmann’s words. The new order is defined with the contemporary collapse of the time-space continuum. It is the recognition of this move toward a Non-Euclidean world order that obliges us to think of new and more appropriate models of land-use planning.

The recognition of the new time-space is associated with the diffusion of the new logic of economy. A global form of capitalism has developed since the 1980s and matured at the end of this century: global in its character, hardened in its goals, and much more flexible than its predecessors. What differentiates the new global economy from the world economy of previous ages is that "it is an economy with the capacity to work as a unit in *real time* on a planetary scale" (Castells 1996, 92). With the advances in the telecommunication and transport technologies, the new form of capital accumulation process has diffused rapidly; changing the mainstream logic of “absolute” spatio-temporality, and introducing a “relational” one instead.

Space and time are no longer naive external conditions within which the human life is played out. Rather, they are created through social actions. They are both the effect and cause of human experience. Currently, multiple webs of time-space shape human practices in any field.

Territorial planning is one of the fields that has been influenced by the changes created via the restructuring of capitalism with the help of advanced technologies. Planners have to operate observing the new understandings of socio-spatial relations with regard to the new spatio-temporal context; and they have to respond to the needs of the emerging *network society.*

V.2.2.1. Network Society

The combined effect of the technological progress and restructuring of economy has brought about a *globalized information society* with new forms of production, power and human experience, where networking has become the dominant form of social organization (Wilenius 1998). The very concept of the *network society* has become dominant from the scale of neighborhood to global, that is positioned in a *relational time-space* rather than an absolute one.

V.2.2.2. Relational Time-Space

Space and time are social constructs. Harvey states that each social formation builds *objective* conceptions of space and time. But societies change and grow, they are transformed from within and adapt to pressures from without. Objective conceptions of space and time should change to accommodate new material practices of social reproduction (Harvey 1990, 419).

Actually, *relational* time and space into the analysis of social relations have become widespread for the last two decades. Before then, they were *absolutely* considered, i.e. the conceptions of space were divorced from the conceptions of time. They were supposed to be objective, external containers. This notion holds that space is a “real thing”, and exists independently of the objects within it. This view was developed by Newton, and has been used in many branches of science. However, now it only makes sense if they are treated to be “relational”. The relational view holds that space is no more than the relations between other things. This notion was first developed by Leibniz as a reaction to absolute space. According to this view, space and time are relations between objects and events. Recent social theories stress the very real heterogeneity of the experience of time and space in the space of flows. Space can no longer be described as a unitary territorial piece with a single space-time (Madanipour 2001, 159; Healey and Graham 1999).

V.2.2.3. Time-Space Compression

Harvey approaches this issue with the introduction of the term “time-space compression”. As the global actions of markets are intensified with the help of communication flows, experiences of time and space have been dramatically changed. He defines these experiences as follows:

> *“…We have recently been going through a strong phase of what I call "time-space compression": the world suddenly feels much smaller, and the time-horizons over which we can think about social action become much shorter...”* (Harvey 1992, 43).

The time-space compression forces us to adjust our notions of space and time and to rethink the prospects for social action. There is a general crisis of representation. He mentions an unforeseen collapse of space, where the decomposition of the urban body (the physical and cultural representation of the community) has reached a hallucinatory stage, noting the unavoidable fusion and confusion of geographical realities. Vis-à-vis this confusion, what Harvey points as a representation problem is very much related to the field of spatial planning, which also has to take care of the framework drawn by the new time-space (Harvey 1996, 242-243, 246).

V.2.2.4. Binary Characteristics of Time And Space

Castells, pursuing a similar point of view, talks about “timeless time” and “placeless space” as the dominant spatio-temporality in present society. The space of flows dissolves time by disordering the sequence of events. In short, anything can happen at any time, it can happen very rapidly, and its sequence is independent from what goes on in the places where the effects are felt.

The distinguishing characteristic of the “space of flows” is binary time and binary space. Binary time expresses no sequence but knows only two states: *either presence or absence, either now or never*. Within the space of flows “everything that is the case” is now, and “everything that is not” must be introduced from the outside: that is, it springs suddenly into existence. Meanwhile, binary space is a space where the distance can only be measured as two states: *zero distance* (inside the network) or *infinite distance* (outside the network), *here or nowhere*. For example, when seeking information on the Internet, the crucial distinction is whether this information is on-line or not. Everything that is on-line is (immediately) accessible: It is here, without distance. Everything that is outside the network is infinitely far away, completely inaccessible until someone puts it on-line; then it is suddenly here (Castells 1996, 464-467)

V.2.2.5. New Time-Space of Spatial Planning

Briefly saying, through the help of advanced technology, global capitalism changed linear time and Euclidean space with multiple and relational time-space

in an emerging network society. The network logic should be understood in its most general sense; covering sub-national as well as trans-national scales.

Despite the emergence of the network society and the space of flows, Graham and Healey claim that planners in practice seem to continue to maintain the belief that space and time exist independently as a frame of reference, in which events and places occur. In order to apply the new conceptions of place and city in planning processes, the idea that places can be singly represented in plans should be left according to them. They put forward the need for a multiple perspective of city, in which conflicting representations should co-exist. This is to say that today's local efforts are oriented towards both supporting the interconnection of cities with the networked structure of global investment, and securing the identities and peculiar elements of cities. So, planning, in a milieu of the relational time-space geography, seem to have a new role of balancing the tension between the local conditions and the dynamics of the global scale.

Friedmann, meanwhile, proposes that the *time* of new planning should be the "real time" of everyday events rather than imagined future time. Planners would be more in the close of things rather than removed from the actions. Viewed in this light, planning becomes less a way of preparing documents, such as analyses and plans, and more a way of bringing planning knowledge and practice directly on the action itself. Central to this so-called non-Euclidean planning model, planners act as responsible, thinking urban professionals rather than as "faceless bureaucrats engaged in the production of anonymous documents". *Face-to-face interaction in real time is the new model of planning.* In this "real time", planning work engages knowledge forms with what is sometimes called "everyday knowledge" (Friedmann 1993, 482; Innes 1989, 13-14).

This is not to say that it is useless to make projections, simulations, and other hypothetical studies about what might or ought to happen in future. Concern with an imagined future will continue to play an important role in planning, but the emphasis in non-Euclidean planning should be on processes operating in actual or real time.

As for the *space* of planning, the emphasis has been put on the regional and local levels rather than the national and transnational space. Although the concept of "borderless" geographies has been introduced in the current era, the forces of globalization seem to be constructed in territorially bound communities. According to Lovering (1995), the story about the new circumstances of the world order begins with the economy; the regulation of the function of accumulation is shifting down from the national to the local level. Amin and Thrift express that globalization redefines localities as territories living with different pieces of the transnational division of labour as well as their own inherited industrial traditions (Lovering 1995, 111; Amin and Thrift 1995, 97).

There are several reasonings of emphasizing the significance of the local[4] level: First, local variety and differences are said to be more apparent than ever. The problems and conditions of planning are not everywhere the same, and it is the specificity of place that should be the guide of planning. A second reason is the increasing presence of organized civil society in public decision making. Regions, cities, and neighborhoods are the places where meaningful citizen participation can take place. A third reason is that regions and localities are the spaces of people's everyday lives. National and transnational space is typically for corporate actions and superordinate bureaucracies. It is not the space where ordinary people can exert much influence on events. But ordinary people do affect the spaces where they earn their livelihoods and where their daily lives unfold.

Naturally, national and transnational conditions tend to constrain local and regional actions. Neither politics nor planning can be abandoned at these superior levels of governance, and their role is indeed crucial.

V.3. ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSION: PLANNING THROUGH HORIZONTAL ARTICULATION

Actually, when it first emerged after the 2nd World War, the strategic planning was carried out through a hierarchical organization of governmental institutions.

[4] The term "local" is utilized to refer both urban and regional levels.

Together with its re-emergence, a new element has been highlighted: An increasing recognition of communicative logic in plan-making. The planner and subsequent decision-makers have begun interacting as a process of communication. “Communicative planning” is regarded as involving face-to-face communication. John Forester, whose work has focused on interactive planning, states "*In planning practice, talk and argument matter*" (1989, 5). Planning theory and method now recognize the importance of negotiation and conflict mediation (Mazza 2002; Susskind and Cruikshank 1987; Fisher and Ury 1983).

V.3.1. THE COMMUNICATIVE TURN IN PLANNING

According to the traditional thinking, planning is the preparation of plans by experts. Van der Valk (1989) distinguishes between a “technocratic” and a 'sociocratic' approach to planning. The former assumes a strong role for authorities in safeguarding the public interest. As the experts, planners get considerable say. Everything evolves around the “plan”. It has taken care of everything. Meanwhile, the “sociocratic” approach associates with the communicative rationality; i.e. it pays attention to the views of others. Authorities are not the only ones called upon to act in the 'public interest' and not above other actors either. This leaves room for negotiations. The role of planners is less central than it is in the technocratic view.

The terms “sociocratic approach in planning”, “communicative turn in planning”, “argumentative planning”, “deliberative planning”, “consensus building” and so on imply the arrived point in planning at the beginning of the 21st century. It would be considered as an emerging paradigm in the planning theory, with the reasonings mentioned at the very beginning of this study. Planning is now regarded an interactive, communicative activity[5].

So, the planning through the communicative rationality involves the re-organization of the planning activity, including different policy groups, different

[5] As stated in Chapter 1, there may exist differences in the meanings of planning approaches that assume communicative rationality: Being aware of these differences, the study uses these terms in place of each other, since it just wants to emphasize the “interaction” of parties in a planning process; not to show how these methods differentiate from each other.

experts, citizens and business (Healey 1999, 113). This new approach is considered to overcome the democratic deficit between state and citizens. Dealing with the communicative work of the British development plans, Healey (1993) focuses on how democratic values are reflected in such plans. She states that a democratic plan may be recognizable not so much by its aims, or its policies, or its "distributive justice". Rather its identifying character is likely to be its tone, expressing the experience of *"inter-discursive discussion".* Thus, the communicative turn in planning should be comprehended as an integral part of the *deliberative (discursive) democracy*.

V.3.2. COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Communicative rationality, drawn by Habermas, for policy making is applied to planning by Forester (1989), Sager (1994), Innes (1995) and others. Innes (1996, 461) states that

> *"A decision is "communicatively rational" to the degree that it is reached consensually through deliberations involving all stakeholders, where all are equally empowered and fully informed, and where the conditions of ideal speech are met."*

Habermas' focus is on dynamic public conversation, in which all effected parties can have a voice and be listened to. He conceives social life as intersubjectively constructed. In conversation, we must accept some common principles to allow communicative exchange to take place. The performance of the conversation requires some degree of "trust" and "mutual understanding".

Habermas distinguishes between the bureaucratic, scientific-technical languages of the *system world* and cultural resources of the *lifeworld*. According to him, the latter is colonized by the former. He stresses the need to re-value the significance of civil society and its cultural contribution (Healey 1999, 117).

Examining the recent decision-making efforts using this type of rationality, they exist as a method of group deliberation that brings together range of individuals

for face-to-face discussion. Each group represents different stakes in a problem. Facilitators and training process of participants are intended to ensure that all are heard and all concerns are taken seriously. Little pre-given information is taken in the wide-range discussion. Participants have common information and all become informed about each other's interests. After the group has explored interests and agreed on facts, they create options, develop criteria for choice and make decisions on which they can all agree (Innes 1996, 461).

It must be noted that public agencies create consensus-building groups to supplement traditional plan making process. This means that deliberative planning process is not to reject the traditional government; rather government re-formulates its action through the legitimization of this type of decision-making. Pinson (2002, 477) describes this process government in a context of governance.

V.3.3. STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING THROUGH COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY

Castells and Borja (1997, 155) express that the involvement of both public and private agents in the planning process is indispensable of a strategic plan, and this interaction distinguishes it from other forms of planning[6]. They talk about the *participation* of the stakeholders into the plan-making process, and draw the main characteristics of participation as follows:

- it takes place at all the stages of planning; i.e. from forecasts to monitoring of the projects,
- ideally, it includes all the public and private agents,
- communication with citizens and marketing constitute part of the very process of strategic planning,
- negotiated agreement on strategic work, social consensus about the work constitute the essential factors of the participatory process.

[6] Here the revived form of strategic planning is implied, rather than the one emerged just after the 2nd World War and carried out by public agencies.

Throgmorton (1993) describes planning as a rhetorical, rather than an objective, technical activity. This solves the contradiction between the self-image of planners as objective technicians and their actual role which is highly political. This approach builds on three principles:

1. Plans, analyses, and in fact the stories in plans are always addressed to someone, so the *audience* is important.
2. Planning-related expressions are replies to other expressions, so we always argue in the awareness of differing or opposing views.
3. The meaning of such expression is beyond the control of the author, so we must think about this “play of meaning” and about how audiences reconstruct meanings.

Below takes place a comparison of the planning processes, which are carried out through instrumental and communicative rationalities*:

TABLE 2-COMPARISON OF PLANNING PROCESSES THROUGH INSTRUMENTAL AND COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITIES

	Planning through *instrumental rationality*	**Planning through *communicative rationality***
How it is organized	Hierarchically working public institutions—emphasis on the "structure"	Horizontally working public agencies, together with private stakeholders and citizens—emphasis on the "agency"
Grasping comprehensiveness	Supposed to be attained by the rational planner(s)	Supposed to be attained through group discussion
Data, ideas, strategies	Based on experiential scientific knowledge, universal truth	Based on inter-subjective knowledge, stories, fables; as well as scientific analysis
Relation between knowledge and action	Linear and causal	Continually interactive, contingent (place-specific)
Public Interest	Supposed to be discovered and measured by the rational planner(s)	Decided via the consensus of all the stakeholders *during* the planning process, and measured according to the criteria developed within the group

*Developed referring to Innes (1996) and Healey (1992).

V.4. NEW AIMS AND STANDARDS ASSOCIATED WITH STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING

It is mentioned at the beginning of this study that the strategic spatial planning has come into the picture to respond two main targets: First of all, it is supposed to be a convenient approach in the globalization era, which can provide economic competitiveness for localities. Localities desire economic competitiveness, but ironically, they also feel themselves unconfident in a continually networking and homogenizing conditions of global capitalism. So, they also desire to protect and upgrade place qualities. As a result, the aim of making a strategic plan stands at the intersection of these reasons.

V.4.1. NEW AIMS: HOW DIFFERENT

The basic aim of the strategic plans is to constitute a *strategic vision* for a locality. Guided by a vision which is shared by a strong coalition, the aims relate to the following categories (Borja and Castells, 154):

- Accessibility and mobility
- Social balance
- Human resources
- Information and telecommunications
- Services to production
- Quality of government
- Culture
- Economic infrastructure

So, it can be inferred that the aims of a strategic spatial planning not only relate to the plan, but also cover the process with new organizations. The aims are to enhance the competitive advantage of a locality so as to cope with the new form of capitalism, which mainly depends on innovative and service sectors, and which diffuses via advanced communication and transportation. Meanwhile, the improvement of the local values is also aimed at to maintain the local identity in the ever-networking society. This inference can be based on Castells' metaphysics; the polarity of the *Net* and the *Self*. The *Net* signifies the multitude of globalizing networks of power, wealth and information, equipped with information technology. The purpose of the global actors is to provide ever-increasing profits for the global capitalist system. At the other end, there is the *Self*, which signifies the totality of individual and collective identities who seek to sustain their lives in the turmoil of increasing global flows. The sustainability debate and concerns for the protection and improvement of local identity can be reasoned accordingly.

V.4.2. COMPREHENSIVENESS RE-FORMULATED

The introduction of the strategic spatial planning contrasting rational-comprehensive planning would not mean the loss of the “comprehensiveness”. As stated before in this study, comprehensive planning has been criticized since the time it was brought about, with the reasoning that “No one has expertise to do comprehensive planning”. Altshuler (1965, 311-314) states that comprehensive plans require more knowledge than any individual can grasp.

However, comprehensiveness meant in the strategic spatial planning is not simply left to the planners’ expertise. Strategic spatial planning involves group deliberation; thus, it is the group that produces plan proposals through collective action. Of course, planners’ expertise is applied in providing the data, strategies and in writing the final synthesis; however, the basic elements of the plan grow out of group discussion. So, planning, in this sense, does not lose the notion of comprehensiveness; but, this comprehensiveness is for an open future, therefore, continually re-formulated through interaction.

V.4.3. ADOPTION OF THE PRIVATE SECTOR INSTRUMENTS

It should be noted that most of the history and development of the concepts, procedures, and tools of strategic planning occurred in the private sector, although the roots of public-sector strategic planning are also deep. Its roots in the private sector are tied to the need of rapidly changing and growing corporations to plan their future effectively, when the future itself is increasingly uncertain (Kaufman and Jacobs 1987, 24; Bryson and Roering 1987, 14).

Kaufman and Jacobs (1987, 25) use a metaphor to describe what went on from the 1960s to the early 1980s in both the private and public sectors, as far as planning is concerned: They suppose both of the sectors as rooms adjoining each other. In one room, people are busy with developing strategic planning model to be used by private corporations. In the other room, similar activity goes on; people work at developing planning process models to be used by the public sector. However, no movement takes place between the occupants of the two adjoining rooms. In the late 1980s that the door between them has opened, and some planning academics

have walked into the corporate strategic planning room[7], looked around, and concluded that this model has applicability for public planning, considering the circumstances created by globalized capitalism.

Various authors distinguish different models of strategic planning applied in the private sector. These models will not be detailed here, since it is beyond the scope of this study. What public sector strategic planning has inherited from the private sector models will be given in three headings: SWOT analysis in the planning process, emphasis on action, attention to improve competitive position.

The acronym **SWOT** means the systematic assessment of *strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats*. More precisely, external opportunities and threats as well as internal strengths and weaknesses are identified in the planning process. To identify opportunities and threats, one might monitor a variety of political, economic, social and technological forces and trends, as well as various stakeholder groups. To identify strengths and weaknesses, he might monitor resources (inputs), present strategy (process) and performance (outputs).

Such an attitude had already existed within the comprehensive rational planning. However, goals, objectives, and policies that are developed in a plan too often seem to cover all topics of possible concern to the locality; and assume that the planning, policy, and administrative units of the government have equal capacity and incentive to act on the plan's recommendations. What differs in strategic planning is that it is supposed to encourage an honest assessment of a community's capacity to act, seeking to maximize strengths and minimize weaknesses in the context of opportunities and threats. The discussion of strengths and weaknesses directly borrows from the economic literature on competitive advantage. It can be seen as nothing more than a shifting of the competitive advantage idea from the market to organizations and community (Kaufman and Jacobs 1987, 27).

Another important feature inherited from the private-sector strategic planning is the action-orientation. Strategic plans are frameworks for action. This implies that

[7] The term "corporate strategic planning" refers to the "private sector strategic planning". The two terms are utilized interchangeably.

strategic planning is not merely concerned with the planning process; it is equally concerned with implementation and monitoring phases. Once the strategic plan is finished, the actors of implementation and monitoring stages gain importance: Institutions involved in the planning process should be willing and capable for putting the decisions in motion (Albrechts 2003, 8).

A final inheritance from the private sector is the changing attitude of the public sector towards competition: The traditional perspective on competition in the public sector was to view it as damaging to the economic and social health of a community. Planners and planning theory strove to foster co-operative, shared solutions. Nevertheless, under strategic planning, competition is seen as inevitable. Thus, communities are encouraged to identify their competitive role and exploit it, or suffer the consequences (Bryson and Roering 1987, 12-15).

V.5. THE FEATURES OF THE MAINSTREAM AND STRATEGIC PLANNING IN COMPARISON

It is occasionally mentioned throughout this study that the strategic spatial planning does not merely aim at producing a territorial development plan. Besides that, the *process itself* is also an aim, in which different stakeholders work together for the development of their locality. The basic distinction between the mainstream and strategic approaches is that the matter of concern of the latter is "to improve the quality of action", as Friedmann (1969) suggests, rather than the 'quality of decisions'. Friedmann states that a good plan is not sacred, like the Holy Scripture, but the sprawl of current knowledge, expectations and goals (1965, 39).

Another important standard of the new planning is an emphasis on “performance”. Contrary to the “conformance” principle of the traditional planning, the “performance” of the outcomes of the plan has been brought into the picture. Faludi and Altes (1994) claim that non-conformity of the outcomes --conventionally counted a “failure”-- can be a benefit. Similarly, implementation of a plan in conformance with intentions --normally regarded a “success”-- can be a disaster. Such an assessment is that of the rational-comprehensive planning that applies the *means-end* scheme. The “conformance” principle would only apply when project

plans are concerned. Technically, the measurement of the conformity can be complex, but the logic is simple.

Strategic plans are different. Deviations from the plan do not indicate a failure. Such plans are frameworks for *action* and need to be analyzed for their *performance* in helping with following decisions. In other words, the purpose of plans is not to impose themselves on others, but to help improve the quality of subsequent decisions. Strategic plans cannot be read all of a sudden, before taking a particular decision. Thus, they are justified in situations when they are used: The 'plan in use' is not the plan as written on paper, but the plan that is reconstructed every time decision-makers refer to it. This can be different from what is intended (Faludi and Altes 1994).

In the following table, the differences of the two planning approaches are revealed depending on the recent literature and some empirical cases:

TABLE 3-COMPARISON OF

MAINSTREAM AND STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING

	Mainstream City Master Plan	**Strategic Spatial Plan**
Organization in charge	Carried out by governmental bodies having responsibilities in a certain hierarchy	Guided by a public/private entity following a horizontal negotiative logic in all its phases
Legal status	Indicated in national laws of territorial planning, thus, legally binding	Not obliged to have a national legally-binding status; generally non-statutory, political and flexible
Form	Ordering of urban space with precise determination of land-uses—a major concern for spatial development	Integral territorializable objectives that are not necessarily drawn as physical plans—a concern for both spatial and non-spatial development
Boundaries of the territory under consideration	Confined in municipal boundaries	Municipal boundaries exceeded since it is an inter-relational, inter-sectorial, inter-institutional process
Comprehensiveness	In terms of the determination of all physical land-uses in relation to one another for a closed future—a final state document	In terms of having a general development strategy, but also including policies specific enough; the general strategy allowing continuous reformulation of policy development for an open future—a continuous and adaptive process
Time-span	Long-term vision for the implementation of already-made precise land-use decisions at different phases	Long-term *strategic* vision guiding to continuously-developed project proposals, the time element of which is central to problem
Scope	Confined to physical development, peripherally regarding other sectors	Inclusion of a wider range of social, economic, political and physical issues
Basic strategies	Regulation and monitoring of physical development, not necessarily regarding economic welfare	• Urban competitiveness through provision of communication and information technology, advanced transportation, encouragement of domestic/foreign investment • Urban and environmental quality via the principle of sustainability, maintenance of local identity

V.6. ASSESSMENT OF THE EMERGENCE AND WIDESPREAD ACCEPTANCE OF THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING

Changing socio-economic circumstances have affected and will always affect the context of territorial planning. For about fifteen years, there has been a growing interest in the *strategic spatial planning*, which I have attempted to describe in three dimensions with reference to recent literature and empirical cases:

1. The *contextual* dimension draws a framework with its new time-space conceptions and the tendencies towards deliberative democracy;
2. The *organizational* dimension involves the communicative planning through the networking of stakeholders;
3. *New aims and standards* stand at the intersection of urban competition and environmental sustainability.

Although this new tendency emerged in the developed countries to cope with the urban impacts of globalization processes, it gradually received widespread acceptance in the developing countries, too. Nevertheless, the urban impacts of globalization need not to be "dramatic" on every locality. Even within the boundaries of a single country, localities are impacted at varying degrees from the global processes. So, there must be some other reasons besides the *effect of the globalization* that would explain the widespread acceptance of the strategic spatial planning. This acceptance can be justified under two titles:

1. ***Recognition of the impossibility of perfect predictability*:** The rational-comprehensive planning of the modernist era has had the claim of total design and total control. Planners' claim to make total design and to provide total control seems to be irrational, given the ever-deepening uncertain environment due to the circumstances of globalization. Strategic planning, on the other hand, introduces *general strategic decisions* that can be territorialized through further objectives. In other words, strategic planning contrasts total design, since it cannot be entirely controlled. Instead, it introduces the idea of "plan as a general layout" considering the impossibility of total control. Actually, strategic planning –in a sense—

avoids from the total design, since it is a threat in front of innovation, opportunities, and creativity.

2. ***Reflection of the deliberative democracy on the sphere of planning:*** As the representative democracy has been criticized for not being coherent with the participatory model, deliberative democracy has come into being. As discussed before in this study, it is supposed to be a convenient model for the new world order, in which the nation-state is not the only powerful actor; rather, multi-actor power structures have grown. Under such circumstances, the democracy theory now highlights the *deliberative democracy*, the basic principle of which is the involvement of all the viewpoints in decision-making processes, with none of them excluded a priori. Planning, as a decision-making process, cannot have remained untouched vis-à-vis this development; thus, deliberative approach has also entered into the planning field. In this approach, the public interest –-the very aim of planning—is supposed to be established through the deliberation of all the affected parties.

Strategic spatial planning is being applied in different countries at *varying extents*. The so-called "varying extents" originate from the peculiar conditions of countries and localities: The strategic plan does not merely relate to the physical development, rather it includes social, cultural, economical, organizational, institutional aspects of urban life. Since the combination and relative weights of these factors vary in different localities (even within the boundaries of a single country), the degree of *place-specificity* would be remarkable in a strategic planning process.

The strategic spatial planning has been elaborated in this chapter with a further intention to understand "where it stands in the Turkish planning system". Actually, this intention has been derived from an upper-level argument: Since the date the Republic of Turkey was set up, it has had a concern for keeping pace with the Western World. Spatial strategies were especially included in this "westernization"[8] attempt, since the cities were regarded as the places of

[8] This term is utilized to refer to the modernization movement of the Turkish Republic.

modernity. So, European type of urbanism was intended since the Young Republican Era, nevertheless, the peculiar circumstances of the country itself also remarkably impacted on the Turkish planning system.

The westernization project of Turkey became more concrete in its relationships with the two main European organizations among others: Turkey has been the member of the European Council since 1949. Meanwhile, having signed the Treaty of Ankara in 1963, interrelations with the European Union (EU) were initialized. In 1987, Turkey applied to the Union to be a full member. From December 1999 onwards, it became a candidate country. Turkey does not treat the EU project only in economic terms; rather the entire project is its matter of concern (Tekeli and İlkin 2002, 26). This is to say that Turkey considers the ongoing processes in the Union; and urban policies should be regarded in this framework.

Especially for the last fifteen years, it can be inferred that Turkish urbanism has become more familiar with principles, tasks and urban management structures that are prevalent in the European countries. This does not mean “a hundred per cent adoption” of the European style of planning and policies. Yet, it would not be incorrect to claim that urban policies are closely observed and adopted at differing degrees.

What is currently “fashionable” among the EU countries (and actually in the entire planning community) in terms of urbanism is *the strategic spatial planning through the communicative rationality*. Therefore, it has entered in the agenda of the Turkish planning system.

Considering the Turkish case, the number of cities that –-more or less—have established transnational relations, and have experienced related urban impacts can hardly be 5 to 10 over 81 (total number of cities in Turkey). If the strategic planning simply served to the cities that were included to the globalization process, it would not be reasonable to adopt it in the Turkish planning system. The impact of the globalization is the very reason of the revival of the strategic planning, however, its commonplace acceptance would depend on the two justifications above.

As stated before, the strategic spatial planning is being applied at “varying extents” among countries and, even within the boundaries of any one country. In Turkey, too, there have been strategic planning attempts at national, regional, provincial and municipal levels. Related to the discussion made up till now, the study will aim at addressing a new strategic planning attempt from Turkey; i.e. Provincial Development Planning. However, prior to that, the chapter below will elaborate some critical positions towards the strategic planning approach – occasionally with reference to some European examples.

CHAPTER VI

CRITICAL APPROACHES TO THE AIMS OF STRATEGIC PLANNING AND COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY

It should be noted that although this new tendency is becoming more and more popular, some scholars approach it in a critical manner. I.e. there do exist critical views on the strategic planning via communicative rationality besides those affirmative ones.

In this study, the widespread acceptance of the strategic planning using communicative rationality has been interpreted in two approaches: One describing it as a proper tool to meet the demands of the global forces; and the other explaining it with the crisis of modernism's claim to rationality. Similarly, the criticisms directed to the strategic planning can also be grouped under these two categories.

VI.1. CRITICAL VIEWS RELATED TO THE FORCES OF THE GLOBALIZATION

First group of critical views focuses on the globalization, and questions whether the strategic planning is a tool basically to serve to the global forces more than community interests. They stand against the views suggesting the inevitability of the processes of globalization. In these critical views, globalization should be

evaluated within the framework of the capital accumulation processes, which result to the benefit of the developed countries, whereas the peripheral ones are impacted negatively.

Having adopted a Marxist or critical realist point of view, these authors underline the “asymmetric power relations” as the very dynamic that enables the reproduction of capitalist system. The main pattern of the capital accumulation process is uneven development. What has been prevalent for the late 1970s is the sprawl of these asymmetric power relations and unequal development at the global scale.

In the current system, the turnover of some large multinational corporations matches the GNPs of all national economies except the largest ones. Governments at all levels are increasingly controlled by these global forces. Political agency is limited, national and subnational government, as well as citizens are helpless before these forces. As national governments lack control over key economic variables, national economies are becoming vulnerable to global market forces. These authors point that poverty in the peripheral countries has been deepened due to the processes of globalization. Despite that, the World Bank, International Money Fund (IMF), World Trade Organization (WTO), OECD, G7 meetings and some units of the United Nations have been contributing to these processes. What they have been doing is the monitoring of the integration between the metropolitan cities of the developed countries and the peripheral countries. The result is the powerlessness of 1/3 of the countries and half of world population in managing their own economies. (Bukowski et al. 2003, 4; Herbert and Thomas 1990, 103; Türkay 2000, 8; Smith 1984, 98; Boratav 2000, 19; Günaydın 2003, 2).

This group of authors underlines that the logic of the new world order is the enlargement of the opportunities for markets. With this aim, Keynesian economic development model that prevailed until the 1980s was left. During the mid-1980s, the concept of “good governance” was introduced. It relates to the regulation of the interaction between state and economy. According to this concept, markets are to be operated with respect to external economies. Citizens are defined as the “consumers” of the public services. In this order, state aims at diminishing the

costs of execution of public works, and creating opportunities for the involvement of the private sector in public services (Günaydın 2003, 3-5).

Within this order, state institutions are increasingly considered to be the *instruments of activating the "productive forces"*, rather than the mechanisms of establishing social balance, overcoming social disparities and promoting social cohesion (Brenner 2000, 372). Not only the central level state institutions, but also regional, metropolitan, municipal and local state agencies have adopted market-oriented strategies to promote competitiveness, to attract external capital investment and to secure accumulation within their territorial administrations. These developments have prepared the basis for an *"entrepreneurial style of urban management"* and *"interurban competition*".

VI.1.1. URBAN ENTREPRENEURIALISM

Concerning the circumstances of the global capitalist system, urban politicians became obliged to think of "how the cities are positioned in the market". In other words, some kind of "urban entrepreneurialism" has been introduced as the means of managing, organizing and governing urban areas. Cities are run in a businesslike manner, employed by local politicians and public administrators who seek to accumulate wealth within one city's boundaries.

The aims of urban management are now oriented more towards *local growth and economic development* rather than *local provision of welfare and services*. Presently, local governments are attributed some definite characteristics, once distinctive to business: risk-taking, inventiveness, growth orientation, promotion and profit motivation (Hall and Hubbard 1998, 2-4).

VI.1.2. INTERURBAN COMPETITION

As the aims of urban management have turned to create and attract economic activity which produces income, it simultaneously has brought about the course of interurban competition. Cities have been obliged to identify their comparative advantage under the pressures of the new world economy. This in turn relates to other aspects of urban areas such as levels of service, size of tax base,

infrastructure, quality of life, educational, and cultural facilities (Butler et al. 1997, 3).

The so-called good governance has been translated to the local level; i.e. it is associated with the entrepreneurial urban management that promotes competitive urban policy: Encouragement of the role of private sector in urban development, removal of local authority control over certain services, allowing public-private cooperation, establishment of urban development corporations, etc. are all changes in local government (Oatley 1998, 202).

While the interurban competitiveness has been favored by the processes of globalization, the criticisms underline that any competition implies "winners" and "losers": As Harvey suggests, with all cities competing in the same global market, there are bound to be both winners and losers. *"How many successful marinas, convention centers or heritage centers can there be?"* (Hall and Hubbard 1998, 18-19). So, it can be inferred that entrepreneurial urban policies play a role of reproducing local social relations, which are more instrumental to flexible mode of accumulation at one side; and they sustain unequal development at the other.

Lovering argues that the reorganization of local institutional structures towards an entrepreneurial style represents a change only in the "form" rather than in the "essence" of policy for cities. Social polarization cannot be overcome, and even it gets worse in cities, where entrepreneurial methods are applied to compete at the global level. Lovering gives the example of London, which has adopted this new urban management. London can be considered as a world city, having a GNP equivalent to that of the country of Saudi Arabia. However, it also contains the greatest number of poor people and homeless in Britain. Şengül, likewise, says that not all the groups in a so-called world city gain in the competition process; thus, such cities are known as "dual cities" because of this socio-spatial injustice (Şengül 1998).

VI.1.3. LEVEL OF INTEGRATION TO THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Meanwhile, there also exists the problem of "getting integrated to the global economy". As mentioned at the very beginning, the "nodal points", i.e. the "world

cities", act as the coordination centers of the interflow of capital, goods and services at the global scale. Following those cities, the others are ranked in the hierarchy with respect to their mode and degree of integration to the global economy.

However, not all cities can have a place in this network, since they are not able to compete at the global scale. This is an issue related to the variations in the development experiences of the core, semi-developed and peripheral countries. What is more, the experiences within any one group of countries (e.g. the core countries) also differentiate from each other, although they are all bound to the capitalist system. Massey underlines the determining roles of different historical relations with capital in different countries: e.g. France, the United States and the United Kingdom are all dominated by capitalist relations of production, yet, there are enormous variations among them. The fundamental relations of capitalism developed historically under very different conditions in each case, which then led to different implications on the legal, political and ideological structures of each of them (Massey, 1984, 16).

To contribute to Massey's ideas, since national economies are no longer closed-systems, countries are now under the impact of the demands of the ever-globalizing capitalist system, besides their internal dynamics. The criticisms directed to the processes of globalization emphasize that the impact of these processes is mostly beneficial for the already-developed countries, whereas the peripheral ones suffer from it.

Returning to the argument of the global city network, this would mean the "exclusion" of some from the system. This is a case generally valid for the majority of the cities of the developing countries. Developing countries have facilitated the penetration of the core countries into their own economies through free trade zones, tax write-offs, weakened regulation, and also establishment of their own transnational corporations.

It is interesting to note that although the idea of "good governance" (which favors the shrinking of the share of state in national economies and attributing it an "enabling role" rather than a "providing role") was born in developed countries,

their shares in national economies are still higher than Turkey, which is considered to be a developing country. Table 4 indicates that the shares of public expenditures in developed countries are increasing in spite of the discourse on "market-friendly state". On the contrary, Table 5 reveals that the shares of public resources and expenditures in GNP of Turkey have been decreasing. The share of fixed capital investments in GNP even reached zero. Meanwhile, Table 6 displays the higher shares of the developed states in national economies than Turkey (Günaydın 2003, 5-6):

TABLE 4-TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURES AS THE PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL INCOME (1913-1986, CURRENT PRICES)

	1913	**1929**	**1938**	**1950**	**1973**	**1986**
France	8,9	12,4	23,2	27,6	38,8	53,2*
Germany	17,7	30,6	42,4	30,4	41,2	47,8*
Holland	8,2**	11,2	21,7	26,8	49,1	58
England	13,3	23,8	28,8	34,2	41,5	45,9
U.S.A.	8	10	19,8	21,4	30,7	37,1

*1985
**1910
Source: Günaydın 2003.

TABLE 5-SHARE OF FUND RESOURCES AND EXPENDITURES IN GNP IN TURKEY (%, 1987 - 2003)

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003*
SHARE OF RESOURCES IN GNP	3,8	4,3	4,3	4,7	4,2	4,4	4,5	3,4	3,3	3,4	3,7	3,3	3,1	5,6	2,7	1,2	1,8
SHARE OF EXPENDITURES IN GNP	3,2	3,8	4,6	5,3	5,2	5,7	5,3	4,3	3,9	3,5	3,7	3,3	3,7	4,4	2,3	1,2	1,1
• ***Share of Fixed Capital Investments in Expenditures***	0,7	0,7	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,4	0,7	0,5	0,7	0,9	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,2	0,0	0,0

*estimation

Source: State Planning Organization

TABLE 6- THE SHARE OF THE STATE IN ECONOMY (YEAR 2000)

Country	%
U.S.A.	32
Germany	53
Austria	49
Belgium	49
France	53
Holland	47
England	41
Spain	40
Sweden	58
Switzerland	49
Italy	39
Norway	47
Ireland	31
Turkey	23,9

Source: Günaydın 2003.

These tables show the remarkable share of the states in national economies in developed countries. However, this share has been decreasing in many developing countries, which creates “dependent” development for them on international markets.

So, being sort of “surrendered” to the logic of international markets, the spatial development in peripheral countries shows an uneven style. The national economies of the peripheral countries –since they are bound to the rules of global capitalism-- are restructured, and the effects of this restructuration become visible especially in big cities. In these countries, there appears a dominant city (primate city) and a few big cities that seem to have sort of “integrated” to the global economy. Primate city is usually the only city dominant in economy, industry, trade, and as a result, in population. It has a significant finance capital market to facilitate exports and foreign investment. The primate city is generally 6 to 15 times the size of the next largest city. However, in developed countries, the second biggest city is around half the population of the biggest city, not less (rank

size rule). If the rank size rule does not exist, a primate city starts to be formed, and this city grows rapidly at the expense of others. Such overgrowth in one city hinders development in other cities and regions of a country, and creates a complex set of urban problems in the primate city itself (United Nations 1996, 23; Babalık-Sutcliffe 2003, 2; Smith and Feagin 1987, 30).

The overgrowth of Istanbul, the biggest city of Turkey, can be shown as an example of the primate city phenomenon. The government tried to prevent its primacy through directing investment to other cities until the 1980s, and managed to do this to a certain extent. Nevertheless, it remained the biggest city, though not the primate city. However, after 1980, the introduction of neo-liberal policies, which aimed at integration with the international market, resulted in the growing importance of Istanbul once again. Hence, Istanbul has become the capital in Turkey in terms of the interrelationships with the globalized economy, whereas the real capital city Ankara showed modest economic figures compared to Istanbul. Figure 3 shows the share of Ankara and Istanbul in the production of national income over years. Istanbul has always produced more than 20 % of the national income, whereas Ankara's contribution to the production of the national wealth remained around 8–9 %. It is noteworthy that at the second half of the 1990s, Istanbul's contribution increased while Ankara's decreased (Babalık-Sutcliffe 2003, 3-5).

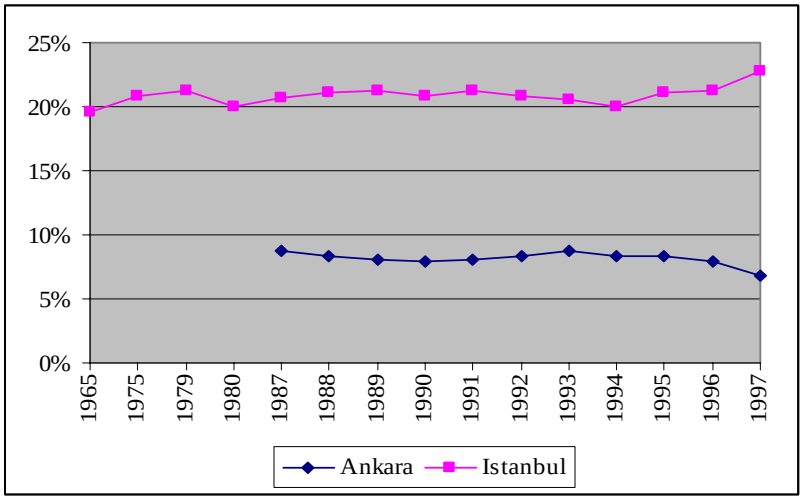


FIGURE 1- SHARE OF ANKARA AND ISTANBUL IN THE PRODUCTION OF NATIONAL INCOME (%)

Source: Sönmez (2001a, b); DIE (2002) cited by Babalık-Sutcliffe 2003, 5.

Observing the remaining cities in peripheral countries, they seem to have self-sufficient economies with no capacity or intention to compete in a global arena. Nevertheless, the new urban management strategies and tools seem to have been --more or less—implemented also in the cities of developing countries.

In sum, the criticisms related to the forces of global capitalism point to the uneven nature of capitalist system, and express that it is not a system in which all win. The tools and aims adopted in the new urban management may serve the powerful actors of the game of global capitalism rather than the general public.

The aims of making a strategic plan are said to oscillate between two poles as mentioned previously: First, the attainment of interurban competitiveness; and second improvement of the quality of life and environmental sustainability. These views express that in reality the latter is to contribute to the attainment of the former; i.e. it is to serve to the demands of the global economic forces.

VI.2. CRITICAL VIEWS ON THE COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY

The other group of views questions the functionality of the communicative rationality: I would suggest that the processes of *globalization* and *post-modernity* are coinciding or interpenetrating processes. Each of these processes refers to the nature of late capitalism and crisis of modern state; and raises questions on power and collective action, which can no longer be seen naively in relation to the nation-state alone (Welch 2001; 475). As mentioned previously, in the philosophy of post-modernity, the concept of *truth* is replaced with the concept of *discourse*, and this has been affecting all type of decision-making including the spatial planning (Blotevogel 1999, 121, 130). The communicative-rational spatial planning pays attention to discourse and planning is now seen as an interactive process.

As the global economic restructuring has led to new aims and roles for national and local governments, they have had to reorganize their relations with civil society and private sector: The "communicative-rational" strategic spatial planning, which allows collaboration of all these parties, has come into being as a convenient tool, and it is increasingly becoming widespread.

The communicative turn in planning is depended on the Habermasian approach, which has been discussed in Chapter V. Some scholars criticize it and raise the question how the production process of places can be related to the communicative action, while Habermas himself has no conception of how spatio-temporalities and places are produced. They find it ironic that his work has been taken up in the field of planning (Harvey cited by Huxley and Yiftachel 2000, 336).

This is not the single criticism directed towards the planning approaches[9] that have come into the agenda with the communicative rationality. Collaborative planning, participatory planning, deliberative planning, consensus-building, governance all imply a communicative/interactive logic, with differing ways and degrees of interaction of involving parties in a planning process. Despite their

[9] As stated previously, the study ignores the possible differences among the terms collaboration, communication, participation, deliberation and so on. These terms are utilized in place of each other; all implying the "interaction" of parties in a planning process.

differences in this or that way, the basic concern in all of them is the realization of a planning process not merely by a single public entity, but by some sort of collaboration of all affected parties; i.e. all can be said to depend on communicative rationality. Does what actually happen in these processes reflect the theory of communicative planning completely?

Whatever names are given to it, planning via communicative logic was born in western countries, and then diffused worldwide. Currently, this approach has become fashionable in both developed and developing countries, and implemented with differing degrees. Although the communicative planning is highly favored in the western world, it cannot be implemented properly even in the Western countries. Before the elaboration of the Provincial Development Planning experience in Turkey in a strategic planning point of view, how communicative planning is criticized will be discussed below, with reference to some practical cases when necessary.

VI.2.1. IS CONSENSUS BUILDING POSSIBLE IN THE EXISTENCE OF DIFFERENT INTEREST GROUPS AND IN AN UNEQUAL POWER CONTEXT?

The first criticism of the authors in this group is related to the basic assumption of communicative rationality. It assumes that in a planning process consensus can be reached. It does not concern what to do when such a consensus is not attained. Tewdwr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998) state that

> *"…in such a heavily politicized arena as planning, consensus is completely utopian –there will always be winners and losers—and it will never be possible for all individuals to abandon their political positions and act neutrally".*

So, ignoring the political nature of planning in which many interests challenge with each other, communicative rationality bases on the ideas of "trust" and "mutual understanding". I.e. a negotiative process is supposed to rely on truth, openness and honesty. However, individuals can act in their own benefits. It is supposed that individuals will simply alter their characters in a planning process, which seems to be a too optimistic expectation.

Besides, although it assumes that all sections of the community can participate the planning process, it does not explain properly how this could be achieved. Habermas talks about the "equal participation" of the stakeholders; however, one can ask how *undistorted communication* can be provided in a communicative planning process in the face of the power groups. Communicative theorists say little about how to deal with the complex configuration of power relations. They are criticized to undermine contextual understanding of power and material interests. Huxley and Yiftachel stress that attempts to increase participation can be productive; nevertheless, there is the need to be reflexively and critically aware of the power contexts (Tewdwr-Jones and Allmendinger 1998, 1975-1988; Held 1987 281; Huxley and Yiftachel 2000, 338).

Neglecting the power contexts in a society and assuming the existence of trust among participants, the defenders of communicative rationality say that in a

planning process all the parties should be equally empowered.

Mazza[10] claims that collaboration of parties surely brings efficient results; however, in his opinion, it is a mistake to empower them equally (in terms of their roles and responsibilities). It is still possible to realize a collaborative planning process, in which the major responsibility and role are given to the public sector (e.g. local government), since it is the only party who is supposed to pursue the general interest (Interview with Luigi Mazza, 2003).

VI.2.2. ACTOR-BASED DIFFICULTIES IN A COLLABORATIVE PROCESS: QUALITY OF THE SOCIAL CAPITAL, LEADERSHIP, INTERRELATIONS OF ACTORS

Another criticism relates to the quality of the so-called "social capital" in a locality. Some claim that successful results in a participatory planning process can be achieved in the existence of stocks of 'social capital'; that is, the civil organizations, structures and relationships built up between individuals within a community. Where stocks of social capital are bright, and when high levels of trust exist between individuals, favorable conditions exist for co-operation and participation (Selman 2001, 13).

The turning point on the impact of the *social capital*[11] on local governance was Putnam's study of civic traditions in Italy[12]. Taking a new institutionalist approach, he analyzes why some governments succeed and other fail. He portrays that the performance of institutions is determined by the social context within which they operate. I.e. he highlights the power of socio-economic and socio-cultural factors to explain differences in regional government performance.

---

[10] Luigi Mazza is a professor in the Milan Polytechnic, Italy. Strategic spatial planning is among his field of interests, thus his views are applied in preparing this study. In 1999, he headed the team that developed a "strategic frame of reference" for the Milan Municipality. It is named as Milan Framework Document, and it offers a more flexible approach, based on strategies, policies and criteria.

[11] Putnam describes the **social capital** as features of social organization, such as *trust, norms and networks*, which can facilitate co-operation for the efficiency of society. Social capital is produced through networking practices (Baerenholdt and Aarsaether 2002; 154-155).

[12] Putnam, R.D. (with R. Leonardi and R.Nanetti) 1993. Making democracy work: Civic traditions in modern Italy. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Socio-economic variables divide Italian regional governments into two macroregions; north and south. However, they fail to explain differences in either of them completely in Putnam's opinion. More than those, the quality of the community is the real cause to explain the regional government performance: The North Italy is characterized by norms of reciprocity, networks of civic engagement, and horizontal civic bonds. On the contrary, the South Italy suffers from vertically structured social and political relations, distrust, and clientelistic relations with the center. Southerners proved unable to organize forms of collective action and rather turned to pursuit of individual welfare. In his view, what really matter for better government performance are the prevailing informal norms of reciprocity among citizens and the networks of civic engagement throughout the society (Myers 1995, 85-91; Bukowski et al. 2003, 6, Piattoni 2003, 51).

A parallel issue is the quality of the *leadership and the key actors* in a collaborative process. In evaluating a strategic planning example from Belgium (ROM Project)[13], Albrechts argues that an important contributor to the strength of a strategic planning process is the *collaboration of strong actors*. The success of the project, which he describes, was affected positively by the guidance of "brilliant" individuals: the governor of the Province as the Chair of the Steering Committee, leading civil servants, key politicians, and professional consultants. Albrechts also underlines that existing and new friendship relations between actors, as well as the coincidence that major local politicians, the chair, a key person in the provincial administration and the minister(s) of public works belonged to the same political party, helped extremely in making the system work.

Nevertheless, the way they involved in the project was not free from problems. Although the main decision-makers were in the Steering Committee (political, administrative and private sector actors), the committee was informal. This caused some tensions with formal structures, i.e. mainly with the municipal

[13] The ROM Project in the Ghent Canal Zone (Belgium) reflects a strategic approach with a long-term vision, short-medium-long term strategies and actions that are needed to implement the vision. The letters in ROM respectively symbolize *spatial planning, environment and economic development*. The project was started in 1993 and it took seven years to develop a consensus about the intended future and an action plan. The strategic plan was accepted in 2000, including a long-term vision, a long-term programme and short-term action plan.

councils. This informality could not be maintained because of the obligation of handling the money in a legal administrative way. Related to this tension and the needs of each of the phases, the network of stakeholders that carried out the project changed and enlarged several times (Albrechts 2003).

Steinberg, in describing several strategic spatial planning examples from the Latin America, points to the facts that when the actors in an administration somehow change, planning and/or implementation processes are affected negatively. A strategic plan's fate is so much related to the political will and personality of the replacing actors (Steinberg 2003, 3-6). When the key actors change, the plan could be deactivated and shelved. So, leadership and political continuity come into being as important criteria for the sustainability of a strategic plan.

Besides the change of the leader and key actors, *involvement of different actors* in every further stage of a planning process and *redefinition of their interrelations* also causes a problem. Albrecths underlines that it takes too long to implement the projects, since each phase of a process is a different world with different actors, different power relations, different rationales, different contexts and different time perspectives. Each of the phases is shaped and biased by an inevitable play of power. Such a problem was experienced in the ROM project, too. Although the steering committee reached a local agreement on a specific issue, the final decision was taken in the central level (Council of Ministers). The decision did not match with the locally-constructed consensus. The governor and local politicians had to use their political influence to change this decision.

In brief, application of the communicative logic in planning seems to bring some difficulties in practice. The main difficulties met are summarized below:

- The political nature of planning causing difficulties in reaching a consensus,
- Different interests challenging each other, thus, difficulty in establishing trust between parties,
- Vis-à-vis the unequal power context, difficulty in providing undistorted communication of parties,
- Doubts on the efficiency of equipping all the parties with equal

responsibilities in decision-making,

- Lack of adequate “social capital”, which effects on the quality of the collaborative decision-making,
- Lack of strong leadership and key actors that encourage and guide the network of actors,
- Contradictions between actors with different political and worldviews,
- The conflict between the informal organization of actors and formal rules/laws,
- The change of administrative structure during planning/implementation processes,
- Redefinition of the actors in every further stage of the planning/implementation processes.

CHAPTER VII

INTRODUCTION OF THE STRATEGIC PLANNING INTO THE TURKISH SPATIAL PLANNING

So far, the strategic spatial planning has been elaborated, which has received widespread acceptance together with certain criticisms. This elaboration is supposed to provide a basis for the discussion in the following parts: Implementation of this new approach in Turkey.

Currently European countries (and actually the entire planning community) have had a growing concern in *the strategic spatial planning through the communicative rationality;* i.e. planning through the collaboration[14] of all affected parties. Chapter V.1.1 has discussed that collaboration contributes the democratic content of a planning process. This type of planning allows the participation of civic organizations and networks (i.e. social capital) in discussions on public issues. Selman (2001, 13) states that where stocks of social capital are bright, and when high levels of trust exist between individuals, favorable conditions exist for co-operation and participation.

Turkish planning system is getting familiar with the strategic spatial planning, too. It should be noted that the system already witnessed some collaborative processes; i.e. collaboration in Turkey cannot be simply regarded as an effect of

[14] Being aware of the probable differences between collaboration and participation, this chapter (like previous chapters) utilizes these terms in place of each other, implying the interaction of multiple actors in a planning process.

European type of urbanism. Nevertheless, the past attempts could not work efficiently. The collaborative planning has become more tangible after the 1990s in the country.

The study, below, will analyze the **Provincial Development Planning (PDP)**, which has been recently introduced into the Turkish planning system as a strategic planning activity. Prior to this analysis, however, the evolution of collaboration in the Turkish planning needs to be described. This is because the contemporary strategic planning comes forefront as a collaborative activity. As known, collaborative planning implies the "working together" of public sector with non-governmental associations and private sector. Have there been such "collaborative" grounds in the Turkish planning history? When voluntary civic associations started to involve in planning? Before then, how the system was functioning? The answers can clarify on what grounds the recent strategic spatial planning is established. Therefore, the discussion in this chapter will portray the evolution of the Turkish planning, putting the emphasis on its "collaborativeness".

It is possible to claim that the 1992 United Nation's Rio Conference is a breaking point in terms of local-policy making all over the world. Because, it is in this conference that the principles of *participation* of all local actors in local decision-making processes was accepted together with the principle of sustainable development. Turkey was one of the countries that participated in this conference and accepted these principles. So, this chapter will first examine the evolution of the Turkish planning with regard to collaboration until the 1990s. Next, it will address how the system got more familiar with collaborative planning after the 1990s. In other words, both of these sections will address to what extent the Turkish planning recognized collaboration at institutional level. Nevertheless, "institutionalization of collaboration" per se seems to be insufficient for its proper realization. Some obstacles come forefront, causing difficulties for the planning system to function in a collaborative manner: The patronage networks have been able to put pressure upon political authorities to obtain favors; and thus, have played significant roles in shaping urban environments. So, vis-à-vis these rent-seeking networks, how far voluntary civic networks (or social capital) can be influential in collaborative planning processes is a question. So, the impacts of these relations on planning will also be described for these periods, so that the

obstacles in front of collaboration can be understood.

Despite the patronage networks, however, the Turkish planning went on integrating with collaborative activities in the 1990s; and gradually these activities gave way to the introduction of strategic planning into the system (at national, regional and local levels). The final section of this chapter, thus, will examine a recent strategic planning attempt --Provincial Development Planning—in a more profound manner.

VII.1. EVOLUTION OF THE TURKISH SPATIAL PLANNING SYSTEM UNTIL THE 1990s

The discussion in this part will consist of three sub-periods: 1) early Republican period (1923 to 1950s); 2) rapid urbanization period (1950s to 1980s); 3) neo-liberal period (1980s to 1990s).

VII.1.1. EARLY REPUBLICAN PERIOD (1923-1950)

As soon as the Republic of Turkey was established in 1923, the founders of the young Republic wanted to realize certain social and economic transformations with the aim of modernization, and keeping pace with the Western World. To succeed this, spatial strategies were paid special attention (Tekeli 1998). Ankara was declared as the capital city of the Turkish Republic. It was desired that the capital city be planned as a modern city, thus, an international competition was held to attain the city plan of Ankara. A German architect/planner, Herman Jansen, won the competition and produced the first plan of the city.

Ankara was not the only city, the plan of which was produced by a foreign planner. In those years, several other cities were planned by foreign planners, too. Nevertheless, from the beginning of the 1930s, this approach received criticisms. Instead of foreign planners, Turkish planners were defended to plan Turkish cities, since they could know local problems better. Yet, the tradition of “planning through competition” was sustained.

As far as the organization of planning is concerned, five public organizations involved in urban development during this period: Municipal Urban Development Committee[15] in the Ministry of Interior Works, Urbanism Science Committee[16] in the Ministry of Public Works, Directorate of Urban Development in Ankara Municipality, Directorate of Urban Development in İstanbul Municipality, Planning Office of İzmir Municipality. Some foreign planners were the consultants of these offices (Tekeli 1980, 78-84).

While these attempts towards establishing a planning system were realized, rent-seeking relations already showed themselves as early as this period: The early republican period was characterized by one-party rule (Republican People's Party "CHP"). The majority (i.e. the periphery) lived under the law, nevertheless, those who connected to the CHP elite could receive favorable treatment by the political authorities. Jansen's Ankara Plan is one of the very first examples of profit-seeking relations. First of all, the plan was produced with the support of the political elite (via a top-down approach), and other social groups were excluded from the planning process. Despite that, Jansen, himself, tried to be sensitive to the needs of the entire society. He sought for preventing certain interest groups from appropriating urban rents. Nevertheless, during the implementation process of the plan, these groups always tried to amend plan decisions. As the support of the political elite for the plan was diminished gradually, Jansen was released from the work (Kalaycıoğlu 2001, 63; Şengül 2002, 22; Atay 1969; Tankut 1984; Yavuz 1952).

Briefly saying, the strong central administration marked this period, which aimed at rapid modernization in any field, including the modernization of cities. Under the particular circumstances of the period (i.e. after serious independence wars), the major concern was the achievement of this aim by *whoever could do that*. Thus, foreign planners were given the duty of planning cities, since Turkey had very little planning experience in those years. Gradually, Turkish planners took over this duty, as they were supposed to know Turkish cities better than their foreign colleagues. Planning activity was mainly organized in the capital city Ankara, together with few local municipal offices. These efforts were not free from

[15] Belediyeler İmar Heyeti
[16] Şehircilik Fen Heyeti

patronage relations. Those, who had connections with the political elite, sought for rents on urban land. Portrayed this way, the early Republican Period does not imply any collaborative decision-making with local communities.

VII.1.2. RAPID URBANIZATION PERIOD (1950-1980)

After the 2nd World War, advanced capitalist nation-states –named as welfare states—aimed at providing a stable environment through overcoming inequalities and committing redistributive functions. Planning in its general sense was supposed to improve social, economic and physical conditions. In this period, urban planning was structured around comprehensive-rationalist paradigm in the European countries.

The comprehensive-rationalist planning became mature by the 1960s and it was sustained till the end of the 1970s. However, it was not until the mid-1960s that this approach began receiving criticisms and some sort of participatory planning tendencies began developing both in the USA and European countries, though they may not have been ideal participatory attempts (Davidoff 1965; Tekeli 1993, 47). As discussed in Chapter III, some pioneering scholars like Lindblom and Davidoff defended this approach in those years.

Turkey did not enter the 2nd World War, however, as rapid industrialization and simultaneous rapid urbanization were experienced in the country in those years, it also adopted the welfare state instruments. Comprehensive-rationalist planning prevailed in Turkey, likewise in the European countries, for development in any sector from the 1950s onwards. Coming to the 1960s, with the aim of using resources efficiently and providing overall national development, the State Planning Organization (SPO) was established. SPO started the preparation of five-year national development plans, and legitimized the state intervention into the social life, pointing to the inferior economic and social facts in those years. Nevertheless, it also noted the necessity of collaborative planning:

> *"Collaboration of various organs is needed in preparing the plans... An expert group within the State Planning Organization cannot be regarded to know all the details of economic and social life, and to*

> *make a plan for all sectors. The probability of implementing a plan, which is prepared without having the views and problems of the relevant staff, is very weak…*
>
> *Similarly, so as to implement the plans successfully, …private sector, universities and relevant authorities of other institutions should participate all stages. So, the plan would be a product reflecting the views of all interested parties…"* (Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı 1973, 14).

So, it is possible to infer that a collaborative approach seems to have entered into the agenda of the Turkish planning, too, in the 1960s, though *only at the national level*. I.e. the preparation process of national development plans was desired to be a collaborative activity of experts from public/private sectors and universities.

Aside from the preparation of the national development plans through the collaboration of experts, these plans themselves also proposed some participatory methods to include local communities into decision-making. The 1st National Five-Year Development Plan introduced the "community development method"[17]. The method suggested local communities be organized to cooperate with the state voluntarily. The 2nd Plan defined community development as the "encouragement of enterprise in small communities". However it did not clarify how local enterprises would cooperate with local governments. As local communities did not manage to be organized in themselves and carried on "expecting everything from the central government", the 3rd Plan left this method and proposed a participatory model at the provincial scale (The İLMİP Project). Local communities remained indifferent to this model, and only the bureaucrats at the provincial level ran the model (Özşen et al. 2003, 11; Bayazıt 1982, 186-187).

In the 4th Plan, i.e. during the 1970s, participation was proposed as a social aim. This proposal, i.e. organization of local government including citizen participation, was actually developed under the pressures of groups like professional chambers, which supported *decentralization of administration*. Besides these groups, in this period, social democrat municipalities began criticizing the tutelage

[17] Toplum kalkınması

relation between the central and local governments. They emphasized the importance of public participation in local processes. They argued that the real owners of local governments, local problems and solutions were the elected municipalities and local people, rather than the central government (Özcan 2000, 224). In this regard, some municipalities constituted their own administrative schemes that allowed participation of local people to decision-making processes. However, these implementations did not expand nationwide, and remained as individual cases.

A final significant attempt of the 1970s is the planning approach of the Master Planning Offices[18]: It is interesting to note that the initial signs of the contemporary strategic planning can be found in the work of the Master Planning Offices of three metropolitan cities (İstanbul, İzmir, Ankara). These offices were established in the late 1960s, and worked until the early 1980s. They were bound to the Ministry of Public Works; however, they were able to work as autonomous planning offices. In order to reveal how the work of these offices resembled the strategic spatial planning, the planning studies of Ankara Master Planning Office can be exemplified:

First of all, the Ankara Master Planning Office assumed a "multi-actor collaborative approach" in its planning activities. The Office had a small number of members, however, it worked in collaboration with a Board of Consultants for a few years, the members of which were universities and professional chambers. Secondly, pursuing the tendencies in England and USA in those years, the Office desired to produce a "structure plan", which can be treated as the early version of the contemporary strategic plan. This sort of plan was flexible; it had strategies and policies for different scales; and it was welcoming participation. In making a structure plan, besides the physical elements, economic and social components of the city were also considered. Meanwhile, this new approach was not simply concerned with producing the plan. Beyond that, it also included organizational, legal and financial proposals to implement the plan. To realize such a planning process in a successful manner, the Office often collaborated with academics and professionals, and relevant public institutions (Altaban 2002, 33-38). Nevertheless, as early as 1983, the Office was abolished, since the new

[18] Nazım Plan Büroları

government made changes in the structure of planning system. Keskinok (2002) states that Master Planning Offices are the outcomes of the “institutionalization of planning” within the 1960s. He mentions that although they do not function anymore, the work of these offices pioneered the planning of other metropolitan cities. Given the collaborative methodology assumed by these offices, and the features of the plan they produced, it is possible to claim that the efforts of these offices are the early clues of today’s fashionable strategic planning.

So, the rapid urbanization period demonstrated efforts towards institutionalizing collaborative planning. Likewise the previous period, however, practical life was still witnessing the patron-client relations in this period. It is in this era (post-1950) that the multi-party system was started in the country; and the periphery could establish their patronage networks. They could exercise increasing control over decision-making procedures. Sprawl of squatter housing in urban areas is a good example of patron-client relations in this period: Having pursued populist policies, political authorities enacted development amnesty laws. These laws legitimized illegal housing, which accommodated a considerable amount of population; i.e. blocks of voters (Şengül 2002, 25). Through the amnesties, the dwellers of squatter settlements obtained the property rights of their houses, and gradually began selling and renting out them. In other words, they could apply pressure upon politicians and could appropriate urban rents. While periphery benefited from the populist policies, the urban middle class --the members of which were individualistic in their lifestyles-- found itself marginalized in these processes (Kalaycıoğlu 2001, 63-64).

VII.1.3. NEO-LIBERAL PERIOD (1980-1990)

From 1980s onwards, Turkey left the development model that depended on import-substitution, and began experiencing a neo-liberal economy. This new model necessitated taking place in the world market from then on. The economic policies adopted in those days inevitably impacted on cities; and they also began integrating with the global urban network.

Within the neo-liberal circumstances, city economies were transformed; i.e. modern capitalist establishments largely eliminated the craftsmen and artisans

who used to dominate city economies and who had been the only indigenous businesses. Besides, small and medium-sized businesses were established and made cities integrate with regional and world markets. Particularly, Central Anatolian cities started industrial production for the world market (Tekeli 1998).

These processes went parallel with a greater demand for “decentralization” of administration. In the 1970s, this demand had only come from academia, intellectuals and mayors. By the 1980s, this turned to be a demand of local groups, too (Özcan 2000, 202). In this respect, an important development of the 1980s was the introduction of the Greater City Municipality Act, defining a two-tier municipal structure for metropolitan areas (District municipalities and the metropolitan municipality). It should be noted that the so-called decentralization process does not necessarily imply the collaboration with local communities; rather it refers to increased –albeit limited-- authorities of local governments.

In this period, with the impact of the laissez-faire economic policies, profiting from urban land through clientelistic connections went on. Urban areas were treated as suitable milieus for capital accumulation. The profit-making concerns from urban land showed themselves in the amnesty laws enacted in this period. The first amnesty law passed in this period legitimized not only illegal houses, but also other illegal development including tourism and industrial buildings (Gedikli 1998). What is more, the amnesty laws passed within the 1980s allowed the construction of buildings up to four-storeys on gecekondu land. Within the previous period, gecekondu had already become a marketable asset; and with the amnesty laws of the 1980s, rent-seeking relations in gecekondu areas became widespread with the “apartmentalisation” process (Erman 2001, 987).

Considering the three periods described up to here, one can infer that until the 1980s patronage networks highly dominated decision-making processes. Although there were attempts to develop participatory planning with the involvement of non-public organizations, these attempts always remained limited. The 1982 Constitution played a role in discouraging people from being involved in such organizations, thus, there was a negative attitude towards civil initiatives and voluntary organizations in this period. However, the Constitution was amended in 1995 to provide more tolerance toward political activities of youth, women, state

employees, and other groups; and NGOs started to receive relatively broad support from the masses within the 1990s, as to be elaborated below (Kalaycıoğlu 2001, 60-61, 57).

VII.2. 1990s ONWARDS: IMPACT OF THE NEW PLANNING TENDENCIES IN THE WESTERN WORLD

Coming to 1990s, the Turkish planning community began defending participatory decision-making more than in previous periods. Two causes made them defend participation: First, participation became a worldwide trend by the early 1990s. As stated previously, the United Nation's Rio Conference (1992) is a milestone in this regard. Second, past planning experiences in the country proved that city plans, which were produced without collaborating with local communities, failed to regulate urban development (Tekeli 1993, 47). So, the participatory planning was legitimized through both external and internal causes.

VII.2.1. STEPS TAKEN TOWARDS COLLABORATIVE PLANNING

Throughout the 1990s, planning and local government in Turkey made important steps in terms of participation. Although central government has been continuing to involve in local issues, it would not be wrong to say that "governance"[19] has been introduced and exercised, though not ideally. HABITAT II Istanbul Conference (1996) is the second worldwide event of the 1990s after the Rio Conference regarding sustainable development; and the so-called "governance" has been mentioned as a principle in the *National Report and Action Plan of Turkey* in this conference (Göymen 2000, 3-5).

Through the governance process, all the local actors are supposed to participate to local procedures. To provide this, *Local Agenda 21*[20] (LA21) processes have been started in 9 pilot cities of Turkey, and gradually LA21s were expanded to more than 50 localities (see Table 7).

[19] Governance is defined as the mutual interaction among local administration, business and citizens in a local government process.
[20] LA 21 was introduced in the UN Rio Conference: The vital role of local governments and NGOs in the development of participatory democracy was emphasized. To achieve sustainable development, these "partners" have to realize LA 21s for their own localities.

TABLE 7–PARTNER LOCALITIES OF THE LA21 PROGRAM

Greater City Municipalities	Municipalities	Town/District Municipalities	Provincial Special Administrations
• İstanbul • Adana • Adapazarı • Antalya • Bursa • Diyarbakır • Eskişehir • İzmir • İzmit • Mersin • Samsun	• Afyon • Ağrı • Antakya • Aydın • Bolu • Burdur • Çanakkale • Denizli • Kars • Kütahya • Malatya • Mardin • Van • Yalova • Zonguldak.	• Doğubeyazıt (Ağrı) • Çankaya, Yenimahalle (Ankara) • Kuşadası (Aydın) • İznik, Nilüfer, Orhangazi (Bursa) • Biga (Çanakkale) • Yalvaç (Isparta) • Aliağa, Foça, Karaburun, Ödemiş (İzmir) • Talas (Kayseri) • Babaeski (Kırklareli) • Bekirpaşa, Değirmendere, Gölcük (Kocaeli) • Derik, Kızıltepe, Nusaybin (Mardin) • Tarsus (Mersin) • Dalyan (Muğla) • Avanos, Ürgüp, Mustafapaşa (Nevşehir) • Harran, Yaylak (Şanlıurfa)	• Edirne • Kastamonu • Nevşehir

Source: http://www.la21turkey.net

In all these localities, non-governmental structures like city assemblies, advisory councils, public assemblies, city councils have been established to carry out LA21 processes (Göymen 2000, 10-11). Examining Table 7, it is observed that 12 localities out of the total 57 are in the Eastern and South Eastern Regions. In other words, 12 of the total 57 LA21 partners can be considered as peripheral localities. The LA21 and similar practices have produced local strategic plans in a

few cities. In other words, though in an immature manner, strategic planning seems to have emerged towards the end of the 1990s in the country.

Simultaneous to the above practices, the number of civic networks began increasing within the 1990s. So as to comprise all sort of voluntary civil society networks, the term “NGO“ is used in Turkish: I.e. pressure groups, interest groups, democratic public organizations, organizations outside the state apparatus are all covered under this term (Bulut and Kösecik 2002, 2).

Kalaycıoğlu (2002, 61) mentions that among the entire NGOs, voluntary organizations are less influent on political decision-making processes than trade unions and business associations, which are more strongly organized. Voluntary associations find little room to maneuver among those highly-organized pressure groups. Still, environmentalists, animal rights’ activists, feminists, the disabled, retired employees and civil rights groups have made some progress in the 1990s. Meanwhile, although their priority is not to perform municipal duties, today civic organizations have close relationships with municipalities (Bulut and Kösecik 2002, 4).

Civic networks have been increasingly involving in local and national affairs in the country. Nevertheless, clientelistic networking has been still shaping urban areas. Disregarding the city plans, clientelistic relations have led to the appropriation of urban rents by some interest groups.

Aside from the clientelism, poor level of “interpersonal trust” also comes up as an obstacle in Turkey for proper collaboration. Putnam puts interpersonal trust as an important ingredient of social capital. It is a crucial factor for establishment and collaboration of civic organizations. Turkish society has a relatively high level of interpersonal distrust. Among 44 countries included in the World Values Survey (1989-1990), Turkey ranks the lowest. Less than 10% of its population believes that most human beings are trustworthy (Kalaycıoğlu 2001, 61-62).

So, at the backcloth of the planning system, rent-seeking relations have always contradicted with the efforts to institutionalize participation. Still, these efforts have been sustained in a progressive manner. Considering the five-year national development plans enacted in this period, they all mentioned that participation of local people in local decision-making processes was indispensable for sustainable

development. From the 7th Five-Year Development Plan (1996-2000) onwards, the factors reshaping the world economy together with the technological advances have been stressed, and the need to comply with the rapid global transformation has been underlined. The tool to meet this need has been mentioned as the adoption of a "strategic approach" in planning in national, regional and local scales. There have been attempts of strategic planning in all these scales; albeit in limited numbers. Still, it is possible to claim that strategic planning is progressively becoming more tangible in the Turkish planning system. The next section will examine one of these strategic planning attempts (Provincial Development Planning) in detail.

VII.2.2. THE CURRENT PICTURE OF TURKISH PLANNING IN THE STAGE OF ASSUMING STRATEGIC APPROACH

Relying on the discussion above, it is possible to say that participatory approach became more tangible in the Turkish planning within the 1990s. The concern of the Early Republican period was the attainment of modern cities as soon as possible. Thus, rather than collaborating with local people, urbanism –as part of greater project of modernism—was realized by the strong central administration. In the next period, i.e. from the 1950s to the 1980s, collaboration was regarded to be an important planning method; nevertheless, it could not be institutionalized, and only some partial attempts were realized in this regard. Followingly, the 1980s witnessed decentralization in local government, which implied the increase of the authorities of local governments. It is after the 1990s that the processes of community participation have been experienced on a more concrete basis in Turkey.

All through these periods, networking in the country seems to have appeared for receiving favors from the political authorities, whom they helped getting elected (Patronage networks). Although, voluntary civil networks, which seek for societal interests rather than private interests, have sprawled within the 1990s and have taken roles in national and local processes, their involvement still seems not to be strong enough, vis-à-vis the maintenance of the patronage networks.

In sum, the country cannot be said to have an inherent collaborative planning tradition. Following inferences can be made related to the Turkish planning in the course of assuming strategic planning:

1. The “strong central administration tradition”, which was inherited from the Ottoman Era, has always been sustained, though in the last decades its power was decentralized to local governments to a certain extent.
2. It was not until the 1960s that some collaborative processes were initialized by the state; nevertheless, they failed since local people were not familiar with such processes.
3. For the last decades, more tangible collaborative processes have been experienced in different localities with varying compositions of social capital formation.
4. Patron-client relations have always formed a backcloth in the country, while the above collaborative attempts have been tried.

Despite the lack of an adequate collaborative tradition, especially for the end of the 1990s, the planning system has been progressively getting familiar with the strategic approach. It is a planning approach, which can be applied to local (municipal and provincial), regional and national level; and all these levels have been exercised in the country. This study, below, aims at elaborating one of these strategic planning processes; i.e. Provincial Development Planning (PDP). It is a “provincial-level” strategic planning attempt, and necessitates collaborative decision-making. It is why the above discussion has tried to display “in what kind of a collaborative system this new attempt was born”. In what follows, this new planning approach will be analyzed with all its dimensions.

VII.3. A RECENT STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING ATTEMPT IN TURKEY: THE PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (PDP)

The Provincial Development Planning emerges as a component of the *regional development strategy* of Turkey in the 8th Five-Year National Development Plan. To better comprehend where the PDP stands, first and foremost, the evolution of regional planning until the introduction of the PDP should be elaborated. The Turkish regional planning has experienced successive stages until the contemporary era. The introduction of each further stage is not only due to the need to follow the new trends in the world, but also due to the failure of the previous stage. Therefore, the following section critically handles the regional planning experience in Turkey: While summarizing the evolution of regional planning in Turkey, it also aims at showing the failures related to the planning and/or implementation stages with reference to some crucial plans.

VII.3.1. THE ROUTE TOWARDS THE EMERGENCE OF THE PDP: EVOLUTION OF TURKISH REGIONAL PLANNING EXPERIENCE WITH DRAWBACKS AND LESSONS

This section is composed by six parts. First part will elaborate the period before 1960, in which some preliminary regional planning attempts were exercised. Following that, in the second part, the regional planning approach after 1960 will be analyzed. The establishment of the State Planning Organization (SPO) is a milestone in the post-1960 era. The SPO enacts five-year national development plans, one of the core components of which is the “regional policy”. So, the third part will display the evolution of regional policy within these plans. Each plan introduced new terms regarding regional planning, taking note of the trends in the world. Coming to the current era, “collaborative” planning has become a fashionable term. Nevertheless, some kind of “working together” during the planning stage had already been experienced between the institutions in the 1960s, though not in a mature manner. Neither of these regional plans was implemented. I.e. the the interaction of institutions only in the planning stage did not suffice to make the plans be implemented. Therefore, the fourth part critically assesses the regional plans of the 1960s, so as to discover the deficiencies in the

implementation stage. This assessment is important; i.e. the drawbacks in the implementations of the very first plans would point to the factors that should be paid attention for the current PDPs be implemented. Then, the fifth part evaluates the position of the Turkish regional planning vis-à-vis the changing regional planning paradigms. The final part, i.e. the sixth part, examines the South Eastern Regional Planning Administration (the only administration that involves the regional planning of a specific region), since the case study of this dissertation is related to the one of the provinces in the South Eastern Region.

VII.3.1.1. Pre-1960s: Initial Approaches to Regional Development Problem

The conditions in the regions of Turkey are uneven in terms of income, development pace, and quality of life. The traces of regional planning in Turkey go back to the 1930s[21]. Some initial attempts were realized within the 1930s as a reaction to regional inequalities. Following that, in the 1940s, a primitive regional plan was produced for the Zonguldak Area to control the coalmines (Personal conversation with İlhan Tekeli).

Towards the end of the 1950s, a regional planning approach was proposed to developing countries (including Turkey) by the OECD. The first regional plan prepared in this regard was the Köyceğiz-Dalaman Regional Plan by the Ministry of Public Works with the experts of the OECD in 1957. Within the same period, the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement was established in 1958. The planning duties of the Ministry of Public Works were transferred to this new ministry. The Directorate of Regional Planning was established within this ministry, which started to involve in regional planning (Türker 1995). This Directorate simultaneously involved the regional planning processes of İstanbul, Zonguldak and Antalya.

Meanwhile, the State Planning Organization (SPO) was established in 1960. Its establishment led to new era: First of all, the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement was no longer the single authority to make the regional plans; the

[21] The Republic of Turkey was established in 1923.

SPO was also given the regional planning authority. The SPO started to prepare five-year national development plans, one of the basic components of which is regional policy.

Secondly, planning became a “prestigious” concept. Before then, the government of the period (Headed by Prime Minister Adnan Menderes) was refusing long-range planning, and defending sort of “unplanned” development (Personal conversation with İlhan Tekeli). In what follows, the regional planning experience after the establishment of the SPO is to be elaborated with regard to the both the five-year development plans, and some crucial case studies.

VII.3.1.2. 1960: Establishment of The State Planning Organization As The Responsible Authority For The Regional Policy

In Turkey, like in other countries, the early 1960s witnessed to the introduction of social and welfare state, which brought about the principle of *planned economy* at the national level. This led to the establishment of the State Planning Organization (Law no. 91, 1960) with the aim of using the resources efficiently, and increasing the pace of national development in economic, social and cultural terms.

With the establishment of the SPO, it became possible to consider regional planning more comprehensively and efficiently within the context of the national planning (Tekeli 1967, 257). At the very beginning (until 1966), it was executing the regional planning duty through the Directorate of Social Planning. Between 1966 and 1971, besides this Directorate, the Directorate of Economic Planning and the Directorate of Promotion and Implementation also involved in regional planning. In 1971, in addition to these three directorates a new diractorate, –namely, the Headship of Prioritized Settlements for Development-- was established to involve in the development problem of underdeveloped regions (Türker 1995).

In 1984, regional planning duty of the Ministry of Construciton and Resettlement was ended, and the SPO became the single authority to prepare the regional plans. It went on restructuring until the present day, and attained its current structure (see Figure 2).

Undersecretary	Deputy Undersecretary and Secretary General	Main Units	Consultancy Units	Support Units
Undersecretary	Deputy Undersecretary	General Directorate of Annual Programs and Economic Evaluations	Advisors to the Undersecretary	Personnel Department
	Deputy Undersecretary	General Directorate of Economic Modeling and Strategic Research	Undersecretariat Advisors	Administrative and Financial Affairs Department
	Deputy Undersecretary	General Directorate of Economic Sectors And Coordination	Legal Advisory Group	Publication and Public Relations Department
		General Directorate of Social Sectors and Coordination		Defense Unit
		General Directorate of Regional Development and Structural Adjustment		
		General Directorate of Relations with the European Union		
	Secretary General	General Directorate of Foreign Economic Relations		
		Management Information Center		
		Overseas Organization		

FIGURE 2-ORGANIZATION SCHEME OF THE SPO

(Source: http://mevzuat.dpt.gov.tr/khk/540/chart.html)

SPO has been enacting five-year National Development Plans for about forty years. It enacted eight development plans until now. Below are summarized the distinctive issues introduced in these plans until the current plan (8th Five-Year Development Plan) with regard to the *regional development.*

VII.3.1.3. Regional Policy In The Five-Year Development Plans

Three basic factors determined the formulation of societal aims in the 1960s: nation-states controlling the flows at their boundaries; the concept of the welfare state that emerged after the 2nd World War; and national development. These three factors led to the perception of the regional problem as an "uneven development problem" among regions in those years. The welfare of citizens was supposed to be attained via overcoming of the unevenness problem among regions.

Assuming this point of view, a 15-year strategic plan was prepared. The SPO enacted the **1st Five-Year Development Plan (1963-1967),** which constituted the first 5-year period of the strategic plan. The major concern of the 1st Plan was economic development. Following this overall aim, it also targeted regional development. The plan prioritized the development of the underdeveloped regions. It handled the regional problem under two general headings: the problem of balanced development (regional inequalities), the selection of locations for projects. It identified "productive" and " less productive" investments. The latter included public investments, and the plan gave the priority to the underdeveloped regions in distributing public investments. Meanwhile, between the lands with equal conditions, the ones in the underdeveloped regions were prioritized as the locations of productive investments. Towards the end of this planning period, the term "regional planning" was removed from the 1966 Implementation Program. The program stated that it is unnecessary to make regional planning and to work on underdeveloped regions. This statement was caused by a change in the administration of the SPO; investment in underdeveloped regions was regarded as a threat for the attainment of the economic targets of the plan (Tekeli 2003; Tekeli 1967, 259; Keleş 1990, 260).

In the **2nd Five-Year Development Plan (1968-1972)** the policies of the previous plan were detailed. It aimed at accelerating the pace of urbanization and proposed "growth centers". These centers were assumed to diffuse economic and social development into their regions. Public investments would be located in these centers. They would be provided with conditions like tax reductions, credit facilities, establishment of organized industrial districts so as to attract private investors. However, as far as the underdeveloped regions are concerned, the 1972 Implementation Program stated that the investments promoted in these regions remained inefficient, since the regions were not provided with pre-conditions for such investments. Meanwhile, although the cost of public investments in these regions increased, these investments could not be realized efficiently, and this caused financial losses.

It should be noted that during this period, the Headship of Prioritized Settlements for Development[22] was established within the SPO in 1971. These settlements are mainly the underdeveloped ones and most of them locate in the Eastern Anatolian and South Eastern Anatolian Regions. SPO started the preparation and implementation of special projects in these settlements covering the fields of industry, mining, trade, agriculture, culture, health, education, transportation.

Keleş (1990) explains that the regional development approach adopted in the **3rd Five-Year Plan (1973-1977)** is different than the first two plans. It proposed to determine the locations of investments at the national scale with respect to some economic criteria. It prioritized overall national development more than the development of underdeveloped regions. In this period, regional planning efforts slowed down. The Report prepared by the Sub-Commission for Regional Development[23] for the 8th Five-Year Development Plan also states the "generality" of regional planning approach of the 3rd plan compared to the first two plans (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 23).

It is in the **4th Five-Year Development Plan (1979-1983)** that the "spatial dimension" was included in the planning decisions. This plan prioritized the development of the Eastern Anatolian and South Eastern Anatolian Regions.

[22] Kalkınmada Öncelikli Yöreler Başkanlığı.
[23] Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu

However, in a report published by the SPO in 1982, it was mentioned that no systematic policies were pursued in the distribution of public investments in these regions. After the 1983 national elections, the new government enacted two laws to promote investments in the prioritized settlements for development[24].

The **5th Five-Year Development Plan (1985-1989)** suggested a new description of regions (functional regions) with reference to the flows of goods, services, information and people among regions. In this manner, 16 functional regions were proposed, each having a central city. The plan described the types of investments to be made in these regions. Meanwhile, it aimed at decreasing the regional disparities –again prioritizing the Eastern Anatolian and South Eastern Anatolian Regions. During this planning period a regional development administration for the South Eastern Region was established in 1989. It will be described later.

The **6th Five-Year Development Plan (1990-1994)** proposed a settlement hierarchy of four levels. As a distinguishing proposal than the previous plans, this plan mentioned that the regional policies would be determined with regard to those of the European Community (Keleş 1990, 260-267).

Particularly since the 1990s, the new world order has depended on globalized relationships of multiple actors beyond the nation-states. The so-called welfare state has lost its meaning significantly. The globalization process has been first mentioned in the **7th Five-Year Development Plan (1996-2000).** SPO began establishing national development policies taking care of the globalization process. Regional policy should also be evaluated on this basis.

The **8th Five-Year Development Plan** (the current plan for the period of **2001-2005**) stresses the factors reshaping the world economy together with the technological advances more, and underlines the need to comply with the rapid global transformation. The idea of the Provincial Development Planning (PDP) has been introduced in this plan as a component of regional development strategy. The PDP will be examined in detail in the following parts.

[24] Law no 2970 (1984) so as to decrease taxes for investments; and Law no 2982 (1984) so as to remove some taxes and charges for investments in these settlements.

Below table summarizes the distinguishing features of the five-year development plans until the present plan with regard to the regional development (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 25-26):

TABLE 8-FEATURES OF FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLANS WITH REGARD TO THE REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Features	1st (63-67)	2nd (68-72)	3rd (73-77)	4th (79-83)	5th (85-89)	6th (90-94)	7th (95-99)
Terminology with regard to regional development	*Regional planning *Environmental development *Underdeveloped region	*Regional planning *Regional development *Prioritized settlements for development	*Provincial planning (area) *Prioritized settlements for development	*Regional development plan *Prioritized settlements for development	*Regional plan *Regional plan scheme * Prioritized settlements for development	*Regional development *Regional and sub-regional plan (in prioritized settlements for development) *Prioritized settlements for development	*Regional planning *Action plan * Prioritized settlements for development
Economic targets	*Economic development *Investment efficiency	*Economic development *Investment efficiency	*Economic development *Investment efficiency	*Economic development	*Economic development *Investment efficiency	*Economic development *Public investments with reference to regional development potentials	*Economic development *Maximum economic and social benefit
Social targets	*Income distribution *Balanced distribution of public investments	*Income distribution *Balanced distribution of public investments	*Income distribution *Balanced distribution of public investments	*Income distribution *Balanced distribution of public investments	*Income distribution *Balanced distribution of public investments both **quantitatively** and **qualitatively**	*Balanced improvement of welfare	Improvement of welfare to the national average in the prioritized settlements for development

TABLE 8-FEATURES OF FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLANS WITH REGARD TO THE REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

(continued)

Physical targets	*Balanced urbanization	*Balanced urbanization *Regional settlement plan	**Balanced urbanization	*Balanced urbanization *Spatial organization	*Balanced urbanization *Regional settlement hierarchy	*Balanced settlement hierarchy	*Diminishing rural-urban development disparities
Environmental targets	-	-	-	-	*Environmental impact assessment in big projects	*Environmental dimension in entire economic policies and in the stages of spatial planning	*Sustainable development
Other	-	-	-	-	-	*Taking the regional aims and implementations of the European Community into consideration	*Cultural dimension of development

The above elaboration of the five-year development plans has displayed the changing attitude towards regional planning. In brief, first two five-year development plans (1963-72) brought about the regional planning, but this approach was weakened in the 3rd and 4th plans (1973-83) in favor of overall national development. 5th plan (1985-89) started regional planning again. 6th plan (1990-94) left the concept of "functional regions" of the previous plan and prioritized the development of underdeveloped regions. It also gave signs of the will to get integrated with Europe. 7th plan (1995-99) put this will more firmly, and introduced the term "sustainable development" as a tool to diminish regional disparities.

The preparation of these plans was not free from conflicts between experts, bureaucrats and government; which prevented the proper implementations of the plans. Although new concepts and trends have been continually adopted within the regional policy, practical cases did not match to the so-called concepts. Current regional planning notes the need for strategic planning; which requires the collaboration of parties not only in the planning process, but also during the implementation and monitoring stages. This implies the need for a proper administrative structure, which is capable for collaboration in all the three stages. Below, some typical regional planning cases will be analyzed, which could not be implemented irrespective of the quality of their contents. The basic reasons for the failure of the implementation stages seem to be the lack of interest of the political party in power towards planning; lack of agreement or ownership among agencies; conflict between related agencies; lack of expertise about regional planning; and limited human and financial resources of local administrations.

VII.3.1.4. Critical Evaluation of The Regional Plans

As mentioned above, the first regional plan before the establishment of the SPO was the **Köyceğiz-Dalaman Project**. The planning process was realized through the cooperation of the Ministry of Agriculture, State Water Works, General Directorate of Forests, Directorate of Land Protection and Agricultural Irrigation, Administration of Electricity Works, Ministry of Tourism, General Directorate of Highways, and UNESCO. Despite the collaborative work of multiple organizations, the plan was not implemented, and even quitted after the

establishment of the SPO. Small towns (ilçe) were determined as planning units, which were too small for a regional planning study. Other reasons for the non-implementation of the plan were the inability of ilçe units to apply political pressures; and their limited resources (Tekeli 1972, 138-139)

The first comprehensive regional plan was the **Eastern Marmara Regional Plan**. A Regional Planning Office was established as the local branch of the Directorate of Regional Planning of the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement. The Office cooparated with the Municipality of Istanbul, Chamber of Trade and Industry, and Istanbul University. The plan was completed in 1963. Nevertheless, no organization approved and implemented it (Keleş 1993, 264, 178; Tekeli 1972, 139)

Another project that was started before the establishment of the SPO was the **Zonguldak Regional Plan**. The project was initiated by the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement. The planning studies were not realized by a special body; rather, the personnel of the Ministry performed the process through the visits to the region. The plan mainly had physical concerns. Then, the SPO and some foreign experts were included in the process, and they handled the plan more comprehensively, also including economic concerns. However, this plan was not implemented, either (Tekeli 1972, 159)

After the preparation of the 1st Five-Year Plan, the Zonguldak Plan was re-handled. Although the Directorate of Regional Planning of the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement made some studies in the region, the plan was basically prepared at the centre (SPO). This plan could not be implemented since the relations between the Directorate of the Ministry and the SPO were not institutionalized. Other reasons for the non-implementation were the lack of a study related to the implementation stage; and scarce resources and limited capacities of the local administrations in the region (Keleş 1993, 266; Tekeli 1972, 159)

Antalya Regional Plan was another plan, which was prepared under the responsibility of the SPO to a great extent, although it was started before the 1st Five-Year Plan Period. The plan was realized through the financial contributions

of the UNDP and FAO. The SPO established a local office in the region. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement contributed the physical planning stage. This plan could not be implemented, either, since the aims were not determined precisely. Still, this plan seems to have contributed to the planning of the Antalya Tourism Area (Keleş 1993 268; Tekeli 1972, 160-161)

The only project that the SPO started through its own will is the **Çukurova Regional Plan**. The Plan was realized as a joint project of the SPO and the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement. The project was supposed to improve cooperation between the two organizations, which were responsible for regional planning. It was designed as a comprehensive development plan, in which the AID and OECD provided assistance. The SPO established a local planning office in the region, and regional sectorial committees in the centre; and in this way provided the participation of various sectorial institutions in the process. However, except for some indirect implementations, this plan could not be implemented. The plan was re-handled between 1984 and 1987. Through the credit that the World Bank provided, the Çukurova Plan was prepared again; but, because of the lack of proper cooperation between the State Water Works, Bank of Provinces, project team and local institutions, it could not be implemented (M.G.K. 1993, 334; Tekeli 1972, 161-163).

Other regional plans of the 1960s were the **Eastern and South Eastern Regional Plans and Keban Regional Plan**. Since the area was too big to be captured in a single plan, it was divided into five sub-regions. Because of the Keban Dam, Elazığ-Keban sub-region gained importance. The planning studies of this sub-region were completely taken over by the Directorate of Regional Planning of the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement. Nevertheles, the Ministry did not send a representative to the region, nor the SPO. Except for some projects, the Keban Plan could not be implemented (Keleş 1993 267; Tekeli 1993,163).

As clear from the above discussion, Turkey experienced two basic periods regarding the regional planning: Pre-1960 and post-1960. In the former period, the plans were mainly focused on physical development, and they were assisted by foreign experts to a great extent. It is in the latter period that the regional

planning was handled in a more decisive manner. Yet, in both of the periods, the regional planning initiatives were “top-down”, driven by the central government.

The above plans were prepared in the post-1960 era; more specifically, they were the product of the first and second five-year plan periods. The basic problem with the content of these plans was that: Although sectorial studies were performed in the planning processes, nobody had the expertise to synthesize them in comprehensive regional plans. It was only within the Zonguldak Regional Plan that a comprehensive map could be produced, and it guided to the other plans. The content of the plans apart, neither of these regional plans could have the opportunity to get implemented. No matter which institution(s) involved in the planning processes, the implementation stages always failed. Above everything, the basic reason for non-implementation comes forefront as the lack of interest of the political party in power towards planning during the 1960s. The administrators of the party remained indifferent to the plans, which implies “non-funding” for the implementation stages.

Following that, one crucial reason is the lack of coordination between the two public institutions (namely the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement and the SPO), which assumed the regional planning authority. Relatedly, the lack of co-operative relations between various public institutions was another drawback. Besides, the deficiencies in the legislation also led to the failure of the implementation stages: Although the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement was given the authority to make regional plans, the legal status of plans and the institutional means for implementation were not defined in the law. Another reason was the non-definition of the implementers of the proposed actions. One final reason is the scarce resources of local administrations, which prevented them to take part in the implementation stages (Tekeli 1972, 141-142; personal conversation with İlhan Tekeli; personal conversation with Mrs.Filiz Doğanay; Türker 1995).

The failures of these plans prove that “somehow involevement of multiple agencies merely in the planning process” would not mean anything, unless the actors and roles of the *implementation* and *monitoring* stages were defined firmly. This is to say that in every planning action, the actions proposed by a plan and

the responsible agents for them (implementers) should be taken together simultaneously (Tekeli and Pınarcıoğlu 2004). Otherwise, the plans, irrespective of their contents, would be shelved as abstract wishes. Below table summarizes key lines of these plans:

TABLE 9-KEY LINES OF THE REGIONAL PLANS

	Köyceğiz-Dalaman	Eastern Marmara	Zonguldak	Antalya	Çukurova	Keban
Planning approach	Top-down	Top-down	Top-down	Top-down	Top-down	Top-down
Agents involved in the planning process	Ministry of Agriculture, State Water Works, General Directorate of Forests, Directorate of Land Protection and Agricultural Irrigation, Administration of Electricity Works, Ministry of Tourism, General Directorate of Highways, and UNESCO	Regional Planning Office of the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement, Municipality of Istanbul, Chamber of Trade and Industry, and Istanbul University	Ministry of Construction and Resettlement, the SPO, foreign experts	The SPO, Ministry of Construction and Resettlement; financial contributions of the UNDP and FAO	The SPO, Ministry of Construction and Resettlement; assistance of the AID and OECD	Directorate of Regional Planning of the Ministry of Construction and Resettlement
Implementation	Not implemented	Not implemented	Not implemented	Not implemented	Not implemented	Not implemented
Reasons for non-implementation (Besides the implicit opposition of the political party in power towards planning)	Too small planning units; inability of these units to apply political pressures; and their limited resources	Indifference of government to the plan	Non-institutionalization of relations between the Directorate of the Ministry and the SPO; lack of a study related to the implementation stage; scarce resources and limited capacities of the local administrations in the region	Non-determination of the aims precisely	Lack of proper cooperation between the State Water Works, Bank of Provinces, project team and local institutions	Absence of Ministry representatives in the region

Tekeli and Pınarcıoğlu (2004) point to the need to think about the level of commitments of agents instead of their conventional kind participation. Agents should be in a position, in which they should determine the action and roles to which they commit themselves.

VII.3.1.5. Where The Turkish Regional Planning Stands With Regard To The Worldwide Regional Planning Experience

Tekeli (2003) states that from the 1960s to the present day, regional planning (worldwide) experienced three paradigm changes. The first paradigm developed within the conditions of the post-war and remained until the crises of the 1970s. In this period, nation-states, taking over the role of the "welfare state", were the most powerful actors to direct societal changes. The welfare state was supposed to overcome the inequalities within societies via redistribution functions. Keynesian policies were considered to develop a capitalist system free from crisis. This paradigm was produced to respond to the regional development problem of such a societal context.

Second paradigm can be considered as a transition stage to the third paradigm. It emerged due to the difficulties that the two oil crises caused during the mid-1970s. World economy was looking for ways to defeat the crisis; but the technological conditions were not advanced enough to help capitalism in overcoming the crisis. As the capitalist entrepreneurs could not apply new technologies to maintain their profits, they developed a "world-wide division of labor" through decentralizing their activities to the places with cheap labor. Parallel to that, the responsibilities of the welfare state were limited gradually in economic and social terms.

The third paradigm emerged after the demolition of the socialist block. Thanks to the technological innovations, a transition from the industrial to information society; or from the world of the nation-states to a globalized world has been experienced. Knowledge has become an essential production factor. Nation-states are no longer the most powerful actors that determine the destinies of societies in the face a globalized network of multiple actors. It is an age, in which

"governance" rather than "government" has gained importance. Below table summarizes the environment in which the three paradigms developed (derived from Tekeli 2003):

TABLE 10- THE CHANGING ENVIRONMENTS IN WHICH REGIONAL PLANNING PARADIGMS DEVELOPED

Year	1950-1970	1970-1990	1990+
Type of governance	*Strong nation-state *Welfare state aim at overcoming inequalities via redistribution	*Crisis of the welfare state *Increased role of local state	*Nation-state as a partner of global governance *New actors of the public sphere (NGOs)
Actors directing the social system	*Well-designed bureaucratic structure *Instrumental rationality	*Decentralized bureaucracy *Horizontal relations *Sub-contracting relations *Balance between competition and cooperation	*Governance (multiple actors) *Increasing self-governance capacity *Increasing institutional thickness

Evaluating the evolution of the Turkish regional planning, it is possible to observe a similar trend with the paradigm shifts experienced in regional planning worldwide (with the second paradigm less effective). First two five-year plans reflected the welfare state approach, whereas regional planning lost importance between early 1970s and early 1980s both in Turkey and in the world. The revival of regional planning in the 5th Plan period again corresponded to the worldwide experiences. The reflection of globalization processes showed themselves in the successive plans, as observed in the planning experiences of other countries (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 30).

As mentioned above, during the period of the 5th Plan, a new administration was set up for the development of the South Eastern Region. The establishment of

this administration contributed positively to the revival of regional planning in Turkey. Since the case study of this thesis is the provincial development planning experience of Şanlıurfa, which locates in the South Eastern Region, the following part will elaborate this administration.

VII.3.1.4. The South Eastern Anatolian Project Regional Development Administration

In Turkey, regions do exist in between the central government and the provinces, but not as administrative units; rather, as geographical divisions. Regional development has been treated to be the responsibility of the central government, and this issue has been always involved by the SPO. However, there is an exception: The South Eastern Anatolia Project (GAP) Regional Development Administration, which was established in 1989[25]. The letters "GAP" are the first letters of the project in Turkish. Even the region is now called GAP Region (http://www.gap.gov.tr).

Due to the low-level socio-economic circumstances of the South Eastern Region, the project has aimed at a multi-sector and integrated regional development with reference to the principles of sustainability. The multi-sector development perspective included the sectors of agriculture, urban and rural infrastructure, transportation, industry, education, health, housing, and tourism (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 38). Its basic objectives are the improvement of living standards in the region, elimination of regional development disparities and contribution to national social stability and economic growth by enhancing productivity and employment opportunities in the rural sector.

Briefly saying, GAP Administration involves the development of a specific region, but it is an institution of the central government and locates in the capital city, Ankara. It has its regional branch in Şanlıurfa (see the Organization Scheme below). The GAP Administration has the regulatory and monitoring authority over the provinces and municipalities of the South Eastern Region, which is the case for the Şanlıurfa Province as well.

[25] The GAP Administration was established via the Decree in the Force of Law no: 388 in 1989.

GAP Administration has been involving in the preparation and implementation of regional or sectorial plans. The recent regional development plan for the South Eastern Region was prepared in the year 2000 on a participatory basis. The PDP of Şanlıurfa was developed in accordance with the principles of the mentioned regional plan.

Error!

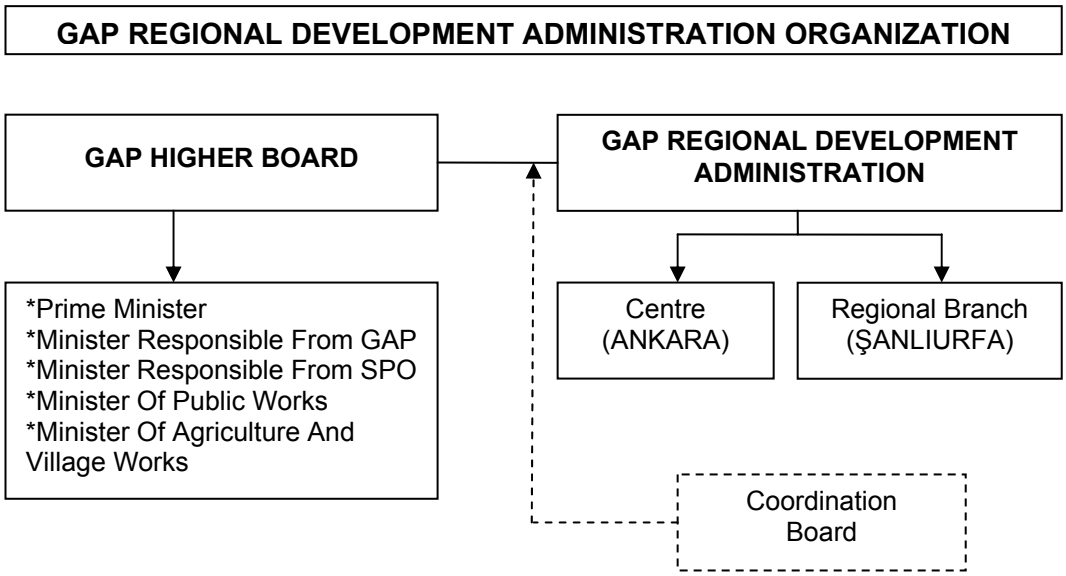


FIGURE 3- GAP REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION ORGANIZATION

VII.3.2. PDP AS A COMPONENT OF THE CURRENT REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES OF THE COUNTRY

As stated previously, the PDP has been introduced as an integral part of the regional development strategy of Turkey in the current five-year plan. Meanwhile, it took place as a new territorial planning level in one of the previous versions of the draft law on the public administration reform[26]. So, the evaluation of the PDP from a strategic spatial planning point of view cannot be made in isolation from these parallel processes in the agenda of the country. Evaluating the PDP within either of these processes, it seems to be an outcome of the interrelationships of the country with the external world --particularly with the EU—more than the natural evolution of the country's needs. Thus, the PDP process needs to be evaluated in the broader framework of the "Measures for Harmonisation with The EU Legislation and Implementation" of Turkey with regard to the "Regional Policy". The mentioned measures take place in the revised version of the **"National Programme for the Adoption of the Acquis"** (NPAA) and the "Decision on the Implementation and Coordination and Monitoring of the NPAA", which was published in the Official Gazette dated 24 July 2003, No. 25178.

The study, below, will elaborate the PDP within a strategic planning perspective. However, first and foremost, it should be noted that strategic planning approach is not limited to the PDP. This approach has been widely recognized at every decision-making level (national, regional, local) in the country, since Turkey has intensified its relationships with the external world and more specifically with the EU.

VII.3.2.1. Positioning Of The PDP Within The Regional Policy

As far as the harmonization with the Regional Policy of the EU is concerned, the organization in charge is the State Planning Organization (SPO) at the national level. From the 7th Five-Year Development Plan (1996-2000) onwards, the organization has been taking care of the *globalization process*, and trying to set

[26] In the current draft, PDP is not mentioned. Instead, "strategic planning" within the Governorship is stated. This is to be discussed in the following parts.

up national development principles accordingly. In the 8th Five-Year Plan (the current plan for the period of 2001-2005), the factors reshaping the world economy together with the technological advances have been stressed more, and the need to comply with the rapid global transformation has been underlined. The EU has been indicated as the frame of reference for development in all the sectors, one of which is the "regional development".

Regional policies were started within the 7th Five-Year Plan Period in this regard and reasoned according to the globalization process. These policies have been stressed profoundly in the current plan, too: Local/regional dynamics are identified as remarkable factors of economic development within the new world order. The success of regional development policies is based on the *competition of local economies at the global scale*. Local entrepreneurship and specialization are marked as the factors of obtaining comparative advantage within the system of urban/regional networks (State Planning Organization 2000, 59-60). These issues are the reflections of the ongoing regional policies of the EU.

To harmonize with the EU Regional Policy, the country has been divided into NUTS2 –as prioritized in the NPAA--; and relatedly, the SPO is currently working on the possibility of establishing Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) at the NUTS 2 level in Turkey. As stated before, the PDP takes part in the regional development strategy, and it is described in the Art.497 of the current Five-Year Plan as follows:

> "*Provincial Development Planning studies –which are compatible with regional plans-- are to be started so as to diminish the effect of the uneven income distribution, accelerate the pace of regional development and allocate resources rationally;... all related parties are to participate the planning and implementation processes"* (State Planning Organization 2000, 63).

VII.3.2.2. Positioning Of The PDP Within The Local Administration Reform

The other channel in which the PDP is handled is the "Draft Law on the Public Administration[27]". The Draft Law has been modified several times. In one of the previous versions of the Draft Law, one of the duties of the Special Provincial Administrations[28] was to make the PDPs prepare, together with some other new duties. In the present version, the PDP is not mentioned. Instead, preparation of a "strategic plan" by the governorship is obliged in Art.31:

> *"Following the national elections of local administrations, within 6-month time, the Governor, in compliance with the development plan and environmental master plan[29], prepares the middle or long-term strategic plan and its work program, related to infrastructure, transportation, environment, agriculture and forestry, health, education, industry and commerce, energy, public works, village services, drinking and irrigation water, urban development, solid waste, natural disasters, protection of cultural heritage, and other services,…and presents it to the Provincial General Assembly[30]."*
>
> *The strategic plan and its work program on annual basis are prepared having received the views of the NGOs, professional chambers, universities (if exist) and unions; and they are put into force after having been approved exactly or with modifications by the Provincial General Assembly…"*

The above definition of the strategic plan in the Draft Law seems to correspond the aims and scope of the PDP –with possible reservations. So, I would interpret

[27] Kamu Yönetimi Yasa Tasarısı
[28] Special Provincial Administrations --as branches of provinces-- carry out tasks in areas beyond municipal boundaries, i.e. rural areas, within their respective provinces. They have a wide variety of duties related to health, public works, culture, education, agriculture, and economy.
[29] Çevre Düzeni Planı
[30] Provincial General Assembly (İl Genel Meclisi) is a section of the Provincial Special Administration (İl Özel İdaresi), which is composed by "elected" members. The remaining sections of the same Administration are composed by "appointed" members.

the PDP as an “interface” between regional and local policies (though not in municipal, but provincial terms). The below figure would display where it stands in relation to the above-mentioned parallel processes:

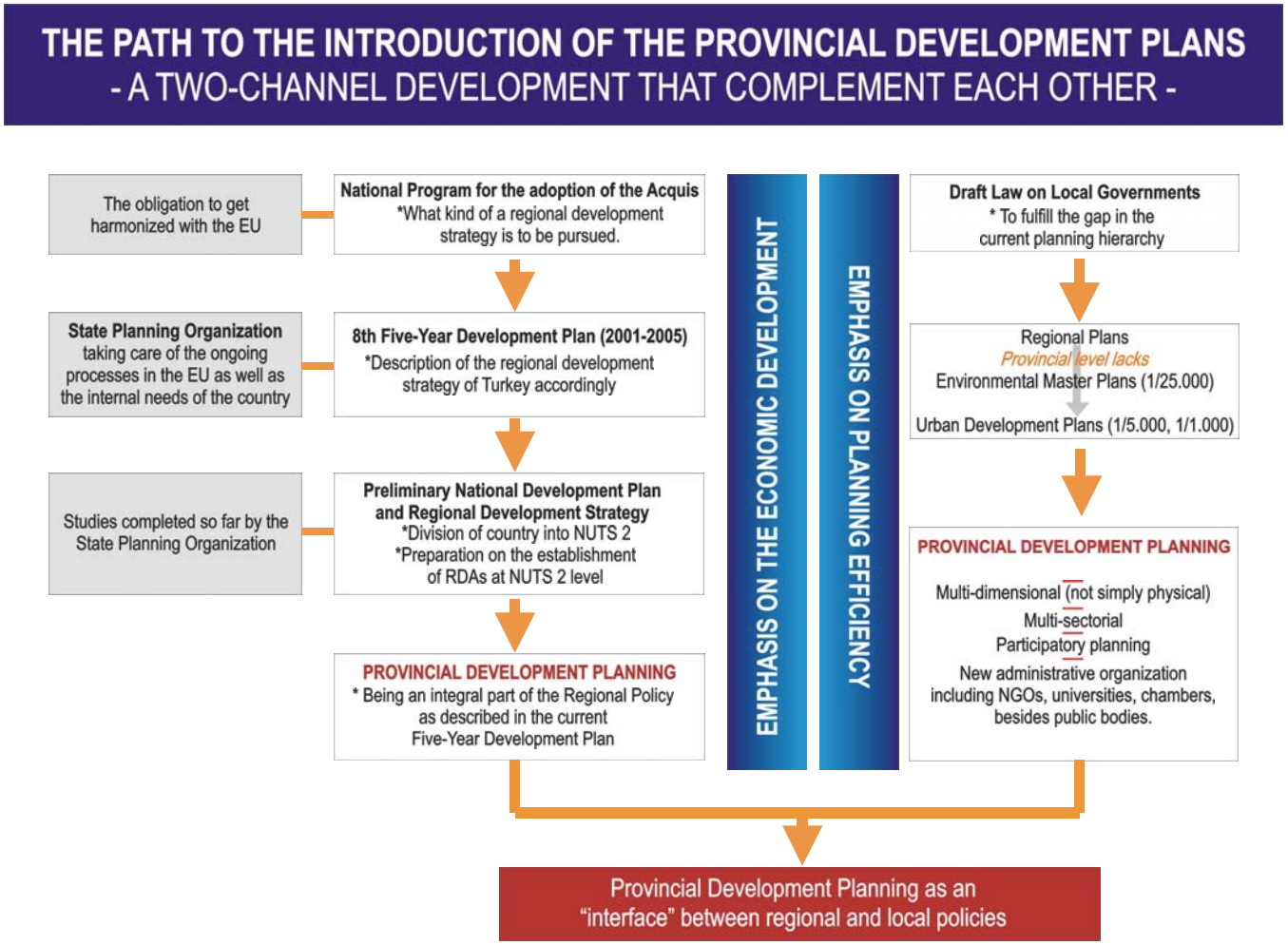


FIGURE 4- THE PATH TO THE INTRODUCTION OF THE PDP

Before going into the details of the PDP as a strategic planning process, it will be appropriate to describe EU Regional Policy (known as New Regionalism), and related issues (NUTS 2 and RDAs) to some extent, since they shape the Turkish regional development policies within the current Five-Year Development Plan.

VII.3.3. THE IMPACT OF "NEW REGIONALISM" OF THE EU ON THE TURKISH REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

New regionalism in Europe has come into the picture vis-à-vis the global economic restructuring and rapid changes in modes of production. It has strong ties with transition from Fordism to Post-Fordism. EU has adopted this new approach as the driving force of economic development. The previous regional policy was interventionist, standardized, and state-centred. The current regional policy of the EU (that is the new regionalism) is a decentralized, bottom-up policy based on inter-firm networks, public-private partnerships (SME collaboration, institution-industry relations). While the EU favors policy instruments based on collaboration of multiple actors to create competing localities; it does not leave the aim of reducing and preventing regional disparities (convergence) by allocating resources to less-favored regions. This aim seems to contradict with the bottom-up policies of the EU at first glance. However, the overcoming of regional disparities even comes up as the major aim of the regional policy of the EU. Tekeli (2003) explains the reasoning of this aim as follows: The main goal of the EU project is the unification of the nation-states under a supra-identity. To prevent a zero-sum game among the member nation-states and to attain the mentioned goal, it is an obligation to overcome regional disparities (Yaşar 2003, 10-13; Tekeli 2003).

For practical reasons, the territorial units in the EU countries are classified with respect to certain criteria, which are covered under the title of NUTS. This classification has also been done for different territorial units in Turkey within the framework of the "Measures for Harmonisation with The EU Legislation and Implementation" so as to achieve common definitions with the Union. Below takes place the description of the NUTS.

VII.3.3.1. NUTS (Nomenclature Of Territorial Units For Statistics)

The Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (Nomenclature d'unités territoriales statistiques--NUTS) was established by Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat) to provide a single uniform breakdown of territorial units for the production of regional statistics for the European Union. This system of regions subdivides the area of the EU corresponding to national administrative areas into NUTS-0, NUTS-1, NUTS-2 and NUTS 3 regions, where the number indicates the level[31].

The member states are NUTS-0 regions. Each member state consists of several NUTS-1 regions, each NUTS-1 region consists of several NUTS-2 regions, etc. Eurostat also established a similar system of statistical regions for the EFTA and the candidate countries including Turkey[32]. The size of the regions at each level varies considerably depending on the member state.

Different criteria may be used in subdividing national territory into regions. These are grouped as normative and analytic criteria: **Normative regions** are the expression of a political will; their limits are fixed according to the tasks allocated to the territorial communities, according to the sizes of population necessary to carry out these tasks efficiently and economically, and according to historical, cultural and other factors. **Analytical** (or functional) **regions** are defined according to analytical requirements; they group together zones using geographical criteria (e.g., altitude or type of soil) or using socio-economic criteria (e.g., homogeneity, complementarity or polarity of regional economies) (internet websites of IRPUD – Institute of Spatial Planning , University of Dortmund http://irpud.raumplanung.uni-dortmund.de/irpud; EUROSTAT http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat).

[31] Although the NUTS classification has no legal value per se, it has been used since 1988 in Community legislation (Council Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 on the tasks of the Structural Funds: O.J. L 185 of 15 July 1988).

[32] The Decision of the Council of Ministers No.2002/4720 on the definition of NUTS (in order to collect and develop regional statistics, to make socio-economic analysis of the regions, to determine the framework of regional policies and to establish statistical data base in line with the EU Regional Statistics System) was published in the Official Gazette No. 24884 on 22 September 2002.

As mentioned, Turkey has also been subdivided into NUTS levels as displayed in the following table:

TABLE 11-STATISTICAL REGIONS IN TURKEY (NUTS)

Code	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Code	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
TR1	**ISTANBUL**	**Istanbul**		TR8	**BATI KARADENIZ**	**Zonguldak**	
TR1			Istanbul	TR81			Zonguldak
TR1				TR811			Karabuk
TR2	**BATI MARMARA**	**Tekirdag**		TR812			Bartin
TR21			Tekirdag	TR813		**Kastamonu**	
TR211			Edirne	TR82			Kastamonu
TR212			Kirklareli	TR821			Cankiri
TR213		**Balikesir**		TR822			Sinop
TR22			Balikesir	TR823		**Samsun**	
TR221			Canakkale	TR83			Samsun
TR222				TR831			Tokat
TR3	**EGE**	**Izmir**		TR832			Corum
TR31			Izmir	TR833			Amasya
TR31		**Aydin**		TR834			
TR32			Aydin	TR9	**DOGU KARADENIZ**	**Trabzon**	
TR321			Denizli	TR90			Trabzon
TR322			Mugla	TR901			Ordu
TR323		**Manisa**		TR902			Giresun
TR33			Manisa	TR903			Rize
TR331			Afyon	TR904			Artvin

TABLE 11-STATISTICAL REGIONS IN TURKEY (NUTS)

(continued)

TR332			Kutahya	TR905			Gumushane
TR333			Usak	TR906			
TR334				TRA	**KUZEYDOGU ANADOLU**	**Erzurum**	
TR4	**DOGU MARMARA**	**Bursa**		TRA1			Erzurum
TR41			Bursa	TRA11			Erzincan
TR411			Eskisehir	TRA12			Bayburt
TR412			Bilecik	TRA13		**Agri**	
TR413		**Kocaeli**		TRA2			Agri
TR42			Kocaeli	TRA21			Kars
TR421			Sakarya	TRA22			Igdir
TR422			Duzce	TRA23			Ardahan
TR423			Bolu	TRA24			
TR424			Yalova	TRB	**ORTADOGU ANADOLU**	**Malatya**	
TR425				TRB1			Malatya
TR5	**BATI ANADOLU**	**Ankara**		TRB11			Elazig
TR51			Ankara	TRB12			Bingöl
TR51		**Konya**		TRB13			Tunceli
TR52			Konya	TRB14		**Van**	
TR521			Karaman	TRB2			Van
TR522				TRB21			Mus

TABLE 11-STATISTICAL REGIONS IN TURKEY (NUTS)

(continued)

TR6	**AKDENIZ**	**Antalya**		TRB22			Bitlis
TR61			Antalya	TRB23			Hakkari
TR611			Isparta	TRB24			
TR612			Burdur	TRC	**GUNEYDOGU ANADOLU**	**Gaziantep**	
TR613		**Adana**		TRC1			Gaziantep
TR62			Adana	TRC11			Adiyaman
TR621			Icel	TRC12			Kilis
TR622		**Hatay**		TRC13		**Şanlıurfa**	
TR63			Hatay	TRC2			Sanliurfa
TR631			Kahramanmaras	TRC21			Diyarbakir
TR632			Osmaniye	TRC22		**Mardin**	
TR633				TRC3			Mardin
TR7	**ORTA ANADOLU**	**Kırıkkale**		TRC31			Batman
TR71			Kirikkale	TRC32			Sirnak
TR711			Aksaray	TRC33			Siirt
TR712			Nigde	TRC34			
TR713			Nevsehir				
TR714			Kirsehir				
TR715		**Kayseri**					
TR72			Kayseri				
TR721			Sivas				
TR722			Yozgat				
TR723							

So, there exist three NUTS levels for Turkey; 81 units at NUTS3 level (these are provinces), 26 units at NUTS2 level (groups of neighboring provinces), 12 units at NUTS1 level (groups of neighboring NUTS2 units).

VII.3.3.2. Regional Development Agencies (RDAs)

Another issue that is currently in the agenda of Turkey in getting harmonized with the EU Regional Policy is the establishment of RDAs. It is a short-term aim within the **Accession Partnership Document**[33] dated 14th April, 2003. There is a draft law on the establishment of RDAs in NUTS2 level units[34] (Demirci 2003).

RDAs are the effects of EU's regional reform. In order to foster endogenous dynamics of localities and regions, EU guided a sub-national government reform. Especially for the 1990s, there have taken place a strong institutional turn, which seek to position regional and local processes in the global context. To deliver economic policies, regions need to be devolved with institutional capacities. Here the importance of internal local factors are emphasized; i.e. *leadership, social capital, physical infrastructure, institutions and human capital*. The economic development of a territory is embedded in these non-economic factors; i.e. sub-national social, cultural and institutional features. These factors are considered to found the "collaborative relationship among the local institutions" (Stough 2001, 17-48; MacLeod 2001, 804-820; Jones 2001, 1185-1200).

Within this sub-national government reform process; regional and local institutions, one of the most important of which is the **Regional Development Agency** (RDA), are recognized as active partners in the promotion and implementation of the EU regional policies.

RDA's basic role is the stimulation of the economy of its region: It is supposed to do this by assisting the establishment of firms, counseling of firms, training of their managers; promoting enterprise zones, attracting local/foreign investors; stimulating technology transfer, inter-company partnerships, creating and

[33] Katılım Ortaklığı Belgesi
[34] Bölgesel Kalkınma Ajanslarının Kuruluşu ve Görevleri Hakkında Kanun Tasarısı

managing company incubators, providing risk capital, initiating territorial planning, regenerating derelict industrial areas (Yaşar 2003, 2).

VII.3.3.3. The Regional Development Strategy Of Turkey

The above issues –namely the subdivision of the country into NUTS and the establishment of RDAs in NUTS 2 regions-- are prioritized in the NPAA for the programming, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of regional programmes consistent with the EU standards. In the **Preliminary National Development Plan and Regional Development Strategy**[35] that has been carried out by the State Planning Organization, the following issues are focused:

1. Developments in the economic, social and regional fields
2. Comparison between Turkey and the EU according to economic and social indicators
3. National Development Strategy and macroeconomic environment
4. Regional development strategies and regional policies
5. Investments
6. Sectoral reform fields
7. Regional development plans, projects and studies
8. Financial framework
9. Implementation and monitoring (NPAA 2003, 584-585).

The above items have been prepared following a participatory logic and utilizing SWOT analyses, i.e. two “must” issues in making strategic plans.

Turning back to the Provincial Development Planning, it is included in the larger regional policy framework explained up to here, and this is mentioned by the SPO in the 8th Five-Year Development Plan. Thus, initialization of PDP could be treated as “an effect of the external dynamics”--i.e. the harmonization with the tendencies in all over the world, and more specifically within the EU countries—. However, within the Five-Year Development Plan, the “internal needs of the country” are also underlined that necessitate the PDP. Therefore, *it stands at a*

[35] Preliminary National Development Plan was submitted to the European Commission by the 10th December 2003; it was approved and published (personal contact with the SPO).

point where the impact of external dynamics and internal needs coincide (Gedikli 2003, 15-16).

VII.3.4. PDP AS STRATEGIC PLANNING

Within the previous chapters, the literature on the strategic spatial planning has been elaborated, and the growing interest of especially the European countries towards this type of planning has been stressed. This tendency is mainly justified by the dizzying speed of global changes and the insufficiency of the existing planning tools and institutional structures to cope with them. Instead, a new collaborative decision-making structure is introduced, which is more suitable for the complexity of current territorial systems (Camagni 2003, 31). PDP is justified with the same reasonings; i.e. with the ones that justify the European strategic planning cases[36]:

[36] These justifications are paraphrased from the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan Report.

TABLE 12-PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING
WITH REFERENCE TO THE STRATEGIC SPATIAL PLANNING CRITERIA

Main issues in any strategic spatial planning	Justifications of provincial development planning
The need to adapt to the new age	Provincial development strategies, which are prepared in relation to regional ones, can be indispensable factors of fast and balanced development of the country in the new age.
Social and economic development included in planning strategies (multi-dimensional)	The provincial development strategies can mobilize the local and regional economic resources and potentials, improve the socio-economic level of the province in an equitable and balanced manner, provide conditions for rural development, and contribute to the realization of national plans and programs.
Improvement of the comparative advantage	Localities have been forced to mobilize their own potentials and dynamics not only in the developed countries, but also in the developing ones as well. They have begun preparing development plans themselves.
Participatory planning	Inclusion of local parties within the planning process contributes planning efficiency. A country cannot be developed only by national level institutions; rather, local institutions, enterprises, working classes, NGOs and individuals have to be included in the decision-making and implementation processes.
Collaboration of multiple institutions	There is a conflict in the relations between administrations that operate at the provincial level. In Turkey, administrations are not used to collaborate and cooperate.

Meanwhile, similar justifications show themselves also in the Report prepared by the Regional Development Commission[37] during the preparation of the 8th Five-Year Plan:

1. Provinces should be planned with respect to the principle of ***sustainability***,
2. ***Technological advances at the global scale*** provide opportunities to improve social welfare at provinces,

[37] Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu

3. There is the need to adapt to national and ***global realities***; thus, provincial development strategies should improve the ***competitive advantage***,
4. Local citizens, private enterprise, NGOs should ***participate*** in the planning process so as to attain ***local democracy***,
5. Planning aims should be ***multidimensional***: Not only land-use proposals, but also legal/institutional reorganizations, economical, social, infrastructural decisions should be included (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 95-98).

Considering the definition of strategic spatial planning, which has been detailed in Chapter V, the justifications of the PDP seem to reflect the main principles that the strategic planning obliges: i.e. sustainable development, utilization of technological advances to develop the locality, improvement of competitive advantage to take part in the global network, encouragement of participation to local decision-making processes, consideration of planning as a multi-dimensional activity are necessitated by a strategic planning in today's world (Gedikli 2003, 16).

Besides the overall aim of catching up with the *external world*; the same Commission --taking the *internal needs* of the country into consideration-- defines aims and objectives of the PDP as follows:

1. Making provinces efficient units that contribute to overall national development,
2. Mobilizing economic, human and physical potentials of provinces to accelerate the pace of development,
3. Narrowing the economic and social development gap among provinces and regions.

I have attempted to define PDP as an interface between regional and local policies, considering its placement in both the regional policy and the local government reform. With a similar logic, observing the justifications and aims of the PDP, I would consider it again as an interface –between external dynamics and internal needs--, since it is designed as a tool to meet both global-level and national-level aims.

CHAPTER VIII

ŞANLIURFA PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EXPERIENCE

VIII. A. METHODOLOGY

The previous chapters have provided a theoretical framework on the strategic spatial planning and have elaborated a recent strategic planning attempt in Turkey –Provincial Development Planning (PDP). The following sections of this chapter will display a research on the implementation of PDP in the Şanlıurfa Province. The research has three principle aims:

1. ***To understand how far the general instructions of strategic spatial planning were obeyed in the Şanlıurfa PDP case:*** To attain this aim, the research applies to a general set of criteria for evaluating the planning process and the plan.

2. ***To underline the contingencies in the organization of the Şanlıurfa PDP, and to understand their contribution to the success of the process:*** Strategic spatial planning is known to be contingent to the locality under concern. The key actors involved in a strategic planning process, and the way/degree of their involvement are specific to that process. The research is to address the contingencies in Şanlıurfa case, and elaborate how these contingencies affected on the satisfaction of general criteria.

3. ***To highlight the role of place-specific factors (quality of local social context and level of local economic development) in the success of a strategic planning process:*** As strategic spatial planning is a collaborative process of local actors, obviously, the quality of social context affects on the quality of collaboration. In addition, a strategic plan seeks to improve the economic competitiveness of a particular locality. So, the existing local economic conditions are also important ingredients for a strategic plan. The research is to display how these place-specific factors can be influential in strategic planning.

Before going into the research, this section will explain the research methodology with regard to the following issues: research design, research questions, units of analysis, field survey, analysis of findings and interpretation.

VIII.1.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

VIII.1.1. 1. CASE STUDY APPROACH

The research methodology pursued in this dissertation is the *case study* approach. There are various research strategies other than the case study strategy (experiment, survey, archival analysis, history). In order to decide on the strategy to be applied in a research, first of all, the type of research questions needs to be identified. For “what” questions, any of the research strategies can be used. “How” or “why” questions are likely to favor the use of case studies, experiments or histories. Case studies have distinct advantages, when a “how” or “why” question is being asked about a contemporary event in its real-life context, over which the investigator has little or no control (Yin 1993, 17-23).

This is why this research has adopted the case study strategy: The Provincial Development Planning (PDP) is a contemporary event, on which the author has had no control. The research aims at describing “how” the Şanlıurfa PDP was organized and carried out; “why” it was organized and carried out in that manner; “how” the Şanlıurfa PDP process and the plan were differentiated than the mainstream planning and plans.

VIII.1.1.2. SINGLE CASE STUDY

The research will focus on a single case study. One rationale for a single case study is when it represents the critical case in testing a well-formulated theory. To confirm, challenge, or extend the theory, it is possible to conduct a single case study. A second rationale for a single case is where the case represents an extreme or unique case (Yin 1993, 42-43). The case of Şanlıurfa PDP is in conformity with the theory of strategic spatial planning in many aspects; therefore, how far it fits to the theory will be tested at one side. At the other side, Şanlıurfa is a peculiar (somehow unique) place; where it may seem difficult to conduct a collaborative planning process at first glance (the peculiarities will be mentioned below). Despite the difficulties, the Şanlıurfa PDP process could have been realized in a collaborative manner due to some contingent (unique) factors (these contingencies will be mentioned below, too). So, the Şanlıurfa PDP case is worth examining because of the reasons given as follows:

1. It was organized as a strategic planning process through the collaboration of multiple actors. The actors developed a vision and a strategic plan for the Şanlıurfa Province. Applying the general set of the criteria, the research will test to what extent the Şanlıurfa PDP process and plan are conforming, challenging or extending the theory of strategic planning. Moreover, if exist, deviations from the theory are to be addressed.

2. Strategic spatial planning was born in the developed (or the so-called Western) countries, basically in order to cope with the conditions created by globalization. I.e. it has been designed as a flexible tool for core cities of developed countries. It is supposed to facilitate collaboration of the actors in a locality in order to compete in an ever-globalizing world, and attract capital to urban areas. Amazingly, it then has received widespread acceptance also in the developing countries, although it is doubtful whether these countries have been “sort of” integrated with the global processes. As far as Turkey is concerned, globalization can be a pushing factor for strategic planning in only a few big cities; the conditions of globalization cannot be a nationwide reason. The case of Şanlıurfa PDP is an extreme in this regard, which makes it worth analyzing. As a peripheral province with its inferior economy, Şanlıurfa has

nothing or very little to do with the globalization processes. Moreover, it does not have mature stocks of social capital (civic associations and networks) that are used to collaborating with each other. Still, the stakeholders in Şanlıurfa could work together in a planning process and produced a strategic plan with the aim of improving their locality's competitive advantage.

3. The uniqueness of a strategic planning process lies in how it is organized. As a strategic planning process, the organization of Şanlıurfa PDP also had its contingent aspects: It was not a locally-organized voluntary action; rather; it was a formal process, which was coordinated "top-down" by public authorities. In peripheral localities with low levels of socio-economic conditions, voluntary actions could hardly occur. However, when an action is designed as a formal process (as in the case of the Şanlıurfa PDP), some public entity should coordinate it. The way it was organized (coordination by superior public bodies) can explain why the local stakeholders were able to collaborate in the Şanlıurfa case.

Above factors explain why the Şanlıurfa PDP has been selected as the case study. The elaboration of Şanlıurfa case will serve to the attainment of first two aims of this research. To achieve the third aim, this dissertation will also handle a contrasting example –e.g. the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process. This example will not be analyzed in detail. It will be handled just to highlight how place-specific factors can play decisive roles in different strategic planning processes even within the same country.

VIII.1.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research below is about the implementation of the strategic spatial planning in a Turkish Province. Any planning process comes into being with the following dimensions (Mastop 1999):

1. Space (the territory under consideration);
2. Process (the way the planning process is conducted);
3. Institutions (actors involved and their interrelations);
4. Function (the type of plan produced).

So, the research questions should cover all these items in the case of the Şanlıurfa PDP:

1. *Space*: What kind of a settlement system is Şanlıurfa Province? What place-specific elements (positive and negative) does it have, which can facilitate or constrain the realization of a strategic planning process?

2. *Process*: How was the Şanlıurfa PDP Process organized and carried out? Was the process realized in conformity with the theory of strategic spatial planning? What contingencies did its organization possess?

3. *Institutions*: Which actors involved in what stages of the process? Why were these actors involved in the process? Was their involvement (and collaboration) of an ideal type?

4. *Function*: What kind of a plan was produced? Does the plan resemble the plan type suggested in the theory of strategic planning? Does it deviate from the theory at some points?

VIII.1.3. UNITS OF ANALYSIS

Yin (1993) defines units of analysis as the events or entities to be studied such as individuals, groups, organizations, decisions, implementation processes and organizational change. This research has adopted two units of analysis:

1. The stakeholders (public/non-public institutions, associations) that were involved in the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning Process,

2. The Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan (as a set of decisions) produced via the collaboration of the stakeholders.

VIII.1.3.1. THE STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

As one of the two concerns of this study is “how the planning process was carried out”; *the actors* that involved in this process emerge as the first unit of analysis. The actors, or the stakeholders, in the planing process consisted of a wide range of national and local entities:

1. *National level actors*: GAP Administration comes forefront as one of the key actors, who coordinated the entire planning process. Secondly, the Şanlıurfa Governorship was a key actor, as the local branch of national government.

2. *Local level actors*: All local public institutions, the local university Harran, local branches of professional chambers, local NGOs, private sector (local enterprisers or their unions) were the local actors that involved in the planning process.

All the above actors have consisted of the first unit of analysis in this research. The study will investigate why these actors were involved in the planning process; how they came together; what roles they played; whether they were satisfied with the process and the plan. This analysis will be conducted with reference to a criteria set.

VIII.1.3.2. THE STRATEGIC PLAN AS THE PRODUCT OF THE PROCESS

The second concern of the study is the strategic plan produced at the end of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process. As discussed previously, the strategic spatial planning has revived with a different organization of the planning process (collaborative), and with a different plan than the mainstream plans. So, likewise the process, the plan will also be analyzed according to a criteria set.

The research questions, as a result, will be responded through studying the above units of analysis. So as to clarify “what differs in the strategic planning”, one

should analyze both the *planning process* and the *plan*; as this research will do for the Şanlıurfa PDP case.

VIII.1.4. FIELD SURVEY

VIII.1.4.1. DATA SOURCES

This study has chosen two main data sources in studying the above units and responding the research questions: First data source consists of *documentary materials* --reports, planning documents, books, protocols, maps, official documents, archives, etc. The second data source contains *in-depth interviews* conducted both in Ankara and Şanlıurfa. Feldman (1981) mentions that the main advantage of the method of in-depth interviewing is that if offers an "inside" story and an "inside" perspective. Another advantage of in-depth interviews is that they allow an opportunity to hear more than one version of the same story.

In Ankara, key actors from the GAP Administration were interviewed; as they played significant roles in the Şanlıurfa PDP Process. The interviewees from the GAP Administration were the coordinators of the entire planning process. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with them so as not to miss important details of the process.

In Şanlıurfa, again semi-structured interviews were conducted with a larger group of local actors in terms of both quantity and quality. The local actors that collaborated in the planning process have contained two sub-groups: public (local public institutions), non-public (local NGOs including professional chambers, local university, private sector). In order to make a reliable analysis of the collaboration of local actors in the PDP process, interviewees should have been selected with respect to the two sensitive criteria:

1. They should have been selected from the representatives of as many sectors as possible. This criterion was satisfied, since the interviewees represented the fields of agriculture, industry, commerce-finance, environment, education, spatial planning and local government, tourism, and energy.

2. The interviewee profile should have reflected an “equal distribution” between public and non-public participants, in order to assess the views of both sides reliably. Nevertheless, the weight of the public sector participants in the planning process was rather high than that of the non-public sector; therefore this criterion could not been satisfied properly. Despite the unbalanced weights of public and non-public participants, however, to satisfy this criterion to a certain extent, the interviewees from the non-public side were selected at least to reflect a variety in themselves: Minimum one participant from each of the entities included in the non-public sector (private sector, professional chambers, NGOs and the academy) was interviewed.

VIII.1.4.2. THE OBSTACLES MET IN THE FIELD SURVEY

18 participants were interviewed in Şanlıurfa; 11 public and 7 non-public ones. This number could have been bigger; however, this would not have changed the results achieved in the interviewing stage. This is because there do exist repetitions in the answers of the interviewees to a great extent; i.e. the views they expressed overlap in most of the issues. Obviously there are differences in their views on some issues; but these are slight differences and they only relate to some minor issues.

In selecting the interviewees, the key actors that involved in the process were prioritized. Nevertheless, some key actors, who participated the process, are no longer working in the institutions where they used to do during the Şanlıurfa PDP Process. The key persons in the Governorship --namely the Governor himself, Deputy Governor and the most involved person at the Directory of Planning— have been appointed to other public institutions outside the Province. What is more, some local public employees, who participated the process, have also been transferred to public institutions in other provinces. Meanwhile, some hesitated to participate the interview.

VIII.1.5. ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

As stated before, the study seeks to utilize the findings of research in analyzing and evaluating “how the Şanlıurfa PDP was realized through the collaboration of multiple actors” (process) and “what were the results” (plan). The literature

distinguishes two main features of strategic planning: First, the planning process should allow broad participation of relevant actors (Blotevogel 1999, 123). Second, the plan should have a vision, should include strategies that improve the economic competitiveness of a locality (together with other aims), and should satisfy other technical criteria (flexibility, multidimensionality, multisectoriality, generality). So, the following chapter will analyze the findings of the research and interpret on them, basically taking care of these two principles. The chapter will be composed by three main sections:

1. First section is to display the peculiar conditions of the Şanlıurfa Province through applying documentary materials. This sections addresses whether the present development level in the Province shows competitive characteristics; and whether its social context is mature enough for collaborative arrangements.

2. Second section is to explain the realization of the process via utilizing documentary materials and interviews held with the coordinators of the GAP Administration. In explaining the realization of the Şanlıurfa PDP process, this section aims at emphasizing both the conformities with the theory of strategic planning and unique aspects of the Şanlıurfa case.

3. Third section is to interpret on the “level of collaborative-ness” of the planning process and “the level of strategic-ness” of the plan with regard to the general criteria. The process will be interpreted regarding the interviews conducted with the local stakeholders, since they were the active participants of the planning process. Meanwhile, in order to interpret on the plan, both the views of local stakeholders and the plan itself are to be applied.

Having portrayed the Şanlıurfa PDP case under these sections, the contributions of the case study will be the followings:

- The Provincial Development Planning as a strategic planning attempt is a very recent experience in Turkey. There exist only a few provinces that have finished their PDP processes. The research below will investigate this contemporary phenomenon within the case of Şanlıurfa.

- In this investigation, the research will address connections between the theory of strategic spatial planning and the empirical data (in terms of both the planning process and the plan). While connections will lead to generalizations of the findings, deviations from the theory will indicate contingencies of the Şanlıurfa case.

- Depending on the generalizable aspects of the case study, the research will attempt to propose a general model for any provincial development planning process.

- To show how strategic planning processes can vary in different localities of the same country due to their different socio-economic profiles, the research will conclude with a contrasting example.

VIII.2. THE PROFILE OF THE PROVINCE: WHAT KIND OF A SETTLEMENT SYSTEM ŞANLIURFA IS

Şanlıurfa Province is not one of the core settlements in the country. Rather, it can be considered within the peripheral ones with respect to certain socio-economic and spatial criteria. Within the Socio-Economic Development List of Provinces[38], it is ranked 68th out of the 81 provinces of Turkey. The province locates in the South Eastern Region. It consists of 27 municipalities, and the Şanlıurfa PDP has included all of them, not merely the central municipal town of the province. Before elaborating the Şanlıurfa PDP Process, first and foremost it will be proper to elaborate the profile of the province.

VIII.2.1. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Şanlıurfa is the biggest province in the South Eastern Region with respect to population size. The rural and urban population rates are 42% and 58% respectively. There exist non-urbanized population groups even in the central town of the province. Urbanization rate in the province is below the region and country averages, and rural population rate is above that of the region and the country. This means that the growth of the province highly depends on rural development.

The population increase pace and density, as well as fertility rate and average number of households are above those of the region and the country. The infant mortality rate is remarkably high. Meanwhile, there occurs permanent and seasonal inward and outward migration.

The literacy rate is below the averages of the region and country. The rate of illiterate women is 22% in the country, whereas it is 40% in the region and 48% in Şanlıurfa. The rate of children who attend to primary school is 98% in the country, 82% in the region and 73% in the province. These rates are lower for female children.

[38] İllerin Sosyo-Ekonomik Gelişmişlik Sıralaması (2003) www.dpt.gov.tr

The rate of youth and children population is rather above the country average. Children are hired as cheap labor force. Besides, the crime rate of children has got remarkably higher in recent years.

Considering the number of beds per 10,000 patients and number of patients per doctor, these are 23 and 1746 in the country; and 9 and 6816 in Şanlıurfa. Social services seem to be poor in terms of both institutional structure and number of personnel.

The traditional social structure is strong in Şanlıurfa. In fact, all the South Eastern Region is composed by a tribal[39] type of social organization, which lost its significance to a large extent coming to the current era. However, considering political processes, most of the parliaments of the area make use of the benefit of belonging to a tribe (Ersoy and Şengül 2003, 88). Rapid population increase, traditional conservative social relations, isolation of female population from social life and their uneducatedness have all contributed to the inferiority of "human capital" in the province, which is indicated as a very remarkable urban development factor in the current literature.

VIII.2.2. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Although GDP per capita in the province increases gradually, it is still below the averages of the region and country. In the year 2000, GDP per capita is $1301 in Şanlıurfa, while this number is $2.941 for the country. The share of the province is 21% in the region and 1% in the country in this year.

55% of the active population works in the agricultural sector. The shares of agriculture, industry and services in the GDP of the province are 53%, 11%, and 35% respectively. Actually, the share of manufacturing is 1% out of total 11% share of industry in the year 2000. The share of industry is mostly provided by the electrical energy production. Within the manufacturing sector, the highest share belongs to the textile industry (66%).

[39] Aşiret

Agriculture is an important income-generating sector in the province. Especially for the last 30 years or so, agricultural reform implementations, construction of the Atatürk Dam and expropriation implementations, irrigated agriculture in Harran Plateau have contributed to the economic development of the province. However, the irrigation organizations seem to be inadequate.

Distribution of employment among sectors in the province displays a different picture than that of the country. While the agricultural employment is 55% in the province, this share is 35% in the country. Industrial employment is 6% in Şanlıurfa, and 17% in the country. Service employment rates are 7% in Şanlıurfa, and 14% in the country. As far as the wholesale and retail commerce is concerned, the rate in the province is close to the country average (15% in Şanlıurfa, 18% in Turkey). Briefly, agricultural employment level is above, industrial and service employment rates are below, and commercial employment is close to the country averages.

The export rate is rather below the averages of the region and country. The export values have been decreasing due to the problems in the cross-border commerce and general economic panorama of the country. Within all the exported goods, the biggest share belongs to the electronic goods with 25%. Most of the goods are exported to Tunisia with 18%.

As far as the public investments in the province are concerned, the share of the province in the South Eastern Region is almost 33%, while this share is 2% of the entire public investment in the country. Investment on agriculture has the highest share in all the public investments with 14%. Due to the insufficient amount of financial resources allocated for the public investments, they cannot be realized within determined time periods. So far, 21% of the projects in the agricultural sector (determined deadline: 2006), 99% of the projects in the energy sector (determined deadline: 2004), 44% of the highway projects (determined deadline: 2004) and 60% of the airport construction, 65% of the educational projects (determined deadline: 2004), 28% of the projects in the health sector (determined deadline: 2005) have been completed.

The level of domestic and foreign investments in the province is insufficient. There exist only 7 foreign-based firms. Meanwhile the level of qualified labor is low.

The level of unemployment in the province is 14.5% whereas this level is 6.6% for the entire country. Seasonal employment is common in the province with a share of 30%, while this rate is 3% for the country.

The 5 towns in the province take place in the lowest 20%-portion of all the towns of the country according to the socio-economic development criteria. The province positions among the 4th rank in a 5-rank categorization of the entire provinces of the country, according to the Research on the Socio-economic Development Levels (1996). The ranking is determined with respect to the criteria like demographic structure, employment demand, unemployment, sectoral employment, level of education and health services, physical and social infrastructure, production level, income per capita, utilization of public services, export potentials.

VIII.2.3. SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT

The area of the Şanlıurfa Province is 3% of the entire country. At the north, several mountains and hills take place. At the south, there locate important plains named Harran, Suruç and Viranşehir. A significant natural element in the Province is the river of Euphrates, on which Atatürk and Birecik Dams were constructed within the scope of the South Eastern Anatolia Project (see section VI.1.3). Those dams have had remarkable impacts on the physical, social and economical development of the Province.

Şanlıurfa has an almost eleven thousand-year-history. The old part of the central town together with the towns of Harran and Halfeti possess significant historical/cultural heritage. There exist 16 archaeological sites, several other historical/urban sites, and many historical assets within the entire province.

The historical characteristic of the province apart, actually it has the identity of an agricultural settlement. While the share of agricultural land within the total land of the country is 36%, this share is 65% for Şanlıurfa. The amount of first quality agricultural land ranks first in the region and second in the entire country.

Considering the technical infrastructure, drinking water networks are old and insufficient in almost all the towns. Moreover, the rate of municipalities where there are no drinking water networks is 44%. This rate is 16,3% for the region and 14,6% for the country. Sewage and wastewater systems are insufficient, too. Sewage system projects were never considered for 22 towns out of the total 27 towns of the province.

Only 30% of the rural units get connected to drinking water network in the province. This rate is 27% in the region and 52% in the country. So, the connection of the rural areas to drinking water network is rather low compared to the country average.

Şanlıurfa is one of the major points of the highway system in the region. Important routes carrying the Middle Eastern commercial traffic pass across the province. There is one airport and another international one is still being constructed.

With regard to housing, the rate of squatter (gecekondu) houses is 20%. However, the overall rate of illegal construction goes up to 60%. Low income people suffer from proper accommodation.

VIII.2.4. EVALUATION OF THE PROFILE OF THE PROVINCE

It has been discussed in Chapter V that the strategic planning seems to have emerged as a way-out for planning of the metropolitan areas of developed countries. Because, this new tendency is always justified with the dramatic impact of the circumstances of globalized capitalism on urban areas of core countries. Globalization processes have made these big cities compete with each other in order to attract investment and create local economic development. The existing planning tools have become insufficient to realize these aims, and strategic spatial planning has come into the scene as a flexible planning approach. The strategic planning, in a general sense, emerges as a tool with its very two aspects:

1. The participation of stakeholders in the planning process
2. The multi-sectorial development agendas (economic, environmental, cultural, social) of the strategic plan

Gradually, the participatory nature of the process and multi-sectorial development concerns of the plan have made this new approach popular in developing countries, too. They have shown willingness to apply this new planning approach both in their core, semi-core or peripheral localities.

Turkey, too, is trying to adopt the strategic planning approach. The necessity of a strategic approach in planning has been mentioned in the current Five-Year National Development Plan. The PDPs, as strategic planning processes, have been started in different localities one after the other. The two aspects of strategic planning mentioned above makes it very much related to the quality of local social and economic factors. Because the “process dimension” of the strategic planning is a collaborative work of local actors (thus social context is important), and the “plan dimension” seeks for economic competitiveness (thus existing economic figures are important). That is why the profile of Şanlıurfa is elaborated in this part, before going into the PDP process. Although it comes into the picture as a low-profile locality compared to the country averages, the local actors did manage to contribute to the development of a strategic plan in a collaborative manner.

Below table summarizes the socio-economic and spatial characteristics of Şanlıurfa Province in comparison to the country averages. Of course the criteria could be detailed—the ones in the table aim at giving an overall idea about what kind of a settlement system Şanlıurfa is[40]. The figures reveal that the province has mainly a rural identity, suffers from human capital, has poor economic conditions, and lacks proper technical/social infrastructure (Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı 2003, C-1-6; B-73-79; D-1-2).

[40] For a more detailed profile of the Province, see Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı, 2003.

TABLE 13-SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND SPATIAL FIGURES
IN THE ŞANLIURFA PROVINCE
IN COMPARISON TO THE COUNTRY AVERAGES

DEVELOPMENT CRITERIA	TURKEY	ŞANLIURFA
SOCIAL		
Demographic (year 2000)		
• rate of urban population (%)	65	58
• rate of rural population (%)	35	42
• annual population increase (‰)	18,28	36,55
Education		
• women literacy rate (%)	88	52
• rate of female children who attend primary school (%)	98	73
Health		
• number of beds per 10,000 patients	23	9
• number of patients per doctor	1746	6816
ECONOMIC		
• GDP per capita (year 2000, current $)	2.941	1.301
Employment (%)		
• Agriculture	35	55
• Industry	17	6
• services	14	7
• construction	6,5	12
• retail and wholesale commerce	18	15
• level of unemployment (%)	6,6	14,5
• seasonal employment (%)	30	3
Industry		
• petty industrial district (number)	349	3
• organized industrial district (number)	65	1

TABLE 13-SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND SPATIAL FIGURES
IN THE ŞANLIURFA PROVINCE
IN COMPARISON TO THE COUNTRY AVERAGES (continued)

DEVELOPMENT CRITERIA	TURKEY	ŞANLIURFA
SPATIAL		
Technical infrastructure		
• **urban**		
-rate of population served by drinking water network (%)	90	93
-rate of pop. served by drink. water treatment facility (%)	36	4
-rate of population served by the sewage system (%)	63	54
-rate of pop. served by wastewater treatment facility (%)	39	3
• **rural**		
-rate of population served by drinking water network (%)	52	30
Transportation		
• **state and provincial roads**		
-asphalted (%)	92	85
-stabilized (%)	4	9
• **rural roads**		
-asphalted (%)	27	23
-stabilized (%)	47	50

VIII.3. ŞANLIURFA PDP: ORGANIZATION AND PROCESS

In the 8th Five-Year Development Plan, the responsibility of carrying out the PDP process is given to the provincial governorships. Having received the official letter of the SPO, the governor of Şanlıurfa first talked to the Director of the Regional Branch of the GAP Administration (Şanlıurfa). The Director then contacted to the GAP Regional Development Administration (Ankara) to understand the manageability of the process via the co-operation of the Governorship and the GAP Administration. They decided to handle the process together. So, a co-operation protocol was signed in February, 2002 between the Şanlıurfa Governorship and GAP Regional Development Administration to prepare the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan.

VIII.3.1. MULTI-ACTOR COLLABORATION

A "Plan Execution Board"[41] was established with members from the institutions that signed the protocol. The board was headed by the Governor of Şanlıurfa, while the GAP Administration would be the executive institution. The members of the board were the Şanlıurfa Governorship, GAP Administration and the representatives of the institutions that were determined by the Governorship. The Planning Directorate[42] of the Governorship would perform the secretariat duties. The Regional Branch of GAP Administration and a deputy governor would provide coordination between the GAP Administration (Ankara) and Governorship.

SPO had already prepared a "work program" for provincial development planning and sent to all governorships. In the program, the methodology and context were described with general lines. Still, it was flexible enough for any governorship to develop its own methodology without missing the general lines. Şanlıurfa Governorship presented this program to the GAP Administration. In the program, SPO put the emphasis on *spatial, economic and social* dimensions of provincial

[41] Plan Yürütme Kurulu
[42] İl Planlama Müdürlüğü

development. To prepare the plan as described in the work program, the GAP Administration formed a Plan Preparation Team[43], the members of which belonged to different disciplines. Consultants from the Graduate Program of Urban Policy Planning and Local Government of the Middle East Technical University (Ankara); Department of Economics of the Ankara University (Ankara); and Faculty of Agriculture of Harran University[44] (Şanlıurfa) were included within the team. The consultants were to give support in terms of spatial development, economic development and investments, and agricultural development respectively. The team as a whole would prepare an *Inventory for the Province of Şanlıurfa* and the *Provincial Development Plan*. The other members of the team were the personnel of the GAP Administration. Their expertise were on social anthropology, agricultural engineering, sociology, economics, and environmental engineering. This multi-disciplinary team was supposed to grasp the multi-sectoral development strategy for the Province.

The coordinator of the planning team (Mrs. Filiz Doğanay) explains that the GAP Administration could have prepared the plan by its own personnel without the academic consultancy. Actually, it was not obligatory to cooperate with universities in the work program; nevertheless, the 8th Five-Year Plan necessitates the preparation of the plan through the *involvement of as many participants as possible*. This is one of the reasons for which they asked for the academic expertise. More important than this reason, they also thought that academic expertise would contribute the process and the plan to a great extent. She says the work program of SPO determined the way they chose the universities. Spatial dimension was highlighted in the work program, but there was not a spatial planning department in the local university (Harran), thus, they chose the mentioned department of the Middle East Technical University. For economic development, they needed an "investment" planner, not an ordinary economist. Because, SPO not only demanded a provincial plan be prepared, but also the investment program with the plan. Having made a research among universities,

[43] Plan Hazırlama Grubu

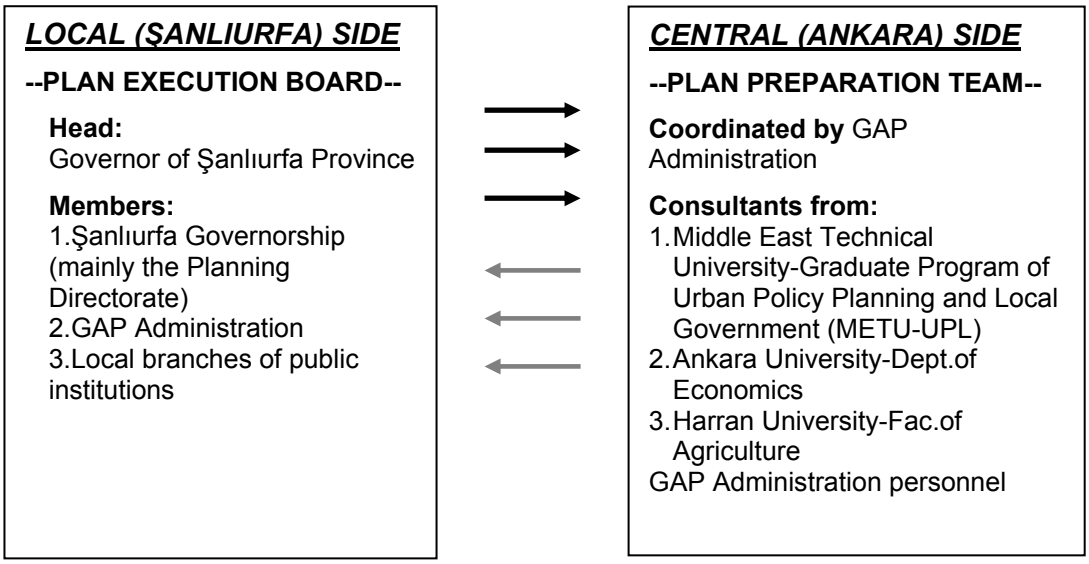
[44] METU: Prof.Dr.Melih Ersoy, Assoc.Prof.Tarık Şengül
Ankara University: Asst.Prof.Abuzer Pınar
Harran University: Assoc.Prof.Bahri Karlı

they chose an investment planner from the Ankara University. Finally, since new agricultural inputs have been tried in Şanlıurfa, they needed an expert who would approach scientifically towards the new agricultural development.

Another coordinator from the GAP Administration (Mr. Rıfat Dağ) mentions that involvement of the local university (Harran) was essential as a local knowledge source. The PDP was an opportunity to make Harran University engage in the problems of the province. In his opinion, involvement of more than one university contributed to the richness of the process (Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı 2003; interviews with GAP administration coordinators: Filiz Doğanay and Rıfat Dağ).

Although the GAP Administration has the regulatory and monitoring authority over all the settlements in the South Eastern Region by law, Şanlıurfa Governorship could have realized the PDP process *itself* without cooperating with the GAP Administration. Filiz Doğanay explains that other provinces in the region prepared their PDPs themselves. The 8th Five-Year Plan (which has a legal power, since it was accepted in the National Parliament) gives the authority to governorships, so the governorships in the GAP Region do not need to cooperate with the GAP Administration. Since the 8th Five-Year Plan is a more recent "law" than the one through which the GAP Administration was established, this is not a conflicting situation. However, Şanlıurfa Governorship followed a way of its own in the organization of the Şanlıurfa PDP. Here the *preference of the governor* played the major role. The Regional Branch of the GAP Administration locates in Şanlıurfa, which is another factor for this cooperation.

Observing the way the process was realized, it is possible to infer that the way followed in Şanlıurfa is a contingent one. The literature on the strategic spatial planning describes that there is not a universal way of preparing a strategic plan; the way it is organized/carried out and the plan produced are contingent (Albrechts 2003, 1). The story of Şanlıurfa PDP reflects this characteristic of the strategic spatial planning. Below scheme displays the formation of the planning network that coordinated the whole process.



: Local-to-central information flow to be processed by the experts of the Team in Ankara

: Processed information flow (in the form of analysis or plan reports) to local parties in order to have their views/contribution

FIGURE 5-THE NETWORK THAT INVOLVED THE ENTIRE PLANNING PROCESS

VIII.3.2. PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN FOUR PHASES

As necessitated in the 8th Five-Year Plan and in the work program of the SPO, Şanlıurfa PDP was prepared through a participatory approach. The institutions to be invited were not precisely defined name-by-name in the work program. Rather, the following statement took place with regard to the methodology (Şanlıurfa İli Gelişme Planı Taslak İş Tanımı):

> *"Provincial development planning is a multi-dimensional and a comprehensive process that requires a large group of partners…Participation of the related parties both to planning and implementation processes is very important. Therefore, the planning process will necessitate individual and/or group deliberations; work groups; and close and permanent relationship and deliberation with all individuals and institutions through the media.*

To provide this, participatory methods (SWOT analysis etc.) will be applied during the planning process, which require the collaboration of the above-mentioned partners. The advantages, disadvantages, constraints and opportunities of the province will be determined in the work groups, which are composed by central public institutions and their local branches, local authorities and economic groups (labor unions, chambers of commerce, etc.), representatives of the community (associations, etc.)."

VIII.3.2.1. The Initial Phase

Before starting the participatory planning process, the GAP Administration gathered information about the province both from local and national data sources and systematized this information, so as to provide a base for the planning process. Filiz Doğanay states that even this "written information" provided by local institutions could be considered some sort of participation. The information from the local sources first came to the Planning Directorate of the Governorship that carried out secretariat duties, and then sent to the GAP Administration (see the above figure). Rıfat Dağ mentions that the contribution of the public institutions was *obligatory* rather than voluntary. Because the governorship has the authoritative power over the local branches of the central government, and considering the circumstances of the country, it has to be so in his opinion. Meanwhile, although the contribution of the private sector and NGOs were not obligatory, a few chambers and associations provided some demanded information. However they mostly contributed in the planning process, still, not as much as public institutions.

The information gathered in this preliminary stage consisted of geographical, administrative, demographic, social, economic, agricultural, spatial structures, social infrastructure, services, environment, cultural assets, tourism, urban and rural infrastructure. A meeting was held in Şanlıurfa Regional Branch of GAP Administration on April 1, 2002 to present the findings of this stage and to have the views and contributions of the local parties (Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı 2003, A-2-3).

Having completed the information-gathering/arrangement/presentation stage, the finalized report was sent to the public/private institutions and NGOs in the Province, so that they could participate the planning process “being aware of the existing situation”. The planning process was started and realized in three phases in obedience with the work program of the SPO:

VIII.3.2.2. The First Phase

First phase was realized on June 17-18, 2002 in Şanlıurfa through the participation of various institutions, who were invited by the Governorship. This phase –which was organized by the Regional Branch of the GAP Administration-- is called the “Analysis of The Existing Situation”. This analysis was composed by three parts:

1. The Inventory of The Province
2. The Analysis of The Existing Situation
3. The Analysis of The Problems

The invited parties were divided into sub-working groups, each of which had a facilitator/moderator (either from the GAP Administration or from the university consultants), a representative, a deputy representative, and a reporter. The sub-groups worked in parallel sessions. They discussed and evaluated the existing situation and problems of the province on a sectoral basis. Below is given the list of these sub-groups (Ersoy and Şengül 2003, 431-433):

TABLE 14-SUB-GROUPS THAT DETERMINE THE PROBLEMS OF THE PROVINCE

Sub-groups	Parties[45] invited	No. of invited	No. of participants
Urban Planning and Local Government	• All municipalities • Chamber of City Planners • Chamber of Cartography Engineers • Provincial Directorate of The Ministry of Public Works • Headship of The Chamber of Architects and Engineers • Association of Headmen (muhtar) • Representatives of district governorships.	40 (public) 3 (non-public[46])	21
Transportation, Infrastructure, Communication	• Provincial Directorate of Türk Telekom • GAP Chamber of Journalists • Chief Office of Highway Administration • Regional Directorate of Highway Administration • Regional Directorate of Village Services • Local Directorate of TEDAŞ • Regional Directorate of Agricultural Reform • Administration of State Water Works 15th Regional Directorate • GAP Bolatlar Project Directorate • Representatives of district governorships	20 (public) 1 (non-public)	25

[45] An invited party refers to a public/non-public entity, not to individual persons.
[46] Non-public sector includes NGO, chambers, private sector, university, etc.

TABLE 14-SUB-GROUPS THAT DETERMINE THE PROBLEMS OF THE PROVINCE (continued)

Environment	• All municipalities • Local Branch of The Ministry of Environment (Provincial Directorate) • Presidency of Harran University • Regional Directorate of Meteorology • Representatives of district governorships	40 (public) 1 (non-public)	19
Agriculture	• Provincial Directorate of Agriculture • Harran University, Faculty of Agriculture • Chamber of Agriculture • Chamber of Agricultural Engineers • Regional Directorate of Village Services • Research Institute Directorate of Village Services • GAP Centre of Agricultural Education, Publication and Research • Regional Directorate of Agricultural Reform • GAP Bolatlar Project Directorate • Regional Directorate of Land Survey • AGROGAP Leader Farmer Association • Adm. of State Water Works 15th Regional Directorate • Irrigation Associations • Association of Southeast • Bank of Agriculture • Association of Şanlıurfa Farmers • Representatives of district governorships	19 (public) 8 (non-public)	40

TABLE 14-SUB-GROUPS THAT DETERMINE THE PROBLEMS OF THE PROVINCE (continued)

Industry (Manufacturing, Mining, Energy), Financial Structure, Banking And Construction	• Şanlıurfa Chamber of Trade and Industry • Birecik Town Chamber of Trade and Industry • Siverek Town Chamber of Trade and Industry • Provincial Directorate of Industry and Trade • KOSGEB • Şanlıurfa Association of Industrial Businessmen • Association of Young Businessmen • Directorate of Organized Industrial District • Representative of Evren Petty Industrial District • Union of Tradesmen and Craftsmen • Financial Office of The Province (Defterdarlık) • Bank of Agriculture • Local Branches of National Banks (İş Bankası, Halk Bankası, Akbank, Yapı Kredi Bankası) • Stock market of Trade • Customs Directorate • Directorate of Exports • Association of Accountants • Representatives of district governorships	14 (public) 17 (non-public)	26
Cultural Assets And Local Cultures, Tourism	• Local Branch of The Ministry of Culture (Provincial Directorate) • Presidency of Harran University • Museum Directorate • Regional Directorate of Foundations • ŞURKAV • Directorate of Anatolian Fine Arts High School • Local Branch of The Ministry of Tourism (Provincial Directorate) • Local Tourism Agencies (Kalüru, Kançul) • Local hotels (Edessa Oteli, Harran Oteli) • Şanlıurfa Municipality	19 (public) 6 (non-public)	18

TABLE 14-SUB-GROUPS THAT DETERMINE THE PROBLEMS OF THE PROVINCE (continued)

	• Harran Municipality • Birecik Municipality • Representatives of district governorships		
Education And Cultural Services	• Presidency of Harran University • Local Branch of the Ministry of National Education (Provincial Directorate) • Foundation of Education Volunteers • Meksa Foundation • ŞURKAV • Local private schools (Özel Murat Koleji, Özel Çağlayan İlköğretim Okulu) • Representatives of district governorships	12 (public) 6 (non-public)	27
Health, Social Services, Women, Youth And Children	• Provincial Directorate of Social Services • Local Branch of the Ministry of Youth and Sports (Provincial Directorate) • Local Branch of the Ministry of Health (Provincial Directorate) • Foundation for Strengthening Turkish Women • Public Center of Provincial Directorate of Social Services • Willows Foundation • Association of Physically Handicapped • Chamber of Medical Doctors • Presidency of Harran University • Chamber of Pharmacists • Association of Family Planning • Şanmed Hospital • Kızılay Association • Representatives of district governorships	15 (public) 9 (non-public)	23

Examining the distribution of the invited parties among sectors, 179 public entities and 51 non-public entities were invited to the first phase. They constitute 78% and 22% of the entire invited parties respectively. The numbers in the last column cannot be compared with the previous column; since some participants involved in more than one sub-group; thus, such a comparison would lead double-counting. Still, it can be inferred that the number of participants remained rather small as compared to the number of invited. Both coordinators (Doğanay and Dağ) explain that the number of NGOs in the region and province is remarkably small. Doğanay states that the participation of nation-wide working NGOs would have improved the quality of the process, since the number of regional and local ones was insufficient. Dağ says that the number and quality of voluntary organizations both in the region and in the province is inadequate because of the difficulties of managing such an organization. It requires certain financial sacrifice for people who want to come together, which is very difficult for a province like Şanlıurfa.

VIII.3.2.3. The Second Phase

This phase included the analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) of the province; and related to this, determination of the strategies and policies for the sustainable development, taking care of the results of the first phase. Similarly, this phase also followed a participatory logic. The process was organized on October 24-25, 2002 in Ankara. The parties, which had been invited to participate the first phase, were again invited to determine development strategies for the province. Among them, the following parties participated the process:

Governorship, Harran University, Provincial Directorate of Industry and Trade, Chamber of Industry and Commerce, Provincial Directorate of Village Services, Regional Directorate of Agricultural Reform, Provincial Directorate of Social Services, Provincial Directorate of National Education, Administration of State Water Works 15th Regional Directorate, Provincial Directorate of Environment, General Directorate of Agricultural Reform, Municipality of Şanlıurfa, Provincial Directorate of Agriculture, Middle East Technical University, Ankara University

and GAP Administration.

Total number of parties is 16 in the second phase, which is rather small compared to the number of the participants to the first phase. The shares of the public and non-public parties are 75 % and 25% respectively.

On the first day of the meeting, the methodology to be followed was introduced to the participants by the coordinators of the GAP Administration. The stages of a strategic planning process, i.e. the vision, aim, strategy, targets, and policies, were defined. After having described these stages, the participants were divided into three groups and asked to develop a vision for the Province of Şanlıurfa, depending on the results of the first phase. The visions developed by these three groups were discussed and a common vision was determined for Şanlıurfa as follows:

> *"Within the framework drawn by the principles of sustainability and participation, improvement of the quality of life in the Şanlıurfa Province and attainment of the country average, starting from the sectors of agriculture and tourism and expanding into other sectors."*

After determining the vision, the participants were again divided into three sub-groups according to their expertise and interests to develop further strategies. The groups included the following:

TABLE 15-SUB-GROUPS THAT DETERMINED STRATEGIES AND AIMS FOR THE PROVINCE

Sub-groups	Topics
Social strategies	• Education • Health • Social services • Cultural assets
Economic strategies	• Manufacturing • Agriculture • Mining • Services (trade, tourism, banking)
Spatial, infrastructure and environmental strategies	• Spatial organization • Rural and urban infrastructure

These groups made the SWOT analysis, and determined strategies, targets and policies in parallel sessions via the coordination of a moderator/facilitator either from the academic experts or from the GAP Administration (Ersoy and Şengül 2003, 480-483).

VIII.3.2.4. The Third Phase

This final phase consisted of the preparation of the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan with reference to the determined strategies. The Plan Preparation Team prepared a document, including both the plan and the implementation program. Besides, the document contains a "management model" proposal for the implementation of the plan. The plan is mainly a "written document"; but it also includes a map of 1/200,000 scale that represents transportation investments, development areas and protection zones in the form of *guidelines (*Appendix-1/200 000 Plan Map). It was presented to the Governor, representatives of public institutions, local administrators and NGOs in a meeting that was held in Şanlıurfa on November 27, 2002. The participated groups in this meeting then sent their views regarding the plan to the Plan Preparation Team. Evaluating these views, the Team finalized the development strategy for the Province.

The Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan was handed over to the Şanlıurfa Governorship on May 2003, and the presented to the State Planning Organization on July 2003. Below scheme summarizes all the stages of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process:

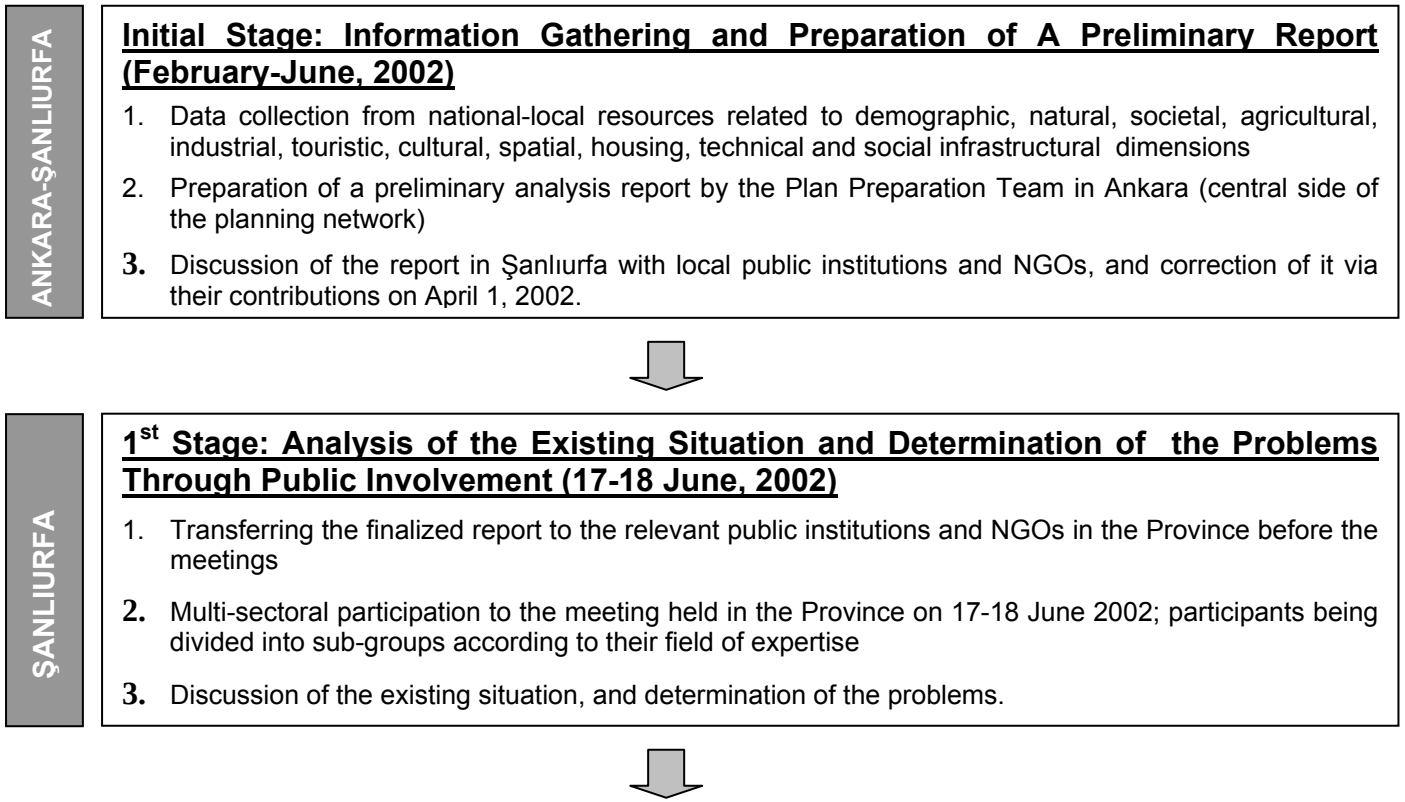


FIGURE 6-THE PLANNING PROCESS IN FOUR STAGES (FEBRUARY 2002-JULY 2003)

ANKARA

2nd Stage: Determination of the Vision, Strategies and Aims (24-25 October, 2002)

1. Preparation of an analysis report by the Plan Preparation Team in Ankara depending on the findings of the first phase
2. Taking care of the findings of the first phase, determination of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT Analysis) of the Province via involvement of **public/private sectors** and **NGOs**
3. Establishment of the **vision, strategies** and **aims** related to the spatial, economical, social and cultural development of the Province.

ANKARA-ŞANLIURFA

3rd Stage: Preparation of the Plan and Implementation Program (October 2002-July 2003)

1. Depending on the determined vision, strategies and aims in the previous stage, preparation of the plan and implementation program by the Plan Preparation Team in Ankara
2. The plan being mainly a "written document"; but also including a map of 1/200,000 scale that represents transportation investments, development areas and protection zones in the form of guidelines
3. Presentation of the plan to the governor, public institutions, NGOs in a meeting held in Şanlıurfa
4. Having received the views of local parties on the plan, finalization of it by the Plan Preparation Team, and handing it over to the Şanlıurfa Governorship on May 2003
5. Presentation of the plan to the State Planning Organization on July 2003.

FIGURE 6-THE PLANNING PROCESS IN FOUR STAGES (FEBRUARY 2002-JULY 2003)

(continued)

The discussion above displays that the Şanlıurfa PDP was organized in a way to allow the *collaboration of multiple actors* in the planning process. Meanwhile, the strategic plan was designed in a way to include *a general vision and development strategies for multiple sectors*. These have been put down as the main principles within the Plan Report, which are actually the common principles of any strategic planning process. I.e. the current tendencies in the international planning environment have been assumed within the Şanlıurfa PDP case as well. Below figure summarizes how the principles mentioned within the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan Report reflect the common strategic planning principles at first glance (with reference to Table 3). Obviously, national and local particularities showed themselves in the collaborative planning process and in the content/form of the plan. So, the following section will evaluate profoundly the "collaborativeness" of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process and the "content/form" of the Strategic Plan, with regard to the interviews conducted with the local stakeholders.

CRITERIA	KEY ISSUES OF A STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS	WHERE SANLIURFA PDP STANDS ACCORDINGLY *
Organization in charge	Horizontally-conducted planning through multi-actor involvement	*"Inclusion of local parties within the planning process contributes planning efficiency. A country cannot be developed only by national level institutions; rather, local institutions, enterprises, working classes, NGOs and individuals have to be included in the decision-making and implementation processes."*
Form	Integral, territorializable objectives, which are not necessarily drawn as physical plans	-Social, economic, physical development strategies in a text document form -General development lines indicated on a physical scheme of 1/200 000 scale
Boundaries of the territory under consideration	Municipal boundaries exceeded, since it is an interrelational, inter-sectorial, inter-institutional process	*"Provincial development strategies, which are prepared in relation to regional ones, can be indispensable factors of fast and balanced development of the country in the new age."* -Between regional and urban levels; social, economic and physical development at the provincial scale.
Comprehensiveness	A general development strategy (vision); including policies specific enough	The vision of Sanliurfa PDP: *"Within the framework of sustainability and participation, improvment of the quality of life and attainment of the country average, starting from the sectors of tourism and agriculture and expanding into other sectors"*
Time-span	Long-term strategic vision, guiding to projects, the time element of which is central to problem	-A long-term vision for the attainment of the general vision: 2010 -Time-spans of sectorial policies having been decided separately
Scope	A wide range of social, economical, political and physical issues	*"The provincial development strategies can mobilize provincial and regional economic resources and potentials; and provide fair socio-economic development for the locality itself."*

*The italic statements in quotation are cited from the Sanliurfa PDP Report; thus, they prove that the new tendencies in the international planning environment are taken care of in the preparation of the Sanliurfa PDP.

FIGURE 7- HOW FAR THE ŞANLIURFA PDP REFLECTS THE KEY ISSUES IN A STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

VIII.4. EVALUATION OF THE COLLABORATIVE PLANNING PROCESS AND THE STRATEGIC PLAN

Having discussed how the process was organized and carried out in four stages, the collaborative planning process with the local parties and the outcome of their collaboration –the strategic plan-- will be evaluated in this part. The interviews held with local stakeholders constitute the basic data source in this regard, since these people were the actors themselves of the planning process, and could provide first-hand information. Strategic spatial planning does not merely aim at producing a territorial development plan. Equally, the *process itself* is also an aim, in which different parties work together for the development of their locality. The parties involved in a decision-making process are named as "stakeholders". Before going into the details of their involvement in the process, it will be proper to clarify the so-called concept of stakeholder.

VIII.4.1. CLARIFICATION OF THE "STAKEHOLDER" CONCEPT

In its recent usage, "stakeholder" is defined as one who is affected by or affects a particular problem or issue. In the collaborative planning literature, it means people who are responsible for problems or issues, who are affected by them; whose knowledge is needed to develop solutions or strategies; and who have the power and resources to block or implement solutions and strategies (Chrislip and Larson 1994, 65).

The work of stakeholders is the definition of problems and solutions in a collaborative arrangement. It is not the work of a small, exclusive group of leaders. Chrislip and Larson suggest that the very first step in a collaborative process is the identification of fields --for which problems and solutions are to be defined-- not with the names of individuals or organizations. Following that, the people who can speak for these fields should be identified. I would interpret the Şanlıurfa PDP Process as a collaborative one: As discussed in the previous parts, coordinated by a network composed in both the center (Ankara) and the Province, Şanlıurfa PDP involved stakeholders from different segments of the community –namely public institutions, private sector, professional chambers, universities, NGOs.

VIII.4.2. THE STAKEHOLDERS OF THE ŞANLIURFA PDP PROCESS: HOW THEY COLLABORATED

Şanlıurfa PDP seems to have satisfied the first requirement stated above: Identification of fields. Şanlıurfa PDP Process was to produce a multi-sectorial strategic plan, beyond the mere spatial plan. Viewing in this regard, it included all the related fields of a wide range –namely; urban planning and local government, transportation, infrastructure and communication, environment, agriculture, industry (manufacturing, mining, energy), banking and construction, cultural assets and folklore, tourism, education, health, social services, gender, youth and children.

Then comes the stage of defining the people that can speak of these fields. Guided by the Work Program prepared by the SPO, the GAP Administration and the Şanlıurfa Governorship collaborated in defining the public and private entities and NGOs that could speak of these fields. The parties that involved in the collaborative planning process have been mentioned in Table 12. The Table shows the participant profile; i.e. representatives from public and private sectors, NGOs (including professional chambers) and universities.

It is interesting to observe that Şanlıurfa Municipality did not participate the process, because of the disagreeable relations with the Governorship. The municipal authorities, as the most involved actors in urban problems, would have played a major role in problem definition and decision-making, if they had had participated.

Meanwhile, it should be noted that the weights of the public and non-public (private sector, NGOs, universities) entities were not equal in the planning process (see Table 12). This is not because the coordinators of the process did not invite the non-public sector for collaboration. On the contrary, both the coordinators and local participants regard that “participation of as many stakeholders as possible” would have contributed the efficiency of the process. However, the number of NGOs and private companies operating in the Province was rather low than the number of public institutions. Meanwhile, some of these non-public sector stakeholders did not participate the process although invited.

In the previous part, the formation and operation of the network that carried out the entire process have been elaborated. The coordinating members of the so-called network settled in Ankara and guided the process from there (obviously, in continuous contact with members located in Şanlıurfa). From here onwards, the local side of the picture is to be examined with reference to the interviews held with the local stakeholders.

VIII.4.3. CRITERIA TO ASSESS THE QUALITY OF THE COLLABORATION AND THE CONTENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLAN

The literature on collaboration proposes that stakeholders can collaborate in every stage of a planning process –i.e. problem definition, policy-making, implementation and monitoring. Considering the Şanlıurfa PDP case, so far the stakeholders came together in the first two of the mentioned stages. Implementation (and relatedly) monitoring stages have not been started yet.

Bramwell and Sharman (1999) suggest a framework for evaluating "to what extent a process is collaborative". The authors consider three sets of issues in the framework for evaluation; these being *the scope of collaboration, intensity of collaboration, and degree of consensus among participants* (1999, 395-401). Each of the sets includes certain criteria. This study utilizes their framework to sort of measure the "collaborativeness" of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process. Referring to the literature on collaboration, I have attempted to develop some further criteria, and have included them in their framework to better comprehend the "conformity" of the Şanlurfa PDP case to the widespread principles of collaborative planning. Table 16 shows the criteria --both those of Bramwell and Sharman, and the ones I have developed--.

Collaboration of the stakeholders is one of the two main principles of a strategic spatial planning. The mentioned criteria are to evaluate the "*quality of the collaborative process"*. Such an evaluation requires "qualitative" criteria, as to be seen in Table 16. The other distinction feature of strategic planning is associated with the aim and standards of the plan to be produced. A strategic plan (which is quite different than a mainstream physical plan in terms of status, form and

content) aims at attaining **competitive advantage** within the conditions of the new world order. So, besides the criteria to assess the collaborativeness of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process (the first three columns of Table 16), some further qualitative criteria seem to be necessary to evaluate the strategic plan:

Therefore, I have developed some criteria to assess the plan (see the fourth and fifth columns of Table 16). The attainment of a competitive position through a strategic plan requires two adjacent steps; i.e. conducting a SWOT analysis, and then developing a vision accordingly. The criteria in the fourth column address the views of the local stakeholders in this regard. How they define the weak and strong aspects of Şanlıurfa, and whether the vision developed for the Province could provide competitiveness in their views are to be addressed through these criteria. The final column, meanwhile, includes technical criteria related to the status and form of any strategic plan. They are to measure the conformity of the Şanlıurfa PDP to the technical aspects of any strategic plan. Below are given all the criteria obtained from the work of Bramwell and Sharman, together with the ones I have included[47]:

[47] The criteria with (*) were the ones that I have included.

TABLE 16-CRITERIA TO ASSESS THE QUALITY OF COLLABORATION AND THE CONTENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLAN

Scope of collaboration (A)	Intensity of collaboration (B)	Degree of consensus among participants (C)	Content of the strategic plan: SWOT and vision (D)	Status and form of the strategic plan (E)
The extent to which the participants were informed about the scope of the process before the collaborative arrangements* (A1)	When and how often the relevant stakeholders involved in the process (B1)	The extent to which there was consensus among stakeholders about the issues, policies, purpose of policies (C1)	The weak aspects of and threats for Şanlıurfa in the views of the local stakeholders* (D1)	Whether the plan has a legal-binding status* (E1)
Whether the stakeholders made a preliminary study to contribute better to the planning process* (A2)	The extent to which stakeholders received information about the successive stages and were consulted (B2)	Whether the facilitator of the process left participants free to arrive at consensus or exercised control over their decisions* (C2)	The strong aspects of and opportunities of Şanlıurfa in the views of the local stakeholders* (D2)	The extent to which the general development strategy (vision) is flexible: In terms of allowing continuous reformulation of policy development for an open future* (E2)
The number of stakeholders selected through participation techniques (A3)	The quality of the network of stakeholders: a permanent one that allowed interaction among the stakeholders; or a temporary one established only for the planning process* (B3)	Whether the stakeholders are willing to implement the resulting policies within a network* (C3)	Whether these aspects were included in the plan* (D3)	Whether the plan has a different form than traditional physical plans: In terms of having a guideline map, and a policy document* (E3)

TABLE 16-CRITERIA TO ASSESS THE QUALITY OF COLLABORATION AND THE CONTENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLAN (continued)

Scope of collaboration (A)	Intensity of collaboration (B)	Degree of consensus among participants (C)	Content of the strategic plan: SWOT and vision (D)	Status and form of the strategic plan (E)
The extent to which the participant stakeholders were representative of all relevant stakeholders (A4)	The degree to which the dialogue among participants reflected openness and honesty; and whether they were equalized to declare their opinions freely* (B4)		In what field(s) Şanlıurfa can be competitive in the opinions of the stakeholders, and whether the vision of the strategic plan was set accordingly* (D4)	Whether the plan is a multi-sectorial one* (E4)
The extent to which participants representing a stakeholder group were fully representative of that group (A5)	Whether the participants were interested in sectors other than their fields of profession* (B5)			Whether the plan includes short-medium-long term projects (action plan)* (E5)
Whether the collaboration included a facilitator (A6)	The extent to which the participants were satisfied with the intensity of collaboration* (B6)			
The extent to which there was agreement among participants that the collaboration was more effective than other planning methods* (A7)				

VIII.4.4. "COLLABORATIVENESS" OF THE ŞANLIURFA PDP PROCESS: ASSESSMENT OF INTERVIEWS WITH THE LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

One striking issue comes up as the "place-specificity" in a strategic spatial planning process. The strategic spatial planning in a locality is very much influenced by the socio-economic, cultural, legal, administrative, organizational aspects of both the nation-state and the locality itself. The place-specificity of strategic planning emerges from varying weights of these aspects in different localities (even within the boundaries of a single country). In other words, there is no one unique way of making a strategic plan; rather, it is a contingent process. Obviously, there are certain general rules in the process; these being making a *SWOT* analysis; setting a *vision* that upgrades the locality at a *competitive* position; deliberating and deciding on strategies, aims and policies around this vision; and carrying out these stages via the *participation* of relevant stakeholders. Once these general rules are obeyed; who will lead the process, which parties will collaborate, whether they collaborate in each of the phases or in some of them, which development sectors will be included within the plan, when the implementation will start, who will monitor the implementation and so on are contingent elements of a process: They have very much to do with the specific context of the state and the locality.

This part aims at evaluating both the extent of collaboration in the Şanlıurfa PDP Process, and the content/form of the strategic plan produced (former according to the criteria in the first three columns of Table 14 and latter according to the final two columns of the same table). Once the process and plan are evaluated with respect to these criteria; how the contingencies influenced on the satisfaction level of the criteria, will be mentioned within an overall evaluation.

VIII.4.4.1. The Interviewing Phase in Şanlıurfa

The interviewee profile has been already mentioned in section VIII.4.1. The interviewees were selected with respect to the two sensitive criteria: First of all, they should have been the representatives of as many sectors as possible. This criterion seems to have been satisfied, since they represented the fields of agriculture, industry, commerce-finance, environment, education, spatial planning

and local government, tourism, and energy. Secondly, the number of public sector and non-public sector interviewees should have been balanced, so that the views of both sides could be evaluated. However, the weight of the participants from the public sector was rather higher than that of the non-public sector. Despite the unbalanced weights of public and non-public participants, to satisfy this criterion to a certain extent, the interviewees from the non-public side were selected at least to reflect a variety in themselves: The non-public side included participants from private sector, professional chambers, NGOs and the academy; and minimum one participant from each was interviewed.

VIII.4.4.2 Assessment of The Scope of Collaboration (A)

(A1) The Extent to Which the Participants Were Informed About the Scope of the Process before the Collaborative Arrangements

This criterion is to assess the extent of "awareness" of the local stakeholders about the process before it started. The literature on collaboration regards it as a factor that contributes to the democratic content of the process. Chapter V has elaborated the recent debates on the deliberative democracy, which has been translated into any decision-making process as "deliberative planning". It is supposed to improve the civic virtue with more informed individuals who are more active, responsible, cooperative and able to deal with problems (Pellizoni 2000).

Şanlıurfa PDP Process seems to satisfy this criterion in appearance: The interviewees from the public institutions state that they were informed in a formal way with an official letter sent by the coordinators of the process. GAP Administration sent the formal invitation letter to the Governorship, and the Governorship distributed this invitation to public institutions. However, their awareness on the process was a "global" one in their terminology. That is to say that the first time they were informed was directly through the invitation letter for collaboration; not earlier.

As far as the non-public participants are concerned, they were also informed about the scope of the process via a formal letter sent by the Governorship. However, whereas all the public sector participants knew about the invitation

letter, some of the non-public participants were not aware of such a letter. They state that they do not know whether there was an invitation letter; they were employed by their chamber, union, agency, etc. for participating the process.

(A2) Whether the Stakeholders Made a Preliminary Study to Contribute Better to the Planning Process

This criterion is to assess to what extent the participants approached the process dutifully. At the public side, interviewees either made a quick review of the previous reports prepared by their institutions, or made a discussion with their colleagues before participating the process. Meanwhile, some did not made such a preliminary study. Most of the interviewees mention that the views they declared during the process represented the views of the institutions where they worked. Few participants say that they declared their own views; however, since these views reflected their work experiences, they did not contradict with the general view of their institutions.

The non-public side, however, seems to be less dutiful in getting prepared compared to the public sector participants. They either state that they did not make a preliminary study, since they already knew the problems of the Province through their experiences; or they could not have time for such a study. Some express that they did not make a preliminary study before the process; however, in their views nobody in the meetings seemed to have been prepared. Only one interviewee says that they discussed on the problems of their sector before he participated the meetings.

(A3) The Number of Stakeholders Selected through Participation Techniques

The organizers of a collaborative process might apply participation techniques to determine the number of stakeholders involved in the process. In the Şanlıurfa PDP Process, such a technique was not applied. The Governorship sent an invitation letter to all the public and private institutions, and NGOs operating in the Province. This is to say that rather than a definite number of people from all the organizations; the organizations themselves were invited in the process. While

only one person represented some organizations, some others were represented by more than one person.

(A4) The Extent to which the Participant Stakeholders Were Representative of All Relevant Stakeholders

In the collaborative meetings, there existed participants from all the sectors. So, disregarding their varying numbers, all the relevant stakeholders were represented somehow. Nevertheless, the number of participants in the parallel sessions showed variety in the meetings held both in Şanlıurfa and Ankara:

TABLE 17-NUMBER OF PUBLIC AND NON-PUBLIC SECTOR PARTICIPANTS IN THE MEETINGS HELD IN ŞANLIURFA

Sub-groups	Total no. of participants	Total no. of local participants	No. of public sector participants	No. of non-public sector participants
Urban Planning and Local Government	21	17	16	5
Transportation, Infrastructure, Communication	25	23	23	2
Environment	19	17	16	3
Agriculture	40	39	28	12
Industry (Manufacturing, Mining, Energy), Financial Structure, Banking And Construction	26	20	14	12
Cultural Assets And Local Cultures, Tourism	18	16	11	7
Education And Cultural Services	27	22	17	10
Health, Social Services, Women, Youth And Children	23	20	10	13

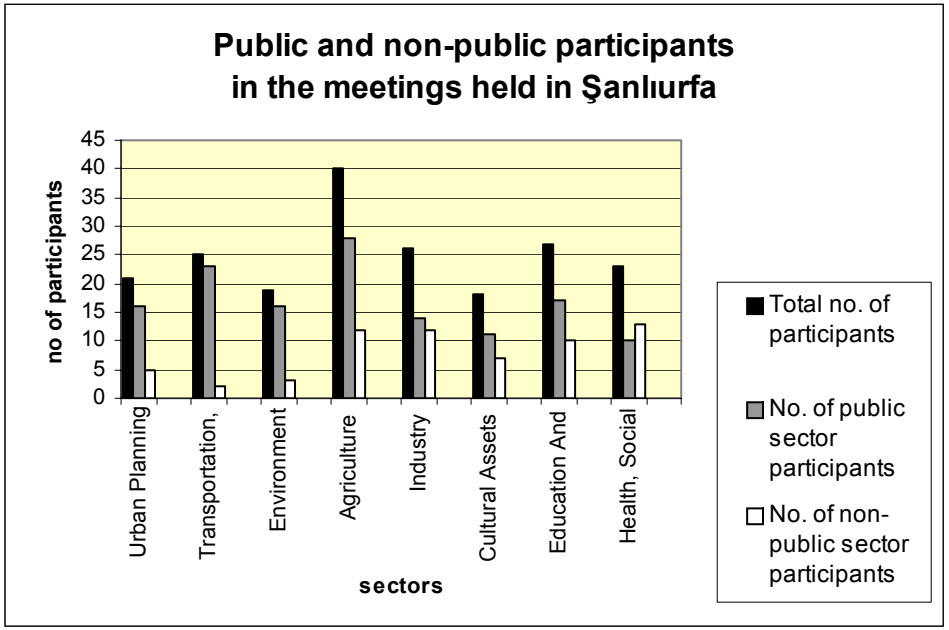


FIGURE 8-PUBLIC AND NON-PUBLIC SECTOR PARTICIPANTS IN ŞANLIURFA MEETINGS

TABLE 18-NUMBER OF PUBLIC AND NON-PUBLIC SECTOR PARTICIPANTS IN THE MEETINGS HELD IN ANKARA

Sub-groups	Total no. of participants	Total no. of local participants	No. of public sector participants	No. of non-public sector participants
Social strategies • **Education** • **Health** • **Social services** • **Cultural assets**	10	3	5	5
Economic strategies • **Manufacturing** • **Agriculture** • **Mining** • **Services (commerce, tourism, banking)**	16	8	10	6
Spatial, infrastructure and environmental strategies • **Spatial organization** • **Rural and urban infrastructure** • **Environment**	14	7	9	5

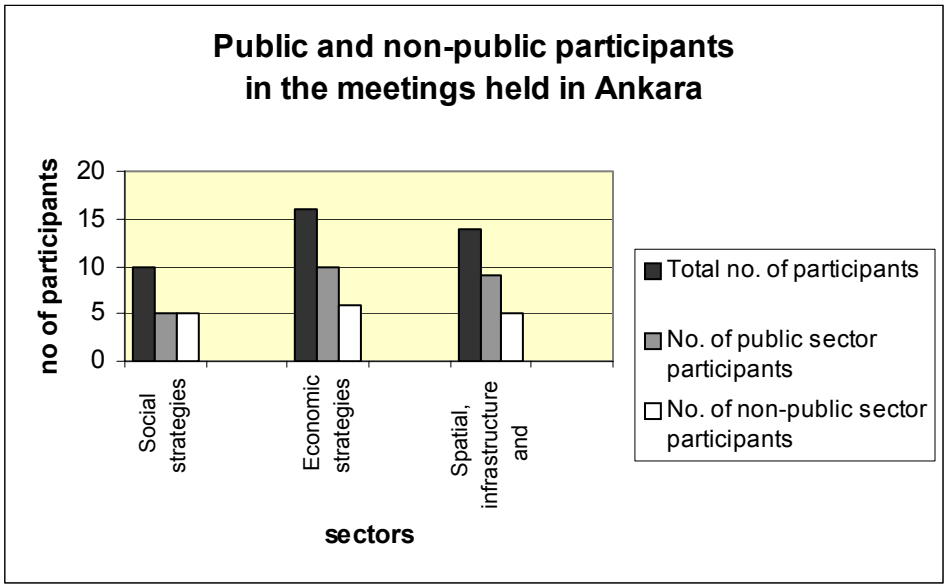


FIGURE 9-PUBLIC AND NON-PUBLIC SECTOR PARTICIPANTS IN ANKARA MEETINGS

It should be noted that the number of participants in the meetings included people from Ankara (GAP Administration Ankara Office; METU and Ankara University) besides the local participants. The share of local participants in the total number of participants was high in the Şanlıurfa meetings, as observed in Table 17. Therefore, one can talk about a high level of representation of local parties in each of the sectors. Nevertheless, the participation of local stakeholders in the Ankara meetings was rather low (Table 18), thus, the level of representation of relevant local stakeholders in Ankara meetings is smaller than that of Şanlıurfa meetings. While the public sector interviewees say that they were invited to the meetings held both in Şanlıurfa and in Ankara; most of the non-public sector interviewees mention that they were not informed about the Ankara meetings, although their organizations were also sent invitation letters.

Examining the Table 17 and Figure 8, the representation level in the agricultural sector is the highest among other sectors, and lowest in the sector of cultural assets, local cultures, and tourism in the Şanlıurfa meetings. The meetings in Şanlıurfa aimed at analyzing the existing situation and determine the problems. Meanwhile, as seen in Table 18 and Figure 9, the representation level of the economic sector stakeholders was the highest, while that of social sector was the lowest in Ankara meetings. The Ankara meetings were held to establish the vision and strategies for the Province.

(A5) The Extent to Which Participants Representing A Stakeholder Group were Fully Representative Of That Group

One of the coordinators of the process, Filiz Doğanay, states that it is doubtful whether the participants representing a stakeholder group were fully representative of that group. In deciding on the participants to be invited in the collaborative processes, they did not exclude any “organized” group, either from public or non-public sectors. However, the “unorganized” groups could not be invited for collaboration.

(A6) Whether the Collaboration Included A Facilitator

Bramwell and Sharman (1999) talk about the requirement of at least one facilitator in a collaborative process. The facilitator encourages participation and contributes to the quality of collaborative process. The processes held both in Şanlıurfa and Ankara included facilitators either from the GAP Administration or from academic consultancy group. They started the sessions on different topics and guided the participants to declare their opinions on these topics.

(A7) The Extent to Which There Was Agreement Among Participants That the Collaboration Was More Effective than Other Planning Methods

There was unanimous agreement of the interviewees on the superiority of the collaborative planning over other planning methods. The deductions from their opinions on collaboration/participation are given below:

- In other planning methods, an expertise group prepares the plan without asking the views of affected people. Collaborative planning prevents this, and includes these people within the process.

- The institutions who are directly involved in local problems can know local needs and solutions better than any experts. Thus, collaborative planning can bring more successful results.

- Collaborative techniques are much more effective than other ones, however, planning should not be entirely left to non-professionals for the sake of collaboration. Expertise is still an obligation; i.e. expertise and local knowledge should go hand-in-hand in planning.

- Collaboration is good, but one should not expect too much from collaborative planning. All the declared views cannot be translated into planning decisions, but, at least they can guide these decisions.

- Collaborative planning is a useful method, since local problems cannot be fully perceived from the center (Ankara). However, the quality of the

participants and what they understand from collaboration is an important determinant of the success of the process.

- Collaboration is an efficient method, but it should not be limited only to the planning phase. Participants should be informed afterwards about the "plan", and they should also be invited to collaborate in the implementation phase.

- Collaborative planning is a method that can achieve the highest level of support from the community. Nevertheless, the involvement of NGOs should be an obligation in a collaborative process, since they can express their views more freely than the public sector participants.

Overall Evaluation of The Criteria Set A

Since the criteria applied here are of a qualitative kind, it is difficult to express their degree of satisfaction in numerical terms. I.e. each of the criteria requires explanatory information --rather than numerical information-- to be better comprehended. Such explanations have been already made for each of them. To sum up the entire explanations, I would attempt to sort of "measure" the satisfaction levels of the criteria as "high, medium or low", taking the statements of the interviewees into consideration:

TABLE 19-DEGREE OF SATISFACTION OF THE CRITERIA SET A

Criteria	Degree of satisfaction		
	High	Medium	Low
A1	√√√		
A2			√
A3	*Not applied*		
A4	√√√		
A5		√√	
A6	√√√		
A7	√√√		

VIII.4.4.3. Intensity of Collaboration (B)

(B1) When and How Often the Relevant Stakeholders Involved in the Process

In Figure 6, the four phases of the entire planning process have been given. It is possible to say that the stakeholders involved in all of these phases in this or that manner.

In the pre-collaborative stage, namely in the **initial stage** (February-June 2002), the Plan Preparation Team that located in Ankara gathered information from national-local public and non-public organizations related to demographic, natural, societal, agricultural, industrial, touristic, cultural, spatial, housing, technical and social infrastructural dimensions; and prepared a preliminary analysis report. The contribution of the local organizations to the information gathering phase can be treated sort of collaboration. On April 1, 2002, this report was discussed in Şanlıurfa with local public institutions and NGOs, and corrected via their contributions.

The finalized analysis report was then transferred to the relevant public institutions and NGOs in Şanlıurfa. The following stage, namely the **1st stage** (17-18 June, 2002) was held in Şanlıurfa with multi-sectorial participation of stakeholders. Participants were divided into sub-groups according to their field of expertise and collaborated to determine the problems on the sectors mentioned above.

Plan Preparation Team prepared a report in Ankara synthesizing the findings of the first stage. The **2nd Stage** (24-25 October, 2002) was held in Ankara. In this stage, relying on the findings of the first stage; strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the Province were determined via the collaboration of public/private sectors and NGOs. Then the mentioned groups worked together to establish the vision, strategies and aims related to the spatial, economical, social and cultural development of the Province.

In the final stage, namely in the **3rd stage** (October 2002-July 2003), depending on the determined vision, strategies and aims, Plan Preparation Team produced the plan and implementation program in Ankara. The plan, then, was presented to the Governor, public institutions, NGOs in a meeting held in Şanlıurfa. The Team received the views of local parties on the plan, and finalized it with respect to the results of this meeting.

The table below summarizes which stakeholder(s) involved in what stages:

TABLE 20-LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT OF PARTIES IN THE ENTIRE PROCESS

Stages	Scope	Involved parties								Type of involvement
		GAP Administration	Academics	National public institutions	Local public institutions	Local university	National NGOs	Local NGOs	Local private sector	
Initial stage	Information gathering and preparation of a preliminary report	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	• One way information flow to Ankara-GAP Administration Office • Synthesis of this information by the GAP Administration and academics
First stage	Analysis of the existing situation and determination of the problems through public ınvolvement	+	+		+	+		+	+	Collaboration of all the stakeholders
Second stage	Determination of the vision, strategies and aims	+	+		+	+		+	+	Collaboration of all the stakeholders
Third stage	Preparation of the plan and ımplementation program	+	+							Having collaborated in stages 1 and 2, preparation of the plan by the GAP Administration staff via the consultancy of academics

The sign (+) in the shaded areas indicates the involvement of the parties in the related stage.

(B2) The Extent to Which Stakeholders Received Information about the Successive Stages and Were Consulted

In the opinion of Bramwell and Sharman, information flow and consultation activities are likely to increase the accountability of a collaborative process to relevant stakeholders. Considering the Şanlıurfa PDP, public sector interviewees mention that they received information about the results of the collaborative arrangements in which they participated. Besides, they were informed about the progress of the plan through the meetings held in Şanlıurfa. Moreover, in the same meetings, their views were consulted for further corrections. However, they were not informed about the current stage of the strategic plan; whether it was finished or not.

Only the Directorate of Planning received the Provincial Development Plan in its final form, as it is the responsible body for planning in the Governorship. Nevertheless, as mentioned before, the most involved person in the Directorate was appointed to another public institution outside the Province, and the rest of the staff has not properly examined the Provincial Development Plan yet.

Meanwhile, the non-public sector interviewees explain that they were not given information about the progress. One interviewee states that it was the public sector that always received information, ***not*** the NGOs. Some interviewees are aware how the process developed through their personal contacts with the GAP administrators, not through formal channels. None of the interviewees knows whether the plan was approved or not. Only one interviewee is aware --through his personal efforts-- that the views he presented in the meetings were reflected in the plan.

(B3) The Quality of the Network of Stakeholders: A Permanent One that Allowed Interaction Among the Stakeholders; or a Temporary One Established Only for the Planning Process

Castells and Borja (1997, 155) express that collaboration should take place at all the stages of planning; i.e. from forecasts to monitoring of the projects. In the Şanlıurfa PDP, the arrangements with the local stakeholders can hardly be

assumed as a permanent collaborative process, since they came together only in meetings where they were invited.

Meanwhile, one can still talk about the existence of a network (see Figure 5) that had both local (Plan Execution Board held under the Governorship) and central sides (Plan Preparation Team composed by GAP Administration staff and academics). Nevertheless, this network was composed by a small group; it was a temporary one and it collaborated only during the planning process. That network does not exist anymore.

The absence of a permanent collaborative network is not unique to the Şanlıurfa PDP case; it can be generalized to the entire Turkish planning institution. It has been reasoned with the lack of legislation that obliges collaboration. However, despite this deficiency, the interviews made in Şanlıurfa reveal that institutions among themselves have always come together in some way to discuss on local problems and decide on solutions. Local public institutions are used to coming together in monthly meetings of the Board of Provincial Coordination[48]. Other than these regular meetings, they ask each other for equipment or personnel support. Besides, they sometimes interact with professional chambers on local problems. They state that the insufficient number of NGOs in the region is a pity; their views could contribute to the solutions of local problems.

At the non-public side, amazingly, collaboration is even more rare. Some representatives of professional chambers mention that they carry out certain studies and invite other chambers to have their contributions. They do not come or only very few people participate.

Comparing the collaborative experiences of public and non-public sectors in Şanlıurfa, public side seems to be more involved in collaborative activities; since they have to come together for legal and bureaucratic reasons.

The interaction among them might not be named as a pure collaboration; still, there do exist signs indicating that they have –more or less-- experienced to work

[48] İl Koordinasyon Kurulu

together, and they are willing to do this more intensely also with the non-public sector.

(B4) The Degree to Which The Dialogue Among Participants Reflected Openness and Honesty; and Whether They were Equalized to Declare Their Opinions Freely

All the interviewees express that they were able to mention their views freed from any pressures. They state that there were not any powerful groups that distorted the equality between the participants. The openness, honesty and confidence of participants is regarded as a factor that contributes the democratic content of deliberative planning; which –in the words of the interviewees—was the case in the Şanlıurfa PDP.

(B5) Whether The Participants Were Interested in Sectors Other than Their Fields of Profession

All the interviewees, except one person, mention that they only participated the meetings about their sectors. They were not interested in other meetings. Besides, some public sector interviewees state that they participated the meetings since it was an official duty for them. To understand their interest in participatory public decision-making, they were asked whether they would have participated the meetings if it had not been an official duty. They say that they might have participated if they had had time, opportunity, etc.

Non-public sector, similarly, was asked whether they would have participated the meetings, if they had not been invited. They, unlike the public sector ones, explain that they would have preferred to be invited via an official letter. They regard an official invitation a sign that proves the recognition of their legitimacy.

(B6) The Extent to Which The Participants Were Satisfied with The Intensity of Collaboration

Interviewees seem to be content because of having participated the collaborative arrangements. Nevertheless, they mention some criticisms on these

arrangements as paraphrased below:

- Invited public entities were chosen properly. However, some of them participated the meetings without any preparation or their knowledge was inadequate.

- The number of NGOs was insufficient. Their contribution is very important since they voluntarily represent the problems of real life.

- The duration of the meetings was limited.

- The number of meetings was insufficient.

- The participants had valuable experience, however, whether their experience could have been reflected into the plan is doubtful.

- It is difficult to claim that the contribution of the participants was sufficient; still, they were useful at least to remind certain issues.

- The number of the participants was sufficient. It is not reasonable to increase the number of participants only for the sake of providing large participation.

- Although their number was inadequate in the Province, it was good to invite non-public sector stakeholders besides the public sector ones.

- GAP Administration played a pioneering role in the participatory process. If it had not been involved in the process, participation could not have been realized.

- The Governor of the period was very successful in starting the process. He was a professional and it was his foresight to collaborate with the GAP Administration. Without the GAP Administration, the process would not have been successful.

- Municipality, which is supposed to have the largest say on spatial problems, did not attend the meetings.

- Obviously, larger quantity of participants would have contributed the quality of the process. However, considering the past circumstances in Şanlıurfa, the process still appeared to be a successful one in terms of participation.

- These meetings proved the potential and willingness for collaboration in the Province.

- Some chambers were insensitive to the meetings, and they did not participate although they were invited.

The positive and negative spotlights of the collaborative process in the views of local stakeholders can be summarized as follows:

TABLE 21-COLLABORATIVE PROCESS WITH ITS NEGATIVES AND POSITIVES IN THE VIEWS OF LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

(-)	• **Inadequate knowledge** of participants on local problems/needs • **Disproportionate** quantity of public and non-public sector participants • **Insufficient duration and number** of meetings • **Insensitivity** of the municipality to the process
(+)	• **Undeniable role of GAP** Administration in the success of the collaborative process—i.e. the Plan is **"owned"** by some entity. • Conclusiveness of **leadership** in guiding and sustaining the collaborative process • Local stakeholders' **potential and willingness** to collaborate

Overall Evaluation of The Criteria Set B

Likewise the measurement of the criteria set A, same method is to be applied to measure the satisfaction level of the criteria set B:

TABLE 22-DEGREE OF SATISFACTION OF THE CRITERIA SET B

Criteria	Degree of satisfaction		
	High	Medium	Low
B1		√√	
B2		√√	
B3			√
B4	√√√		
B5			√
B6		√√	

VIII.4.4.3. Degree of Consensus Among Participants (C)

(C1) The Extent to Which There Was Consensus among Stakeholders about The Issues, Policies, Purpose of Policies

In collaborative processes, consensus-building might be difficult. Stakeholders in collaboration might not agree all policies. In some cases, they might even strive for receiving some benefits from it (Bramwell and Sharman 1999, 400). In the case of Şanlıurfa PDP, fortunately, neither of these happened. There seems to have existed full consensus among stakeholders. Besides, it was the public interest, which was looked for; not the private ones. This is because the Plan aimed at development of the Province as a whole; if it had aimed at developing a specific district of an urban area, then the interests might have contradicted.

(C2) Whether The Facilitator of The Process Left Participants Free to Arrive at Consensus or Exercised Control over Their Decisions

When a facilitator steps back to encourage collective decision-making, the intensity of participation is greater (Bramwell and Sharman 1999, 399). In the Şanlıurfa

PDP, the facilitators of the meetings were experts, either from universities or from the GAP Administration staff. They started the sessions by explaining the aim and scope of the meetings; and asked some opening questions to the participants so as to encourage them to express their views. They avoided exercising control over their decisions, but they guided the discussions and summed up expressed views, which –in the case of Şanlıurfa—did not contradict with each other.

(C3) Whether The Stakeholders Are Willing to Implement The Resulting Policies within a Network

All the interviewees mention that they are willing to implement the resulting policies within a network. However, they do not seem to start the "game". Rather, they prefer waiting for some "pioneer" that bring all the stakeholders together and coordinate the network. The views they expressed in this regard are given as follows:

- There should be a superior body (i.e. a network) to implement the Şanlıurfa PDP, which has members from municipalities, public institutions, economic sector and NGOs.

- There should be a coordinating entity of the entire network. GAP Administration can play this role, since it has had considerable experience in the South Eastern Region.

- Central government –somehow—should be in the network. It may provide financial or expertise support. Its support is essential also in bringing together the relevant stakeholders and coordinating them. Local entities might meet difficulties in operating the network by themselves.

- The network should determine short-medium-long term aims and should decide on the financial resources to realize these aims. Without concrete financial basis and an implementation program that depends on this basis, the aims would remain as mere wishes.

- Theoretically, there has to be "continuity" in state works. In other words,

even if a public administrator changes, the already-made decisions have to be implemented by the new administrator. However, in practice, this does not happen. The Governor of the period showed great performance to organize the Şanlıurfa PDP process and realize the plan in a collaborative manner. Unfortunately, he was appointed to the governorship of another province. The Provincial Development Plan has been finished; however, nobody knows whether the new Governor is informed about it, and whether he is willing to implement it.

- So as to provide continuity in state works, there have to be legal constraints. This is the only way to implement the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan.

- The public entities are not fully aware of what a collaborative network is. Therefore, first of all they have to be educated in this sense. Then, the collaborative working should be obliged by law.

- Awareness-raising is very important. Local non-public groups should be informed about the existence of a network, and they should be encouraged to participate in this network. Above all, their level of education should be improved so that they can develop a consciousness towards collective decision-making.

- NGOs should take over coordinating and monitoring roles in such a network. If they are excluded, public bodies may contradict with each other in a horizontal formation such as network; since they are used to working in certain hierarchies. For example; a hierarchically inferior public institution cannot order some duty to a superior one, even if they are organized within a network. On the contrary, an NGO can coordinate them; order them some duties since it has nothing to do with such a hierarchy. If a public institution objects to an assigned duty, the NGO in charge can easily declare this in the media, since it has no fears like being sued, etc. However, public employees cannot complain from each other, since they all are in the public sector.

- The coordinators of the network should have close relations with the center (Ankara), so as to receive financial support for projects.

- NGOs and professional chambers should develop projects on a voluntary basis and transfer them to public institutions for realization.

The “musts” of an efficient collaborative network that are mentioned by local stakeholders can be summarized with the following items:

1. The network should have a **multisectorial membership structure** including representatives of from municipalities, public institutions, local university, economic sector and NGOs,

2. Coordinating role of the network should be taken over by the **central government** or by one of its experienced organs (such as **GAP Administration**),

3. **A concrete financial basis** should be defined to realize aims of the strategic plan,

4. The PDP should have a **legal-binding status**; i.e. it has to be implemented within the determined period even if the administrators change,

5. **Collaborative culture** should be given local stakeholders before they take roles in the network,

6. NGOs should be especially given **monitoring roles** in the network, since they are civil entities that can voluntarily control whether the plan is implemented properly or not.

So, such a collaborative network can be schematized simply as in Figure 10:

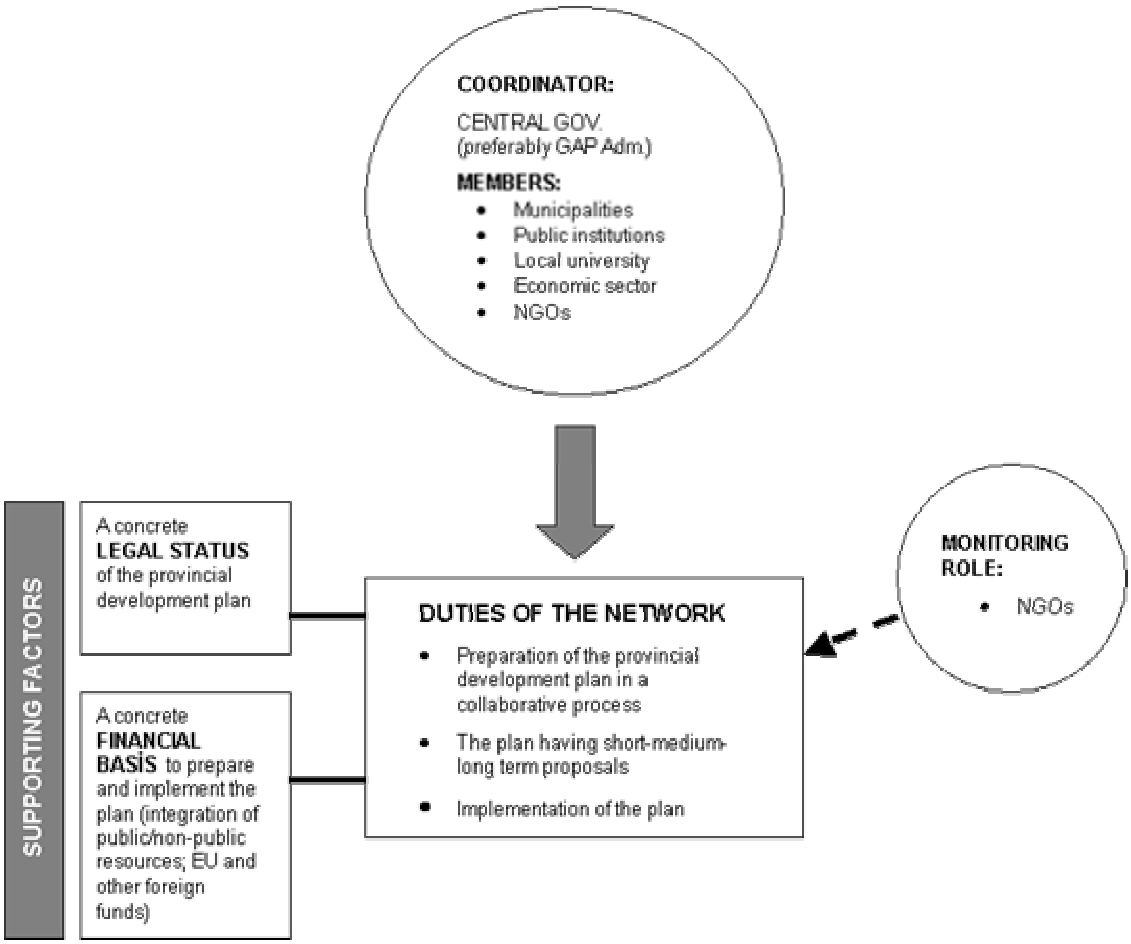


FIGURE 10-NETWORK PROPOSAL OF LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

Overall Evaluation of The Criteria Set C

Similar measurement method is to be applied to understand the satisfaction level of the criteria set C:

TABLE 23-DEGREE OF SATISFACTION OF THE CRITERIA SET C

Criteria	Degree of satisfaction		
	High	Medium	Low
C1	√√√		
C2	√√√		
C3	√√√		

VIII.4.5. ASSESSMENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLAN: THE CONTENT / STATUS / FORM OF ŞANLIURFA PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The first three columns of the criteria table (Table 16) have been to assess to what extent collaborative the Şanlıurfa PDP Process was. The final two columns of the same table are developed to evaluate the content/status/form of the Provincial Development Plan. The “musts“ of a strategic plan have been elaborated in Section V.4, which are summarized below:

- While mainstream land-use plans simply seek to regulate physical development; strategic plans basically aim at attaining competitive advantage for the locality on some economic sector; and improving urban and environmental quality.

- Strategic plans do not need to have a national legal-binding status; as do the territorial plans. They are generally non-statutory.

- The general development strategies of strategic plans allow continuous reformulation of policies; i.e. they are flexible.

- Strategic plans do not need to be represented as “territorial physical maps”. Rather, they are generally written documents with “territorializable” objectives.

- Strategic plans do have non-spatial development policies (on a wider range of social, economic, political issues) as well as the spatial ones.

- Strategic plans include short-medium-long term projects (in an action plan)

In order to evaluate the conformity of the Şanlıurfa PDP to the first item above, the views of the local stakeholders have been asked on the weak and strong aspects of the Province, and the capability of the “vision” to improve its competitiveness (Criteria column D). The remaining items refer to some technical issues like status and form of a strategic plan; thus they do not need to be evaluated with regard to the views of the local stakeholders. The final column of Table 14 includes technical criteria to understand whether the above items are satisfied by the Şanlıurfa PDP.

VIII.4.5.1. Content of The Strategic Plan: SWOT and Vision (D)

The vision of a strategic plan reflects the aim of improving the comparative or competitive advantage of a locality. The prerequisite of establishing the vision is carrying out a SWOT analysis. The SWOT analysis discovers strong and weak aspects of, and opportunities and threats for a locality. Such an analysis was carried out in the Şanlıurfa PDP with local stakeholders; and the vision, strategies and policies of the strategic plan were established accordingly. The interviews held in the Province included questions to understand

1. How local stakeholders perceive the strengths/opportunities and weaknesses/threats of their Province,
2. And whether the vision and related strategies correspond to the views of local stakeholders.

(D1) The Weak Aspects of and Threats for Şanlıurfa in The Views of The Local Stakeholders

Stakeholders mention the following views related to the weaknesses of and threats for the Province:

Weaknesses/Threats in Economic Sectors

- Extended bureaucratic procedures discourage entrepreneurs from investing in the Province. Bureaucracy should be simplified.

- There should be “region-specific” and even “province-specific” investment-encouraging policies. The promotions for investment do not need to be definitely financial; they can be in the form of tax reductions; free-of-charge state services for a certain period (e.g. electricity).

- Agriculture is important in the Province, but unfortunately, only cotton is cultivated at large quantities although the land is suitable for the cultivation of other plants. This means that the farmers need to be educated and encouraged for other cultivation.

- The education of farmers is important also in directing them where to invest the money they earn from agricultural activity. They can be guided to invest on agriculture-based industry.

- The dominant industrial sector in the Organized Industrial District is textile. However, there is no variety in textile products. Manufacturing and painting stages are lacking. This is because the industrial investors are not courageous to try new production that nobody experienced before.

Weaknesses/Threats in Education

- Education level in the Province is rather low.

- The community is not only unconscious about public issues, but also

insensitive to them. The plan would not be successfully implemented without improving the consciousness level of local community.

- There is a university in Şanlıurfa, however the quantity of the academic staff is not adequate.

Weaknesses/Threats in Administration

- Şanlıurfa lacks enthusiastic leaders that could play pioneering roles in accelerating development.

- There do not exist problems in receiving adequate financial resources for the Province. The problem is in utilizing these resources effectively. Public institutions cannot use financial resources effectively on time. This problem relates to lack of qualified personnel that can allocate resources rationally for public investments.

- After the 1980s, conservative political views of the leaders both in municipal and provincial administrations led to the underdevelopment of Şanlıurfa. This conservative mentality was sustained until the appointment of the last Governor. He was such a literate statesman who contributed to the development of Şanlıurfa to a great extent.

Weaknesses/Threats Related To Urban Issues

- There are geographical constraints that prevent urban development. The central town Şanlıurfa is bounded either with fertile agricultural land on which urban development is prohibited; or with sloppy mountains on which urban development is physically impossible.

- Inadequate urbanization is a serious problem in Şanlıurfa. New housing areas should be developed, since within the existing ones the prices have reached at unaffordable levels. They have become even equal to the prices prevailing in Istanbul and Ankara. New housing areas are also necessary for rural-to-urban migrants, since Şanlıurfa receives remarkable

inward migration.

- Pace of population increase is rather high. Fertility rate is above the country average. Public services (education, health, etc.) are, therefore, insufficient to meet the demands of large population, caused by both high rate of fertility and inward migration.

Weaknesses/Threats in Transportation

- The location of Şanlıurfa is rather distant from important markets. This prevents Şanlıurfa from proper competition.

- Transportation is a serious problem for the Province. The only port that connects the province to abroad is the Mersin Port which is 550 kms. far from Şanlıurfa.

- Railway is the most important transportation mode in developed countries. Nevertheless, the railroad connection is weak both within and across the country. It should be developed for cheaper and safer transportation of passengers and commodities.

(D2) The Strong Aspects of and Opportunities for Şanlıurfa in The Views of The Local Stakeholders

Meanwhile, the local stakeholders explain the strong aspects of and opportunities for the Province as follows:

Strengths/Opportunities in Agriculture and Agriculture-Based Industry

- Şanlıurfa can be competitive in agricultural sector. Today, the 70% of the total income of the Province belongs to this sector.

- The Province has remarkable agricultural potential. Farmers should be guided and product diversity should be created.

- Being the center of the GAP Project is the strongest characteristic of Şanlıurfa. Irrigated agriculture started in the Province and industrial plants were begun cultivating.

- The industry, which can be competitive, seems to be agriculture-based industry. GAP Project can contribute the competitiveness of the Province in this sense, since the project is continuously increasing the quantity of irrigated land.

- The textile products are exported to European countries. The completion of the international airport –which is currently under construction— is very important in this sense, since it can not only increase the level of export in textile, but also can allow the export of agricultural products.

- Agriculture-based industry can easily be developed in the Province, which, in turn, can create employment for the local community.

Strengths/Opportunities in Tourism

- Şanlıurfa can create a comparative advantage in tourism both in national and international terms.

- Locating on the historical Silk Road, Şanlıurfa is a province at the border of Syria. This contributes to cross-border commerce. The advantages of being a "border" province can be utilized to improve international commerce with Middle Eastern countries.

- Geographical proximity to the Middle Eastern countries is an advantage of the Province for the tourism sector.

- Şanlıurfa is already competitive in agriculture; it can be also competitive in tourism, which has not been succeeded yet. Tourism needs support from the central government.

- The Province consists of a great variety of historical/cultural assets, which

can be utilized to improve tourism.

- Particularly “religious tourism” can be the competitive advantage of the Province. The most peculiar characteristic of the Province is being the only settlement in the world that is sacred for Muslims, Christians and Jewish.

- The local community should be informed about the profits that can be made from tourism. Presently, they are so conservative that they may not be pleased with promotion of their Province as the integration point of the three religions.

- There is remarkable cultural heritage within the South Eastern Region, for which there is a EU-funded project now. If such a project is developed particularly for Şanlıurfa, which has a significant amount of cultural heritage, it can easily become competitive in tourism internationally.

(D3) Whether These Aspects Were Included in The Plan

There is a chapter on the Advantages, Constraints and Development Opportunities for The Province in the Şanlıurfa PDP (see pp. C-8_C-10 of Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı).

As far as the **advantages** are concerned, the Plan puts forward the following items:

1. Proximity to the Middle East,
2. Fertile agricultural land,
3. High rate of young population,
4. Cultural/national wealth,
5. Religious identity,
6. Human and economic capital that is currently outside the Province.

Meanwhile, with regard to the **constraints**, the Plan mentions the items below:

1. The geographical constraints that increase transportation costs, and that

negatively influence on interrelations of the Province with the markets outside the South Eastern Region,

2. Gaziantep, as a more developed neighbor city, preventing the attractiveness of Şanlıurfa,
3. Traditional conservative social dynamics constituting barriers for development,
4. High rate of population increase with the problems of uneven income distribution and unemployment,
5. Low level of education, in particular among women,
6. Unqualified young population,
7. Inefficient use of agricultural land due to traditional social relations,
8. Ignorance on how to use the money earned,
9. Some factors in the socio-economic structure preventing development,
10. Inadequate technical infrastructure.

With these advantages and constraints, the Plan explains the **development opportunities** of the Province as follows:

- Utilization of water and land resources for agricultural production with respect to the principles of sustainability; and marketing agricultural products at both national and international levels,
- Improvement of agriculture-based industry and selling the products to international markets, prioritizing the Middle Eastern countries
- Preservation of cultural and natural assets and utilization of them for tourism and service purposes
- Benefiting from the strategic location of the Province; improvement of transportation facilities

Comparing the views of local stakeholders and the context of the Plan in terms of the advantages, constraints and development opportunities of the Province, they overlap to a great extent. This shows that the SWOT analysis was carried out on a “real” collaborative basis, and thus, the Plan reflects the local views in this regard.

(D4) In What Field(s) Şanlıurfa can Be Competitive in The Opinions of The Stakeholders, and Whether The Vision of The Strategic Plan Was Set Accordingly

The interviewees highlight two sectors that can be competitive in both national and international terms. These are *agriculture-based industry* and *tourism that mainly relies on the religious identity* of the Province. The mentioned views correspond to the vision of the Plan:

> *"Within the framework drawn by the principles of sustainability and participation; improvement of the quality of life in the Şanlıurfa Province and attainment of the country average, starting from the sectors of agriculture and tourism and expanding into other sectors."*

The interviewees state that this vision completely reflects their opinion on "how to develop Şanlıurfa". They express that the vision is a realistic one, i.e. it can be attained as long as proper implementation measures are taken. Only one interviewee says that it is not necessary to develop agricultural sector anymore, since it is an already developed sector and can develop on its own without intervention. In his opinion, it is the tourism sector that waits for support.

Overall Evaluation of The Criteria Set D

The criteria in this set are to understand how far the views of the stakeholders are applied in making the SWOT analysis and in determining the content of the strategic plan. It is apparent from the answers of the interviewees that their views are nearly fully taken into account:

TABLE 24-DEGREE OF SATISFACTION OF THE CRITERIA SET D

Criteria	Degree of satisfaction		
	High	Medium	Low
D1	√√√		
D2	√√√		
D3	√√√		
D4	√√√		

VIII.4.5.2. Status and Form of The Strategic Plan (E)

(E1) Whether the Plan Has a Legal-binding Status

The status of PDP in the Turkish planning system has been already mentioned in Sections VII.3.2.1 and VII.3.2.2. Nevertheless, it will be re-examined here in order to understand whether it is legally-binding or not. The PDP has been only mentioned within the 8th Five-Year National Development Plan. Art.497 of the Plan describes the PDP as follows:

> "*Provincial Development Planning studies, which are compatible with regional plans, are to be started so as to diminish the effect of uneven income distribution; accelerate the pace of regional development and allocate resources rationally; ... all related parties are to participate the planning and implementation processes"* (State Planning Organization 2000, 63).

Nevertheless, the PDP does not have a legal-binding status, as it has not been mentioned within a law. Presently, there is a Draft Law on Local Administration Reform, which has been revised several times. In one of the previous versions, it was one of the duties of the Special Provincial Administrations to make the PDPs prepare. But, the current draft does not mention the PDP. Instead, it talks about the preparation of a "strategic plan" by governorships in Art.31:

> *"Following the national elections of local administrations, within 6-month time, the Governor, in compliance with the development plan*

and environmental master plan, prepares the middle or long-term strategic plan and its work program, related to infrastructure, transportation, environment, agriculture and forestry, health, education, industry and commerce, energy, public works, village services, drinking and irrigation water, urban development, solid waste, natural disasters, protection of cultural heritage, and other services,…and presents it to the Provincial General Assembly.

The strategic plan and its work program on annual basis are prepared having received the views of the NGOs, professional chambers, universities (if exist) and unions; and they are put into force after having been approved exactly or with modifications by the Provincial General Assembly…"

The strategic plan described in the present draft resembles the PDP. However, since the term "PDP " is not mentioned, it is not possible to treat it as legal-binding yet. In fact, literature on the strategic spatial planning says that strategic plans do not need to have legal-binding status. However, practical examples prove that in the absence of a legal-binding status, a strategic plan may be deactivated when the actors in an administration change. A strategic plan's fate is so much related to the political will and personality of the replacing actors (Steinberg 2003, 3-6).

(E2) The Extent to which the General Development Strategy (Vision) is Flexible:

The general development strategy (vision) for the Şanlıurfa Province has been determined as improvement of agriculture, agriculture-based industry, and tourism that is mainly based on the religious identity of the Province. The Şanlıurfa PDP includes strategies, policies and targets to achieve this vision by 2010 (This year is also targeted by the South Eastern Region Regional Development Plan).

With the mentioned strategies, policies and targets; Şanlıurfa PDP is a framework for action, as any strategic plan is supposed to be. These strategies, policies and targets are in the "written" form within the plan document. The flexibility of a strategic plan lies here: Those written statements need not to be interpreted in

one single direction. They can be “territorialized” in alternative manners depending on the conditions of the time being. Nevertheless, they should be realized in obedience with the guidelines of the plan map.

The generality of the map of a strategic plan allows the so-called flexibility. The plan map mainly includes three basic sets of issues:

1. The areas to be protected (agricultural areas, natural/historical sites),
2. The areas where urban development is possible (zones for housing, industry, services, etc.)
3. Main transportation decisions (main highway routes, railway routes, airports, ports, etc.)

Ones the above principles are obeyed; the written statements can be territorialized via the deliberation of national/local public and non-public actors (private sector, universities, NGO, professional chambers).

Handling the Şanlıurfa PDP, its plan map complies with these principles: It is drawn on the scale of 1/200 000 (i.e. a general-enough scale). The plan map shows inhabitable areas; non-inhabitable areas; industrial, agricultural, tourism areas; and transportation routes (Appendix- Plan Map). The strategies, policies and targets in the Şanlıurfa PDP are considered to be realized, obeying the general development guidelines of this map.

(E3) Whether the Plan Has a Different Form than Traditional Physical Plans

Traditional territorial plans do include precisely determined land-uses on any scale. On the other hand, strategic spatial plans contain policy documents and a simple map in the form of a guideline (as explained above). Şanlıurfa PDP has been produced in this manner; i.e. it includes a detailed policy document together with a plan map of 1/200 000 scale.

(E4) Whether the Plan is a Multi-Sectorial One

Strategic spatial plans are more beyond physical plans; they have a concern for the development of a locality in any sector. Şanlıurfa PDP complies with this principle. It includes a wide range of strategies, policies, and targets related to education, health, social services, agriculture, industry, services, spatial development, cultural heritage, environment, and technical infrastructure.

(E5) Whether the Plan Includes Short-Medium-Long Term Projects (Action Plan)

So as to attain the vision, a strategic spatial plan includes strategies, policies and targets. Şanlıurfa PDP, too, consists of strategies, policies and targets; which are supposed to be attained by the year 2010. Meanwhile, the plan also consists of an *implementation program,* which includes concrete public projects with time horizons (those to be finished until 2010, those to be finished after 2010). The implementation program has been prepared in accordance with the strategies, policies and targets of the plan. Other strategic planning cases can name this implementation program as "action plan". An action plan includes concrete projects with implementing actors, financial bases and time horizons. Filiz Doğanay (one of the consultants of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process) says that any plan --to be properly implemented-- should have an implementation program, which is based on a financial scheme. Without an implementation program, the plan would remain as mere wishes.

Table 25 reveals the public investment program for the periods of 2003-2010 and 2010 onwards. In accordance with the vision of the plan, agriculture receives the greatest public support. Tourism and industry do not receive such a public support. Rather than providing direct support to these sectors, the plan supports infrastructure (transportation, energy), which can attract these sectors to the Province. The table also displays that upgrading of low-profile social context is particularly targeted via giving support to education and health sectors. Meanwhile, improvement of urban quality is aimed at through investing on drinking water and sewage, and urban development sectors.

TABLE 25- ŞANLIURFA PDP PUBLIC INVESTMENT PROGRAM
(2003 prices, billion T.L.)

SECTOR	2003-2010	Share in total investments	2010+	Share in total investments
Agriculture	4415059	65,8%	292308	63,9%
Energy	79415	1,2%		
Transportation	725946	10,8%		
Communication	7000	0,1%		
Tourism	5636	0,1%		
Education (education+culture)	324155	4,8%	15860	3,5%
Health	108813	1,6%		
Social services +environ. +municipal services	51487	0,8%	8177	1,8%
Infrastructure (drinking water +sewage)	751616	11,2%	82733	18,1%
Urban development	214068	3,2%	25395	5,5%
Petty industry	22150	0,3%	33125	7,2%
TOTAL	6705345	100%	457598	100%

*derived from Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan

Overall Evaluation of The Criteria Set E

The criteria in this set have been to understand how far the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan has complied with the technical characteristics of a strategic plan. The status and form of the plan have been evaluated in this part. It is possible to conclude that the Şanlıurfa PDP technically satisfies the characteristics of any strategic plan.

TABLE 26-DEGREE OF SATISFACTION OF THE CRITERIA SET E

Criteria	Degree of satisfaction		
	High	Medium	Low
E1	√√√		
E2	√√√		
E3	√√√		
E4	√√√		
E5	√√√		

VIII.4.6. OVERALL EVALUATION OF THE CRITERIA

As stated previously, the planning process (how) and the plan (what) are both important in strategic spatial planning. Therefore, this research has evaluated the quality of the planning process, and the content/form of the strategic plan with reference to the criteria set given in Table 16.

The quality of collaboration in a planning process is difficult to measure objectively for two reasons: First difficulty arises from the obligation to apply *qualitative* criteria, which cannot be given numerical values. Secondly, as the strategic spatial planning is a *contingent* process –which has very much to do with nation/local-specific circumstances--, contingent factors shape the quality of the process in this or that way.

This is to say that the evaluation of the process simply with regard to general criteria would be oversimplification. Satisfaction level of the criteria can be influenced by the contingencies in a planning process. Evaluating merely with respect to the criteria, the Şanlıurfa PDP process seems to have attained an upper-medium level of success in terms of collaboration (See Tables 19, 22, 23). However, this high degree of success is amazing, considering the local features; i.e. the inferior socio-economic context and lack of civic networks (that means a low-profile "social capital"). Because, in a peripheral locality with low-profile social context, establishment of a collaborative process is assumed to be rather difficult, compared to those localities with higher-profile social contexts. Despite the immaturity of social capital, how does the Şanlıurfa PDP Process appear to

have been successfully realized? There should be some specific factors that played role

in this success. I would make following inferences, which could explain the success of the process:

1.) PDP is not a *voluntarily-organized* action, unlike it is stated in the literature on strategic spatial planning. This is a nation-specific deviation from what the literature says: PDP has been proposed by the SPO, and the responsibility has been assigned to provinces. Considering the development gap between the provinces of Turkey, I would claim that if the PDP were a voluntary local action, peripheral provinces would never be eager to perform it due to socio-economic reasons. Vis-à-vis this picture, it is reasonable to assign the duty of organizing PDP to some public entity in a national formal document, rather than leaving it as a voluntary action. Therefore, it is possible to claim that a collaborative planning process can be realized successfully even within a low-level social context, in condition that it is "possessed" by experienced and willing key actors.

2.) The key actors of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process come forefront as the main factors of the success of the process: The Governor of the Province, as an enthusiastic statesman, wanted to cooperate with the GAP Administration, since he trusted in the experience and capability of the Administration. Local stakeholders also verify that GAP Administration has had considerable experience in the region and in the Province. The entire process was carried out through the "top-down" coordination of the GAP Administration. Meanwhile, the Governorship also displayed considerable effort for the successful realization of the process. If the PDP process had been defined as a voluntary local action, and had been left to the will of provinces, it is doubtful whether the local actors of Şanlıurfa could have been organized in themselves to start a local development project, as the collaborative civic activities in the Province have not been matured enough. So, the top-down orientation of the process by the GAP Administration (a contingency of the Şanlıurfa PDP) seems to have facilitated the success of the Şanlıurfa PDP.

3.) The above inferences lead to a further indirect inference: When a collaborative process is sort of “possessed” by a public entity, it can be realized successfully even within a peripheral locality with low-level social capital. Nevertheless, this does not degrade the importance of the social capital, on the contrary, upgrades it. This is to say that for “voluntary” local actions to be successfully realized, the quality of social capital (civic engagements, social networks, voluntary associations) matters. Obviously, if the level of associability in a community is high, this means that the members of that community are sensitive to societal issues, and they can voluntarily collaborate for the improvement of their locality.

4.) The successful realization of the planning process does not necessarily guarantee its successful implementation. As mentioned, in the Şanlıurfa case, the quality of social capital did not emerge as a major variable in the success of the planning stage, due to the factors explained in the first two items above. However, it can play a crucial role in the success (or failure) of the *implementation* stage. Because, unlike the planning stage, in the implementation stage the local stakeholders will not be simply asked their views on the problems and solutions of the Province. They themselves will be the actors of the implementation phase.

The first two inferences above, in fact, come up as the national and local contingencies, which explain the successful realization of the Şanlıurfa PDP Process. So, when evaluating the “process”, both the ***commonplace criteria*** and the ***contingent factors*** should be taken into consideration. On the other hand, as far as the “plan” is concerned, only the vision of the plan can reflect some local characteristic (agriculture-based development for Şanlıurfa). For other features of the plan, the criteria are not affected by contingent factors: The content/status/form of the plan can be evaluated objectively, since these are the technical features of any strategic plan. The criteria in the set D are nearly fully satisfied; i.e. the content of the strategic plan overlaps to the views of the stakeholders. Meanwhile, it is possible to say that other technical criteria (set E) are entirely satisfied. That is, the Şanlıurfa PDP has been produced in a manner to reflect the technical features of a strategic plan.

VIII.4.7. A MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

The collaborativeness of Şanlıurfa PDP has been assessed regarding the views of the local stakeholders; since they themselves were the actors of the planning process. During the interviewing stage, they expressed both the positives and negatives of the process. It is possible to infer that local stakeholders were satisfied with the planning process and plan, although they expressed certain negatives. Nevertheless, they seemed to have concerns on "how to implement the plan". Thus, they mentioned their ideas about "a network of stakeholders" for efficient planning and implementation of the PDP Process. I have attempted to sum up their views in a network model for the Şanlıurfa PDP (See Figure 10). Naturally, Figure 10 displays a network proposal for preparation/implementation of a particular PDP; i.e. the Şanlıurfa PDP. Case studies are not representatives of entire populations, nor they claim to be. A case can only be generalized to similar cases (Garson 2002). So, the network proposal in Figure 10 is only relevant to the Şanlıurfa PDP (as it defines GAP Administration as a key actor, etc).

In fact, the Şanlıurfa PDP does have a proposal of a "network", similar to what the local stakeholders desired: The plan suggests a *management model*, since it has been demanded in the Work Program of the SPO for the efficient implementation of Provincial Development Plans. The Work Program says that the model should be designed in such a way to include voluntary organizations, and it should provide conditions for the collaboration of local administrations in a province (Ersoy and Şengül 2003).

The Plan Preparation Team for Şanlıurfa has proposed the establishment of "Union of Şanlıurfa Local Administrations"[49] as it would be easily realized within the conditions of existing legislation. In other words, such a model does not require the enactment of a new law to be realized. The Union would include municipalities of the Şanlıurfa Province, Provincial Special Administration, local public institutions, and local NGOs. The Plan Document states that the Union would mainly work as a "monitoring authority" during the implementation stage; i.e. it would monitor the simultaneous realization of public investments on an annual basis, besides its

[49] Şanlıurfa Yerel Yönetimler Birliği

other duties (See Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı). Below table summarizes the members and duties of the Union:

TABLE 27- MANAGEMENT MODEL OF THE ŞANLIURFA PDP (UNION OF ŞANLIURFA LOCAL ADMINISTRATIONS)

FOUNDERS OF THE UNION	***PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS*** • Şanlıurfa Governorship • Local Branch of GAP Administration • Municipalities within the Şanlıurfa Province • Regional Directorate of State Water Works • Regional Directorate of Village Works • Provincial Directorate of the Bank of Provinces • Regional Directorate of Agricultural Reform • TEDAŞ • Türk Telekom A.Ş ***NON-PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS/INSTITUTIONS*** • Provincial Coordination Council of the Union of Chambers of Turkish Engineers and Architects (TMMOB) • Şanlıurfa Representativeness of the Chamber of City Planners • Chamber of Agricultural Engineers • Harran University • ŞURKAV • Şanlıurfa Chamber of Industry and Commerce • ŞUSİYAD • Union of Tradesmen and Craftsmen
AIM AND SCOPE	• Implementation of the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Plan within an efficient participatory process • Monitoring of the simultaneous realization of public investments in the Province
ORGANS OF THE UNION	• Union Assembly • Union Council • Union Head
HEAD OF THE UNION	Governor of the Şanlıurfa Province (Assistants: Şanlıurfa Mayor and Director of GAP Administration Regional Branch)
INCOME OF THE UNION	• Shares from the members of the Union • Grants from the general budget • Fees for the services of the Union • All kinds of grants • Voluntary contributions for the expenditures of the Union • Various incomes

The interviews held in Şanlıurfa reveal three basic desires of local stakeholders: Multi-actor involvement in the planning and implementation process; a concrete legal status for provincial development planning; a concrete financial basis to realize the ends of the plan (See Figure 10). As the planning stage was already completed, the above model has been designed only for the implementation stage. Still, it seems to satisfy the wills of the local people: Table 27 displays that the multi-actor involvement is met by the management model proposed within the Şanlıurfa PDP. Besides, the model proposes a concrete financial basis, which is supposed to be an obligation for a plan to be implemented. Finally, the Union, if it were established, would already find its place within the existing legislation.

Nevertheless, there do exist certain obstacles in front of the model. First of all, PDPs have not achieved a legal status yet; so the model has to wait until they are mentioned within the legislation. Secondly, even if the PDPs achieve a legal status, as there is a Draft Law on the establishment of Regional Development Agencies (see Section VII.3.2.) in the agenda of the country, it might be difficult to establish a Union of Local Administrations. RDAs could carry out the duties assigned to the Union. What is more, such a model cannot be generalized nationwide, as it mentions specific actors of the Şanlıurfa Province (though it is not difficult to redefine the actors for each specific province). Finally, since it only refers to the implementation stage, for the Provinces who have not started their PDP processes yet, the model would not serve during the planning stage.

Strategic spatial planning is not only concerned with the planning stage, but also with implementation and monitoring stages. Obviously, how the actors come together and what roles they play in these three stages may change in each specific PDP. Although their roles may differentiate, it is still possible –at least—to define the actors for any PDP process, as to be done in the below table:

TABLE 28- ACTORS AND ROLES IN A PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Actors that should involve in the process	Way of involvement				
	Coordination	Problem definition /Decision-making	Financial involvement	Implementation	Monitoring
Central government (and/or its local branches)		√	√	√	
Regional Administration (RDAs; union-like structures)	√ *	√	√	√	√ **
Governorship	√ *	√	√	√	
Municipalities		√	√	√	
Private sector		√	√	√	
Universities, scientific institutions		√			
NGOs (including professional chambers)		√		√	√ ***

Strategic planning activities can be realized as voluntary processes without legal status. The methodology and content of the PDP correspond to that of any strategic planning, nevertheless, it needs to be legally-binding so as to be properly realized, implemented and monitored. Because, it is a national policy in the 8th Five-Year Plan, and is described as a necessity for the improvement of provinces of Turkey. The law on PDP should identify aims, stages, actors, financial basis and other measures. Presently, completed provincial development plans are presented to the State Planning Organization (SPO), and the SPO controls them. However, this is not a proper approval procedure. Therefore, the law could give the approval duty to the SPO, since it is the initiator of the PDP processes.

√* As the responsibility of PDP is given to governorships, they should coordinate the entire process. For the Şanlıurfa case, stakeholders mention that the GAP Administration should have the coordinative authority, as it is specialized on the problems and needs of the Region. Their opinion can be expanded to other PDP cases: As discussed before, PDPs are part of the *regional development policy* of the country. Currently, regional administrations do not exist in the system except for the GAP region. However, there is a draft law on the establishment of regional development agencies. Once they are established, they should collaborate with governorships in coordinating the PDP process. Alternatively, union-like structures as proposed in the Şanlıurfa PDP can also be established to carry out planning/implementation/monitoring stages.

√**RDAs could also take over the monitoring duty over planning and implementation stages.

√ ***NGOs are voluntary organizations, and it is up to their will to take role in the process. They could volunteer to take roles in the monitoring stage, since they can freely declare improper implementations, disregarding the hierarchical positions of the institutions.

VIII.5. HOW SOCIAL CONTEXT WORKS IN PLANNING: A COMPARATIVE DISCUSSION WITH REGARD TO THE CASES OF ŞANLIURFA AND KOCAELİ

The research above has discussed the strategic spatial planning with reference to the case of the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning. It has evaluated the planning process and the plan through applying certain criteria, and emphasizing contingent factors which affected the satisfaction level of these criteria. As discussed, the Şanlıurfa Province displays low-profile development figures, and suffers from adequate number of civic associations and networks (social capital). Notwithstanding, the research above proves that the local stakeholders managed to collaborate in a successful manner in this strategic planning process, since the process was initiated by the highest planning organization of the country (SPO), and since it was coordinated "top-down" (co-operation of GAP Administration and Şanlıurfa Governorship). The entire process was formalized in a protocol signed between Şanlıurfa Governorship and GAP Regional Development Administration; and they committed the task of "coordinating a collaborative process" in a formal way.

As the process was coordinated by national-level public institutions, local public institutions had to perform the tasks given by their superiors. So, when they were invited by the Governorship to participate the planning process, they had to obey this invitation. During the interviewing stage, public sector interviewees mentioned that they participated the meetings, since that was their official duty. If it had been a voluntary activity, they might have participated or not, depending on the location/time of the meetings and also their other doings. Meanwhile, local NGOs, though not all of them, did participate; but not with so much enthusiasm (They did not follow how the process was progressing, whether the plan was approved, etc.). All the stakeholders –both public and non-public— were pleased because of having participated the meetings; however, they did not follow what happened afterwards. This would lead us to the inference that local people of Şanlıurfa may not have voluntarily organized a local collaborative planning process under some other circumstances.

Assuming what Putnam suggests (see Section VI.2.2), it is possible to see the reverse of the picture; i.e. a strategic planning process in a locality, which has a high level of social capital; and which has been organized voluntarily. In what follows, just as Putnam compares two macro-regions of Italy with different social contexts, I would compare the Şanlıurfa PDP case to another strategic planning case of a more "civic" province; i.e. the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process. The Kocaeli case can be good for comparison, as the Kocaeli Province is known to be one of the core provinces with its high socio-economic profile.

The case of Kocaeli will not be handled in detail in this study. It will be just "touched" at its certain points, so as to reveal the characteristics of a collaborative planning process in a more civic province. The provinces of Turkey do not demonstrate homogeneous development figures; i.e. the country is composed by developed, semi-developed, and underdeveloped provinces. Şanlıurfa emerges as an underdeveloped province; whereas Kocaeli comes forefront as a developed one with its highest amount of GNP per capita in the country. While the former suffers from low-level of social, economic and physical development, the latter does display higher figures. Given their differing economic figures and societal dynamics, neither of the collaborative planning processes in these two cases can be generalized countrywide, yet, they can embrace evidences for similar cases[50] .

This section, first and foremost, will display the socio-economic figures of Kocaeli, mainly in comparison with Şanlıurfa. Besides, the social capital (levels of civic associability) in both of the provinces will be evaluated in this part. Following that, the actors and organization of the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process are to be described. This section will be concluded with a comparison of the key features of the Şanlıurfa and Kocaeli cases.

VIII.5.1. PROFILE OF KOCAELİ

Kocaeli ranks the 4th among the 81 provinces of Turkey in terms of socio-

[50] As explained elsewhere in this study, case studies are not representatives of entire populations, nor they claim to be. A case can only be generalized to similar cases (Garson 2002).

economic development level; whereas Şanlıurfa ranks the 68th in the same index[51] . The entire provinces of the country are classified in five groups with respect to their development figures. Kocaeli takes place in the 1st group. Şanlıurfa, on the other hand, is in the 4th group. Main socio-economic development indicators of the provinces that are included in the 1st and 4th groups are compared in the following table:

TABLE 29- A COMPARISON OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT LEVELS OF PROVINCES

1st group provinces (in which Kocaeli is included)	**4th group provinces (in which Şanlıurfa is included)**
• A great part of population lives in urban areas (85.3 %), • They receive inward migration, • Pace of population increase is above the country average, • Economic activities mainly depend on industry and services, • Women labor rate is high, • Literacy level is high, • Women literacy level is high, • Rate of university graduates is above the country average, • Standards of health services are above the country averages • National/international industrial facilities are concentrated in these provinces, • Total GDP of these provinces equals to nearly 45.5 % of the entire provinces.	• They give outward migration, • Pace of population increase is under the country average, • Fertility rate and average household size are over the country averages, • The economies of most of them depend on agriculture (75.5 % of total employment belongs to agriculture), • Literacy rate is rather low, • Women literacy rate is rather low, • Increase in no. of schools is low, • Total GDP of these provinces equals to nearly 9.6 % of the entire provinces.

*İllerin Sosyo-Ekonomik Gelişmişlik Sıralaması Araştırması (1996), www.dpt.gov.tr

Observing Table 29, it is possible to infer that Kocaeli reflects the features in the left-hand column; whereas Şanlıurfa demonstrates those in the right-hand

[51] İllerin Sosyo-Ekonomik Gelişmişlik Sıralaması (1996; updated in 2003) www.dpt.gov.tr

column. Within the Research on the Socio-Economic Development Levels of Provinces (1996), provinces have been evaluated with respect to certain social and economic indicators, and have been given certain scores accordingly. In the score index, İstanbul has obtained the highest score (+4.87902). Kocaeli has obtained +1.74564; while Şanlıurfa has scored –0.65759. Both the components of Table 27 and the mentioned scores prove the extremely different socio-economic profiles of Kocaeli and Şanlıurfa.

Included within the 1st group provinces, the urban and rural populations of Kocaeli are 723000 and 483000 respectively. Kocaeli stands as one of the fastest developing cities in industrialization in the world. According to the 1997 record, there are 320 large-scale, 1398 medium-scale and 126 small-scale industries in the Province (Ataöv 2004).

The literature on collaborative planning regards the “level of associability” in a locality as a positive factor for collaborative arrangements. Comparing the levels of associability in the two provinces, Kocaeli includes 89 NGOs, while Şanlıurfa has nearly the half of it (45). The NGOs with respect to their work areas are given as follows for the two provinces:

TABLE 30-CIVIC ASSOCIATIONS IN KOCAELİ AND ŞANLIURFA

KOCAELİ	ŞANLIURFA
URBAN ISSUES 1. İzmit Yerel Gündem 21 2. Değirmendere Yerel Gündem 21 3. Gebze Yerel Gündem 21 4. İzmit Kent Kurultayı 5. İzmit Evleri Yaşatma Derneği İZEYAP-DER 6. SS İzmit Yeni Yerleşmeler Koop. Birliği	**URBAN ISSUES** 1. Harran Yerel Gündem 21 2. Yaylak Yerel Gündem 21
ENVIRONMENT 1. Balaban Köyü Çevre Güzelleştirme ve Kültür Der. 2. Çevre Ekolojisini Koruma Derneği 3. Kocaeli Çevre Eğitimi ve Koruma Derneği 4. TMMOB Çevre Mühendisleri Odası Kocaeli Tem. 5. Kuş Cenneti ve Çevre Güzelleştirme Vakfı 6. TEMA Kocaeli şb	**ENVIRONMENT** 1. Çevre Gönüllüleri Derneği 2. Şanlıurfa İli Çevre Koruma Vakfı
FAMILY 1. Türkiye Aile Planlaması Derneği Kocaeli Şb.	**FAMILY** 1. Türkiye Aile Planlaması Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb.
SOLIDARITY/COOPERATIVES 1. Çenedağ Mah.Dayanışma ve Yardımlaşma Der. 2. Seka Memurları Sağlık Eğitim ve Yardımlaşma Vakfı 3. Şehirler Arası Otobüs Yazıhaneciler Derneği 4. Gölcük Radyo Amatörleri TA2TS Çagrı İşareti 5. Kocaeli Marmara Tüketici Hak Koruma ve DayanışmaDer 6. Fiskos Kooperatifi 7. SS Körfez Tükobirlik Kocaeli ve Civarı Tüketim Koop 8. SS Körfez ve Çevresi Küçük Sanayi Siteleri Yapı Ko	**SOLIDARITY/COOPERATIVES** 1. Siverek'i Vilayet Yapma ve Kalkındırma Derneği 2. Bezkanlılar Derneği 3. Muharip Gaziler Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb. 4. Şehit Aileleri Yardımlaşma ve Dayanışma Derneği 5. Tülmen Kalkınma ve Dayanışma Vakfı

EDUCATION/CULTURE 1. Gölcük Barbaros Hayrettin Lisesi Mezunları Der. 2. Türkiye Emekli Öğretmenler Der. Değirmendere Şb. 3. ODTÜ Mezunları Derneği Kocaeli Şubesi 4. Çamlık Eğitim Kültür ve Çevre Vakfı 5. Kandıra Anadolu Lisesi Koruma ve Yaşatma Der. 6. Kocaeli Yüksek Öğrenim Derneği KYÖD 7. Kocaeli Yüksek Öğrenim Vakfı 8. Kocaeli-Kadıköy Merk.Avcılık ve Atıcılık Öğretim Der 9. Gebze Azerbaycan Folklor Kültür Dayanış.veYardımlaş De 10. Kullar Kültür ve Yardımlaşma Derneği 11. Kullar 2 Gençlik Merkezi 12. Kandıra Öğrenim Çağındaki Talebelere Yardım Der.	**EDUCATION/CULTURE** 1. Türkiye Yazarlar Birliği Şanlıurfa Şb. 2. Harran Üniversitesi Geliştirme Vakfı 3. Haliliye Kültür ve İlim Vakfı 4. Şanlıurfa İli Kültür Eğitim Sanat ve Araştırma Vak 5. Şanlıurfa Kültür Merkezi 6. Türk Üniversiteli Kadınlar Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb.
TRADE/BUSINESS/INDUSTRY 1. İzmir Kent Merkezi Ticari Dayanışma Derneği (İKM) 2. İzmit Genç İşadamları Derneği İZGİAD 3. Kocaeli Genç İşadamları Yöneticileri Derneği 4. Kocaeli Sanayici ve İşadamları Derneği 5. Nuh Çimento Sanayii Vakfı 6. Gölcük Seyyar Pazarcılar Esnaf Odası 7. İzmit Ticaret Odası 8. Vizyon Enstitü Araş.ve İş Geliş. Çalışma Grubu	**TRADE/BUSINESS/INDUSTRY** 1. Müstakil Sanayici ve İşadamları Derneği 2. Oto Yedek Parçacılar Odası 3. Şanlıurfa Sanayici ve İşadamları Derneği ŞUSİAD 4. Şanlıurfa Genç İşadamları Derneği 5. Şanlıurfa Ticaret ve Sanayi Odası 6. İnşaatçılar ve Yapıcılar Odası
LABOR UNIONS a. Lastik-İş Sendikası Kocaeli Şubesi b. Birleşik Metal-İş Sendikası Kocaeli Şubesi c. Kocaeli Sağlık ve Sosyal Hizmet Emekçileri Sen. d. Öz-Çelik İş Sendikası Kocaeli Şubesi e. Türkiye Devrimci İşçi Sendikaları Konfederasyonu f. Türkiye Selüloz ve Kağıt ve Mamülleri İşçileri Sen.	**LABOR UNIONS** 1. Şanlıurfa Sağlık ve Sosyal Hizmet Emekçileri Sen.
HEALTH 1. Türk Tabipler Birliği Kocaeli Tabip Odası 2. Kocaeli Ortopedik Engelliler Derneği 3. Kocaeli Zihinsel Engelliler Beceri Geliştirme Derneği 4. Türkiye Sakatlar Derneği Kocaeli Şubesi 5. TEB 31.Bölge Kocaeli Eczacı Odası 6. Düşkün ve Yaşlıları Koruma Derneği 7. Diyabet Araştırma ve Uygulamaları Der.İzmit Şb. 8. SSK İzmit Hast.Koruma ve	**HEALTH** 1. Şanlıurfa Tabip Odası 2. TEB 27.Bölge Şanlıurfa Eczacı Odası 3. Birecik Sağlık Ocakları İnşa İkmal ve Güzelleş.Der 4. Hilvan Merk. Sağlık Ocağını Yaşat. ve Malz.Temin.Der 5. Merkez Sağlık Ocağı Yaşatma ve Malzeme Temini Yardım Derneği 6. Şanlıurfa Devlet Hast.Yaptırma ve

Hizmet.Geliştirme Der.	Geliştirme Der. 7. Bedensel Engelliler Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb. 8. Şanlıurfa Görme Özürlüler Derneği
DEMOCRACY 1. Dünya Barış Gönüllüleri Derneği 2. Kocaeli Demokrasi Kulübü 3. İnsan Hakları Derneği Kocaeli Şubesi 4. İnsan Hakları ve Mazlumları İçin Dayanışma Derneği Kocaeli Şb. 5. Seçilmişleri İzleme Komitesi 6. Çağdaş Yaşamı Destekleme Der.İzmit Şb. 7. ÇYDD	**DEMOCRACY** 1. Atatürkçü Düşünce Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb. 2. İnsan Hakları ve Mazlumlar İçin Dayanışma Derneği 3. Çağdaş Yaşamı Destekleme Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb. 4. İnsan Hakları Derneği Şanlıurfa Şubesi
YOUTH 1. AIESEC Kocaeli 2. Genç Kocaeliler Derneği 3. Kullar 2 Gençlik Merkezi 4. Uzunçiftlik Gençlik Merkezi 5. Yahya Kaptan Gençlik Merkezi 6. İzmit Kent Kurultayı Gençlik Meclisi 7. Genç Bekirpaşalılar Derneği	**YOUTH** --
WOMEN 1. Değirmendere Kadın Destek Merkezi 2. Gebze Kemalat Hanımlar Derneği 3. Kocaeli Kadınları Kültür ve Dayanışma Derneği 4. Türk Kadınlar Birliği	**WOMEN** 1. Türk Üniversiteli Kadınlar Derneği Şanlıurfa Şb.
SPORTS 1. Ali Kahya Belediye Spor Kulubü Derneği 2. Başiskele Spor Kulubü 3. Gebze Karate-do İhtisas Spor Kulubü 4. Gölcük Avcılık Atıcılık ve Doğa Spor.İhtisasKulubü 5. İzmit DSİ Spor 6. Kocaeli Doğa Sporları Derneği 7. Kocaeli Samuray Spor Kulubü Derneği 8. Kocaeli Satranç Gençlik ve Spor Kulubü Derneği 9. Kocaelispor Kulubü Derneği 10. Yeni Kandıraspor Kulubü Derneği	**SPORTS** 1. Bozovagücü Spor Kulubü Derneği 2. Özürlüler Spor Kulubü ve Derneği
AGRICULTURE --	**AGRICULTURE** 1. AGRO GAP Önder Çiftçi Danışmanlık Derneği 2. GAP Tarımsal Kalkınma Önder Çiftçi Danışma Derneği 3. SUDER (Katılımcı Sulama Yönetimi Geliştirme Der.)

	4. Tarım ve Hayvancılık Geliştirme Derneği 5. TMMOB Ziraat Mühendisleri Odası
OTHER 1. Denizli Köyü Cami ve Kuran Kursu Yaptır.Yaşat.Der. 2. Döngel Köyü Cami ve Kuran Kursu Der. 3. Gebze (Kocaeli) Türk Ocakları 4. Karamürsel Deniz Kulubü Derneği 5. Kocaeli Türk Ocakları 6. Taşıt Araçları Yan San. Der.TAYSAD	**OTHER** 1. Rizvaniye(Ahmet Paşa) Vakfı 2. Zirai Aletler Cami Kurma ve Yaşatma Derneği

Source: www.stgp.org (internet site of Sivil Toplum Geliştirme Programı)

The number of associations and their work fields are also displayed in the following figure:

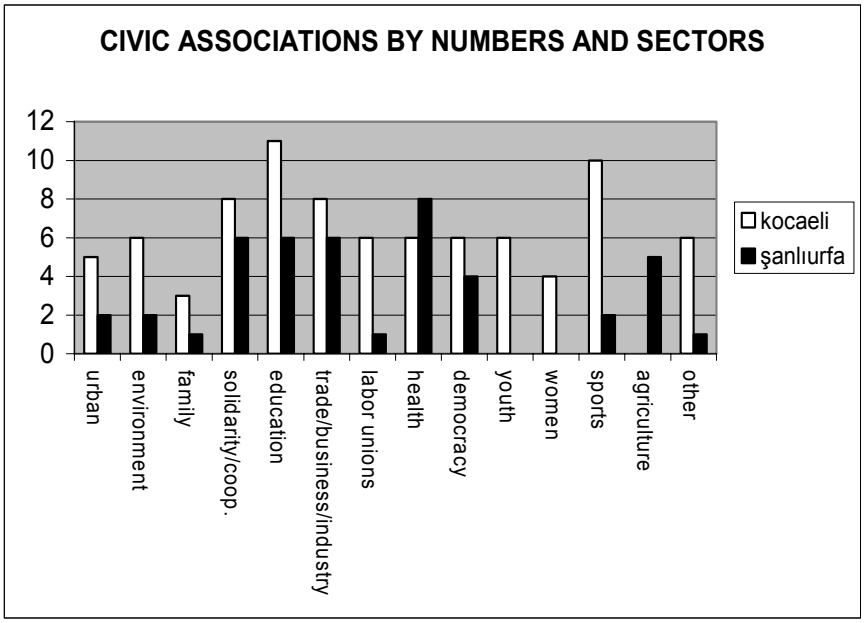


FIGURE 11- COMPARISON OF CIVIC ASSOCIATIONS IN KOCAELİ AND ŞANLIURFA

It is apparent in both Table 30 and Figure 11 that Kocaeli has a comparative advantage in terms of civic associability in all the sectors except agriculture. While Şanlıurfa has 5 civic associations in agricultural sector, Kocaeli does not have any in this sector. This can be a reflection of the agricultural/rural identity of the Şanlıurfa Province. Nevertheless, simply taking the amount of social capital into consideration and disregarding other elements of the local social context, it would be incorrect to claim that there can definitely take place successful collaborative attempts in Kocaeli. This would be an "environmentally-deterministic" inference. Still, the large stock of social capital in Kocaeli can at least show the society's willingness to work together for common purposes.

The ongoing strategic planning process in Kocaeli is not the first locally-organized collaborative attempt realized in the Province. In what follows, the past collaborative engagements will be summarized.

VIII.5.2. COLLABORATIVE PROCESSES IN KOCAELİ SO FAR

Until the ongoing strategic planning process (as to be discussed below), Kocaeli has already marked important steps toward collaboration. It adopted LA21 in 1998, in which the local community was identified as key stakeholders. A City Assembly was established as the executive authority of the LA21 process. The City Assembly has worked as a local civic network; in which platforms of the handicapped, human rights and universal values, tourism, environment, children, education, women, youth, culture and arts, health, and sports have been established (Ataöv 2004). This is to say that the Assembly has been a milieu to enhance the local social capital. Under the Assembly, citizens have been already committed to collaborative decision-making processes.

The LA21 Process was strengthened after the 1999 Earthquake, which dramatically impacted on the Province. Kocaeli received international funding after the Earthquake, which helped the restructuring of the community within the framework of the LA21 process. Sector-based collaborative projects were realized via this international funding.

Nevertheless, Ataöv mentions that none of these collaborative processes could go beyond being partial attempts. I.e. the works of the City Assembly are appreciable to a certain extent; but, the platforms of the Assembly, separate from each other, could only realize some sector-based projects. They did not collaborate to produce a comprehensive strategic plan for the entire Kocaeli (Interview with Anlı Ataöv-Action Researcher in the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process).

VIII.5.3. THE KOCAELİ STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

In the face of the development pressure on the Province, the Head of a local civic organization, i.e. the Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli, volunteered to initiate and sponsor a participatory strategic planning process in 2003. The Chamber, thus, cooperated with “Arama Participatory Management Consulting Company” to moderate and facilitate the process. The Head of the Chamber got in contact with

this private company, since he already knew the Company Manager personally. The Company has been experienced in moderating participatory management processes in private sector, NGOs and public sectors for a long time.

So, a strategic planning process was started in 2003 in the sponsorship and coordination of the Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli. Arama Consulting Company designed, implemented and monitored the process. It organized and executed the participatory conferences and meetings.

The Company designed a 6-month participatory planning process, which then extended to one year. A six-phase planning process was designed (See Figure 12).

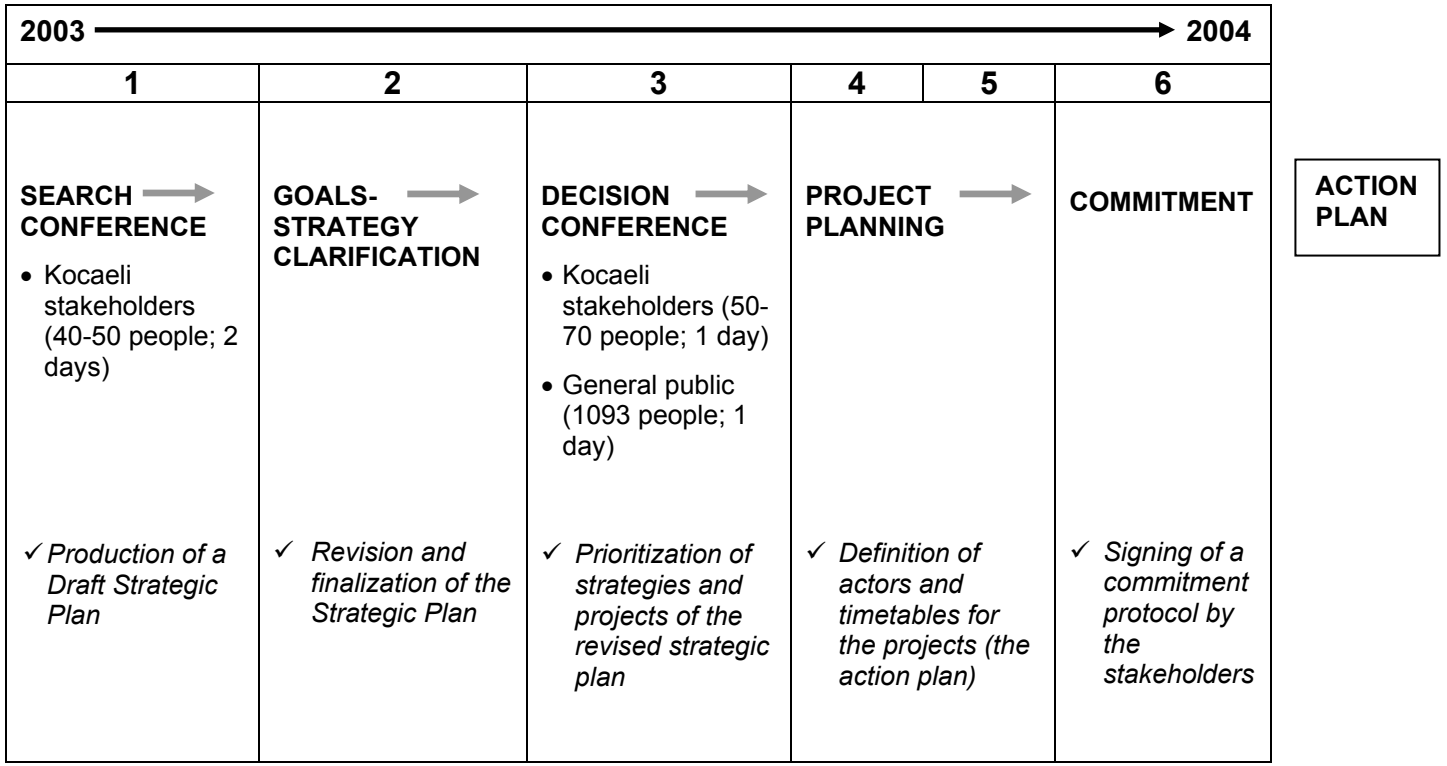


FIGURE 12- PHASES OF THE KOCAELİ STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

Source: derived from Ataöv (2004).

As seen in Figure 12, the ***first phase*** of the process was the search conference. No information materials were sent to the stakeholders before the process was started. A total of 40-50 stakeholders of the Province were invited in this conference. The stakeholders included all representatives of the community, decision-makers and implementers. Ataöv states that a group of 40-50 people gives the best results in collaborative processes. The aim of this phase was to find out possible positive and negative scenarios for the future of the world and Turkey, which could impact on the future of Kocaeli. The stakeholders in 6-7 sub-groups brainstormed to determine alternative scenarios. Then the outputs of the sub-groups were synthesized.

Next to this, possible development scenarios for Kocaeli were brainstormed in the sub-groups. Each group made SWOT analyses and produced development alternatives for Kocaeli. Again, the outputs of the sub-groups were synthesized.

Unlike the Şanlıurfa PDP case, in the Kocaeli case, any stakeholder could participate in any sub-group, no matter their professional affiliations. The sub-groups were formed randomly, and they were not given certain sectors to work on. They brainstormed on all the sectors and produced alternative scenarios for Kocaeli. On the contrary, in the Şanlıurfa PDP case, sub-groups were formed on sectorial basis; and each brainstormed on the sector under concern.

The search conference was concluded via forming a multi-sectorial *draft strategic plan* for the Province.

The ***second phase*** was the strategy clarification stage. This time, only top managers and decision-makers (20 people) were invited in the meetings. The draft vision, strategies and goals determined in the previous phase were clarified and finalized in this phase. The target year of the finalized strategic plan is 2023 with the vision "*the livable industrial city Kocaeli*"[52]. Established around this vision, the strategic plan is a multi-sectorial one; including industry, tourism and trade (sectors to improve economic competitiveness); and culture, sports, education, social responsibility, transportation, urban planning, administrative restructuring (sectors to improve local quality of life).

[52] Yaşanan ve yaşatan sanayi kenti Kocaeli.

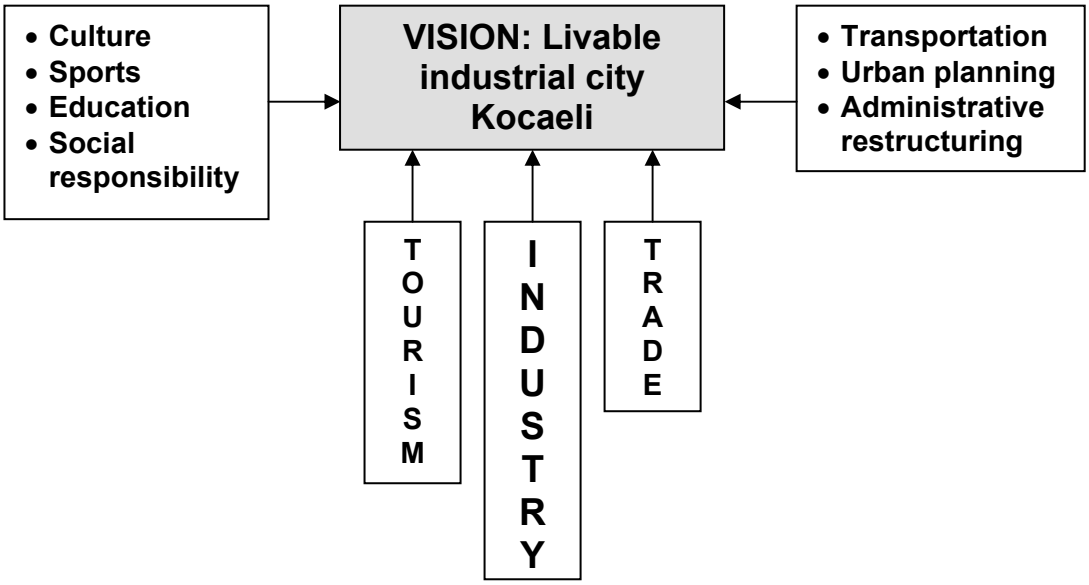


FIGURE 13- THE KOCAELİ STRATEGIC PLAN (2023): VISION AND DEVELOPMENT SECTORS

Source: derived from Ataöv (2004).

The ***third phase*** was the decision conference, in which the participants of the first two phases were again invited. It was composed by two stages. First, a group of 50-70 stakeholders gathered at a decision conference in order to prioritize the projects proposed in the strategic plan. The participants discussed on the contribution of each of the projects to the defined vision. Second, the general public (1029 persons) evaluated the projects through questionnaires. As a result, a cognitive map of community's goals for Kocaeli was drawn in the third phase.

Followingly, the prioritized projects were grouped in the ***fourth and fifth phases***; i.e. the project planning phases. A series of meetings were held to determine the actors that would implement the projects, and time schedules for the projects. In other words, an *action plan* was produced during these phases.

The ***final phase***, i.e. the official commitment phase, has not been realized yet. This phase will be held in the September, 2004 through the involvement of all the stakeholders of the previous phases (200-300 persons). They will sign a commitment protocol, through which the stakeholders assume the task of

implementing the projects of the Action Plan. The protocol will be a political document, which does not have any legal-binding status. Whether a “monitoring committee” to follow the implementation stage will be established or not is not certain at the moment.

In brief, the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process is unique in a way that it was a voluntary action initiated by the local Chamber of Industry. It was not imposed by international influence or by any central government organ (Ataöv 2004). On the contrary, the willingness and far-seeing of a local civic association was the pushing factor of this initiative. In none of the above phases, stakeholders were obliged to participate; it was up to their will. Despite that, a remarkable number of key stakeholders participated, including local government, politicians, representatives of the economic sectors, NGOs, academicians, media. This proves the consciousness of local social capital and its sensitivity on local social issues. As the participatory meetings were realized just before the local elections, it was observed that these meetings were not the priority of the top managers of the metropolitan municipality. They were busy with preparations for the elections. Even so, the municipality was represented by vice-managers. Meanwhile, top managers of the Governorship and other local public institutions were present in the meetings. Ataöv says that such collaborative processes aims at providing a democratic environment, in which everybody can participate equally. Nevertheless, the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process could not be freed from local politics. I.e. participants could not disregard each other’s position in the local community.

As the final phase has not been realized yet, it is not certain whether the Kocaeli Strategic Plan will be implemented properly or not. Ataöv regards the planning process as a successful one, since it fostered community learning. Many decision-makers could gradually learn to listen to and learn from each other; and accept the common ground.

VIII.5.4. A COMPARISON OF THE TWO STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES: ŞANLIURFA AND KOCAELİ

The Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning was not a voluntary action of the local community; rather, it was a “top-down” process, pioneered by the highest

level planning organization (SPO) of the central government. Meanwhile, the Kocaeli Strategic Planning comes forefront as a “bottom-up” process, initiated by a local civic organization. In what follows, key features of the two processes will be compared.

TABLE 31- A COMPARISON OF THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES HELD IN ŞANLIURFA AND KOCAELİ

CRITERIA	ŞANLIURFA	KOCAELİ
Initiator	Şanlıurfa Governorship (as it was an official duty)	Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli (by its own will)
Coordination / execution of the planning process	Co-operative coordination of the GAP Administration and Şanlıurfa Governorship	Co-operative coordination of Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli and Arama Consulting Company
Duration of the planning process	17 months	12 months
Stakeholders	All local public/private institutions, academy, NGOs	All local public/private institutions, academy, NGOs
Methodology	Participatory meetings with stakeholders to make SWOT analyses and to produce a strategic plan (including the implementation plan)	• Participatory meetings with stakeholders to make SWOT analyses and to produce a strategic plan and a separate “action plan” • Questionnaires with general public
Target year of the plan	2010 (7 years from today)	2023 (20 years from today)
Time-span for sectorial projects	Central to the content of the projects	Central to the content of the projects
Approval	By the State Planning Organization (though not formalized)	There does not exist a body for approval, as it is a voluntary action
Implementation	Up to the will of the Governorship under current conditions, since the PDP does not have a legal-binding status	A commitment protocol will be signed; but, as it will be a voluntary political document, whether the plan will be implemented is not certain

Comparing the two strategic planning cases, the Şanlıurfa case appears to have been an official responsibility, while the Kocaeli case was a voluntary action. Nevertheless, in each of the cases “leadership” played a very significant role. Both the Governor of Şanlıurfa Province and Head of the Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli seem to have initiated the tasks with great enthusiasm, which influenced on the success of both of the processes. Both of these people thought that the planning process would be realized efficiently only through co-operating with professionals. Thus, they co-operated with professionals to carry out the planning process. In both of the cases, their personal acquaintances played role in selecting the institutions for co-operation. The Governor of the Şanlıurfa Province personally knew the Director of the Regional Branch of GAP Administration; while the Head of The Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli personally knew the Manager of Arama Consulting Company.

Both of the cases reflected similar stakeholder profiles. However, in selecting the stakeholders to be invited in the meetings, the coordinators of the Şanlıurfa case did not apply any techniques. They invited the entire public/private institutions, local NGOs, local academy. On the other hand, in the Kocaeli case, the coordinators were sensitive on the number of the participants, since they thought the number would effect on the efficiency of the participatory process. Therefore, they invited a definite number of stakeholders in each of the meetings.

As far as the methodology pursued is concerned, both of the cases involved strategic planning techniques in the collaborative meetings –SWOT analyses, development of a shared vision, strategies, and policies. As stated before, the way the stakeholders collaborated in the meetings was differentiated in the cases to some extent. The Şanlıurfa case appears to have been more sensitive on sectorial sub-grouping of stakeholders. Meanwhile, in the Kocaeli case, besides the collaborative meetings, the views of the general public were also asked via questionnaires at some stage. I.e. the scope of participation was sort of enlarged.

The target years of the plans differed in these cases. The Şanlıurfa PDP targets the year 2010, which is also the target year of the GAP Regional Development Plan. So as to comply with this regional plan, the coordinators of the process chose the year 2010. Meanwhile, the Kocaeli Strategic Plan targets a much farther

period, the year 2023. The coordinators found this 20-year period long enough to attain the vision of the plan.

As does any strategic plan, both the Şanlıurfa PDP and the Kocaeli Strategic Plan do include strategies, targets, policies and projects respectively. Time-spans for the proposed projects vary depending on their particular features in both of the cases. It should be noted that in the Şanlurfa case a separate action plan (including projects/actors/feasibility analyses/time-spans) was not produced. Instead; an "Implementation Program" of the proposed projects was attached within the strategic plan. This implementation program can be treated as an action plan. The projects in the implementation program –each having its own time-span and cost estimations-- only included public investments. Private sector projects, or other multi-partner projects are not included in the Şanlıurfa PDP. With its strategies, targets and policies, the Plan is "flexible enough" for the realization of private or multi-partner projects, if desired. Unlike the Şanlıurfa case, in the Kocaeli case a separate "Action Plan" was produced besides the Strategic Plan. Obviously, the Action Plan takes care of the principles adopted in the strategic plan and concretely defines the projects/actors/time-tables. It not only describes public sector projects, but also consists of multi-actor ones. Project planning comes forefront a more significant step in the Kocaeli case, since the projects were defined, prioritized, grouped in collaborative meetings and then shared with the general public.

Implementation phases have not been started for neither of the plans. Provincial Development Planning has not attained a legal-status yet, thus, the Şanlıurfa PDP has been shelved for one year. The Governor who initiated the planning process was appointed to another Province, so were the other local key actors of the Governorship. In the absence of a legal-status for the PDP and in an uncertain environment created via the current Draft Law on the Local Administration Reform; the new provincial administration might not implement the plan, and might wait for the finalization of the Draft Law. On the other hand, whether the Kocaeli Strategic Plan will be properly implemented is not certain, either. A commitment protocol will be signed among the local stakeholders, which makes them take over the implementation responsibility. Since this protocol will not have any legal status, mutual trust among institutions seems to be a crucial factor during the

implementation stage.

The two cases display different dynamics of their own; therefore, they cannot make us firmly believe in the efficiency of “top-down” strategic planning process and inefficiency of “bottom-up” one in the Turkish Provinces; or vice versa. Which way will be more efficient depends on the particular local conditions, as elaborated throughout this study. Even so, the cases can lead us to some generalizable inferences for any strategic planning process:

1. A strategic planning process appears to be a collaborative action of multiple actors. Still, “strong leadership” is a crucial factor for the success of the planning process. The process should be coordinated by a strong actor (institution or person).

2. The organization of collaborative meetings (no. of meetings, no. of participants, sub-grouping of participants; etc) can vary in different processes. In whatever manner organized, any strategic planning process should include stages of SWOT analysis, development of a vision, strategies, targets, policies and projects.

3. Implementation is a critical stage of strategic planning. A strategic plan does not need to have a legal status according to the literature, since it is generally a product of a voluntary process. Assuming that there are adequate financial resources for the proposed projects, the implementation stage can work properly where stocks of social capital are bright, and thus, where there is a high degree of *inter-institutional trust* and *mutual responsibility*. In the absence of mature social capital, this stage seems to be only realized through legalization of the strategic plan.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

IX.1. AIM OF THE RESEARCH

This research has elaborated the strategic spatial planning which became widespread in the planning community especially in the last fifteen years, and has exemplified its implementation in Turkey.

The research has described the strategic spatial planning as a planning activity through which people from diverse institutions come together, and develop strategies for their locality. The product of this activity, i.e. the strategic plan, has to consist of multi-sectorial development strategies beyond the physical ones, which can all together improve the economic competitiveness of the locality within an ever-globalizing world.

In fact, the strategic planning emerged as a way-out for planning of the metropolitan areas of developed (core) countries in the face of the globalization processes. Gradually, as an inter-institutional process that seeks for multi-sectorial development of a locality; this approach has gained popularity in developing countries, too. They have shown willingness to apply this new planning approach in their core, semi-core or peripheral localities.

Strategic spatial planning has certain instructions of its own, which have to be obeyed wherever it is applied. Among all these instructions, this research has

distinguished two crucial ones:

1. A strategic planning *process* has a participatory nature;
2. A strategic *plan* seeks for competitive position for the locality under concern.

These two fatures make the strategic spatial planning be very much tied to the particular conditions in a locality: The attainment of the first item above is related the quality of the *local social capital*; whereas attainment of the second is related to the *economic development level* of the locality. As the quality of social capital and level of economic development vary from one locality to another; the strategic spatial planning of a locality seems to be greatly shaped by these place-specific factors.

Given the above features of strategic spatial planning, this research has had three principle aims: ***The first aim*** has been to make an evaluation of a recent strategic planning case from Turkey with respect to a "general set of criteria": The Provincial Development Planning Process held in a peripheral locality –Şanlıurfa— has been basically evaluated in terms of "collaborativeness of the process" and "competition-seeking character of the plan". ***The second aim***, meanwhile, has been to display the contingent nature of a strategic planning process. The research claims that the satisfaction level of general set of criteria is related to the contingent factors (i.e. the specific actors in the process, their way and degree of involvement).

The third aim of the research has been to highlight the role of the two place-specific factors (quality of social capital and level of economic development) in the process. Therefore, the research has also examined a contrasting strategic planning case held in a "developed" locality of Turkey: The Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process.

The literature stresses that the strategic planning is not merely concerned with the planning process; it is equally concerned with implementation and monitoring phases. Therefore, besides these aims, the research has also pointed to the "crucialness" of defining the agents and roles in the implementation and monitoring stages.

IX.2. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

With these principle aims, the dissertation is composed by two main parts. First part (i.e. Chapters II, III, IV, V, VI) draws a "theoretical framework" on the strategic spatial planning. Second part (i.e. Chapters VII, VIII), on the other hand, elaborates its implementation in Turkey, with the intention to attain the three aims of the research. Below are summarized the contents of each of the chapters:

First and foremost, a discussion on the strategic spatial planning has required the clarification of the leading factors to the emergence of such a process. Therefore, after Chapter I (Introduction), **Chapter II** provides an elaboration of these factors. This chapter points to the circumstances created by globalization as the leading factors to the strategic spatial planning. Here the two peculiar features of globalization are highlighted as the *new logic of capital accumulation* on one hand; and *particular pattern of technological innovations* on the other hand. These two features have led to the emergence of multiple webs of time-space, which shape human practices in any field. Territorial planning is one of the fields, the theory and practice of which have been influenced by the conditions created by globalization processes. Planners have had to develop new tools in order to respond to the new spatio-temporal context. That is why *new urban politics* in general and *strategic spatial planning* in particular have been introduced as a "reaction" or "adaptation" to this context.

Chapter III shows that the new tendencies in planning, which have emerged with the globalization processes, can be treated as a "paradigm shift" from the instrumental rationality to the communicative rationality. The tendency towards strategic spatial planning cannot be treated a new paradigm alone. It was already applied in the 1960s. Nevertheless, in its contemporary form, it comes into being as a convenient instrument to apply the *communicative-rational paradigm*. This chapter displays the paradigm shift in the field of spatial planning with reference to the conceptions derived from Thomas Kuhn (who is accepted to best argue the concepts of paradigm and paradigm shifts in social sciences). Below are given these conceptions:

(a) Can we talk about a *reconstruction* of prior theory and knowledge in the field of spatial planning?
(b) Does the new paradigm include a new worldview (to relate the facts to it)?
(c) Is the previous paradigm criticized to become insufficient, and is the new one supported by the community of planning?
(d) Kuhn states that paradigms do not have to be entirely inclusive. That is to say that multiple (or competing) paradigms can exist within one discipline. Can we talk about such a co-existence in the field of urban planning?

Utilizing the above framework, the chapter demonstrates that the "communicative-rational strategic spatial planning" is an emerging paradigm in the field of planning, since all these items are satisfied.

Before going into the details of the strategic spatial planning that adopts communicative rationality, **Chapter IV** elaborates the evolution of spatial planning until the contemporary strategic planning. It starts with the examination of planning before the 1960s. In the pre-1960 period, urban planning was assumed to be carried out by architects. It was architecture on the larger scale of a whole town. Until the 1960s, urban planning was assumed to be a *design activity* more than anything. Another concept of this period was *comprehensiveness*, based on the realization of the parts that made up the whole.

Following that, the chapter describes the rational-comprehensive planning (or the mainstream planning as it is referred to in this study) of the 1960s (the modernist era). The emergence of rational view of planning can be seen as a paradigm shift in Kuhnian sense. The so-called shift in the 1960s was from a concern purely with the *physical environment* towards *rational thinking.* In the framework of a Newtonian determinism (Euclidean space and linear time), the underlining principle of this paradigm continued to be the "comprehensiveness". However, for the 1960s, the context of comprehensiveness did not simply relate to the physical parts that made up the whole, as it had been in the pre-1960 period. This time, it included social and economic aspects of urban life as well.

The discussion in this chapter is pursued by the criticisms directed to the rational-comprehensive planning. The chapter examines two typical positions contrasting

the rational-comprehensive planning: Disjointed incrementalism developed by Charles Lindblom, and advocacy planning developed by Paul Davidoff. They noted the deficiencies of instrumental rationality, and the need for a communicative approach in planning, since societal interests cannot be decided merely depending on a positivist method of scientific observation. These criticisms can be considered as the first evidences towards the current strategic spatial planning.

Having examined the planning history in the previous chapter, **Chapter V** elaborates the new planning approach –strategic spatial planning—in three dimensions.

First dimension refers to the contextual framework, in which the new planning is operated. This framework is defined with two key facades; namely the tendencies towards deliberative democracy, and time-space comprehension of the new (non-Euclidean) world order. *Deliberative democracy* can be defined as a process where citizens voluntarily participate in discussions on public issues. In this system, citizens share information about public affairs, talk politics, form opinions, and participate in political processes. The whole system is "discursive" and possesses the characteristic of "communicative action" as Habermas (1984) first puts forward. Deliberative democracy is translated into the field of planning as deliberative (or communicative) planning. The other ingredient of contextual framework is the *new time-space conception*. The new world order is a non-Euclidean world of many space-time geographies in Friedmann's words. The move toward a Non-Euclidean world order obliges planners to think of new and more appropriate models of spatial planning. Planners have to operate observing new understandings of the spatio-temporal context.

Second dimension relates to the organization of the planning process. Deliberative planning --implying collaboration / participation / coalition / communication / argumentation and so on— is the new organization model. Whatever name is given, all these are the implications of communicative rationality. The study compares instrumental-rational and communicative-rational planning processes, former being the approach of the modernist era and latter being the approach of the post-modernist era: Planning through communicative

rationality necessitates the collaboration of public agencies, private agencies and citizens. The comprehensiveness of the plan is supposed to be attained in group discussion rather than the “rational” planner(s). As the planning process pursues a communicative logic, the plan, naturally, is developed depending on inter-subjective knowledge, stories, fables; as well as scientific analysis.

The ***final dimension*** associates with the new aims and standards of strategic spatial planning. The aims of a strategic spatial planning not only relate to the plan, but also cover the planning process. It is displayed that a strategic spatial planning process is guided by a public/non-public entity; but it allows the horizontal interaction of all relevant stakeholders. The strategic plan does not need to have a legal status. It is generally non-statutory, political and flexible. The plan has to have a vision, which guides to the development of strategies. Having a concern for both spatial and non-spatial development, a strategic plan is inter-sectorial. Unlike the mainstream territorial plan, the strategic spatial plan aims at “urban competitiveness” through provision of communication and information technology, advanced transportation, encouragement of domestic/foreign investment. Besides, it also aims at improving urban and environmental quality via the principle of sustainability and maintenance of local identity.

Obviously, the emergence of this new planning has not remained far from criticisms. There do exist critical views towards this new approach besides the confirmatory ones. **Chapter VI**, thus, mentions these criticisms under two headings: 1) Those directed to the forces of globalization, and 2) those directed to the communicative rationality. First group of criticisms questions whether the strategic planning is *a tool basically to serve to the global forces more than community interests.* They reject the views suggesting the inevitability of the processes of globalization. In these critical views, globalization should be evaluated within the framework of the capital accumulation processes, which result in the benefit of the developed countries, whereas the peripheral ones are impacted negatively. Country figures (emphasizing Turkey) are given in this part to strengthen the discussion. Meanwhile, the other group raises questions on the *functionality of the planning via communicative rationality*. This approach was born in western countries, and rapidly diffused into developing countries. Nevertheless, although the communicative planning is highly favored in the

developed part of the world, it cannot be implemented properly even in these countries. Examples from developed countries are given here to clarify where theory and practice do not overlap.

The chapters so far elaborate how the strategic spatial planning has come into the picture and what its key features are. I.e. they compose the theoretical framework on the strategic spatial planning. From **Chapter VII** onwards, the dissertation starts discussing a recent strategic spatial planning attempt from Turkey; i.e. Provincial Development Planning (PDP). Before elaborating the PDP, evolution of collaboration in the Turkish planning needs to be described, since the contemporary form of strategic planning comes into the picture as a collaborative activity. Have there been "collaborative" grounds in the Turkish planning history, on which the recent strategic planning can be established? Therefore, the first two sections in this chapter portray the evolution of the Turkish planning, putting the emphasis on its "collaborativeness". It finds out that the Turkish planning system got familiar with collaborative planning particularly after the 1990s. Nevertheless, both before and after the 1990s, the system has always witnessed some obstacles in front of collaboration: The patronage networks have been able to put pressure upon political authorities to obtain favors from urban land; and thus, have played significant roles in shaping urban environments. These rent-seeking networks seem to obstruct the efficient working of voluntary civic networks (or social capital) in collaborative planning processes.

Despite the patronage networks, however, the Turkish planning went on integrating with collaborative activities in the 1990s; and gradually these activities gave way to the introduction of strategic planning into the system (at national, regional and local levels). So, from the third section of this chapter, the Provincial Development Planning (PDP) is elaborated as a strategic planning activity.

The PDP emerges as a component of the current *regional development strategy* of Turkey in the 8th Five-Year National Development Plan. To better comprehend where the PDP stands, the research critically evaluates the Turkish regional planning experience with respect to the five-year development plans prepared by the State Planning Organization; and some typical regional planning cases: The first two five-year development plans (1963-72) brought about the regional

planning, but this approach was weakened in the 3rd and 4th Plans (1973-83) in favor of overall national development. The 5th Plan (1985-89) started regional planning again. It is during the 5th Plan period that the South Eastern Anatolian Project Regional Development Administration (GAP Administration) was established. The 6th Plan (1990-94) left the concept of "functional regions" of the previous plan and prioritized the development of underdeveloped regions. It also gave signs of the will to get integrated with Europe. The 7th Plan (1995-99) put this will more firmly, and introduced the term "sustainable development" as a tool to diminish regional disparities.

As seen, each plan introduced new terms regarding regional planning, taking note of the trends in the world. Coming to the current era, "collaborative" planning has become a fashionable term. Nevertheless, "collaboration per se" is not sufficient to make plans be implemented. The past regional plans could not find the opportunity to get implemented. Above everything, the basic reason comes forefront as the lack of interest of the political party in power towards these plans during the 1960s. Following that, other crucial reasons for the failure of the implementation stages seem to be the lack of agreement or ownership among agencies; conflict between related agencies; non-definition of the implementing and monitoring agents; lack of expertise about regional planning; lack of legal definition of the means of implementation; and limited human and financial resources of local administrations. Therefore, the research underlines that any planning process is composed by three stages; which are equally significant: I.e. planning, implementation and monitoring: The actors, roles, resources related to all these stages should be properly defined to make the plans be implemented.

This section also emphasizes the role of the State Planning Organization as the initiator of the PDP, and South Eastern Anatolian Project Regional Development Administration (GAP Administration) as one of the key actors in the Şanlıurfa PDP.

Following the discussion on the past regional planning experience of Turkey, the current regional policy in the 8th Plan is handled. The efforts to get harmonized with the EU Regional Policy are examined (NUTS units, establishment of Regional Development Agencies). Then, the position of PDP in the regional policy

is discussed. Meanwhile, where PDP stands within the current Draft Law on Local Government is also stated. Consequently, it is inferred to be an ***interface between regional and local policies***.

Then, reasonings and aims of the PDP in the 8th Plan and the Şanlıurfa PDP Report are examined. It is observed that the reasonings and aims of PDP associate with the main principles of strategic planning:

1. Provinces should be planned with respect to the principle of ***sustainability***,
2. ***Technological advances at the global scale*** provide opportunities to improve social welfare at provinces,
3. There is the need to adapt to national and ***global realities***; thus, provincial development strategies should improve the ***competitive advantage***,
4. Local citizens, private enterprise, NGOs should ***participate*** in the planning process so as to attain ***local democracy***,
5. Planning aims should be ***multidimensional***: Not only land-use proposals, but also legal/institutional reorganizations, economical, social, infrastructural decisions should be included (Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu 2000, 95-98).

The items above --namely sustainable development, utilization of technological advances to develop the locality, improvement of competitive advantage to take part in the global network, encouragement of participation to local decision-making processes, consideration of planning as a multi-dimensional activity-- imply the willingness to catch up with the external world, since these are the fashionable terms in the western planning environment. Besides the overall aim of catching up with the *external world*; the 8th Plan also underlines the *internal needs* of the country, and defines aims and objectives of the PDP as follows:

1. Making provinces efficient units that contribute to overall national development,
2. Mobilizing economic, human and physical potentials of provinces to accelerate the pace of development,

3. Narrowing the economic and social development gap among provinces and regions.

This research considers the PDP as an interface between regional and local policies, taking care of its placement in both the regional policy and the local government reform. With a similar logic, observing the justifications and aims of the PDP, it can be again considered as an interface --this time between external dynamics and internal needs--, since it is designed as a tool to meet both global-level and national-level aims.

Having described the PDP as a new approach in the Turkish planning system, and thus having provided a basis for the case study in Chapter VII, **Chapter VIII** examines the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning. The first two aims of this research are addressed in the Şanlıurfa PDP case:

1. How the Şanlıurfa PDP satisfies the general set of criteria of strategic spatial planning,
2. What contingencies of the process play role in the satisfaction of these criteria.

The section on the Şanlıurfa PDP is composed by five main sections:

First section clarifies why the “case study” approach has been selected as the research methodology. This approach has distinct advantages, when “how” or “why” questions are asked about a contemporary event in its real-life context (Yin 1993, 17-23). To attain the above two aims, the research has to describe “how” the Şanlıurfa PDP Process was organized, and “why” it was organized in that manner. Two data sources are applied in the case study stage: First data source consists of *documentary materials* --reports, planning documents, books, protocols, maps, official documents, archives, etc. The second data source contains *in-depth interviews* conducted both in Ankara and Şanlıurfa. The informants in Ankara are the staff of the GAP Administration, who coordinated the entire planning process. Meanwhile, the ones in Şanlıurfa cover a large range of public and non-public actors involved in the planning process. The interviews have greatly contributed the analysis of the process.

Second section displays the socio-economic and socio-cultural profile of Şanlıurfa. As stated, the strategic spatial planning has very much to do with local factors like *quality of social context* and *level of economic development*. That is why the profile of Şanlıurfa is elaborated in this part. It comes into the picture with its inferior social and economic figures compared to the country averages.

Third section examines how the planning process is organized. The so-called contingencies lie in the organization of a strategic planning process. The Şanlıurfa PDP process was not a voluntarily-organized local action; but a "top-down" coordinated task. Still, as the theory of strategic spatial planning says, it was a multi-actor one, in which a large group of national and local entities took place. The coordination was provided by the GAP Administration and the Şanlıurfa Governorship. The entire process received academic consultancy from the universities in both Ankara and Şanlıurfa. The two major units that carried out the entire process were the Plan Execution Board (located in the Governorship, Şanlıurfa), and the Plan Preparation Team (located in the central office of GAP Administration, Ankara). There was continuous information flow between the Board and the Team. The planning process was realized in four stages:

1. The Initial Stage: Information Gathering and Preparation of A Preliminary Report (February-June, 2002)
2. 1st Stage: Analysis of the Existing Situation and Determination of the Problems Through Public Involvement (17-18 June, 2002)
3. 2nd Stage: Determination of the Vision, Strategies and Aims (24-25 October, 2002)
4. 3rd Stage: Preparation of the Plan and Implementation Program (October 2002-July 2003)

The organization of the planning process reveals the contingent nature of Şanlıurfa PDP. The fourth section of Chapter VIII, then, makes an evaluation of the process and the plan with respect to the views of local stakeholders. In this section, the first aim of this research is achieved through applying the general set of criteria to evaluate the Şanlıurfa PDP: The quality of the planning process (how collaborative), and the content/form of the strategic plan (a concern for the

improvement of competitive advantage) are addressed here. The collaborativeness of the process is evaluated in three dimensions; i.e. Scope of collaboration, intensity of collaboration, degree of consensus among participants. Meanwhile, the plan is evaluated in two dimensions; i.e. content of the strategic plan (SWOT and vision), status and form of the strategic plan.

This research claims that evaluation of a strategic spatial planning process simply with regard to general criteria would be oversimplification. Evaluating merely with respect to the criteria, the Şanlıurfa PDP Process seems to have an upper-medium level of success. At this point, the research achieves its second aim by showing the role of contingencies in the process, which facilitated collaboration, and thus led to the high degree of satisfaction of the criteria. If there had not been those facilitating factors, the process would not have attained such a success in a peripheral locality like Şanlıurfa (which has a low profile of social and economical context). Those contingencies will be mentioned later as the findings of the research.

So, the research infers that a strategic spatial planning process is difficult to be realized voluntarily in a locality with inferior social and economic conditions (former being more crucial for collaborative arrangements). The third aim of this research has been to show the role of local socio-economic context in a strategic planning process. This can be best achieved via handling a contrasting example. Therefore; the fifth section of Chapter VIII analyses a voluntarily-organized strategic planning process in a high-profile locality; i.e. the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process. The Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning was not a voluntary action of the local community; rather, it was a “top-down” process, pioneered by the highest level planning organization (SPO) of the central government. Meanwhile, the Kocaeli Strategic Planning comes forefront as a “bottom-up” process, initiated by a local civic organization.

The two provinces are extremely different in socio-economic terms: While Şanlıurfa emerges as an underdeveloped province; Kocaeli comes into being as a developed one with its highest amount of GNP per capita in the country. Whereas the former suffers from low-level of social, economic and physical development,

the latter does display higher figures. Kocaeli ranks the 4th among the 81 provinces of Turkey in terms of socio-economic development level; whereas Şanlıurfa ranks the 68th in the same index.

Until the Kocaeli Strategic Planning Process, the Kocaeli Province already marked important steps toward collaboration. The recent strategic planning process was volunteered and sponsored by a local civic organization, i.e. the Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli. The Chamber cooperated with a private consulting company to moderate and facilitate the process. It was designed as a six-phase participatory planning process, the final phase of which is yet to be realized.

The study shows how the two strategic planning cases differentiate from each other: While the Şanlıurfa case was initiated by the Şanlıurfa Governorship (as it was an official duty); the Kocaeli case was initiated by the Chamber of Industry of Kocaeli (by its own will). The stakeholders were similar in both of the cases; nevertheless, in the Kocaeli case they were selected through scientific participation techniques. In both of them, participatory meetings were held in order to make SWOT analysis and produce a strategic plan. Meanhwile, in the Kocaeli case, questionnaire method was also applied. While the Şanlıurfa PDP had to be presented to and approved by the State Planning Organization; the Kocaeli Strategic Plan did not require such an approval, as it was the product of a voluntary action.

Implementation phases have not been started for neither of the plans. Provincial Development Planning has not attained a legal-status yet, thus, the Şanlıurfa PDP has been shelved for one year. In the absence of a legal-status for the PDP and in an uncertain environment created via the current Draft Law on the Local Administration Reform; the new provincial administration might not implement the plan, and might wait for the finalization of the Draft Law. On the other hand, whether the Kocaeli Strategic Plan will be properly implemented is not certain, either. A commitment protocol will be signed among the local stakeholders in the final phase. Since this protocol will not have any legal status, mutual trust among institutions seems to be a crucial factor during the implementation stage.

IX.3. FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

The case study conducted in Chapter VIII carries us to the following findings:

1. The strategic spatial planning has its commonplace instructions to be applied in any case. This dissertation has applied to a general set of criteria to evaluate the Şanlıurfa PDP, and it has been found out that this case attained an upper-medium level of success.

2. The research claims that an evaluation simply with regard to the general criteria would be an oversimplification. Strategic planning processes are known to be contingent (i.e. specific to a locality). So, the satisfaction level of the criteria has to do with the contingencies of a process. These contingencies show themselves in the organization of planning process. Strategic planning allows the *participation of multiple-actors* in the process. However, the actors that come together, and the way / degree of their involvement are contingent. Having satisfied the common instructions of strategic spatial planning, the first contingency in the Şanlıurfa PDP is a *national-level* one: The PDP is not a *voluntarily-organized* action. It has been proposed by the SPO, and the responsibility has been assigned to governorships. Considering the development gap between the provinces of Turkey, peripheral provinces (like Şanlıurfa) would never be eager to perform a PDP process due to socio-economic reasons, unless it was an obligation. Vis-à-vis this picture, it is reasonable to assign the duty of organizing PDP to some public entity in a national formal document, rather than leaving it as a voluntary action.

3. The research mentions that quality of social capital is an important factor in collaborative arrangements. Nevertheless, the Şanlıurfa case proves that when the planning process is "possessed" by powerful actors, it can be successfully organized collaboratively even in localities with low-quality social context. This carries us to the *local-level* contingency that contributed to the success of the process: The GAP Administration and Şanlıurfa Governorship were the two powerful actors, which managed to realize the PDP Process in Şanlıurfa, where there do not exist bright stocks of social capital.

4. The above inference leads to a further inference: If the PDP process had been defined as a voluntary local action, and left to the will of provinces, it is doubtful whether the local actors of Şanlıurfa could have been organized in themselves to start a local development project. Even in this obligatory process, the local public institutions did not show adequate enthusiasm. They were present in the participatory meetings, just because this was their official duty. So, the research claims that for *voluntary* local actions to be successfully realized, the quality of social capital (civic engagements, social networks, voluntary associations) still matters. Obviously, if the level of associability in a community is high, this means that the members of that community are sensitive to societal issues, and they can voluntarily collaborate for the improvement of their locality.

5. To prove the significance of local socio-economic context in voluntarily-organized strategic planning processes, the research has handled the Kocaeli Strategic Planning case. Kocaeli is a province, which is much more developed than Şanlıurfa in terms of socio-economic figures. There, a local civic organization volunteered and sponsored a strategic planning process. It is possible to observe more enthusiastic participation in the Kocaeli case, compared to Şanlıurfa.

6. It should be mentioned that all the above findings relate only to the realization of planning phase. Either “top-down” or “bottom-up” organized, successful realization of the planning process does not guarantee the successful implementation of the plan. When the plan is finished and approved, it is to be implemented by local actors themselves. So, the quality of local social context plays a more crucial role in the *implementation* stage than in the planning stage.

The research has involved in the Provincial Development Planning as a Turkish strategic planning example, and has resulted in the above findings. As stated previously, the research claims that any planning process is composed by three integral stages –*planning, implementation and monitoring*. “Mere collaboration” only in the planning process is not enough to make plans be implemented. Proper definition of agents, roles and resources in the other two stages is equally crucial.

Strategic spatial planning is introduced as an "innovation" in the planning community. Before going into the general conclusions, the following section is to address the innovative nature of PDP in the Turkish planning system.

IX.4. HOW INNOVATIVE PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IS

Five-year plans have been criticized for long, as they were lacking *spatial dimension* and *participatory planning approach*. These plans have contained sectorial development proposals, and neglected physical development of regions; or peripherally considered physical development. As for participation, the past plans have adopted some participatory methods[53] since the very first Plan; however, these methods could not be institutionalized and they did not work efficiently (Özşen et al., 2004).

The 8th Plan has adopted a new strategic perspective to overcome these deficiencies: To defeat the incompatibility between sectorial plans developed by the SPO (i.e. regional plans) and territorial plans developed by municipalities (i.e. urban plans), the 8th Plan has introduced "provincial development plans". These plans are supposed to fulfill the gap between regional and urban plans. PDPs are both physical and sectorial plans, and are aimed to be developed via a participatory approach. With these features, the PDP is a kind of *strategic planning*, which is said to be an "innovation" in the field of planning. It is possible to treat the PDP as an "innovation"[54] in the Turkish planning with the novelties it has brought about:

- ***New institutionalization:***
  Provincial Development Planning does not simply refer to the plan. It is equally concerned with how the planning process is realized. The 8th Five-Year Plan proposes the PDPs be realized via the collaboration of as many stakeholders as possible. The already-finished and ongoing PDP processes have adopted this collaborative approach. Although they are

[53] The past participatory efforts have been elaborated within Chapter VII.
[54] PDP has not been legalized yet. I.e. the innovations, which it has introduced, have not been implemented countrywide. Despite that, one can still define the PDP as an innovation --at least-- at the theoretical level.

only mentioned in the 8th Plan and has not been legalized yet, the PDP processes can be treated as signs toward new institutionalization, which means the reorganization of planning process including a wide range of public and non-public stakeholders.

- ***Multi-dimensionality***:
  PDPs are not mere physical plans. Besides the macro-level physical development decisions in the form of "guidelines", they also include legal and institutional reorganizations and sectorial development proposals.

- ***A long-term vision of a competitive kind****:*
  Any PDP has to have a "slogan", i.e. a vision, which reflects the overall development strategy for a locality. This development strategy refers to some economic sector(s), in which the locality can become competitive.

- ***Short-medium-long term development:***
  The visions of PDPs reflect long-term development. In medium-term, they aim at socio-economic improvement; while in short-term they seek to improve physical conditions that would obstruct development in any sense (Özşen et al., 2004).

- ***Multiplicity of target groups:***
  Whereas mainstream physical plans aim at local physical development only for the citizens of a specific locality, strategic plans do have a much larger target group. As a strategic plan, the scope of a PDP covers multiple target groups beyond local people. The target groups and how they benefit from a PDP is given below:

  Local citizens: A PDP offers proposals for the development of a locality in any sector; which improve quality of life for local people. Meanwhile, it allows the participation of local people into the planning process, which increases their capacities and willingness to involve in decision-making processes.

Local public institutions: A PDP proposes the reorganization of administration in a more efficient and democratic sense. It allows the collaboration of public institutions with each other, and with other stakeholders.

National/international tourists and investors: A PDP aims at improving the comparative advantage of a locality in some economic sector(s). Through the strategies of plan, economic sectors can be promoted in such a way that can attract national/international tourists and investors.

Local enterprisers: A PDP can work as the economic engine of a province. It includes proposals such as provision of adequate infrastructure through simultaneous public investments; adequate banking/credit services for the security of local business; proper location for their facilities, etc. So, a PDP can provide a proper climate for local enterprises. Likewise other local citizens, the PDP allows the participation of local enterprisers into the planning process.

- ***Guidance to the preparation of physical plans:***
  Provincial development plans --indicating general spatial development decisions and detailed economic, social and cultural development decisions— are supposed to provide a basis for the preparation of Environmental Master Plans (1/25 000 scale) and City Master Plans (1/5000 scale). This would defeat the incompatibility between sectorial and physical plans.

These are the novelties that the PDP has brought about. Chapter VII has discussed its position in the Turkish planning system. It is an ingredient of both regional and local policies. However, its novelties should wait until the PDP attains a legal status.

IX.5. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This study has been designed as a contribution to the discussions in literature about the strategic spatial planning. It has become increasingly popular in the last fifteen years or so; both developed and developing countries have shown great enthusiasm in adopting this new approach in their planning systems. The study has displayed that because of the participatory nature of planning process and competition-seeking nature of plan, strategic planning is very much tied to two place-specific factors: quality of the social context; and level of economic development. Also, the study has underlined that the success of any strategic planning process is greatly related to contingent factors. Those contingencies cover the actors in a process, and their way and degree of involvement. When a process is sort of "possessed" by influential actors (i.e. when a process is coordinated "top-down" by strong actors), it can result in success even in localities, where the above two place-specific factors are inferior. Nevertheless, for "bottom-up" (or voluntary) local strategic planning processes to be successful, the same two place-specific factors gain criticalness.

The study has marked to the need to design the implementation stage of strategic planning process in a concrete manner. An implementation program (or action plan) is an obligation, in which the implementers and financial resources are described. Otherwise, strategic plans would remain as mere wishes. However, the existence of an implementation program is still not sufficient for a strategic plan be implemented. Although the PDP has been defined in the 8th Five-Year National Development Plan, it has not attained a legal status yet. Vis-à-vis the inexistence of legal obligation, those provinces with inferior socio-economic conditions would not be eager to realize the implementation stage. Therefore, it may be reasonable to provide a legal status for the PDP. The law on PDP should particularly stress multi-dimensionality of the plan; collaborative methodology in planning and implementation stages; financial basis for implementation and monitoring issues. On the other hand, "bottom-up" local strategic planning processes can never have legal status, since they are by nature voluntary. Their implementation, thus, depends on mutual trust among organizations involved. This leads to the inference that the quality of so-called social capital gains much more importance in voluntarily organized strategic planning processes. The mature stocks of social

capital (i.e. largeness and compactness of civic networks) in a locality can establish committees to monitor the implementation stage.

IX.6. FUTURE RESEARCH

Strategic planning is a recent approach in the Turkish planning system. It has been only experienced in some limited number of regional, provincial and municipal planning studies. As this approach gets widespread in the country, a future researcher can make a comparative analysis of multiple strategic planning cases. The evaluation framework developed in this study can be applied in such an analysis. Analysis and testing of more cases would contribute to the understanding of the role of organizational and socio-economic differences in strategic planning processes.

Such a comparative study can also be made on an international basis. International comparisons can show how social, political, cultural, economical and institutional differences in various countries reflect themselves in strategic planning processes.

SELECTED REFERENCES

1. Albrechts, L. 1999. “Planners as catalysts and initiators of change. The new structure plan for Flanders” in European planning studies. Vol.7. No.5.
2. Albrechts, L. 2003. “Strategic (spatial) planning revisited”. Paper presented in the 7th international congress of Asian planning schools association. Hanol.
3. Albrechts, L. 2003. “”From discourse to facts/reality: the case of the ROM project in Ghent, Belgium”. Paper presented in the AESOP-ACSP 3rd joint congress. 8-12 July 2003, Belgium.
4. Albrechts, L et al. 2001. eds. The changing institutional landscape of planning. Aldershot, Ashgate.
5. Albrechts, L. et al. 2003. “Strategic spatial planning and regional governance in Europe” in JAPA. No.2.
6. Alden, J. et al. 2001. “In search of new approaches for planning” in The changing institutional landscape of planning. Eds. Albrecht, L. et al. Aldershot: Ashgate.
7. Alexander, E.R. 1986. Approaches to planning: Introducing current planning theories, concepts, and issues. New York: Gordon and Breach Science Publications.
8. Altaban, Ö. 2002. “Ankara metropoliten alan planlama deneyimi: 1970-1984 nazım plan bürosunun kuruluşu, örgüt yapısı, planlama yaklaşımı ve sorunlar” in in Planlama. No: 2002/4. Ankara: TMMOB Şehir Plancıları Odası Yayını.
9. Altshuler, A. 1965. The city planning process: A political analysis. New York: Cornell University Press.
10. Altshuler, A. 1965. “The goals of comprehensive planning” in Faludi, A. ed. A reader in planning theory. 1973.

11. Amin, A. and N. Thrift. 1995. “Globalisation, institutional thickness and the local economy” in Managing cities: The new urban context. Eds. P. Healey et al. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
12. Ataöv, A. 2004. “Participatory strategic planning in Kocaeli, Turkey: Action research in large-scale systems”. Paper presented in the 34th annual John Hopkins urban fellows conference, Padova and Venice.
13. Atay, F.R. 1969. Çankaya. Ankara: Remzi Kitabevi.
14. Baerenholdt J.O. and N. Aarsaether. 2002. “Coping strategies, social capital and space” in European urban and regional studies. London: Sage Publications.
15. Babalık-Sutcliffe, E. 2003. “Turkey’s globalization experience and issues of equity: Istanbul versus Ankara”. Unpublished research paper.
16. Balducci, A. 2001. “Governing fragmentation: the space of participatory approaches in planning”. Paper presented in ACSP AESOP APSA ANZAPS World Planning Schools Congress, Shanghai.
17. Bayazıt, N.1982. Planlama ve tasarlamaya katılma. İstanbul: Teknik Üniversite Matbaası.
18. Bell, M. 2000. “Idealist strategic planning” in Insights.
19. Blotevogel, H.H. 1999. “Rationality and discourse in (post) modern planning” in The revival of strategic planning: Proceedings of the colloquium. Eds. Salet, W. and A.Faludi. Amsterdam: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.
20. Boratav, K. 2000. “Emperyalizm mi? Küreselleşme mi?” in Küreselleşme. Ed. E. A. Tonak. Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.
21. Borja, J. and M. Castells. 1997. Local and global: The management of cities in the information age. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.
22. Boswell, M.R. 2000. Redefining environmental planning: Evidence of the emergence of sustainable development and ecosystem management in planning for the South Florida ecosystem. A dissertation submitted to the Department of Urban and Regional Planning of Florida State University, College of Social Sciences.
23. Bölgesel Gelişme Özel İhtisas Komisyonu. 2000. Sekizinci beş yıllık kalkınma plani: Bölgesel gelişme özel ihtisas komisyonu raporu. Ankara.

24. Bramwell B. and A. Sharman. 1999. “Collaboration in local tourism policymaking” in Annals of tourism research. Vol.26. No.2. Elsevier Science Ltd.
25. Brenner, N. 2000. “The urban question as a scale question: reflections on Henri Lefebvre, urban theory and the politics of scale”. International journal of urban and regional research. Vol.24/2.
26. Bryson J.M. and W.D. Roering. 1987. “Applying private-sector strategic planning in the public sector” in Journal of the American planning association. Volume 53. No.1.
27. Bulut, Y. and M.Kösecik. 2002. “NGOs and municipalities: A study of the Gaziantep metropolitan municipality” in Turkish studies. Vol.3. No.2. London: Frank Cass.
28. Bukowski, J. et al. 2003. Eds. Between Europeanizatian and local societies. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
29. Butler, C.J., A. Shachar, J. van Weesep. 1997. Eds. European cities in competition. Aldershot: Ashgate.
30. Camagni, R. 2003. “Città, governance urbana e politiche urbane europee” in DISP. Vol.152.
31. Cartwright, T.J. 1991. “Planning and chaos theory” in Journal of American planning association. Vol.57. No.1. Chicago: American Planning Association.
32. Castells, M. 1996. The rise of the network society: Economy, society and culture. Oxford: Blackwell.
33. Chrislip, D.D. and C.E. Larson. Collaborative leadership. San Francisco: Josey-Bass Publishers.
34. Davidoff, P. 1965. “Advocacy and pluralism in planning” in Faludi, A. Ed. A reader in planning theory. 1973.
35. De Greiff, P. 2000. “Deliberative democracy and group representation” in Social theory & practice. Vol. 26. Issue 3.
36. Demirci, A.G. 2003. “Bölgesel kalkınma ajansları”. Paper presented in Sosyal Bilimler Kongresi.
37. Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı. 1973. Planlama nedir? Niçin plan yapıyoruz?. Ankara: DPT Yayınları.
38. Erman, T. (2001), “The Politics of Squatter (*Gecekondu*) Studies in Turkey: The Changing Representations of Rural Migrants in the Academic Discourse”, *Urban Studies*, Vol.38, No.7, 983-1002.

39. Ersoy, M. and T. Şengül. Eds. 2003. Şanlıurfa il gelişme planı çalışmaları. Ankara: Middle East Technical University, Graduate Program of Urban Policy Planning and Local Government.
40. EUROSTAT. http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat. October, 2003.
41. Faludi, A. ed. 1973a. A reader in planning theory. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
42. Faludi, A. 1973b. Planning theory. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
43. Faludi, A; Altes, W.K. 1994. "Evaluating communicative planning: A revised design for performance research" in European planning studies. Vol. 2 Issue 4.
44. Feldman, E.J. 1981. A practical guide to the conduct of field research in the social sciences. Boulder: Westview Press.
45. Fisher, R., and W. Ury. 1983. Getting to yes. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
46. Forester, J.1989. Planning in the face of power. Berkeley: University of California Press.
47. Friedmann, J. 1965. Venezuela: From doctrine to dialogue, national planning series 1. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press.
48. Friedmann, J. 1988. "Planning in the public domain: discourse and practice" in Journal of Planning Education and Research. Vol.8.
49. Friedmann, J. 1993. "Toward a non-Euclidean mode of planning" in Journal of the American planning association. Vol.59 Issue 4.
50. Garson, G.D. 2002. "Case studies". http://www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/cases.htm July, 2004.
51. Gedikli, B. 1998. "Kamu yararı ve imar afları" in Ada Kentliyim. Vol.15. Ankara: Yayımevi A.Ş.
52. Gedikli, B. 2002. "Spatial policies within the framework of European Union and Turkish planning system vis-à-vis these policies". Paper presented at the EURA conference titled Urban and Spatial European Policies: Levels of Territorial Government. Turin.
53. Gedikli, B. 2003. "Evaluation of the strategic planning process in the Turkish spatial planning context". Paper presented in the AESOP-ACSP 3rd joint congress, July 8-12, in Leuven, Belgium.
54. Göymen, K. 2000. "Türkiye'de yerel yönetimler ve yönetişim: gereksinmeler, önermeler, yönelimler". Çağdaş yerel yönetimler dergisi. C:9. S:2. Ankara: TODAİE Yayınları.

55. Graham, S. and P.Healey. 1999. “Relational concepts of space and place: Issues for planning theory and practice” in European planning studies. Vol.7. Issue 5.
56. Günaydın, G. “Küreselleşme sürecinin kamu yönetimi üzerine etkileri ve ZMO’nun duruşu”. http://www.zmo.org.tr/etkinlikler/ktts02/29.pdf. January, 2004.
57. Hall, T. and P. Hubbard. Ed. 1998. The entrepreneurial city: Geographies of politics, regime and representation. Chichester: John Wiley&Sons.
58. Harvey, D. 1990. “Between space and time: Reflections on the geographical imagination” in Annals of association of American geographers. Vol.80.
59. Harvey, D. 1992. “Capitalism: The factory of fragmentation” in New perspectives quarterly. Vol.9. Issue 2.
60. Harvey, D. 1996. Justice, nature and geography of difference. Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers.
61. Healey, P. 1992. “Planning through debate” in Town planning review. Vol.63. No.2.
62. Healey, P. 1993. “The communicative work of development plans” in Environment and planning B: Planning and design.
63. Healey, P. 1997. Collaborative planning. Houndmills: Macmillan Press Ltd.
64. Healey, P. 1999. “Institutional analysis, communicative planning, and shaping places” in Journal of planning education and research. Vol.19.
65. Healey, P. et al. 1997. Making strategic spatial plans. Innovation in Europe. London: U.C.L. Press.
66. Healey P. et al. 1999. “European developments in strategic spatial planning” in European planning studies. Vol.7. Issue 3.
67. Held D. 1987. Models of democracy. Cambridge: Polity Press.
68. Herbert D.T. and C.J.Thomas. 1990. Cities in space: City as place. London: David Fulton Publishers.
69. Huxley, M. and O. Yiftachel 2000. “New paradigm or old myopia? Unsettling the communicative turn in planning theory” in Journal of planning education and research. Vol.19.
70. Innes, J. 1989. Knowledge and action in public policy: The search for meaningful indicators. 2nd Ed. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

71. Innes, J. E. 1995. “Planning theory’s emerging paradigm: Communicative action and interactive practice” in Journal of planning education and research. Vol.14/3.
72. Innes, J. 1996. “Planning through consensus building” in Journal of the American planning association. Vol.62. No.4.
73. Innes, J. E. 1997. “Planner’s century” in Journal of planning education and research.
74. IRPUD-Institute of Spatial Planning, University of Dortmund. http://irpud.raumplanung.uni-dortmund.de/irpud. October, 2003.
75. Jones, M. 2001. “The rise of the regional state in economic governance: Partnerships for prosperity or new scales of state power” in Environment and planning A. Vol.33.
76. Kalaycıoğlu, E. 2001. “Turkish democracy: Patronage versus governance” in Turkish studies. Vol.2. No.1. London: Frank Cass.
77. Kaufman J.L. and H.M. Jacobs. 1987. “A public planning perspective on strategic planning” in Journal of the American planning association. Volume 53. No.1.
78. Keat, R. and J.Urry. 1975. Social theory as science. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
79. Keleş, R. 1990. Kentleşme politikası. Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.
80. Keleş, R. 1993. Kentleşme politikası. Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.
81. King. Anthony D. 1990. Global cities: post-imperialism and the internationalization of London. London: Routledge.
82. Keskinok, Ç. 2002. “Haluk Alatan ile söyleşi. Önemli bir planlama deneyimi: Ankara metropoltien alan nazım plan bürosu” in Planlama. No: 2002/4. Ankara: TMMOB Şehir Plancıları Odası Yayını.
83. Kuhn, T. S.1970. The structure of scientific revolutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
84. Lan, Z. and K. Anders. 2000. “A paradigmatic view of contemporary public administration research” in Administration & Society. Vol. 32 Issue 2.
85. Lefebvre, H. 1977. “Reflections on the politics of space” in Radical geography. Peet, R. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.
86. Lever W.F. 1999. “Competitive cities in Europe” in Urban studies. Vol.36. No.s 5-6.
87. Lindblom, C. 1990. Inquiry and change. New Haven: Yale University Press.

88. Lloyd, C. 2000. “Globalization: Beyond the ultra-modernist narrative to a critical realist perspective on geopolitics in the cyber age” in International journal of urban and regional research. Vol.24.2.
89. Lovering, J. 1995. “Creating discourses rather than jobs: the crisis in the cities and the transition fantasies of intellectuals and policy makers” in The new urban context. Eds. P. Healey et al. John Wiley&Sons Ltd.
90. M.G.K. 1993. Türkiye’de Bölge Planlamasının Evreleri. Ankara: M.G.K Genel Sekreterliği Yayınları.
91. MacLeod, G. 2001. “New regionalism reconsidered: Globalization and the remaking of political economic space” in International urban and regional research. Vol.25.
92. Madanipour, A. “Multiple meanings of space and the need for a dynamic perspective” in Madanipour A. et al. 2001. Eds. The governance of place. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Company.
93. Massey, D. 1984. Spatial division of labour. London: Macmillan Education Ltd.
94. Mastop, H.J.M. 1999. “The performance principle in strategic planning” in The revival of strategic planning: Proceedings of the colloquium. Eds. Salet, W. and A.Faludi. Amsterdam: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.
95. Mazza, L. 1996. Appunti sulla pianificazione strategica. Milano: Facolta di Architettura del Politecnico di Milano.
96. Mazza, L. 1998. “Order and change, rule and strategy” in The city and its sciences. Bertuglia CS, Bianchi G, Mela A, Eds. Heidelberg: Springer Verlag.
97. Mazza, L. 2000. “Strategie e strategie spaziali” in Territorio. No.13. Milan: FrancoAngeli.
98. Mazza, L. 2002. “Flessibilita e rigidita degli argomentazioni” in Urbanistica.Vol.118.
99. Myers, D.J. 1995. “Review essay” in Studies in comparative international development. Vol.30.
100. National Programme for the Adoption of the Acquis (NPAA). 2003. Official Gazette dated 24 July 2003, No. 25178
101. Newman, P. and A. Thornley. 1996. Urban planning in Europe.
102. Oatley, N. ed. 1998. Cities, economic competition and urban policy. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
103. O'keefe, E. 2000. “Equity, democracy and globalization” in Critical public health. Vol. 10. Issue 2.

104. Organization scheme of the State Planning Organization. http://mevzuat.dpt.gov.tr/khk/540/chart.html. June, 2003.
105. Özcan, G.B. 2000. “Local economic development, decentralization and consensus building in Turkey” in Progress in planning. No.54. Eds. Diamond, D. and B.H. Massam. Pergamon.
106. Özşen, T. et al. 2004. “İl gelişme planlaması ve Mersin, Batman, Çankırı uygulamaları”. Paper presented in Kentsel araştırmalar sempozyumu, Denizli. Ankara: DPT Yayınları.
107. Pellizzoni, L. 2001. “The myth of the best argument: power, deliberation and reason” in British journal of sociology. Vol.52, Issue 1.
108. Personal conversation with Mr.Rıfat Dağ, Coordinator of the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning Process. November, 2003.
109. Personal conversation with Mrs.Filiz Doğanay, Coordinator of the Şanlıurfa Provincial Development Planning Process. November, 2003.
110. Personal conversation with Prof.İlhan Tekeli. October, 2004.
111. Piattoni, S. 2003. “Transforming local culture: Territorial governance in the Italian south” in Between Europeanization and local societies. Eds. Bukowski, J. et al. Lanham: Rowman&Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
112. Pinson, G. 2002. “Political government and governance: Strategic planning and the reshaping of political capacity in Turin” in International journal of urban and regional research. Vol. 26. No.3.
113. Preteceille, E. 1990. “Political paradoxes of urban restructuring: Globalization of the economy and localization of politics?” in Beyond the city limits: Urban policy and economic restructuring in comparative perspective. eds. Logan, J.R. and T. Swanstrom. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
114. Rauen, M. 2001. “*Reflections on the space of flows: The Guggenheim Museum Bilbao” in* Journal of arts management, law & society. Vol. 30, Issue 4.
115. Sager, T. 1994. Communicative planning theory. Aldershot: Avebury.
116. Sager, T. 2002. “Deliberative planning and decision making” in Journal of planning education and research. Vol.21.
117. Salet, W. and A. Faludi. 1999. The revival of strategic planning: Proceedings of the colloquium. Amsterdam: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.

118. Sassen, S. 1991. “A new urban regime?” in The global city: New York, London, Tokyo. Blackwell: Cambridge.
119. Savitch H. 1998. “Global challenge and institutional capacity. Or how we can refit local administration for the next century” in Administration and Society. Vol.30. No.3.
120. Schon, D. 1971. Beyond the stable state. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.
121. Selman, P. 2001. “Social capital, sustainability and environmental planning” in Planning theory & practice. Vol.2.
122. Smith, N. 1984. Uneven development. Cambridge: Basil Blackwell, Inc.
123. Smith, M.P. 2001. Social construction of transnational urbanism. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers.
124. Smith M.P. and J.R. Feagin. 1987. Eds. The capitalist city. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
125. Smith, M R., and Marx, L. 1994. Does technology drive history? The dilemma of technological determinism. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
126. South Eastern Regional Development Administration. http://www.gap.gov.tr. June, 2003.
127. Sönmez, M., 2001a. “A city of employees” in The Istanbul journal. No.36. Ankara.
128. Sönmez, M., 2001b. “The 2000s Istanbul in 10 dimensions” in The Istanbul Journal. No: 36. Ankara.
129. State Planning Organization. 2000. Sekizinci beş yıllık kalkınma planı 2001-2005. Ankara.
130. Steinberg, F. 2003. “Strategic urban planning in Latin America: experiences of building and managing future” in Habitat international. Elsevier Ltd.
131. Stough, R. 2001. “Endogenous growth theory and the role of institutions in regional economic development” in Theories of endogenous regional growth, lessons for regional policies. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
132. Susskind, L., and J. Cruikshank. 1987. Breaking the impasse: Consensual approaches to resolving public disputes. New York: Basic Books.
133. Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı Raporu. 2003.
134. “Şanlıurfa İli Gelişme Planı Taslak İş Tanımı”. Document obtained form GAP Administration.

135. Şengül, T. 1998. “Siyaset ve mekansal ölçek sorunu: Yerelci stratejilerin bir eleştirisi”. ERC Working papers in economics.
136. Şengül, T. 1999. “Yerel yönetim kuramları: Yönetimden yönetişime” in Çağdaş yerel yönetimler dergisi. Cilt: 8. Sayı: 3. Ankara: TODAİE Yayınları.
137. Şengül, T. 2002. “Planlama paradigmalarının dönüşümü üzerine eleştirel bir değerlendirme” in Planlama. No: 2002/2-3. Ankara: TMMOB Şehir Plancıları Odası Yayını.
138. Tankut, G. 1984. Bir başkentin imarı. Ankara: Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi.
139. Taylor, N. 1998. Urban planning theory since 1945. London: Sage Publications.
140. Tekeli, İ. 2003. “Bir bölge plancısının çözmeye çalıştığı sorunun büyüklüğü karşısında yaşadığı iç huzursuzlukları”. Paper presented in the Kentsel Ekonomik Araştırmalar Sempozyumu. Denizli. 10-12 September, 2003.
141. Tekeli, İ. 1967. “Regional planning in Turkey and regional policy in the first five-year development plan” in Planning in Turkey. Eds. İlkin, S. and E. İnanç. Ankara: Faculty of Administrative Sciences, METU.
142. Tekeli, İ. 1972. Bölge planlama üzerine. İstanbul: İTÜ Matbaası .
143. Tekeli, İ. 1980. “Türkiye’de kent planlamasının tarihsel kökleri” in Türkiye’de kent planlaması. Ed. Gök, T. Ankara: ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi Baskı İşliği.
144. Tekeli, İ. 1993. “Kent planlaması ve katılım üzerine düşünceler” in Planlamaya katılım. İstanbul: Mimar Sinan Üniversitesi Rektörlük Matbaası.
145. Tekeli, İ. 1998. “Türkiye’de Cumhuriyet doneminde kentsel gelişme ve kent planlaması” in 75 yılda değişen kent ve mimarlık. Ankara: Türkiye İş bankası Kültür Yayınları & Tarih Vakfı Ortak Yayını.
146. Tekeli, İ. 2001. Modernite aşılırken kent planlaması. Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.
147. Tekeli, İ. 2002. “Türkiye’de kent planlamasının yeniden kurumsallaşmasını düzenlerken düşünülmesi gerekenler üzerine” in Planlama. No: 2002/1. Ankara: TMMOB Şehir Plancıları Odası Yayını.
148. Tekeli, İ. 2002. “Küreselleşen dünyada bölgesel gelişme kuramında yaşanan paradigma değişiklikleri”. Paper presented in Moldavia.
149. Tekeli, İ. and S. İlkin. 2002. “Küreselleşen dünyada AB Türkiye ilişkilerinin yorumlanması”.
150. Tekeli, İ. And M. Pınarcıoğlu. 2004. (Forthcoming) “Commitment Model for Regional Planning: how to unlock the frozen gears of stagnant regions” in Studia Regionalia.

151. Throgmorton, J. A. 1993. “Planning as a rhetorical activity: survey research as a trope in arguments about electric power planning in Chicago” in Journal of the American planning association, 59, pp. 334-346.
152. Turkey Local Agenda 21 Program. http://www.la21turkey.net. May, 2003.
153. Türkay, M. 2000. “Devlet, ulusal kalkınma ve kapitalizmin dinamikleri”. İktisat dergisi. Sayı: 404. İstanbul: İ.Ü. İktisat Fakültesi Mezunları Cemiyeti Yayınları.
154. Türker, P.A. 1995. “Türkiye’de bölge planlaması ve organizasyonu”. Unpublished paper prepared for the course ADM 523. METU.
155. Tewdwr-Jones M. And P.Allmendinger. 1998. “Deconstructing communicative rationality: A critique of Habermasian collaborative planning” in Environment and planning A.
156. Webber, M. 1963. “Comprehensive planning and social responsibility: Toward an AIP consensus on the profession’s role and purposes” in Faludi, A. Ed. A reader in planning theory. 1973.
157. Welch, A.R. 2001. “Globalisation, post-modernity and the state: Comparative education facing the third millennium” in Comparative education. Vol.37.
158. Whittington, R. 1993. What is strategy and does it matter? London: Routledge.
159. Wilenius, M. 1998. “A new globe in the making: Manuel Castells on the information age” in Acta Sociologica. Vol. 41. Issue 3.
160. Williams, G. 1999. “Metropolitan governance and strategic planning: A review of experience in Manchester, Melbourne and Toronto” in Progress in planning. eds. Diamond, D. and B.H. Massam. Pergamon.
161. Yaşar, S.S. 2003. Regional development agencies: endogenous dynamics and regional policy. A thesis submitted to the Graduate Program of Regional Planning. METU, Ankara.
162. Yavuz, F. 1952. Ankara’nın imarı ve şehirciliğimiz. Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi, Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Yayınları.
163. Yin, R.K. 1984. Case study research. Design and methods. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

APPENDIX

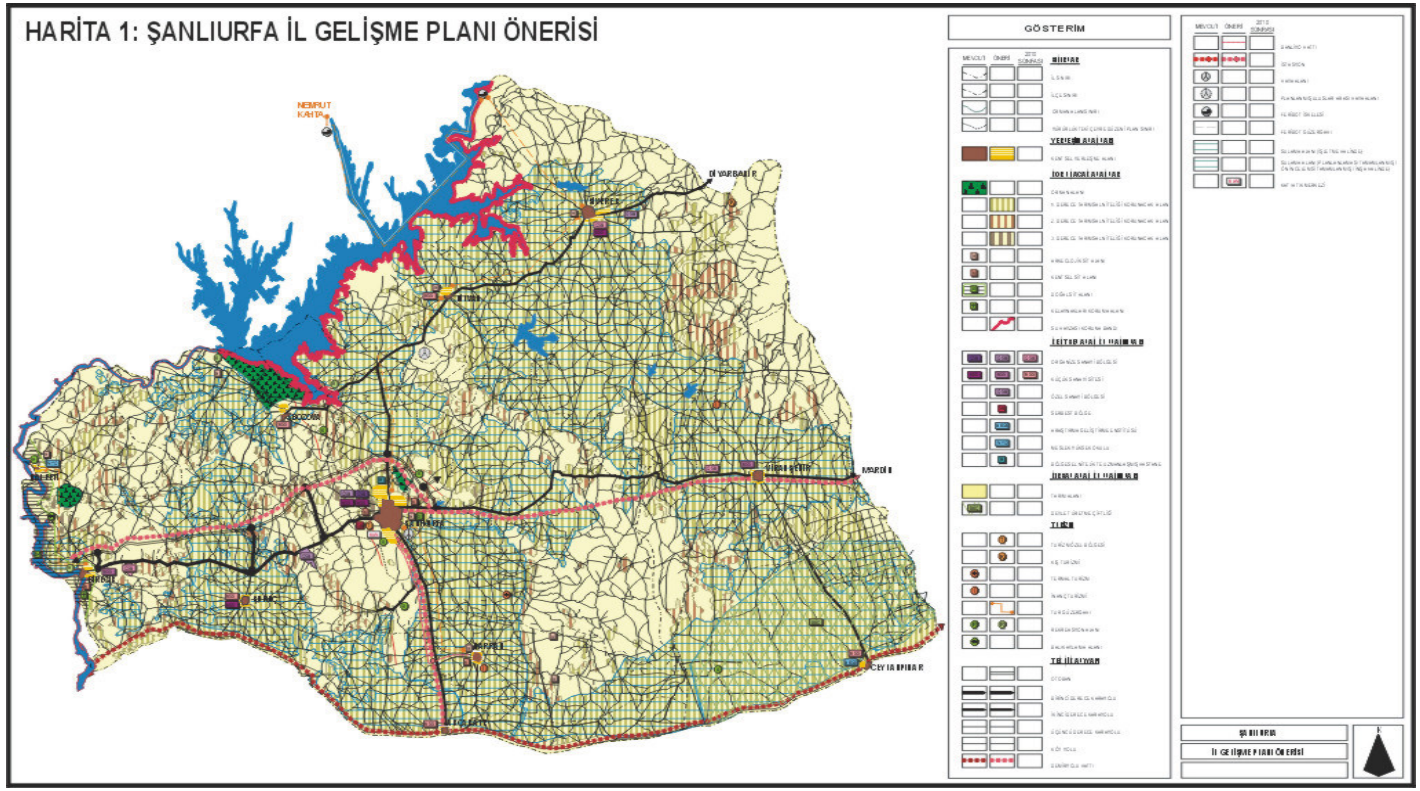


FIGURE 14-MAP OF ŞANLIURFA PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN
(Source: Şanlıurfa İl Gelişme Planı)

VITA

Bahar Gedikli was born in Adapazarı on March 4, 1974. She was graduated in 1990 from High School of Özel Sakarya (Özel Sakarya Lisesi). She received her B.S. degree in Faculty of Architecture, Department of City and Regional Planning from the Middle East Technical University in June 1995; and her M.S. degree in Graduate Program of Urban Policy Planning and Local Government from the same university in June 1998. Since 2000 she has been a research assistant in the Department of City and Regional Planning. Her main areas of interest are urban policy planning; local government; and strategic spatial planning.