

THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT
IN SAFRANBOLU

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IN SAFRANBOLU**

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN SAFRANBOLU

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Safranbolu is among the many other tourism destinations of Turkey practicing sustainable and cultural tourism. Like many tourism centers in Turkey, it had been negatively influenced from economic fluctuations of the 1980s period. However, in spite of other tourism centers, it has not much changed and it has been well protected. The reasons for this protection can be explained that Safranbolu entered the World Heritage List in 1994, and so environmental and sustainable planning approaches are adapted to development of town. While protecting its natural and cultural resources, the town is planned and managed. As a result, it is announced as one of the well protected cities of the world.

This thesis discusses development of Safranbolu within these sustainable tourism-planning approaches. It aims to explain how the town has been changed after being a tourism destination and to search positive and negative impacts of tourism. The thesis

has four objectives; to describe tourism and tourism planning issues, to explain the evolution of tourism in Safranbolu, to search negative and positive impacts of tourism and finally to provide new recommendations on development of Safranbolu. In this respect, it explores the relations between tourism and planning, investigates cultural and spatial reflections of global tourism in the town. To determine these effects, a survey has been carried out during the summer of 2008. According to this, a sustainable and environmental tourism planning method is suggested for the town.

Keywords: Safranbolu, tourism, planning, conservation, culture

ÖZ

SAFRANBOLU'DA EKONOMİK VE SOSYAL GELİŞİMİN ETKİSİ

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Safranbolu, Türkiye'nin sürdürülebilir ve kültür turizmi uygulayan turizm destinasyonlarından biridir. Türkiye'deki birçok turizm merkezi gibi, 1980 döneminin ekonomik dalgalanmalardan olumsuz olarak etkilenmiştir. Ancak, diğer turizm merkezlerinin aksine, ilçe çok değişmemiş ve iyi korunmuştur. Bu korumanın sebepleri Safranbolu 1994 yılında Dünya Miras Listesi'ne girmesi ve böylece ilçenin gelişiminde çevresel ve sürdürülebilir planlama yaklaşımları uygulanması olarak açıklanabilir. İlçenin doğal ve kültürel kaynakları korunurken planlanmış ve yönetilmiştir. Böylece ilçe dünyanın en iyi korunan şehirlerinden biri olarak ilan edilmiştir.

Bu tez, Safranbolu'nun gelişimini sürdürülebilir turizm planlama yaklaşımları içinde tartışır. Tezin amacı ilçenin turizm destinasyonu olduktan sonra nasıl değiştiğini ve turizmin negatif ve pozitif etkilerini araştırmaktır. Tez dört bölümden oluşmaktadır; turizm ve turizm planlama kavramlarının tanımlanması, Safranbolu'da turizmin gelişiminin açıklanması, turizmin olumsuz ve olumlu etkilerini araştırılması ve nihayet

Safranbolu'nun geliřimi iin yeni neriler sunulmasıdır. Bu bakımdan, tez turizm ve planlama arasındaki iliřkileri arařtırır, kresel turizmin iledeki kltrel ve mekansal yansımaları inceler. Bu etkileri belirlemek iin 2008 yılı yaz dneminde bir anket yapılmıřtır. Buna gre, ilenin geliřimi iin srdrlebilir ve evreye duyarlı bir turizm planlaması nerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Safranbolu, turizm, planlama, koruma, kltr

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Tourism, which is “a social, cultural and economic phenomenon related to the movement of people to places outside their usual place of residence pleasure being the usual motivation” (WTO, 2008b), has a rising importance in modern life. It has become the largest and a dynamic industry, a common denominator for economic development and regeneration of communities. Especially, in the post-war period, it is one of the more dynamically developing sectors of the world economy because it holds the most important industries of export of goods and services (Coccosis & Pscyharis, 2008). It is wide and strong effects over the economic growth of a country such as, creation of wealth, generation of revenues, employment, private sector growth, infrastructure development and contribution to the balance of payments.

Because of rising economic importance of tourism, many countries, especially those experiencing a decline in jobs in other sectors, such as manufacturing, forestry and mining, are turning to tourism as a new economic source. Consequently, tourism development is encouraged, particularly among the developing countries around the world. Many nations promote themselves as a tourism center to gain a share in expanding global tourism market. Even countries such as oil-rich Abu Dhabi, have adopted tourism development policies (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

In fact, tourism as an industry has one basic characteristic, which makes it different from all other industries. This characteristic can be defined as the places of production and consumption, which coincide spatially. Another distinct characteristic of tourism is its multiple linkages to other economic activities and sectors, and so it can have strong

multiplier effects. Thence, it can contribute to economic growth in destination areas and spread the benefits over a wider area, leading to regional growth (Coccosis & Pscyharis, 2008).

However, with the global trends in the world, tourism is not just seen as an economic activity, it become a social phenomenon and truly global industry. It has been a central component of the economic, social, and cultural shift. Therefore, tourism has not only an important impact for the economy, but also for the natural and built environment, for the local population at the places visited, and for the visitors themselves (WTO, 2008a). It is a central component of modern social identity and therefore, tourism can be understood as spaces, and times of self-making (Franklin, 2003). It influences the lifestyles, social structures, and inevitably the quality of life of many people in the world.

Within this context, tourism can be defined as “invisible” industry (Harill & Potts, 2003), which includes some important elements, such as cultural and social values, language, history, traditions, images, city symbols, cultural resources. It has become one of the ways in which our lives are ordered and one of the ways in which consumers orientate themselves, or take a stance to a globalized world (Franklin, 2003). It is no longer something happens away from the everyday life and therefore, it cannot be separated from the cultural, political, and economic conditions of the world.

Accordingly, it has been widely recognized that tourism has also important for cultural differentiation. It has been continuously agreed that tourism has become one of the largest industry in the world getting touch with different cultures. Tourism is an important `location' for cultural production, and it supplies strong relationships between various societies. Hence, this thesis investigates the nature of tourism, its impacts, and its relationships between other sectors in a variety of perspectives, especially the role of tourism in the society.

Undoubtedly, historical, cultural values and old settlements attract tourists and so, many historical places have become tourism destination. Visiting historical places enables

tourists to understand the history, culture, traditions, and social lifestyle of the region.

In this manner, tourism has some positive impacts on social and traditional issues. Firstly, visiting historical places increases the environmental awareness and causes the conservation of the historical places. Because of its economic importance, people will be more conservative about their environment. In addition to this, the demand for tourism will increase restoring and using the historical buildings and cause environmental arrangement. Therefore, when tourism protects the environment, it can raise the environment quality. Secondly, tourism will supply new job opportunities for local people, new investments to the region and increase life quality, by improving infrastructure, services. As a result, tourism has a great role in the development of the region. Thirdly, tourism has been a great factor in the transformation of historical values and culture. The Anatolian settlements such as Beypazarı, Amasra, Kastamonu, and Safranbolu, which have similar traditional characteristics, have begun to develop after more tourists visiting these areas. As a result, it has become important to protect and use the historical and natural sites.

Turkey is an important country for its cultural values, because there have been many Anatolian settlements displaying various structure types and a very intensive cultural variety in terms of social and cultural characteristics. These values have also become resources of tourism sector and created the areas of tourist interest throughout history.

However, in Turkey, tourism is seen as an economic activity and more attention is paid to its economic benefits, so it is not planned regularly in many tourism destinations. Especially after planned period, tourism sector started to be one of the important economic sectors of Turkey. In this period, tourism investments increased, and with 'Tourism Encouragement Law Numbered: 2634, too much emphasis was being placed on private sector, and government gave important incentives to encourage the private sector investments. As a result, the role of state was limited to infrastructure development, provision of planning, and land opportunity for private investors.

This rapid increase and the unplanned development of tourism brought about destructive effects on many places of Turkey. Many tourism investments were made and too many second houses were built in the coastal zones, especially in the Aegean Region, There has been not a planned development in those places and so many places have become a tourism destination without any infrastructure. Therefore, the environmental distortions and cultural degradations have occurred in these places.

Moreover, tourism development is generally lived in the coastal areas and tourism politics of Turkey is generally based on “sand-sea-sun” tourism. Tourism accommodation units with the concept of ‘all inclusive’ become important for hotel management system. Therefore, many tourism investments focus on only this type of tourism. However, it is clear that this type tourism is not enough for tourism development in a country. Because, tourism sector must be planned as a whole, and the resources of the country should be evaluated with a better politics.

This thesis is basically concerned with impact of economic, social and cultural development in Safranbolu,. It is aimed to answer which features of this town has brought about it as a tourism destination, what the economic, social and spatial changes have been lived in the town because of tourism development, which planning approaches should be applied to the town to avoid from negative effects of tourism. It claims that *Safranbolu has changed socially, physically and culturally after becoming a tourism destination, but it has been well protected and so tourism development has not caused significant deteriorations in the town.* In order to investigate these impacts economic, social and spatial analyses are carried out using statistical data, survey research, and visual information.

The thesis aims to discuss the relation between tourism and planning by taking Safranbolu as an example. In this respect, city identity of Safranbolu, which has changed from being a historical town to a tourism center for sixteen years, is determined and a critical regional history of Safranbolu is explored.

Safranbolu is selected as a case study because the town has witnessed rapid and large-scale tourism development and so it is threatened by these changes. Furthermore, in Safranbolu, trade in tourism is important in terms of both volume and value, and is likely to increase in the future.

First two chapters of this thesis explain theoretical concepts about tourism and planning. Second chapter defines the meaning of tourism, the changing tourism tendencies of the world, and focuses on the role of tourism. It claims that tourism is not thought just as an industry; it should be seen as a social concept that affects our everyday lives. In order to explain tourism, tourism systems and models, which help to understand the relationship between tourism and other sectors, are used.. As a result, management of tourism actors, designing and planning of tourism destinations becomes easier and more efficient.

Moreover, this part investigates the socio-cultural implications of tourism. It tries to answer, what the role of tourism is to represent “socio cultural impacts of tourism”, and how cultural heritage is used as a potential resource in the development of tourism. In this context, the positive and negative impacts of tourism are explained, for example, environmental pollution, visual pollution, cultural diffusion, overloaded migration can be given as the negative effects of tourism. To avoid from these negative impacts, it is very important to manage tourism places and make a conceptual plan. Because, if the economic benefits of tourism to the region are not well planned and the resources are consumed irresponsibly, tourism will cause more problems than any benefits to the region. Therefore, there is a need for comprehensive analysis, integrated planning and management of tourism.

In Chapter 3, tourism-planning issues are explored and historical background of tourism planning approaches is investigated. As it explained in previous chapter, making a tourism plan is important to avoid from these negative impacts or minimize them. Therefore, it is crucial to develop appropriate analytical and policy tools for tourism, particularly to reflect the different conditions, characteristics and patterns of tourism development in geographic space (Coccosis & Pscyharis, 2008). The main scope of this

chapter is to analyze tourism planning concept and to explore implications for tourism planning in one of the historical places of Turkey, in Safranbolu. Moreover, a suitable tourism planning approach and a new development strategy for Safranbolu is given in this part.

Chapter 4 deals with the methodological purposes of the study. In this part, the methodology of the thesis is explained and hypotheses are formulated. The main purpose of the thesis, problem, and data collection methods, analyses are explained in this part. This part helps to establish the overall editing and flow of the thesis.

Next part focuses upon general characteristics of Safranbolu. It gives information about geographic, physical, cultural and sociological features of the town. Historical and natural resources, tourism opportunities, demographic, economic and social changes are explored within the years. Some analyses are carried out and they are presented on the graphs and maps by using Geographic Information Systems.

In Chapter 6, the spatial structure and tourism development of Safranbolu is examined. This part examines the change of tourism image of the town and the characteristics of tourism business and the problem of tourism development in the town. It also explains how tourism is capable of changing the traditional and cultural values to tourism attractions. Safranbolu has a rich collection of well-protected old Ottoman houses, architectural monuments and pieces of art, which represents traditional Turkish life, and culture, natural resources. It preserves Turkish architecture, the rich historical and cultural heritage of Anatolia, in its original environment. Therefore, the town is listed in the world Cultural Heritage list by UNESCO, as one of the well-protected city of the world. After that, the town has been an important tourism center of Turkey. In this part, tourism sector is analyzed in the town according to the number of tourists, the number of accommodation units, dinning units, the number of nights spent and arrivals, the distribution of tourism establishments.

The following chapter focuses upon the socio cultural effects of tourism in Safranbolu. It searches the residents and tourists perceptions about the impact of tourism in the town. In this manner, two type questionnaires, which were prepared in the year 2008 for the tourists visiting Safranbolu and the residents, were used to gather data from a large number of respondents. This search was designed in different places of Safranbolu, the industrial area, the residential area, new and old settlements of the town. At the end of the study, according to these analyses and survey research, negative and positive impacts of tourism, which are defined in the theoretical frame of the thesis, are determined and a planning policy is suggested for the town

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF TOURISM IN SOCIAL THEORY

2.1. Introduction

This part focuses mainly on providing an insight about the concept of tourism, and the meanings of travel. It undertakes a detailed theoretical frame for tourism and explains the main approaches about the concept.

For this purpose, firstly, economic growth of tourism is determined and tourism development is searched between 1990 and 2010. Then the major issues for contemporary tourism are investigated. Moreover, the relations between travel, recreation, leisure and tourism are detailed in this part. After a brief section on tourism history, it is explained that there are some difficulties in defining a valid tourism theory.

2.2. Tourism Development in the World

Tourism has become an important socioeconomic sector, so it is at the center of popular and policy discourses. It supplies an important economic advantage to the country and therefore, it is widely recognized that tourism has become an industry of major importance in the world. Undoubtedly, tourism is widely perceived as a potential economic base, because it may improve quality of life such as employment opportunities, tax revenues, economic diversity, festivals, restaurants, natural and

cultural attractions, and outdoor recreation opportunities (Andereck & Valentine & Knopf & Vogh, 2005)

As shown in Table-1, international tourist arrivals in the world increase from 436 million in 2000 to 922 million in 2008; this implies an increase of 111 % in the world. Between these years, international tourist arrivals increase by 24, 37 % in Europe, and there is an increase of 125 % in the Middle East. It seems that the share of tourism arrivals is the most in Europe with 53 % and in Asia, and the Pacific, it is almost 20 %.

Table 1: International Tourist Arrivals (million)

	International Tourist Arrivals (million)								Market Share (%)
	1990	1995	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2008
World	436	536	683	764	803	847	904	922	100
Europe	262,6	311,3	393,5	424,4	440,3	462,2	487,9	489,4	53,08
Asia and the Pacific	55,8	81,8	109,3	144,2	154,6	167	182	184,1	19,96
Americas	92,8	109	128,2	125,7	133,4	135,8	142,9	147	15,94
Africa	15,2	20,1	27,9	33,8	37,3	41,4	45	46,7	5,06
Middle East	9,6	13,7	24,4	36,3	37,8	40,9	46,6	55,1	5,97

Source: WTO, 2010, www.unwto.org, last visited on November, 2010

Similar with increase in the international tourist arrivals between the years 1990 and 2008, international tourist receipts also rise for the same period.

The following table shows international tourist receipts, which rise from 521 billion £ in 2000 to 625 billions £ in 2008. The international tourist receipts increase with 20 % in the world for these eight years. However, in spite of international tourist arrivals, international tourist receipts grow slowly, especially in 2003, it decreases from 521 billion £ to 471 billion £.

The market share of tourist receipts is provided in Table-2, and it is apparent from the table that the share of tourism receipts is the most in Europe. The international tourism

receipts have a share of 50, 17 % in Europe, and 22.1 % in the Asia and the Pacific, 20 % in America.

Table 2: International Tourist Receipts (billion)

	International Tourist Receipts (£ billion)								Market Share (%)
	1990	1995	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2008
World	212	314	521	509	547	591	626	642	100
Europe	112,2	162,2	251,7	264	281,8	300,2	317,55	322,2	50.17
Asia and the Pacific	36,5	61,7	97,6	104,1	111,4	124,7	136,3	140,1	21,8
Americas	54,4	75,2	141,6	106,1	116,3	122,7	125	128,1	20
Africa	5	6,5	11,3	15,4	17,4	19,6	21,2	20,8	3.23
Middle East	4	8,3	19	20,4	21,1	23,8	25,5	31	4,82

Source: WTO, 2010, www.unwto.org, last visited on November, 2010

The Figure 1 and 2 show increase of international tourist arrivals and tourist receipts in the world from 1990 to 2008. It can be see from these figures that there is a rapid increase in the international tourist arrivals and international tourist receipts. According to these figures, it is clear that in 2000, both of them (tourist arrivals and tourist receipts) increase with a great rate and after that year, they decrease a little.

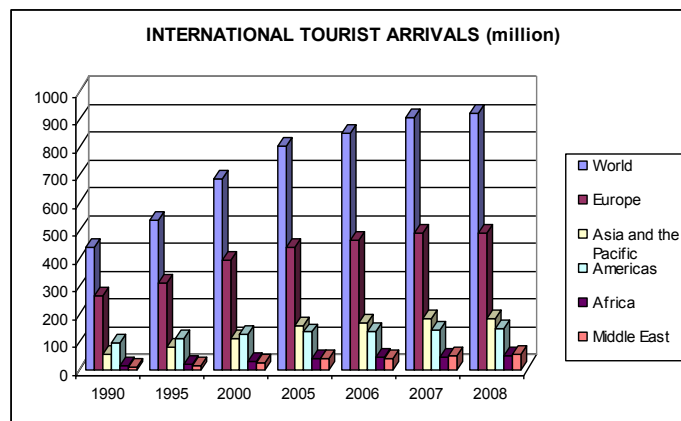


Figure 1: International Tourist Arrivals (million)

Source: Adapted from www.unwto.org, last visited on November, 2010)

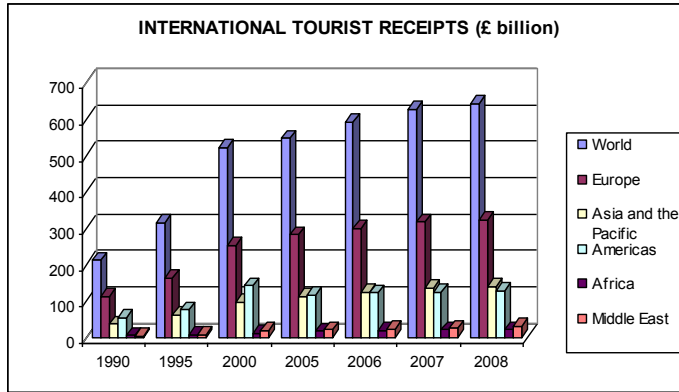


Figure 2: International Tourist Receipts (£ billion)
 Source: Adapted from www.unwto.org, last visited on November, 2010)

It is apparent from the figures that tourism has been a rapid growing economic sector in the world. Due to this growth, it provides an important amount of income and job opportunities in economics of a country. Therefore, tourism has been received widespread attention and many communities have turned to tourism as one way of diversifying their economies.

2.3. Tourism Concept

Actually, tourism is very difficult to define; however, many scientists have tried to explain and theorize the concept. This part especially deals with these conceptual definitions and development of tourism sector in the world. The meaning of word “tourism” is explored, and some approaches in conceptual analysis of tourism are exposed. This part also studies the economic, social growth of tourism and determines the historical background of it.

2.3.1. Definition of Tourism

As mentioned earlier, tourism has become a big business and an important socioeconomic sector, so it is at the center of popular and policy discourses. It supplies an important economic advantage to the country. It is widely recognized that tourism has become an industry of major importance in the world. Therefore, many scientists have

studied tourist and tourism, and focused on different approaches about it. Many sociologists have tried to define these terms to understand the tourism concept, and to make a working tourism plan (Mason, 2008).

However, there is not a commonly accepted definition of tourism, and there is no consensus on “what tourism is” and “what it can do” (Burns, 1999; Sharpley & Pender, 2005). Indeed, there is no agreement that tourism can be described as an industry (Sharpley & Pender, 2005). In this manner, tourism has neither a universally agreed definition, nor an agreement that tourism is an industrial sector. According to Burns, that is mainly due to the complexity of tourist activity and “partially because different interests are concerned with different aspects of tourism” (Burns, 1999).

Secondly, there are too many and different definitions of the concept, which often reflect users’ own perceptions and interests, and so it has not only one definition. In this manner, tourism expresses different meanings to different sectors.

- To the public sector: Tourism represents a lucrative form of economic activities;
- To the private sector: Tourism brings commercial potential;
- To the community (the tourist receiving region): Tourism is a powerful agent for change that influences the lifestyle of inhabitants,
- To the individual: Tourism means interesting activities that motivate people to be temporarily away from home (Lui, 2002).

As mentioned before, although, tourism has not a common definition, there is a widely accepted one, which was adapted in 1968 by the International Union of Official Travel Organizations, and was produced at the United Nations Conference on Travel and Tourism in 1963, (the predecessor of the World Tourism Organization-WTO). According to this definition, tourism covers:

“The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (WTO, 1997a).

This definition covers the important elements of “movement of people to,” and “their stay in”, “places, or destinations outside their usual environment” or “normal place of residence” or “work”. The important things are that these movements are temporary and short-term, and further, destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment (Sharpley & Pender, 2005).

However, WTO’s definition is criticized being too general and not reflecting tourist activity. Shaw and Williams produce another definition, which mentions being outside the home, that is:

“The non permanently moves, an intention to return home within a relatively short time period, and purpose other than taking up permanent residence or employment” (Williams & Shaw, 2001).

Mill and Morrison (1998), argue that there is a great deal of complementarity as well as competition between tourism businesses. Their definitions of tourism highlight the link between travel, tourism, recreation, and leisure. However, they go on to describe this link as ‘fuzzy’ and to make the distinction that “all tourism involves travel yet all travel is not tourism” (cited in Sharpley & Pender, 2005):

“Tourism is an activity. It is an activity that takes place when, in international terms, people cross borders for leisure or business and stay at least 24 hours but less than one year” (cited in Sharpley & Pender, 2005: 4).

It can be seen from these explanations that tourism is not defined as just a leisure activity. The value of tourism cannot be solely judged in terms of “the hedonistic

recompense it brings to the individual” and nor can its value be solely expressed in relation to the economic benefits that it can undoubtedly generate (UNESCO, 2006).

Jafari (1981) defines tourism as follows:

“Tourism is a study of man (sic) away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs and the impacts that both he and the industry have far the host-socio-cultural economic and physical environments” (cited in Mason, 2008: 6).

Mathieson and Wall make another definition, which is similar to Williams and Shaw’s one. They contribute to the first definitions as adding the activities that tourist perform during their trip. They define tourism as:

“...the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs” (cited in Gunn, 1994: 9; Mason, 2008: 4).

Mason (Tourism, In Encyclopedia of Ethics, 1998) adds new features to these definitions and indicates the central components of tourists and tourism as follow:

“Movement, non-permanent stay, activities and experiences during the travel and stay, resources and facilities required and impacts resulting from the travel and stay” (cited in Mason, 2008: 7)

Similarly, Smith V., (1981), describes tourism as a social practice:

“The phenomenon of tourism occurs only when three elements - temporary leisure, disposable income, travel ethic - simultaneously occur. It is the sanctioning of travel within a culture, which converts the use of time and resources into spatial or geographical social mobility. If travel is not deemed

culturally appropriate, then time and resources may be channeled elsewhere”
(cited in Burns, 1999: 23)

According to France (1994):

“It is now commonly accepted that a tourist, as opposed to a day visitor, is someone who spends at least 24 hours away from home even though both categories of visitor might engage in similar activities. Although there is no generally accepted maximum time-limit for a tourist visit, it is normally accepted that a tourist is away from home for a relatively short period” (cited in Sharpley & Pender, 2005: 5)

On the other hand, in the sixth edition of *The Business of Tourism*, Holloway (2002) contrasts this with technical definitions and defends that to define tourism precisely in conceptual terms is an all but impossible task (cited in Sharpley & Pender, 2005). Burns avoids to have been put out the standard formal definitions of tourism likewise World Tourism Organizations reported. Therefore, as it can be seen in Table 3, he summarizes the descriptions of tourism with different conceptual approaches and creates a table, which lists different views about tourism concept (Burns, 1999).

Table 3: Descriptions and Definitions of Tourism

Author	Definition/Description	Commentary
McKean (1977)	A profound, widely shared human desire to know “others” with the reciprocal possibility that we may come to know ourselves...a request or an odyssey to see, and perhaps to understand, the whole inhabited earth.	Tourism as a positive act of self-fulfillment
Jafari (1977)	A study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and impact that both he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environments	Use of word “man” dated, but shouldn’t distract from useful holistic nature of definition
Mathieson and Wall (1982)	Multi-faceted phenomenon which involves movement to and stay in destinations outside the normal place of residence, comprises dynamic, static, and consequential elements	Useful overview, but too broad. Is tourism a “phenomenon?”
Pearce (1982)	Tourism may be defined as the loosely interrelated amalgam of industries which arise from the movement of people, and their stay in various destinations outside their home area...Tourism is, in essence, phenomenon concerned with the leisured society at play	An under-used effective definition but makes no allowance for impacts

Source: Burns, 1999: 27-28

Table 3: Descriptions and Definitions of Tourism (Continued)

Author	Definition/Description	Commentary
Murphy (1985)	The sum of...the travel of non-residents (tourists, including excursionists) to destination area, as long as their sojourn does not become a permanent residence. It is a combination of recreation and business	Concentrates on the purpose of travel
Urry (1990)	How and why for short periods people leave their normal place of work and residence. It is about consuming goods and services, which are in some sense unnecessary. They are consumed because they supposedly generate pleasurable experiences, which are different from everyday life.	Focus on consumption as a part of the post-modern experience, thus unintentional Euro centrism?
Ryan (1991)	Essentially, tourism is about experience of place. The tourism “product” is not the tourist destination, but it is about experience of that place and what happens there: (which is) a series of internal and external interactions.	Humanistic and experiential allowing for both “host” and “guest”
Leiper (1995)	Tourism comprises the ideas and opinions people hold which shape their decisions about going on trips, and where to go...and what to do or not do, about how to relate to other tourists, locals, and service personnel and it is all the behavioral manifestations of those ideas and opinions.	Definition of tourism bounded by tourist behaviour and interaction with the psychological environment, doesn't allow for the industry that responds to them
Middleton (1998)	Although travel and tourism is invariably identified as an “industry” it is best understood as a total market...(which) reflects the cumulative demand and consumption patterns of visitors for a very wide range of travel-related products	Focus on business and the tourist as “customer”. Fails to recognize impacts. This is tourism as promoted by the WTTC

Source: Burns, 1999: 27-28

It is said that the whole of these definitions focus on the complexity of tourism concept, which has strong relations with other disciplines such as with economy, psychological environment, sociology, physiology, and nature. Therefore, generalization of tourism and tourist is difficult, and perhaps misleading. Moreover, there have been definitional problems in relation to tourism and these in turn have led to measurement difficulties. According to Sharpley and Tefer, tourism is a multi-sectoral, multifaceted business and this in itself creates difficulties when attempting to generalize about the management of tourism businesses (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) explain that tourism is an activity, which cuts across conventional sectors in the economy, requiring inputs of an economic, social, cultural and environmental nature (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

This complexity is reported in the document of World Tourism Organization, and the reasons are explained. It is claimed that firstly it is because of the dynamism and growth of tourism, and its major contribution to the economy. That is to say, tourism makes to

the economies of many countries, local destinations and this causes the complexity of concept (WTO, 2005). Secondly, this complexity is because of tourism that is an activity, which involves a special relationship between different actors such as consumers (visitors), the industry, the environment, and local communities (WTO, 2005a). Therefore, some special relationships arise, unlike most other sectors, the consumer of tourism, the tourist, travels to the producer and the product (WTO, 2005a).

Because of the complexity and a lack of clear definition of the concept, there exist some global problems. Peter Mason expresses these problems and pays attention to seeing the concept from different ways. One problem is that tourism studies are often poles apart in philosophical approach, methodological orientation, or intent of the investigation. Another is that because of global tendencies in the world, tourism has become a massive industry in which many tourists have come with tours, and therefore it is often very difficult to control and so tourism's contribution to economy is very difficult to measure (Mason, 2008).

To measure these effects, and to understand the concept clearly, Burns points out generally accepted elements of tourism.

- Travel demand (economic, political, social and cultural factors enabling more travel)
- Tourism intermediaries (travel suppliers, hotels, transport, travel agents)
- Destination influences (historic connections, accessibility, political and economic stability)
- A range of impacts and relationships (Burns, 1999)

Sharpley and Pender argue that in technical terms, to count as a tourism activity, it is necessary that activity should consist of following values.

- A minimum length of stay (one night or they are termed day visitors or excursionists): Day visitors or excursionists are not tourists because, by definition, an overnight stay is required.
- Maximum length of stay (one year): The stay should not be too long (less than a year is often given as a maximum)
- Tourists should not be earning while at a destination (Sharpley & Pender, 2005).

Hall and Page explains tourism with a similar way and they claim that there are three principal features to define tourism technically, which are commonly used by organizations seeking to define the population to be measured:

- Purpose of travel: That is the type of traveler, holidaymakers, visits to friends or relatives, or other purposes.
- The time dimension: It involves tourism visit, which requires a minimum, a maximum period of time spent away from the home area, and the time spent at the destination. In most cases, this would involve a minimum stay of more than 24 hours away from home and less than a year as a maximum.
- Transits: Those situations are that tourists may or may not be included as tourists, such as cruise passengers. Tourists are in transit at a particular point of embarkation/departure and excursionists who stay less than 24 hours at a destination (Hall & Page, 2006).

Sharpley argues that whether a search for or an escape from reality, tourism may be considered a sacred journey. Tourists are motivated by the potentially spiritual experience of the journey (or pilgrimage), of witnessing or gazing upon particular attractions or sights, or the sense of ‘communitas’ shared with fellow tourists in the non-ordinary tourism culture of the destination (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

On the other hand, Prosser, (Tourism, In Encyclopedia of Ethics, 1998), explains tourism as multidimensional and claims that there are two major variables, which are origin-destination relationship and the motivation for travel. According to Prosser’s

origin-destination relationship, there are four categories: international tourism, internal tourism, domestic tourism, national tourism. Prosser classifies those categories as follow:

- International tourism involves overseas visitors to a destination,
- Domestic tourism relates to nationals of one country visiting the same country,
- Internal tourism can relate to a region within a country,
- National tourism considers all forms of tourism within a particular nation or country. (cited in Mason, 2008: 7)

Similarly, WTO defines distinctions between domestic, international tourists and basic forms of tourism as follow:

“Domestic – travel by residents within their own country; Inbound – travel by residents from overseas into a country; Out bound – travel from the generating country to another country” (Sharpley & Pender, 2005: 6).

Burkart and Medlik’s approach to the concept of tourism offers a valid assessment of the situation and explains five main characteristics associated with tourism concept (cited in Hall & Page, 2006: 94).

- Tourism arises from the movement of people to, and their stay in, various destinations.
- There are two elements in all tourism: the journey to the destinations and the stay including activities at the destinations.
- The journey and the stay take place outside of the normal place of residence and work so that tourism gives rise to activities. These activities are distinct from those of residents and working populations of the places, throughout which tourists travel and in which they stay.
- The movement to tourist destinations is of a temporary, short-term character, with the intention of returning home within a few days, weeks, or months.

- Destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up a permanent residence or employment remunerated from the places visited.

Similarly, Urry defines some important characteristics of tourism and provides criteria of social behavior of the tourist. These characteristics are summarized as follow, (Urry, 2002: 3):

- 1- “Tourism is a leisure activity, which presupposes its opposite, namely regulated and organized work. It is one manifestation of how work and leisure are organized as separate and regulated spheres of social practice in 'modern' societies. Indeed acting as a tourist is one of the defining characteristics of being 'modern' and is bound up with major transformations in paid work. This has come to be organized within particular places and to occur for regularized periods of time”.
- 2- “Tourist relationships arise from a movement of people to, and their stay in, various destinations. This necessarily involves some movement through space that is the journeys, and periods of stay in a new place or places”.
- 3- “The journey and stay are to, and in, sites outside the normal places of residence and work. Periods of residence elsewhere are of a short-term and temporary nature. There is a clear intention to return 'home' within a relatively short period of time”.
- 4- “The places gazed upon are for purposes not directly connected with paid work and they normally offer some distinctive contrasts with work (both paid and unpaid)”.
- 5- “A substantial proportion of the population of modern societies engages in such tourist practices; new socialized forms of provision are developed in order to cope with the mass character of the gaze of tourists (as opposed to the individual character of travel)”.
- 6- “Places are chosen to be gazed upon because there is anticipation, especially through daydreaming and fantasy, of intense pleasures, either on a different scale or on involving different senses from those customarily encountered. Such

anticipation is constructed and sustained through a variety of non-tourist practices, such as film, TV, literature, magazines, records and videos, which construct and reinforce that gaze”.

- 7- “The tourist gaze is directed to features of landscape and townscape, which separate them off from everyday experience. Such aspects are viewed because they are taken to be in some sense out of the ordinary. The viewing of such tourist sights often involves different forms of social patterning, with a much greater sensitivity to visual elements of landscape or townscape than normally found in everyday life. People linger over such a gaze, which is then normally visually objectified or captured through photographs, postcards, films, models and so on. These enable the gaze to be endlessly reproduced and recaptured”.
- 8- “The gaze is constructed through signs, and tourism involves the collection of signs. When tourists see two people kissing in Paris what they capture in the gaze is 'timeless romantic Paris'. When a small village in England is seen, what they gaze upon is the 'real olde England'. As Culler argues: 'the tourist is interested in everything as a sign of itself. All over the world the unsung armies of semioticians, the tourists, are fanning out in search of the signs of Frenchness, typical Italian behavior, exemplary Oriental scenes, typical American thruways, traditional English pubs”.
- 9- “An array of tourist professionals develops who attempt to reproduce ever-new objects of the tourist gaze. These objects are located in a complex and changing hierarchy. This depends upon the interplay between, on the one hand, competition between interests involved in the provision of such objects and, on the other hand, changing class, gender, generational distinctions of taste within the potential population of visitors”.

Likewise, Shaw and Williams express the features of tourism and they point out that tourism plays a major role in shaping its production and consumption. Some significant features are summarized below (Shaw & Williams, 2004: 21-23);

- First, “tourism is conditional on the production and consumption of a bundle of services, goods, and ultimately experiences”. Therefore, some forms of tourism experiences cannot exist unless particular combinations of services and goods are provided, such as inclusive tours -the selling of a package of holiday services. However, all tourism experiences are dependent on the availability of particular combinations of travel, hospitality services, and tourist attractions.
- Second, it is claimed, “Property rights are problematic in tourism”, and reasons of this argue are explained below. Firstly, there are no inherent property rights over tourism assets; rather, there are property rights that are socially constructed through the relationships among people. Second, income/ benefits from tourism property depend on membership of various groups. Third, the right to regulate and control land resources may be vested in the public authorities on behalf of the community. In addition, many tourism experiences – particular views of landscapes or townscapes, or relaxation in a warm climate – are very difficult to establish property rights.
- Next feature of tourism is indicated, “Tourism is characterized by temporality and spatiality”. Tourists essentially consume tourism experiences at particular sites. Tourism experiences have to be consumed at particular times and cannot be deferred in particular places, or events.
- Another is that, “tourism is part of the experience economy”, so that production is incorporated into the tourism experience, which is likely to be ‘multiply-conditional’. It depends not only on the performance of a number of producers, but also on that of the individual tourist, and other tourists present at the site of the experience.
- Fifth is that, “many forms of tourism are deeply entangled with a socially constructed nature”. Tourism has partly been shaped by wider discourses over the significance and meaning of nature. The natures that tourists wish to experience are socially signposted. There are also major sustainability issues inherent in the often-contradictory practices of tourists.
- Finally, “tourists interact with local host communities”. These interactions both inform and constrain tourism experiences, and they punctuate the flows of

tourism. Tourists experience local communities and cultures, and the existence of tourism raises issues of authenticity and commodification for local communities.

Shaw and Williams argue that these features are not unique to tourism, because, many other forms of service activity display strong temporal and spatial polarization. However, tourism is distinctive because of its particular combination of production, consumption, and experiential characteristics (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Moreover, tourism is a complex industry, which is made up of all firms, organizations, and facilities designed to meet the needs and wants of tourists (Sharpley & Pender, 2005). There are certain sub sectors, which are clearly identified as being components of tourism industry. These are such as the accommodation units, which would include not only formal accommodation, hotels, guesthouses, but also camping sites, rooms in private houses and bed and breakfast type arrangements. Travel agents and tour operators are recognized as comprising another distinct sub sector. Transport, which includes airlines, shipping, rail, and car hire, cars, and coaches, is also seen as an important input to the tourism sector. Moreover, shopping and production of handicrafts is another associated activity of tourism (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

At this part of the study, it is determined the concept of tourism, and the problems on this concept. It is tried to express approaches of sociologists to tourism. Investigations on the issue showed that as mentioned before, tourism is not only an economic activity. It contains social, historical, physiological, and spatial structures, and differentiations in it.

2.3.2. Tourism, Recreation and Leisure

There is an important relationship between tourism, recreation, and leisure, which are generally seen as a set of interrelated and overlapping concepts (Hall & Page, 2006). Torkildsen claims that leisure can mean different things to different people; and leisure

can mean different things in different cultures (Torkildsen, 2005). Therefore, many people make different explanations to this concept.

The words 'leisure' and 'recreation' are self-explanatory concepts and most people will have little difficulty describing what they mean to them. Scholars have been unable to agree with clarity a description of leisure and recreation, let alone defining what the words mean. Indeed, the concept of leisure has been debated for well over two thousand years (Torkildsen, 2005). Thomas Hobbes, the seventeenth century philosopher, argued that leisure is the mother of philosophy. Bertrand Russell, philosopher and mathematician, was of the opinion that to be able to fill leisure intelligently is the best product of civilization (Torkildsen, 2005). There are many definitions of leisure and recreation, which reflect the social, cultural, economic, and political milieu.

Williams explains these concepts and defines that tourism is clearly compatible with major areas of recreation and leisure. Because, tourism activity includes not only leisure time/space framework, but also recreation activities and experiences such as sightseeing, traveling for pleasure, leisure shopping. The terms 'leisure' and 'recreation' are themselves contested. 'Leisure' is generally seen as being related either to free time and/or to a frame of mind in which the individual believes himself to be 'at leisure' 'recreation' as being activity or experience set within the context of leisure (Williams, 2003).

In fact, the word leisure is comes from the Greek word *schole*, which was closely related to leisure, the implication being that leisure was non-work, but also was associated with learning and culture. The English word 'leisure' is derived from the Latin *licere*, 'to be permitted' or 'to be free'. Therefore, the French word *loisir*, meaning free time, and the English 'license': permission or freedom to act. Generally, leisure is defined in terms of "freedom from constraint", "freedom to choose time left over after work" or as "free time after obligatory social duties have been met" (Torkildsen, 2005).

George Torkildsen explains leisure as;

“Leisure is commonly thought of as the opposite of work, but one person’s work can be another person’s leisure, and several activities combine both leisure and work characteristics. Freedom from obligation is often regarded as a key attraction of leisure, but many non-work activities (domestic, social, and voluntary and community activities) involve considerable obligation” (Torkildsen, 2005: 51).

As mentioned above, many people argue that leisure is being opportunities for relaxation and pleasure. However, people often spend their leisure time in dedicated service, study, personal development, hard training, requiring discipline and involving stress (Torkildsen, 2005). Therefore, it is very difficult to define the word with only one concept.

Hall argues that leisure is considered as a serious activity without pressure of necessity (Hall & Page, 2006), therefore it is best seen as time over, which an individual exercises choice and undertakes activities in a free, voluntary way (Tataroğlu, 2005). Mieczkowski identifies that leisure is a time, which individuals control without external compulsion, compromising pleasure, happiness and enjoyment; that is, it is mainly non-compensated activity, characterized by the elements of play which is an antithesis to work as an economic function (cited in Tataroğlu, 2005).

Stockdale (1985) identifies three main ways in which the concept of leisure is used (cited in Hall & Page, 2006: 4-5):

- as a period of time, activity or state of mind in which choice is the dominant feature; in this sense leisure is a form of
- an objective view in which leisure is perceived as the opposite of work and is defined as non-work or residual time

- a subjective view, which emphasizes leisure as a qualitative concept in which leisure activities take on a meaning only within the context of individual perceptions and belief systems and can therefore occur at any time in any setting.

Rojek (1985) states that the concept of free time has no intrinsic meaning with respect to leisure, which defines as the perception of activities by individuals (cited in Tataroğlu, 2005). Mieczkowski (1981) states that although free time is quantitative concept (such as minute and hours), leisure is a qualitative concept (cited in Tataroğlu, 2005).

The Dictionary of Sociology defines recreation as;

“Any activity pursued during leisure, either individual or collective, that is free and pleasurable, having its own immediate appeal, not impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself” (Torkildsen, 2005: 57).

The most widespread definition is that recreation is activities in which people participate during their leisure time; however, not just any activity will do. Neumeyer and Neumeyer (1958) add statement of “or by any immediate necessity” to the upper definition (cited in Torkildsen, 2005: 57)

“Any activity pursued during leisure, either individual or collective, that is free and pleasurable, having its own immediate appeal, not impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity”

Kraus and Bates (1957) claims that recreation consists of activities or experiences, which are carried on voluntarily in leisure time. The participants choose them either for pleasure or to satisfy certain personal needs. When provided as a part of organized community programs, recreation must be designed to achieve constructive goals (cited in Torkildsen, 2005: 58). Similarly, Jensen (1977) explains recreation as an act or experience, selected by the individual during his leisure time, to meet a personal want or desire, primarily for his own satisfaction (cited in Torkildsen, 2005). On the other hand,

Godbey and Parker (1976) add new functions to these definitions and claim that recreation always indicates activity of some kind and like leisure and play; it takes no single form. In its literal sense of re-creating, it may be seen as one of the functions of leisure: that of rewarding the self or of preparing for work (cited in Torkildsen, 2005).

Figure-3 represents the relationship between tourism, recreation and leisure (Williams, 2003) and broken lines are used to illustrate that the boundaries between the concepts are “blurred” (Hall & Lew & Williams, 2004). In this figure, work is differentiated from leisure, which includes tourism and recreation.

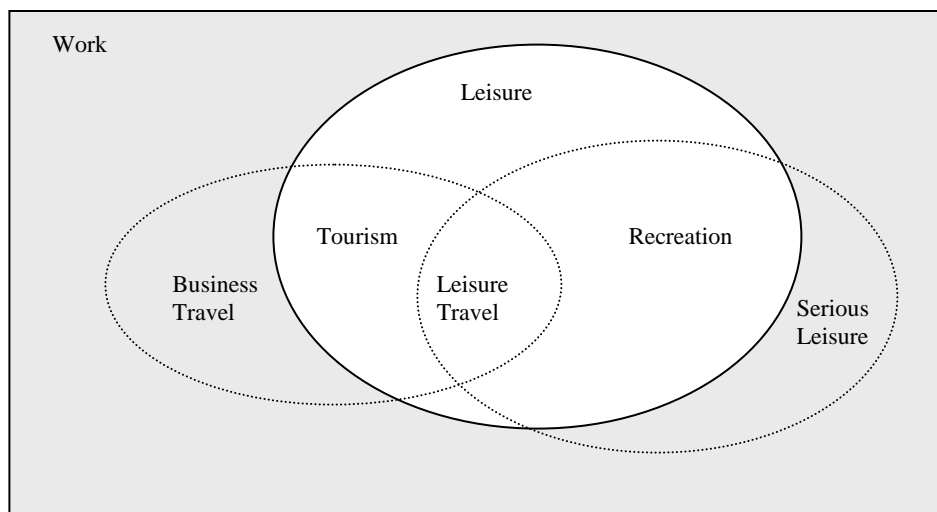


Figure 3: The Relationship Between Leisure, Recreation and Tourism

Source: Hall & Page, 2006: 7

There are two main part of travel in this figure. First is business travel, which is often seen as a work-oriented form of tourism; and, second is serious leisure, which refers to the breakdown between leisure and work pursuits and the development of leisure career paths with respect to hobbies and interests (Hall & Lew & Williams, 2004). In fact, the business tourist will almost spend some of the time during their trip engaging in recreational or leisurely pursuits. Williams claims that this figure may be seen as differentiating *forms of experience* rather than *categories of visitor* and imagining some individuals moving between the overlapping spheres, even within the context of a single trip (Williams, 2003).

2.3.3. Tourism and Travel

As mentioned before, tourism has many meanings such as many forms of mobility or labor. Inskeep argues that there is a basic meaning of tourism, which is the continuing motivation for people to travel. With this view, travel can be defined as one of the important elements of tourism. Travel is now becoming a normal part of the life-styles of an increasing number of people who give this activity high priority in their household budgets (Inskeep, 1991).

Travel can be described as any spatial displacements of people for whatever reasons (Tataroğlu, 2006). The mean of travel is in fact comes from the French word “travail” that means labor (Yamashita, 2001) and retirement migration, or knowledge and capital transfers (Williams & Shaw, 2001). The term of travel means ‘journey’ but the etymology of the term travel has very little connected to the pleasure (Tataroğlu, 2006). The simple word travel, defined as “the act of moving” by most dictionaries. In tourism industry, travel is defined as “the act of moving outside one’s community for business or pleasure but not for commuting or traveling to or from work or school” (cited in WTO, 1997a).

Actually, people have traveled for different reasons from ancient times. The reasons of travel were summarized by UNESCO, and according to this, people travel for basic human needs (finding food and shelter), exchange (trade), relationships with natural phenomena (developing new settlements, escaping droughts, or floods) and because of conquest and conflict (occupation, expulsion, forced migration, and re-settlement) (UNESCO, 2006).

Specifically, tourists travel for visiting different places, countries, the great monuments, and sites or for the specific purpose of attending religious and nonreligious festivals, art and museum exhibits, and musical events, such as opera, concerts, and theatrical presentations. The important visiting places can be reported as the Angkor Wat in

Cambodia; the Taj Mahal in India; the Great Wall of China or the Borobudur and the Prambanan in Indonesia (World Tourism Organisation, 2001).

Many social scientists see motivations as a major important determinant of tourist behavior. This simplistic approach asks recreationalists what actually motivates people (Hall & Page & Stephen, 2006). Therefore, it is claimed that, to understand human behavior, it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how they can be fulfilled. (Pizam & Mansfeld, 2000). Theories of motivations are based on the concept of need and so, human needs have been explored for long years.

At a basic level, human needs have to be met where physiological theory maintained that all human behavior is motivated (Hall & Page, 2006). In other words, it has been argued that motivation is purely a psychological concept, not a sociological one (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002: 308).

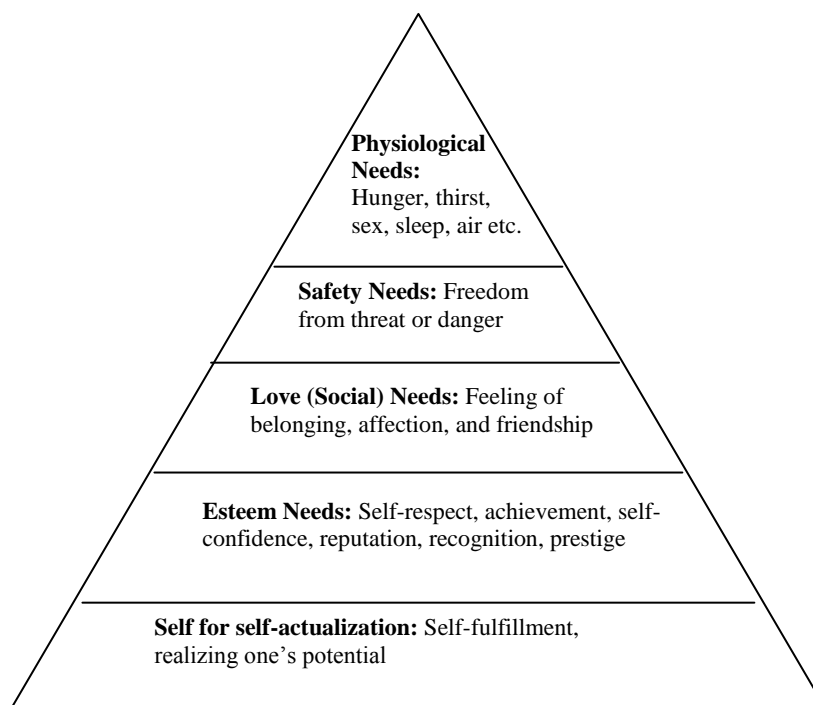


Figure 4: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Adapted from, Pizam & Mansfeld, 2000: 8

According to this view, there is one of the most commonly cited studies in relation to recreation and tourism motivation, which is Maslow's hierarchy of human needs shown in the Figure 4 (Hall & Page, 2006). Many papers and texts refer to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, linking specific needs with identified goal-oriented tourist behavior, whilst others explicitly adapt it as, for example, in the case of the travel career concept mentioned earlier (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002: 308). This theory follows the principle of a ranking or hierarchy of individual needs (Hall & Page, 2006)

Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs" is used for identifying tourist motivations to travel. He determines these basic human needs and categorizes them in a hierarchical order. Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been very popular and become widely influential in many applied areas. Because of this, it is very simplistic and successful (Pizam & Mansfeld, 2000). Maslow defines the motivations as class of determinants of behavior, and he tries to formulate a positive theory of motivation, which conforms to the known facts, clinical and observational as well as experimental. It derives most directly; however, from clinical experience (Maslow, 1943) Maslow explains these needs as follow;

The physiological needs: These needs are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory. These are the so-called physiological drives, such as hunger, thirst, sex, sleep, air (Maslow, 1943).

The safety needs: According to Maslow, "if the physiological needs are relatively well gratified, there then emerges a new set of needs". These needs are called as safety needs. In this manner, practically everything looks less important than safety. If it is extreme enough and chronic enough, a man may be characterized as living alone almost for safety (Maslow, 1943).

The love needs: It is claimed, "If both the physiological and the safety needs are fairly well gratified, then there will emerge the love, affection, and belongingness needs" .

Now the person will feel keenly, as never before, the absence of friends, or a sweetheart, or a wife, or children (Maslow, 1943).

The esteem needs: These needs can be defined as one of the other important needs. It is explained, “All people in our society have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others”. These needs may be classified into two subsidiary sets. First is the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for confidence in the face of the world, and for independence and freedom. Second is the desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as respect or esteem from other people), recognition, attention, importance or appreciation (Maslow, 1943).

The need for self-actualization: Maslow argues, “Even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often seek for what a man *can* be, he *must* be”. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. This need we may call self-actualization (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow claims, if none of the needs in hierarchy was satisfied, and then the lowest needs, the physiological ones would dominate behavior. If these were satisfied, they would no longer motivate, so the individual would move up to the next level in the hierarchy, which is safety needs (cited in Pizam & Mansfeld, 2000).

According to Hall and Page, Maslow’s model is not necessarily ideal, because needs are not hierarchical in reality and some needs may occur simultaneously. However, they claim that this model emphasizes the development needs of humans, with individuals striving towards personal growth. As result of this, they believe Maslow assists in a recreational, and tourism context in identifying and classifying the types of needs people have (Hall & Page, 2006).

Iso-Ahola (1982) divides these psychological motivational forces into two categories. First, motivation results from the need to escape from personal or interpersonal

environments, and second is the tendency to seek intrinsic psychological rewards from tourism (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

According to Sharpley, fantasy is the dominant motivational factor, the rewards of the tourism experience being the immersion into a dreamlike existence that is a temporary escape from the real world (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). On the other hand, for MacCannell (1989), the tourist is similarly motivated by the condition of modern society but rather than seeking fantasy, it is the experience of reality or authenticity that is the desired outcome (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

In the same way, Peter Keller is interested in tourism motivations, which influences the decision to travel. He divides these motivation factors into two categories; the “push” factor or the “pull” factor. He argues that push factor is travel to escape the pressures of everyday life, change of air and distancing one self from everyday reality, pull factor is travel to see and experience something new, the attraction that is the driving force (cited in World Tourism Organization, 2005). Keller states that these attractions, which can be cities, or natural landscapes, are a decisive factor in tourism competition, and they are raw materials of tourism. These attractions could be the scenic, cultural differences manifest in landscapes, cities or the attractions have been especially created for visitors from the outside, rather than for the resident population, including leisure parks and museums (cited in World Tourism Organization, 2005).

Likewise, Mason points out that there are the motivational factors, “push” and “pull” factors, and defines that the push factors are a number of perceived negative factors and the pull factors are perceived positive factors. He argues that a number of factors including cultural conditioning, social influences, perception, and education can influence tourist behaviors (Mason, 2008).

On the other hand, Ryan (1991) believes that holiday choices are based on a combination of motivations, which are seen as a set of priorities that may change over time (cited in Mason, 2008). Ryan, (1991), summarizes the major motivations of tourists

by drawing on the work of Cohen, (Towards a Sociology of International Tourism, 1972), Crompton, (Motivations for Pleasure Vacations, 1979), and Matheson & Wall, (Tourism: Economic, Social & Environmental Impacts, 1982), and presents major reasons for tourist travel (cited in Mason, 2008).

- “Escape
- Relaxation
- Play
- Strengthening Family Bonds
- Prestige
- Social Interaction
- Sexual Opportunity
- Educational Opportunity
- Self Fulfillment
- Wish Fulfillment
- Shopping” (Mason, 2008: 10).

Crandall (1980) expresses seventeen factors from leisure motivation research (Table-4). According to this list, the reasons of travel are summarized as enjoying nature, escaping from civilization, routine, and responsibility, physical exercise, creativity, relaxation, social contact, meeting new people, heterosexual contact, family contact, recognition status, social power, altruism, stimulus seeking, self-actualization, achievement, challenge, competition, killing time, avoiding boredom, intellectual aestheticism. Crandall reports that the most important motivation factors are to get away from civilization, and change from daily routine (cited in Hall & Page, 2006).

Table 4: Crandall’s List of Motivations

1- <i>“Enjoying nature, escaping from civilization”</i>	“To get away from civilization for a while to be close to nature”
2- <i>“Escape from routine and responsibility”</i>	“Change from my daily routine. To get away from the responsibilities of my everyday life”
3- <i>“Physical exercise”</i>	“For the exercise to keep in shape”.
4- <i>“Creativity”</i>	“To be creative”
5- <i>“Relaxation”</i>	“To relax physically so my mind can slow down for a while”
6- <i>“Social contact”</i>	“Therefore, I could do things with my companions. To get away from other people”
7- <i>“Meeting new people”</i>	“To talk to new and varied people to build friendships with new people”

Source: cited in Hall & Page, 2006: 47

Table 4: Crandall’s List of Motivations (Continued)

8- <i>“Heterosexual contact”</i>	“To be with people of the opposite sex to meet people of the opposite sex”.
9- <i>“Family contact”</i>	“To be away from the family for a while to help bring the family together more”.
10- <i>“Recognition, status”</i>	“To show others I could do it so others would think highly of me for doing it”
11- <i>“Social power”</i>	“To have control over others To be in a position of authority”
12- <i>“Altruism”</i>	“To help others”
13- <i>“Stimulus seeking”</i>	“For the excitement because of the risks involved”
14- <i>“Self-actualisation (feedback, self improvement, ability utilization)”</i>	“Seeing the results of your efforts using a variety of skills and talents”.
15- <i>“Achievement, challenge, competition”</i>	“To develop my skills and ability because of the competition To learn what I am capable of”
16- <i>“Killing time, avoiding boredom”</i>	“To keep busy To avoid boredom”
17- <i>“Intellectual aestheticism”</i>	“To use my mind To think about my personal values”

Source: cited in Hall & Page, 2006: 47

Similar with Crandall’s list, Kabanoff (1982) formulates a list of leisure needs (Table 5). Different from Crandall’s list, he defines less motivation factors and he expresses that the first motivation is autonomy, which he defines as “own projects and activities”. It is apparent that relaxation, the need for excitement and self-satisfaction are given importance in both of the lists (cited in Hall & Page, 2006).

Table 5: Kabanoff’s List of Leisure Needs

Leisure needs scale	Items comprising scales
1- <i>“Autonomy”</i>	“Organize own projects and activities. Do things you find personally meaningful”
2- <i>“Relaxation”</i>	“Relax and take it easy. Give mind and body a rest”
3- <i>“Family activity”</i>	“Bring family closer together. Enjoy family life”
4- <i>“Escape from routine”</i>	“Get away from responsibilities of everyday life. Have a change from daily routine”
5- <i>“Interaction”</i>	“Make new friends. Enjoy people’s company”
6- <i>“Stimulation”</i>	“To have new and different experiences. For excitement and stimulation”
7- <i>“Skill utilization”</i>	“Use skills and abilities. Develop new skills and abilities”
8- <i>“Health”</i>	“Keep physically fit .For health reasons”
9- <i>“Esteem”</i>	“Gain respect or admiration of others. Show others what you’re capable of”
10- <i>“Challenge/competition”</i>	“Be involved in a competition. Test yourself in difficult or demanding situations”
11- <i>“Leadership/social power”</i>	“Organize activities of teams, groups, organizations. To gain positions of leadership”

Source: cited in Hall & Page, 2006: 48.

Sharpley points out that there are a number of factors in the explanation of tourist motivation. First, tourist motivation is complex, dynamic concept, which potentially determined by a variety of person-specific psychological factors and extrinsic social forces. In other words, a number of different influences may shape the needs and wants of tourists. Therefore, identifying specific or dominant determinant factors may be a difficult (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Another is that, tourists are motivated primarily by “the desire to escape”. Krippendorff (1987) claims that they are motivated by “going away from rather than going towards something or somebody” (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Similarly, As van Rekom (1994) suggests, ‘a central need which has been revealed time and time again in empirical research is the “escape” notion’ (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Third, tourists are motivated by the potential rewards of participating in tourism, which may be personal, inter-personal, psychological or physical and, collectively described as ‘ego enhancement’ (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Consequently, motivations of tourists are markedly self-oriented. Krippendorff (1987) explains that it means, “Now I decide what...is good for me”. In other words, tourism represents a form of self-reward or self-indulgence (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Chadwick, (Concept, Definitions, and Measures Used in Travel and Tourism Research, 1987), categorizes the reasons for tourist related journeys as follow:

1. Pleasure: Leisure, culture, active sports, visiting friends and relatives
2. Professional: Meetings missions business
3. Other purposes: Study health transit (cited in Mason, 2008: 11).

However, there are some problems about determining these tourist motivations, which may be summarized as follows:

- Tourism is not one specific product; it is a combination of products and experiences, which meet a diverse range of needs.

- Tourists are not always conscious of their deep physiological needs and ideas. Even when they know what these needs and ideas are, they may not reveal them.
- Tourism motives may be multiple and contradictory. They are called push and pull factors.
- Motives may change over time and be inextricably linked together. That is perception, learning, personality, and culture are often separated out, but they are all bound up together (Hall & Page, 2006).

Shaw and Williams argues that mobility involves many forms, which are goods, information, services, and financial transactions that are all mobile over space, as are people (corporeal mobility). They claim that these forms are necessarily interrelated and the mobility of tourists across space is inevitably accompanied by mobility of goods (for consumption by the tourists on holiday or after returning home), information about destinations, services provided by travel intermediaries, and significant financial transactions between places of origin and destination (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Table 6: Need for Mobility

Basis of co presence	Activity requiring co presence	Tourism implication
Legal, economic and family obligations	To work, to attend family events, to visit public institutions	Business and VFR tourism
Social obligations	To meet face to face, to develop trust, to note body language	Business and VFR tourism
Time obligations	To spend quality time with family, partners or friends	Leisure tourism
Place obligations	To sense a place directly, through embodied experiences	Leisure, heritage and cultural tourism
Live obligations	To experience a particular live sporting, political or cultural event	Sports and cultural tourism
Object obligations	To work on objects that have a particular physical location	Business tourism

Note: VFR_ visiting friends and relatives tourism.

Source: Shaw & Williams, 2004: 2

Shaw and Williams defines mobility with the concept of “the obligations of co-presence”, which is explained by Urry (2002). Co-presence of individuals is essential to some forms of social intercourse, and from this stems the need for mobility. According

to the table, mobility involves a significant corporeal displacement from the usual place of residence, and so various forms of tourism will result (Table 6) (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

2.4. The Historical Background of Tourism

As mentioned above, tourism is very hard to embed to a theory. Therefore, much tourism study has been divorced from any social theorizing, which critics have pointed to a growing dissatisfaction with the theoretical bases of tourism scholarship in general and with the 'lack of receptivity to intellectual currents in the "parent" disciplines' in particular. At the same time, many of these 'parent' disciplines have been remarkably reluctant to engage with tourism as a field of study (Jaworski & Pritchard, 2005).

The word of tourism was unknown in the English language until the last century. The words travel and traveler were reflecting the quality of the earlier travelers who were associated with the rich, educated, or aristocratic and society leaders. Thus, travel for recreation and as an enjoyable activity was a relatively new concept (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

As a result, in the humanities and social sciences, tourism was not taken seriously as a subject for research (Yamashita, 2001) and as Walton has pointed out that historians have consistently ignored tourism (Jaworski & Pritchard, 2005). Only after tourism has become an important economic sector, some important investigations are undertaken to learn about tourism history.

2.4.1. The Beginnings of Tourism

Travel is one of the most ancient and common aspects of human life and it can be traced back to mythical times (Enzensberger, 1958). Although human being has travelled since ancient times, the aim of these travels was different from the current journeys and the reasons of these travels had changed over time. According to Inskip, the early man

traveled for seeking food, escaping from enemies, obtaining relief from the pleasure of overpopulation, achieving territorial expansion, engaging in bartering type of trade and satisfying curiosity about unknown lands (Inskeep, 1991).

In the early times, as mentioned, the purpose of travels was all for trading, administrative, or military. After the Olympic Games, which were the first international sports events organized in 776 B.C. in Greece (Inskeep, 1991), people traveled Greece to watch these games. As a result, the aims of travels started to change and people traveled for different purposes. As an example, in Asia Minor, people were visiting Ephesus, which was a major trading center, to enjoy the city's various pleasures. The Romans particularly developed pleasure tourism; they were traveling visit to major attractions such as the Pyramids and historical places in Greece (Inskeep, 1991).

Sharpley (Tourism, Tourists and Society, 1997) emphasizes that in the early times, the Ancient Greeks regarded leisure not as a time to relax but as a means of self-development through education, sport and music (cited in Tataroğlu, 2006). After the spread of Christianity, which became a dominant factor in people's lives, the aims of travel changed again and religious travel to the cities; Jerusalem and Bethlehem emerged (Inskeep, 1991).

By the 14th century, the great majority of people in Western Europe were born in small communities, living and dying in these small settlements. These people were working the land, they had little leisure time, and only festivals and religious holidays were providing opportunity for leisure time. Moreover, as mentioned before, travel was confined to the small elite and merchants, religious crusades or pilgrims were used to do long-distance travel (Mason, 2008). In this period, religious pilgrimages in Europe were an important type of travel, and package tours were organized from Venice to the Holy Land to serve the pilgrims. With the advent of Islam in the 16th century, Mecca and other Islamic centers became major destinations for pilgrims (Inskeep, 1991).

In middle ages, travel diminished within Europe and the Mediterranean region. The reasons of this decrease can be summarized as; travel was hard, economic activities and trade declined in Europe, the transportation network disintegrated, trips were dangerous (Inskeep, 1991). At the same time, leisure, and recreational travel was considered as a useless activity (Tataroğlu, 2006) and therefore, travel for leisure could not develop in this period. Briefly, while the antique Greece and Roman were marked by more leisure and recreation, in the Middle Ages a negative attitude to recreation and leisure were raised (Tataroğlu, 2006).

Between the 14th to 17th centuries, the European Renaissance reflected economic and social changes in Europe. In this period, travel for educational, experiential purposes and trade emerged (Inskeep, 1991) and travel had little to do with pleasure or recreation (Tataroğlu, 2006).

Tomislav Hitrec emphasizes this period as follows:

“Although some speak of tourism prehistory, modern science mostly rejects various evolutionist theories according to which "tourism would be a sequence of some historical traces reaching far back into the Classical Antiquity”. It is equally obvious that not even famous such as M. Polo or C. Columbus, or other explorers, seafarers, scientist and missionaries can fall into the category of tourists (Hitrec, 2002: 2).

2.4.2. “Grand Tour” Period:

Similarly, during the 17th and 18th centuries, the famous “Grand Tour,” which is the other major step in the history of travel, was described as a tourism activity. Camille C. O’Reilly claims that the early European exploration The labor-related travel of the lower classes was a sort of working man’s grand tour, an institutionalized and respected pattern of travel that peaked in the 19th century and thereafter shifted from employment-related travel to something more like ‘pure’ tourism (cited in Jaworski, 2005: 150-173).

Grand Tour of Europe is considered a key development stage in the overall history of tourism, and so, it became a popular subject of historical analyses. It is described in general terms as touring some parts of Italy, France, and Switzerland undertaken by young noblemen, mostly from England, for educational purposes (Hitrec, 2002). The young English aristocrats were educated for government administrative, and diplomatic services, and future political leadership. The Grand Tour was temporarily interrupted only by the 30-year War (1618-1648) (Hitrec, 2002), apart from that, the aristocrats traveled for two to three years on the Continent (Inskeep, 1991).

In this period, Thomas Cook, who was founder of the first travel agency in 1845, conducted the first organized trip, and expanded his services all the continents in the form of Grand Tour. His organization is accepted as the nucleus of modern package tours (Tataroğlu, 2006). Grand Tour has been studied from the point of view of its participants' profile, temporal, and spatial dynamics, and finally as bearing upon the formation of the future nuclei of tourist's offer. Therefore, it is gradually assumed that it has the characteristics of what is today known as tourism (Hitrec, 2002).

2.4.3. After Industrial Revolution:

Between the 16th and 19th centuries, some radical social changes had been lived in Europe. Because of a rapid economic development, urbanization, social life had changed and so a new leisure culture emerged (Hitrec, 2002). Many history researcher admit that disappearing feudal class and the emerging bourgeoisie, which left a strong mark, plays an important role (Hitrec, 2002) in tourism history. Especially after 1789, when the landowners was broken in Europe, many people left their place of birth and moved to these new growing settlements.

Mieczkowski, (World Trends in Tourism and Recreation, 1990), explains this period as; the development of capitalism, which brought urbanization, congestion in cities and lack of open space for urban recreation brought about a movement of people traveling for recreational purposes (cited in Tataroğlu, 2006). Correspondingly, Urry, (The Tourist

Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies, 1990), claims that because of the economic development, incessant works were questioned, and the social and health values of recreation were recognized (cited in Tataroğlu, 2006).

We can see that the use of the term “tourism” with its real meaning by the development of transportation and the socioeconomic changes caused by the industrial revolution (Yamashita, S., 2001) in the late 18th century (Inskeep, 1991). Inskeep claims that Industrial Revolution created the basis for modern tourism development (Inskeep, 1991). Similarly, Mieczkowski says, “the emergence of the institutionalization of modern tourism was the direct outcome of the industrial revolution” (cited in Tataroğlu, 2006).

As mentioned earlier, before industrial Revolution, travel was difficult, uncomfortable, expensive and frequently dangerous (Mason, 2008) and too long. After that time, many people started to work in factories and so workers received wages. They had both time, and money to engage their leisure activities (Mason, 2008). The Industrial Revolution increased labor productivity, leading to larger-scale urbanization, rapid growth of middle-class, better education levels, more leisure time and demand for recreational opportunities, and improved means of transportation by railways and steamship (Inskeep, 1991).

After the era of the Industrial Revolution, travel, which was still the preserve of small elite, became more accessible. Social and economic changes had occurred and salaries and wages increased. The amount of leisure time and the car ownership also increased. In Europe and North America, the roads and motorways systems were greatly improved and aircraft became more comfortable and so an increasing amount of passengers started to fly (Mason, 2008).

Cohen also admits that tourism has gained its real meaning with modernity. He claims that traveling for pleasure in a foreign country by large numbers of people is a relatively modern occurrence. He explains that whereas traditional man will leave his native habitat only when forced to by circumstances, modern man is more loosely attached to

his environment. Modern man is much more willing to change environment, especially temporarily, and is remarkably able to adapt to new environments (Cohen, 2004).

Today man is interested in things, sights, customs, and cultures different from his own. Therefore, a new value, which is the appreciation of the experience of strangeness and novelty, has been evolved. When this experience was frightened old man, it has been excited now (Cohen, 2004). Tourism as a cultural phenomenon becomes possible only when man develops a generalized interest beyond his own habitat, when contact with and enjoyment of strangeness and novelty are valued for their own sake. Therefore, according to Cohen, tourism is thoroughly modern phenomenon (Cohen, 2004).

Urry says that a number of summer resorts and spas were developed in the early 19th century (cited in Tataroğlu, 2006). Although, spas and seaside resorts, which were first developed by the Romans, became fashionable among the affluent in the 18th century and popular with large numbers of people in the 19th century (Inskeep, 1991). Spa tourism became very important and expanded; some of better-known European spas were Bath in England, Baden-Baden in Germany, Baden in Australia, Bain les Bain in France (Inskeep, 1991).

Seaside resorts developed especially in the early 19th century at such places as Brighton, Scarborough, and Margate in Britain, Nice, and Cannes in France. In this period, originally as health resorts, but soon salt water bathing as a form of recreation became common and popular especially with day-trippers coming by railway. In addition to spa and resort hotels, large city hotels, which became multi-functional centers offering not only accommodation, but excellent restaurants, bars, and places for meeting receptions, and socializing in general, developed in North America and Europe (Inskeep, 1991).

Mason (Tourism and Development Perspectives, 1990) explains some major reasons for the growth of tourism during the 19th and early 20th century. The following five statements, taken directly from the book, are summarized as follow:

- 1- A rise in industrial output associated with the Industrial Revolution that in turn led to an increase in the standard of living
- 2- Improvements in transport technology led to cheaper and more accessible travel. Railways and ocean liners appeared in the 19th century, cars and aircrafts in the first half of the 20th century.
- 3- The introduction of annual holidays towards the end of the 19th century.
- 4- Changing perceptions of the environment. Locations that were viewed as hostile were now seen as attractive.
- 5- An increasing desire to travel; this was related partly to improvements in education, and also to greater overseas travel, which was mainly the result of war. This created interest in foreign locations and also overseas business travel (cited in Mason, 2008: 16).

Y. Lui explains that tourism did not receive serious attention worthy of business or academic study until World War II., when it started to become a major socioeconomic activity. It was largely conceived to be associated with leisure needs, rest, and relaxation (Lui, 2002).

Similarly, Inskip reports the reasons of tourism development after World War II as follow:

- Greater disposable income available for travel
- Less working hours and a large number of employees who receive paid holidays and annual vacations, thus providing the leisure time for travel
- Higher education levels and greater awareness of other areas of the world, leading to a desire of more persons to travel
- Rapid and dispersed economic development leading to greatly increased business travel; and
- Major improvements in transportation including in air travel services and highway networks (Inskip, 1991: 9).

Yamashita explains these reasons from a similar perspective, and he claims that in the second half of the 20th century, the work life changed and workers desired to have leisure time. Therefore, while the length of the working week decreased, paid holidays were lengthened (Yamashita, 2001).

In the last quarter of the 20th century, and early part of the 21st century, tourism had become a fashion industry. According to Mason, the motivations, expectations, and demands of tourists changed frequently, and so reasons for travel changed. He explains this with an example; from the late 1950s to the late 1960s, a large number of people expected being bronzed from their holiday. However, in the 1920s, this desire disappeared and most Europeans kept out of the sun. In the early 21st century, pale skin became fashionable but after growing concerns about skin cancer, people started to keep out of the sun again (Mason, 2008).

As mentioned before, after travel has become more comfortable and less difficult, pleasure became one of the motivations for journeys and travel expanded around the world, as a result tourist destinations emerged (Mason, 2008).

A consequent of this, people spent their time to leisure and enjoyment, a form of which is tourism became widespread in the developed countries of the world (Yamashita, 2001).

In fact, tourism has developed for various reasons; they are summarized as follow:

- To generate economic benefits of foreign exchange earnings (for international tourist)
- To generate income, employment, and government revenues,
- To serve as a catalyst for development of other economic sectors such as agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and manufacturing,
- To help pay for and justify infrastructure that also serves general community and economic needs,

- To justify applying measures for environmental and cultural heritage conservation for which resources might not be available
- To provide recreational, cultural, and commercial facilities and services for both by tourists and also by residents that may not have been developed without tourism
- To provide opportunity for education of people about other cultures, and environments as well as their own national heritage and so achieving cross-cultural exchange (Inskeep, 1991).

This part draws the importance of the tourism history, which is a new discipline and has gradually emerged as a separate entity within both historical, as well as tourism research. In this point, Hitrec claims that tourism history is important for learning about key features of growth and specific characteristics of the host areas in the past with the aim of making vital decisions in the present, and even more so in the future (Hitrec, 2002). Therefore, experts and scientists, especially those dealing with tourism, have interested in tourism history. According to their studies, it can be said that tourism is a very old concept, which started with travel.

2.5. Tourism Systems and Models

Reality is so complex to explain all its features, all its functional relationships exist in the world. The systems and models are attractive ways to present the word more simplified and a good way to represent real world processes. There is a need for a systems approach to define and understand tourism, and to allocate the management of economic and environmental resources in pursuing development options.

The advantage of systems approach is that tourism is thought with its political, natural, economic, or social environments. It emphasizes the interconnectedness between one part of a system and another. Burns explains tourism as a system and claims that the systems supply multi-disciplinary thinking to understand the mean of tourism (Burns, 1999). A systems approach would best be applied to problem solving in tourism research

because it can accommodate social and environmental processes. Furthermore, the tourism system, which is an open system, responds to changes in the social, natural, and economic environment, and it is evolving toward an increasing state of complexity (Carlsen, 1999).

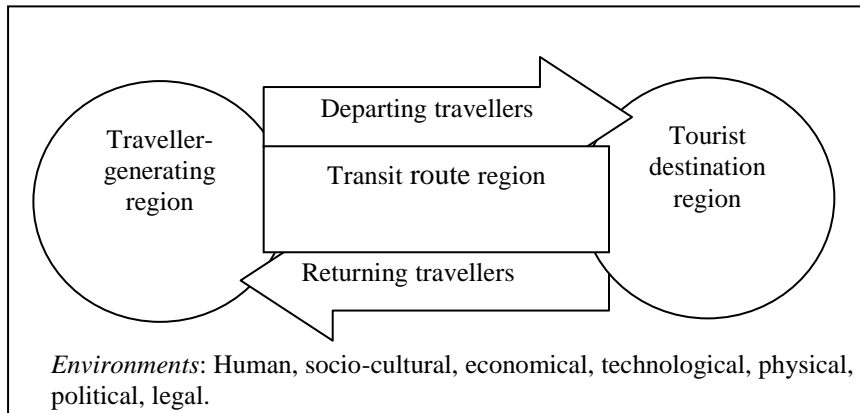


Figure 5: Location of Travelers (tourists and of the travel and tourism industry)

Source: cited in Carlsen, J., 1999: 323

Leiper (1979) was the first to use general systems theory to develop a framework for understanding and managing tourism (Carlsen, 1999). Leiper first offered this model in 1979, and then it has since been updated (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Leiper's basic tourism system (Figure: 5) considered that the tourism system comprised four geographic and social elements (Carlsen, 1999). The geographical elements are traveler-generating regions, tourist destination regions (where tourist products and services are provided) and transit route regions (where travel operations are located) (Carlsen, 1999; Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

The social elements in this system are the tourists themselves (the actors in the system), and the tourism industry (those businesses and organizations involved in the delivery of the tourism product, that is the operators of tourism and travel businesses) (Carlsen, 1999; Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

In Figure-5, there are important interactions between these elements that are in terms of transactions and impacts. The interactions occur in the three geographic areas, within

broader human, socio-cultural, economical, technological, physical, political and legal settings or environments that influence the social and geographic elements of tourism (Carlsen, 1999).

Leiper suggests that the tourism industry consists of all those firms, organizations, and facilities, which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). In fact, the nature and extent of this influence is not described in Leiper's basic whole tourism system so that the degree to political or economical influence is not clear (Carlsen, 1999).

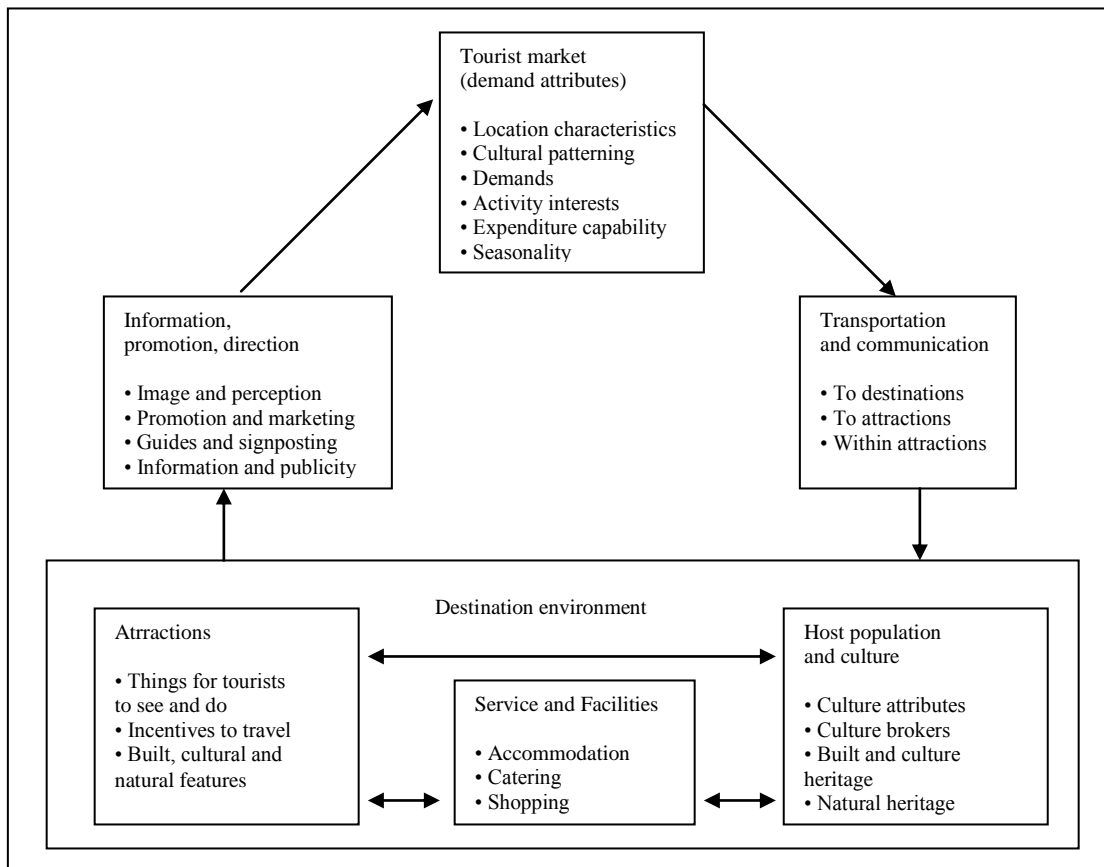


Figure 6 : The Tourism Environment (Adapted from Prosser, 1998)

Source: cited in Mason, P., 2008: 15

Leiper's model is an attempt to view tourism as a form of system, in which there is an operational structure built up of interacting components (Mason P., 2008). However,

Leiper's model has been criticized for being simplistic and Prosser provided a more detailed model (Figure: 6) that represents more effectively the inner complexities of the tourism environment (Mason, 2008).

According to Hall (2000), a system is an assemblage or interrelated combination of things or elements forming a unitary whole (cited in Cooper & Hall, 2008). According to this view, the tourism system consists of consumption, production, and the experiences that are generated (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

The tourism system can be understood through the travel paths taken by individual consumers, which is usually termed a geographical system of tourism and consists of four basic elements as follows:

1. A generating or source region:

This can be explained as the permanent residence of the tourist, and the place where the journey begins and ends.

2. A transit route:

That is the path through the region across, which the tourist must travel to reach his or her destination.

3. A destination region:

That is the region, which the tourist chooses to visit and which is a core element of tourism.

4. The environment:

That surrounds the other three regions (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

According to Hall and Cooper, the geographical tourism system model is useful for identifying the flow of tourists from one location to another and the importance of connectivity between the generating region and the destination (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

The following four charts show different tourism systems (Burns, 1999).

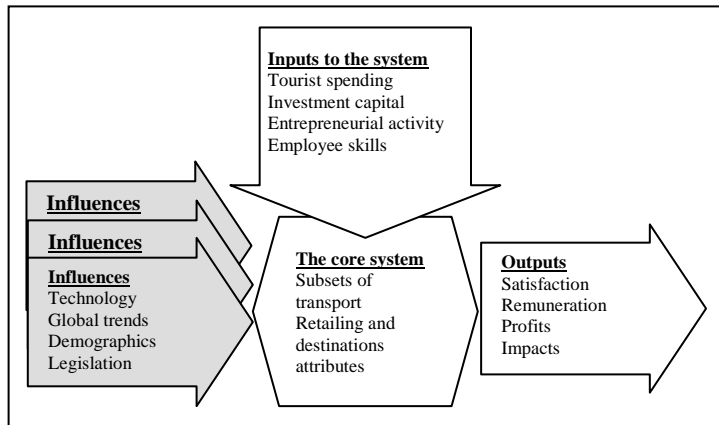


Figure 7: Tourism System (i)
Source: After Laws, 1991, cited in Burns, 1999:27

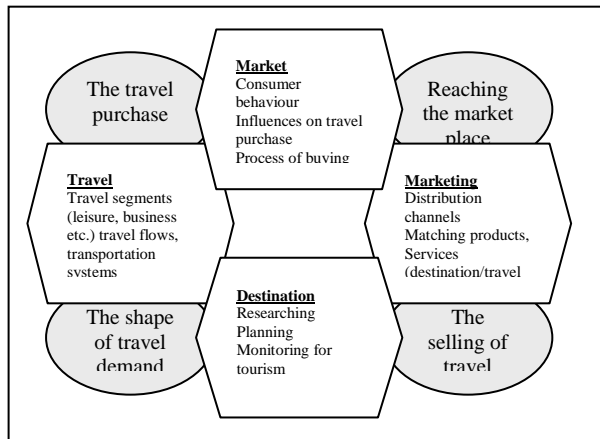


Figure 8 :Tourism System (ii)
Source: After Mill and Morison, 1985, cited in Burns, 1999:27

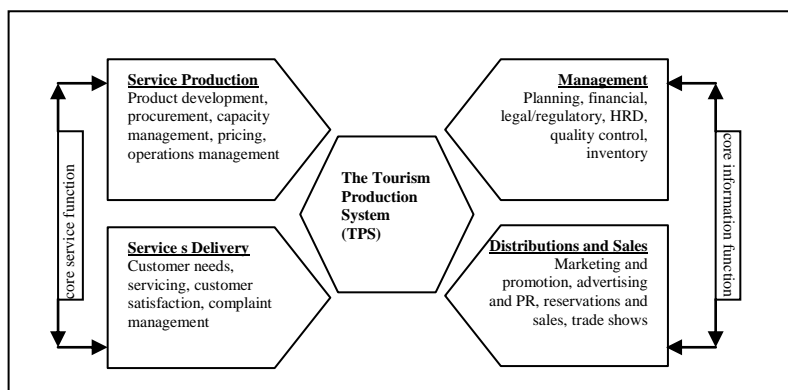


Figure 9: Tourism System (iii)
Source: After Poon, 1993, cited in Burns, 1999: 28

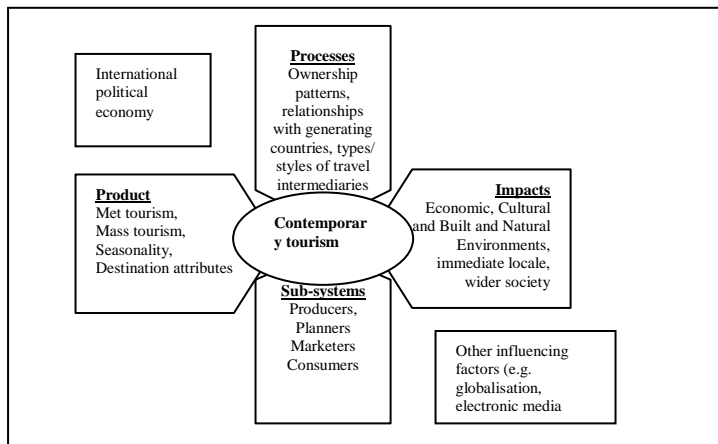


Figure 10: Tourism System (iv)

Source: After Burns and Holden, 1995, cited in Burns, 1999:28

Similarly, Micheal Hall expresses model building is also important to understand the world. He defines the specialties of model building by using Hagget's (1977) explanation.

1. Inevitability: Models may be regarded as theories, laws, relations, synthesis of data, or equations, which state a set of beliefs about the universe we think we see and so, therefore we cannot avoid them.
2. Efficiency: Model building is economical because it enables the development of generalized information in a highly compressed form.
3. Stimulus: Although models may "over-generalize" they also serve to high-light areas where "improvement" is necessary and therefore can act to promote further research through the testing of models." (cited in Hall, 2005: 57)

M. Hall says that model approach to model building is quite broad and represents the perspectives of many in the social sciences. Robinson (1998) states: "Models are simplified representations of reality in which a complex state of affairs is reduced to something more simple but containing key characteristics" (cited in Hall, 2005: 57). Micheal Hall, on the other hand, describes tourism mobility with various models of interaction, mobility, and constraint. He explains various models to formulate tourism mobility and supplies to help certain points of view (Hall, 2005).

Hall explains these models as:

- With tourism multipliers: mobility and Spatial Interaction With distance Decay: Population and transportation an mathematical model
- Space and Time: Travel Behavior relation with space and time
- Positionality and Performity: Demographic, employment, transport.
- Locale: A sense of Place, Location and Locale (Hall, 2005).

Carter R.W., Beeton R.J.S. studies the social and cultural effects of tourism, which is one of the least developed areas within the tourism literature. There are some models deal with tourism and its cultural effects. Carter and Beeton line up these models as:

- Community organization and social multipliers (e.g. Getz, 1983);
- Host – guest interaction (e.g. Smith, 1989; Knox, 1982; Jafari, 1982, 1983);
- Host community attitudinal change (e.g. Doxey, 1975);
- Evolution of social-cultural effects (e.g. Kariel & Kariel, 1982; Kariel, 1989a, b);
- Language change (e.g. White, 1974);
- Changes in tourist arts (Graburn, 1984);
- Demographic changes (e.g. White, 1985); social exchange and resident perceptions (e.g. Ap, 1992);
- Product change and ethnic preservation (e.g. Thompson & Cutler, 1997; Esman, 1984; Smith, 1996)”. (Carter & Beeton, 2004)

There is not a valuable model that relates tourism with its cultural impacts. Carter and Beeton explain this as:

“With recent exceptions (e.g. Pearce et al., 1996), psychological and social dynamic discussions of culture under the influence of tourism are relatively rare and treatment is often high on theoretical awareness and low on methodological sophistication (e.g. Getz, 1983; Smith, 1989; Knox, 1982; Jafari, 1982; Kariel & Kariel, 1982; Kariel, 1989a; 1989b; White, 1985; Thompson & Cutler, 1997;

Esman, 1984) or focused on specific aspects of the host community-tourism interaction (e.g. Doxey, 1975; White, 1974; Ap, 1992). Most of these models require extensive sociological research, involving interaction with the host community through survey, or emic anthropological study, before beginning to determine and predict change that might occur when two cultures interact". (Carter & Beeton, 2004)

To make theoretical explanatory or predictive models and to understand cultural change and tourism's role in this change, it must be identified indicators of culture, a method to identify the importance of these indicators to cultural integrity and therefore be able to determine and assess the probability of change by monitoring these indicators (Carter & Beeton, 2004)

This part explains importance of tourism systems, models and gives some examples of them. It tries to define the relation between tourism and other sectors. As mentioned before, tourism is a complex industry and it consists of many variables. Therefore, it is very difficult to make a real definition of tourism. These systems and models help defining and planning tourism so it is important to see these relations.

2.6. Contemporary Tourism Trends and the Impacts of Tourism

As it is explained before, tourism is a large and complex phenomenon with economic, environmental and socio cultural implications for places and populations, which become involved with it. It can change because it is itself a major agent of change, and external factors affect it. According to Butler, therefore, tourism, like any other economic and social phenomenon, cannot be examined out of context so it has developed and new trends have occurred recently. It is claimed that this is the result of the interplay of local, national and international forces, trends and mindsets, along with the influence of individual key actors, political ideologies, technological improvements, world events (natural and human), and changing tastes of consumers (cited in Mishra & Babu & Parida, 2008).

Over the last two decades in particular, improvements and innovations in communications and information technology have made available to consumers greatly increased information and flexibility to use that information, as well as helping to further reduce cost and time needed to arrange travel (Mishra & Babu & Parida, 2008).

Before these changes, tourism was very much an industry including hotels, transport operators, travel agents, tour operators all tended to work independently of each other. In this industry, hotels were largely in the business of selling bed nights; airlines and railways were in the business of selling seats. Travel agents were selling travel and holidays but in each case, they tended to operate very much as individual businesses. (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997)

However, because of these global changes and developments, there has arisen greater scope for specific forms of tourism, often of a more individual nature, particularly in terms of making arrangements and travel decisions (Mishra & Babu & Parida, 2008). Inskip explains this situation as there is a major trend, which is the increasing fragmentation of tourist markets with more tourists wanting to engage in recreational and sporting activities actively (Inskip, 1991).

Accordingly, the processes of globalization have made tourism both more accessible and more desirable to increasingly large numbers of people. Therefore, the exotic, which is called as 'other' by O'Reilly, is more accessible and seemingly more knowable than ever before. (cited in Jaworski & Pritchard, 2005).

Tourists want to learn about participate in local cultures, seek new destinations, and develop special interests through traveling. Especially, special interest tours on most every imaginable theme related to nature, culture, professional and vocational interests are today's tourism phenomena (Inskip, 1991). Thus, new forms of tourism such as ecotourism, cultural tourism, village, rural and nature tourism, adventure tourism, heritage tourism and music tourism have been hailed as indicative of the "New Tourism" (Mishra & Babu & Parida, 2008; Inskip, 1991).

Similarly, other types of tourism such as conference tourism have become important in the world. Inskip states that meeting, conference, and convention tourism is already an important specialized form of tourism. He claims that these types of tourism are expected to continue growing, including new destinations being developed (Inskip, 1991).

2.6.1. The Impacts of Tourism

Tourism, as a significant form of human activity, takes place in the environment, which is made up of both human and natural features. The human environment comprises economic, social and cultural factors, processes and natural environment is made up of plants and animals in their habitat. Tourism uses these features and so it can have major impacts on economic, cultural and natural environment (Mason, 2008).

According to Hall and Page, there are a number of ways of categorizing the impacts of tourism and one of the most common is that used by Mathieson and Wall (1982). They divide impacts into economic, social and physical- environmental categories (cited in Hall & Page, 2006). Shaw and Williams summarize a brief review of some of the socio cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism (Table 7). They simplify these effects and systematize the opportunities, risks and constraints generated by tourism (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Table 7: Perspectives on Tourism Opportunities, Risks and Constraints

	Economic	Socio cultural	Environmental
<u>Opportunities</u>			
Growth	Dynamism	Cultural-exchange	Funding
Diversification	Risk-reduction	Alternatives	Biodiversity
<u>Risks</u>			
Uncertainty	Non-predictability	Uncontrollability	Non-regulation
Dependency	Vulnerability	Imitation	Uniformity
Homogeneity	Competition	McDisneyization	Parkification
<u>Constraints</u>			
Assets	Free goods	Community	Nature
Intra-relationships	Non-trust	Conflicts	Non-conformism
Interrelationships	Competition	Irritation	

Source: Shaw & Williams, 2004: 10

Opportunities: According to Shaw and Williams, tourism provides two forms of opportunities, which can be generalized in terms of growth and diversification. Economically, tourism provides an opportunity to stimulate modern capitalist growth in less developed economies providing a dynamic basis for restructuring. Moreover, tourism can also contribute to risk reduction, whether in agricultural or mature industrial communities (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

In socio cultural terms, tourism can intensify the interconnections between, cultural alternatives in lifestyles, and potentially greater multiculturalism. The opportunities for the environment lie in harnessing the revenue generated by tourism for environmental improvements, including taking positive actions to promote biodiversity (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Risks: Shaw and Williams claim that tourism presents three major risks to places: uncertainty (resulting from fluctuations in demand curves that are highly sensitive to perceptions of risk), over-dependency on a single activity, and greater homogeneity, in part related to the globalization of consumption (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

According to this table, there are economic risks, which are specified as lack of predictability in demand, and vulnerability to short- and long-term fluctuations in demand, and intense competition between places. The socio cultural risks lie in the lack of local control over relatively open systems and dependency on particular market segments, which may also lead to strong demonstration effects. There is also a tendency for tourism to contribute to the homogenization of culture. This is called as ‘McDisneyization’ and ‘McDonaldization’ of the tourist industry on a global scale produces (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Ritzer (1998) has explained the debates on old and new forms of tourism consumption, especially tourism, using the terms ‘McDonaldization’ or ‘McDisneyfication’ as metaphors. Ritzer and Liska (1997) have described some of the new meanings of consumption. They have argued that consumers want their tourist experiences to be as

‘McDonaldized’ as their day-to-day lives. These concepts are defined by Urry (2000) as “homogeneous, calculable and safe experiences wherever they are to be consumed” (cited in Shaw & Williams, 2004).

There are risks for the environment from unregulated tourism, and furthermore, there are risks in the production of topographical uniformity (importing sand, building sea breaks, and draining marshes) to provide the environments demanded by some forms of tourism. This destruction produces what we term ‘parkification’, as particular landscapes, such as golf courses, are created for tourism (Shaw, G., and Williams, A. M., 2004).

Constraints: Shaw and Williams indicate that there are three generic types of constraints on tourism development, which have been termed assets, intra-relationships (within tourism), and interrelationships (between tourism and other sectors). One of the economic assets of tourism is that many tourist attractions are free goods, which do not have to be paid for. For example, sea views, clean water, fresh air, and townscapes are some of the economic assets of tourism (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Another constraint is a lack of trust and confidence among firms, and other sectors over land or labor, which may drive up prices and reduce the competitiveness of both activities (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Other constraint is that tourism growth potentially may lead to social cleavages between sections of the tourism industry serving different market segments, and to growing host–guest irritation among many sections of the wider community. There are two types of environmental constraint, which are nature and non-conformism. Nature is often a major tourist attraction, and also highly fragile environments. In these settings, the practices of different groups of tourists, and of tourists versus locals, may be non-conforming; they may be mutually exclusive in terms of enjoyment of the same place, while also threatening the viability of the local ecosystem (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Likewise Shaw and Williams, many social scientists have explored the negative and positive impacts of tourism. According to Mason, tourism is recognized as an economic activity and so only economic impacts are considered. However, tourism is a multifunctional concept and therefore it should be viewed from many different perspectives.

For example, one observer may admit that the building of a hotel in an area will create more jobs, both in the building and running of the hotel. Therefore, this observer would consider that tourism has a positive impact. Conversely, another observer may claim although jobs will be created, they will only be part-time, semi-skilled, poorly paid and lacking a career structure. This may take people away from traditional forms of employment and so the building of the hotel has a negative impact on the local economy (Mason, 2008).

Mason gives another example relating to environmental effects of tourism. One observer may claim that the creation of a footpath through a national park to cater for tourists can be viewed as a way of routing tourists and therefore limiting damage. This has a positive impact. Another observer may suggest that this footpath routing will promote an increase in tourist numbers and hence the likelihood of more damage to the environment, this has a negative impact (Mason, 2008).

Therefore, according to Mason, any discussion of tourism impacts needs to consider the value positions of observers and commentators and should be set within considerations of the wider context of tourism (Mason, 2008).

The studies about impacts of tourism on social life have caused being aware of the social, cultural and environmental problems, which can arise, from tourism, and particularly from an over-rapid growth in visitor arrivals. Many of these problems can now be anticipated and therefore considered in relation to a policy and planning framework. Therefore, there is a growing volume of literature relating to the impacts of tourism (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

Table 8: Positive and Negative Dimensions of the Impacts of Tourism on Host Communities

<i>Type of impact</i>	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>
<u><i>Economic dimensions</i></u> Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increased expenditures • creation of employment • increase in labor supply • increase in standard of living • increase in investment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • localized inflation • real estate speculation • failure to attract tourists • better alternative investments • capital outflows • inadequate estimation of costs of tourism development • undesirable opportunity costs including transfer of funds from health and education
Tourism/commercial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increased awareness of the region as a travel/tourism destination • increased knowledge concerning the potential for • investment and commercial activity in the region • creation of new facilities, attractions and infrastructure • increase in accessibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acquisition of a poor reputation as a result of inadequate facilities, improper practices or inflated prices • negative reactions from existing enterprises due to the possibility of new competition for local personnel and government assistance
<u><i>Socio-cultural impacts</i></u> Social/cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase in permanent level of local interest and participation in types of activity associated with event • strengthening of regional values and traditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • commercialization of activities which may be of a personal or private nature • modification of nature of event or activity to accommodate tourism • potential increase in crime • changes in community structure • social dislocation
Psychological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increased local pride and community spirit • increased awareness of non-local perceptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tendency toward defensive attitudes concerning host regions • high possibility of misunderstandings leading to varying degrees of host/visitor hostility
Political/administrative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enhanced international recognition of region and values • development of skills among planners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • economic exploitation of local population to satisfy ambitions of political elite • distortion of true nature of event to reflect values of political system • failure to cope • inability to achieve aims • increase in administrative costs • use of tourism to legitimize unpopular decisions • legitimization of ideology of local elite
<u><i>Environmental impacts</i></u> Physical/environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of new facilities • improvement of local infrastructure • conservation of heritage • visitor management strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • environmental damage • changes in natural processes • destruction of heritage • overcrowding • changed feeding and breeding habits of wildlife

Source: Hall & Page, 2006: 179-180

(after Getz (1977); Mathieson and Wall (1982); Ritchie (1984); Hall (1992b))

A detailed study on the impacts of tourism has been used by Getz (1977), Ritchie (1984) and Hall (1992b) (Table 8) (cited in Hall & Page, 2006). These impacts are categorized

in terms of their positive or negative nature for a destination community (Hall & Page, 2006).

As mentioned before, within the tourism literature the impacts of tourism have usually been divided into three main categories: environmental, socio cultural and economic. These categories have a strong relation between them and these relationships and interdependencies are shown on the following figure. These economic, environmental and social dimensions act as the main categories around which the notion of sustainable development is considered (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

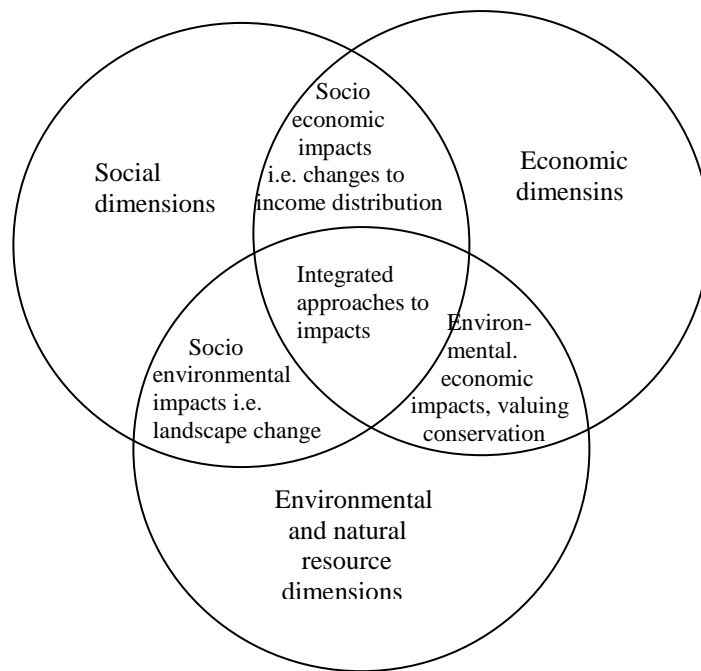


Figure 11: Interrelationships between Tourism's Impacts

Source: Cooper & Hall 2008: 162)

In this thesis, the effects of tourism are also categorized under the headings of economic, socio cultural and environmental impacts, which are explained briefly in the following parts.

2.6.1.1. Economic Impacts of Tourism

It is mentioned before; tourism is an important source for economic development and it is probably the biggest sector in the world economy. Lickorish and Jenkins argue that the main economic impacts of tourism relate to foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, generation of employment and income, and stimulation to regional development. They claim that the first two effects take place at the macro or national level, whereas the other three impacts occur at sub-national levels (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

The economic benefits arising from tourism can be clarified as job creation, income generation, improvements in infrastructure and government revenues. These benefits have also helped to diversify and redistribute incomes. (World Tourism Organization, 1997).

It is now generally accepted that international tourism, which is an invisible export (Theobald, 2005), constitutes one of the most significant of global trade flows (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Tourism creates a flow of foreign currency into the economy of a destination country, thereby contributing directly to the current account of the balance of payments (Theobald, 2005).

According to Lickorish and Jenkins, international tourism has two main impacts; trade and redistributive effect. They explain that the trade effect is a characteristic of tourism demand and as tourists travel to visit countries, the act of traveling itself stimulates trade. At the destination the tourist might use accommodation owned and managed by non-residents and consume some food and drink not supplied domestically (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

Similarly, the most international tourists come from high-income developed countries and spend a part of their discretionary income in lower income countries by the purchase of holidays. In this sense, some of the surplus spending power of the richer countries is

through tourism redistributed to other countries, many of them being in the developing world (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

The tourism as an 'industry' consumes the output of other industries and creates a far-reaching base of wealth for feeder industries such as agriculture, fishing, food processing, brewing, construction, airports, transportation vehicles, communications equipment and furniture to name a few. Moreover, tourism uses services of other industries, such as insurance, credit cards, advertising, database and niche marketing, the internet and e-commerce tools (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008)

Tourism provides local destinations, states, provinces, or countries with new sources of income and currency exchange. Tourism creates jobs, reduces unemployment, fosters entrepreneurship, stimulates production of food and local handicrafts, demands effective communications facilitates cultural exchanges and contributes to a better understanding of the local area, state, province, country and the world at large (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008)

According to Pearce (1989) and Mason (1995), negative consequences of tourism are summarized as follow:

- _ Inflation;
- _ Opportunity costs
- _ Over-dependence on tourism (cited in Mason, 2008)

According to Mason, inflation increase related with the rises in prices of land, houses and even food that can occur because of tourism. Prices for these commodities can increase when tourists place extra demands on local services at a tourism destination. Moreover, opportunity costs refer to the cost of engaging in tourism rather than another form of economic activity. For example, in a coastal area, this could be the costs of investing in tourism instead of in arable farming, market gardening or fishing (Mason, 2008).

Similarly, over-dependence on tourism can occur in, such as, small states, where tourism is seen as the best method of development. Over time, the emphasis on tourism becomes such that there is virtually no other approach to development. As a result, the country becomes dependent on tourism revenue to the extent that any change in demand is likely to lead to a major economic crisis (Mason, 2008).

2.6.1.2. Social and Cultural Impacts of Tourism

Tourism has always been regarded as a means of economic modernization, it has not been seriously considered as a means of social and cultural modernization (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Until the mid-1970s, most studies of tourism concentrated on measuring the economic benefits of tourism and international tourism (the interaction between tourists and the host community) was not studied much. After that time, more scholars and practitioners in tourism gave attention to the relationship between host and guest, and particularly to the non-economic effects induced by that relationship (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

The relationship between tourism development and socio cultural change is very complex. According to Lickorish and Jenkins, tourism is a ‘total social event’, which may lead to structural changes that can be seen in all regions of the world. Hence, tourists do not just bring their purchasing power to the host country and cause amenities to be set up for their use. They also bring a different type of behavior, which can profoundly transform local social habits by removing and upsetting the basic and long-established norms of the host population (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

In fact, tourism development can bring about many changes (positive and negative) in host communities (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Positive socio cultural impacts of tourism can be summarized as follow:

- 1- Successful tourism development should bring reasonable economic profit to the involved parties; increase in seasonal work, shift working (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997),

the creation of employment, and the revitalization of poor or nonindustrialized regions (Mason, 2008). This profit, in turn, should improve the quality of life for the local population by providing a modern lifestyle and amenities (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Furthermore, tourism constitutes a method of developing and promoting certain poor or non-industrialized regions, where traditional activities are on the decline. The development of tourism provides an opportunity for a community to remain intact and to slow the drift to urban environments (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Moreover, tourism development can create more opportunities for indigenous artisans and artists to produce traditional art forms (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

2- Tourism gives growing importance to leisure and relaxation, activities, and so it accentuates the values of a society (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

3- With proper management, tourism can ensure the long-term conservation of areas of outstanding natural beauty, which have aesthetic and/or cultural value (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). The tourism business urges the local population to maintain their local values, traditions and heritage (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

4- Tourism may renew local architectural traditions, on the condition that regional peculiarities, the ancestral heritage and the cultural environment are respected (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Mason defines this impact as the renewal of local architectural traditions (Mason, 2008).

5- Tourism contributes to the rebirth of local arts and crafts and of traditional cultural activities in a protected natural environmental setting (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Tourism development can contribute to the *protection and enhancement* of traditions, customs and heritage. These customs and traditions would otherwise disappear through the waves of modernization and globalization, which tend to standardize the world's economic culture by adopting a universal mode (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

6- Tourism may even offer a way to revive the social and cultural life of the local population, thus reinforcing the resident community, encouraging contacts within the country, attracting young people and favoring local activities (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

7- With a well-managed small-scale tourism development, tourism can cause *cultural exchange* between people. It is known that the tourists in general come to the destination with certain stereotypes towards the host culture. However, this kind of cultural exchange cannot be achieved in a mass tourism setting where direct and high-density contact between hosts and guests is minimal (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

8- Moreover, international tourism can be a powerful tool to help resolve political conflicts as well as to pave a path to world peace. It can achieve this by educating individual tourists to be more responsible for their words and deeds in the destinations (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Besides these positive advantages, there are important negative effects of tourism. Lickorish and Jenkins argue that when tourists enter the host country, the resident population has to accept the effects of overcrowding (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997) because; tourism can cause overcrowding in resorts, which can cause stress for both tourists and residents (Mason, 2008).

Furthermore, it causes migration and this can be divided into two parts; leisure migration, especially of retired people; migration of labor. Leisure migration is defined that tourists and retirees migrate semi-permanently to enclave or reserved areas and they contribute to the income in the area. This is less significant in terms of effects on local labor markets. However, migration of labor due to tourism has a significant influence on the local labor markets and economic leakage. Forwhy, migration of labor is not only displacing the workforce in the rural and peripheral areas but also destroying family structures as usually one or two family members leave the hometown to seek jobs in the tourist areas (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

With tourism development, regions can become over-dependent on tourism, so traditional activities such as farming may decline. This problem is made worse where tourism is a seasonal activity and residents have to modify their way of life for part of the year. In countries with strong religious codes, altered social values caused by a tourist invasion may be viewed as nationally undesirable (Mason, 2008).

There is an important negative impact of tourism, called as *cultural imperialism* and *assimilation* of the weaker culture (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Hashimoto explains that as tourists, the majority of who come from economically developed nations, tend to expect familiar amenities of life in the destination areas (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

For example, they have in their home country, e.g. hot water available 24 hours a day, flushing toilets, air-conditioned rooms, comfortable transportation, familiar food, and so on. As a result, the tourists and tourism industry that serve tourists from the developed nations tend to impose their cultural values in the destination and so the host community often has to accept the tourists' culture (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Mason gives another example; the United States has one of the most powerful cultures, which predominates over the one from the developing country in any such meeting of cultures. This particular process of acculturation has been dubbed the 'MacDonaldization' or 'Coca-colonization' of global cultures (Mason, 2008).

According to Hashimoto, as a part of this cultural imperialism and assimilation, language will also change. Hence, most international tourists do not learn or know the language of the host communities and instead, English is used as the common language between tourists and hosts. Therefore, those people who serve in the tourism industry or related businesses have to learn a communicable level of English. Because of the need for a foreign language to communicate with tourists increases, the language curriculum in the school system also changes. (cited in Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Another negative impact is *demonstration effect*, which contribute to social and cultural changes in the host communities (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). According to this demonstration effect, it is theorized that simply observing tourists will lead to behavioral changes in the resident population (Mason, 2008).

Lickorish and Jenkins explain demonstration effect of tourism and point out that international tourism tends to confront a host community rather than integrate into it. Hence, tourists are short-stay visitors carrying with them their own cultural norms and behavioral patterns (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

Another impact is called as the *authenticity* of displayed culture. Tourists claim to seek the ‘authentic’ or ‘genuine’ culture of the host communities. Nevertheless, they can really accept and appreciate the ‘authentic’ because, they do not want to spend all day watching the rituals which they may not understand. Furthermore, they have such a busy travel itinerary that they cannot stay very long at any one site. They want to experience a little bit of a thrill from a safe distance, meanwhile they often do not want to risk their safety by participating in cultural activities (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

As a result of tourism development, not only are local attitudes changed, but the targets and opportunities for criminal activity are increased. Moreover, because tourism is essentially a human activity, it is desirable to avoid conflict between visitors and the host community (Lickorish, L. J. and Jenkins, C., L., 1997).

Furthermore, tourism may generate social costs; however, it is often difficult to estimate. It is important to protect and maintain the cultural heritage and deal with connected problems: the illegal trade in historic objects and animals, unofficial archaeological research, erosion of aesthetic values and of a certain technical know-how, disappearance of high-quality craft skills (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

According to Lickorish and Jenkins, the most difficult problem in identifying socio-cultural impacts is that they can take a very long time to emerge. Furthermore, socio-

cultural impacts is difficult to differentiate these from other impacts and hence particularly difficult to measure them. For why, unlike the economic effects of tourism, which are readily seen, changes in society may be imperceptible but cumulative (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

2.6.1.3. Environmental Impacts of Tourism

There is a strong relationship between tourism development and the natural, social environment. The natural environment is both a factor of production and a source of attraction for tourists and therefore there exists a conflict between them (Carlsen, 1999). Moreover, there is a growing evidence of conflict between tourism activity and the wish to conserve landscapes and habitats. Like other impacts, environmental impacts can be divided into the headings positive and negative ones (Mason, 2008).

Tourism has a systemic relationship with the natural environment and it is unique in this sense because, there is not a similar relation with other industries. The relationship between tourism and the environment is both extractive and aesthetic. Tourists require good supplies of fresh water, clean air, and local produce as basic ingredients of their tourism experience that can be extracted only from the tourist destination, which they visit (Carlsen, 1999).

According to Mason, in relation to tourism's impacts on the physical environment, an important term is ecology. Ecology is the study of animals in their habitat (this includes plants and other organisms, but usually excludes humans) (Mason, 2008). Therefore, ecological impacts of tourism have important results, because of tourists being present in their habitat.

Shaw argues that tourism is investigated as a destroyer and a creator whether of valued environments, social and cultural practices, or wealth. He explain that the environmental sources are used for the production, during the consumption of the tourist product (natural manmade attractions, land, water), and these tourist activities produce residuals

(air and water pollutants, solid and liquid waste,). Therefore, tourism causes some negative impacts on tourism (Shaw, 2004).

According to Day, when we look from this perspective, tourism “exploits the majority of the people, pollutes the environment, destroys the ecosystem, bastardizes the culture, robs people of their traditional values and ways of life, and subjugates women and children” (Day, 2004).

Some social scientists claim that tourism in developing countries amounts to “another type of colonization,” “the final stages of colonialism and empire” a people from the “developed” world travel to poorer regions to enjoy the remnants of indigenous cultures (Day, 2004). Prof. Dr. Peter Keller claims that in spite of the opinion of many experts, the real competition in tourism is not between tourism service providers like hotelkeepers and restaurant proprietors the real competition is between destinations. He explains this as because potential visitors choose one destination over a host of competing ones and the various services and decide which to consume (cited in World Tourism Organization, 2005).

The hard-core environmentalists claim that tourism causes pollution and the depletion of natural resources. However, Reid insists that when managed well, tourism can be one of the most sustainable uses of the natural environment. For example, ecotourism activities protects the natural resources, it takes advantage of, and educates visitors about them and their fragility. It can be said that the proper use of any resource or facility will extend environmental life, while improper use is likely to destroy it (Reid, 2003).

2.7. Conclusion

This chapter has focused on the concept of tourism and its meanings on social theory. Within this context, it is concluded that tourism has been a rapid growing economic sector and it has very strong relations with other sectors. Tourism development in the

world is searched and accordingly, it is determined that tourism receipts and arrivals increase rapidly within the years.

There are some important motivations for tourism movement, and in this part, the motivations for tourism have been briefly outlined. Correspondingly, tourism is explored as an industry and a system, which helps to understand the relationship between tourism and other sectors. As a result, different tourism systems are searched and tourism models are arranged according to these relations.

The positive and negative impacts of tourism in a destination country or region are explored in detail and explained within three parts; economic, socio-cultural and environmental factors. When tourism develops, it will cause some changes especially in the host communities. Because of tourism, more tourists arrive to tourism destinations and so the number of arrivals increases and economic income rises. The supposed negative impacts, including the demonstration effect, cultural damage, authenticity and specific issues, such as increases in crime in general, are explained.

Consequently, it is suggested that thoughtful policy making and planning can minimize or even remove these negative effects. After removing these negative effects, tourism can be a very positive means of increasing the economic, socio cultural, and physical or environmental life of a destination. Therefore, politicians, planners and citizens have to design a plan to maximize the economic and social benefits of tourism to the resident population and the nation.

CHAPTER 3

TOURISM PLANNING

3.1. Introduction

As mentioned at the previous chapter, tourism has emerged as an important economic and social activity in the world. Many planners, tourism researchers have dealt with this new concept and they have searched effects of it around the world. They have prepared development plans, and spatial, social analyses to search best way of planning in tourism centers.

The purpose of this part is to define tourism planning and describe the preparation of a tourism-development plan for Safranbolu. It is argued that since tourism has the potential to create some negative changes and planning is important to minimize these problems. In this manner, tourism planning is defined and then tourism planning approaches is investigated. Some changes in tourism planning from old times to present times are explained.

In the second part of this chapter, tourism planning is detailed in historical and cultural places. Environmental protection and the consideration of local values, cultural resources and community needs are highlighted. Cultural tourism and the importance of culture for tourism is explained and tourism planning policies are searched in Turkey. As a result, sustainable and protective tourism-planning methods are explored to find a solution for Safranbolu's tourism development.

3.2. Tourism Planning

As it is mentioned before, concerns with host–guest relationships have become more prevalent in the tourism literature. Hence, planners are becoming more aware of the need to see tourism development within a long-term perspective. It is no longer sufficient to view tourism development in simple terms of costs and benefits. Increasingly, attention is being given to the acceptability of the type and scale of tourism development to the host community. Therefore, emphasis is being given to involving the host community in both the planning and management of tourism development (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

Planning is described as organizing the future to achieve certain activities. It includes all levels of planning formalizing individuals their everyday activities and personal lives (Inskeep, 1991). In this way, a common description of planning can be expressed as “an ordered sequence of operations and actions that are designed to realize either a single goal or a set of inter-related goals and objectives” (Williams, 2003).

According to this definition, planning is (or should be) a process for anticipating and ordering change; that is forward-looking; that seeks optimal solutions to perceived problems; that is designed to increase and (ideally) maximize possible developmental benefits, whether they be physical, economic, social or environmental in character; that will produce predictable outcomes (Williams, 2003).

Inskeep summarizes the major types of planning as; economic development planning, physical land use planning, infrastructure planning, social facility planning, park and conservation planning, corporate planning, urban and regional planning (Inskeep, 1991).

The tourism planning is a cross-subject science, which is a systematic rational recognition to tourism system in the scope of planning. The combination of tourism and planning is not a simple process and so it includes tourism, planning, and systematic science (Wu, 2007). Therefore, Lui claims that there needs to understand the tourism concepts, and to develop appropriate planning approaches. (Lui, 2002)

Gunn expresses a broad definition of planning and states that the purpose of tourism planning is “to create a plan of action for a foreseeable future and to implement those actions”. The popular impression is that tourism planning is unnecessary interference in market-driven development. The investors see an opportunity to purchase land, and create tourism related places such as theme parks, resorts hotels, ski areas. Because, investors believe that all development is positive, bringing better employment and economic benefits to an area. Moreover, the investor's scope of interest generally excludes concern over external factors and particularly the impact of such new development. Tourism promoters usually accept the attractions, streets, and access, beaches, forests, and wildlife, functions will continue to bring tourists (Gunn, 2004)

Similarly, Gunn explains that growth of tourism may demand new investment in expansion of water supply systems, sewage disposal systems, police, and fire control, all new economic costs of tourism expansion. Therefore, tourism has often-increased water and air pollution, eroded soils, and decimated forests and wildlife, and caused destruction of natural landscape qualities. Moreover, great volumes of visitors, especially in rural areas and small towns, have diminished the local quality of life, forcing long-time residents to move away from the town (Gunn, 2004).

Christaller, who was a German geographer and planner, was one of the earliest writers to consider the development of tourism destinations. He claimed that how a location develops and becomes a tourism destination. He gives an example of a group of painters visit. He explains that how this area becomes an artist colony and poets, musicians and gourmets seek out this place. His ideas on how tourist areas develop over time can be summarized as follows (Mason, 2008: 21):

- Destinations develop and change over time,
- There are different types of visitors at different times,
- The tourist experience (the tourism product) changes over time,
- The impacts on the destination change over time,
- The involvement of locals in tourism destinations changes over time,

- New cycles involving new tourist destinations will occur.

There is a general view that planning has a key role to play in resolving many of the conflicts that tourism developments may generate. According to Williams, planning can be a mechanism for integrating tourism alongside other economic sectors; shaping and controlling physical patterns of development; conserving scarce or important resources; providing frameworks for active promotion and marketing of destinations (Williams, 2003).

Without planning there are evident risks that tourism development will become unregulated, formless or haphazard, inefficient and likely to lead directly to a range of negative economic, social and environmental impacts (Williams, 2003).

Good planning and careful management of tourism is essential for optimizing the benefits of tourism or at least mitigates any problems that might be generated (Inskip, 1991). Inskip explains necessity of tourism planning and emphasizes the following reasons:

- Modern tourism is still a relatively new type of activity in many areas, and some governments and the private sector have little or no experience in how to develop it properly. A tourism plan and development program can provide guidelines in those areas for developing this sector
- Tourism is a complicated, multi-sectoral, and fragmented activity. Therefore, it involves other sectors such as agriculture, fisheries and manufacturing, historic, park and recreation features, various community facilities and services, transportation and other infrastructure. Planning is necessary to ensure that all these elements are developed in an integrated manner to serve tourism as well as general needs.
- Tourism sells a product of an experience comprised of visitor use of certain facilities and services. There must be careful matching of the tourist markets and

products through the planning process, but without compromising environmental and socio-cultural objectives in meeting market demands.

- Tourism can bring direct or indirect economic benefits that can be best optimized through careful and integrated planning. These benefits may not be fully realized and economic problems can arise without planning.
- In addition to economic benefits, tourism can generate various socio-cultural benefits and problems. Therefore, planning can be used as a process for optimizing the benefits and preventing the problems, and for determining what is the best tourism development policy to preclude socio-cultural problems and to achieve conservation objectives.
- The development of tourism, tourists' attractions, facilities, and infrastructure and tourists' movements have positive and negative impacts on the physical environment. Careful planning is required to determine the optimum type and level of tourism and utilize tourism as a means to achieve environmental conservation objectives.
- There is a concern about sustainable development, so the right type of planning can ensure that the natural and cultural resources for tourism are maintained and are not destroyed in the process of development.
- Modern development based on changing market trends and other circumstances, so planning can be used to upgrade and revitalize existing outmoded or badly developed tourism areas, and through the planning process, new tourism areas can be planned to allow for future flexibility of development.
- Tourism development requires particular labor skills and capabilities, which there must be appropriate education and training. Satisfying these labor needs requires careful planning and programming and in many cases, developing specialized training facilities.
- Achieving controlled tourism development requires special organizational structures, marketing strategies, and promotion programs, legislation, regulations, and fiscal measures that through the comprehensive and integrated planning process can be related closely to tourism policy and development.

- Planning provides a rational basis for development staging and project programming, which are important for both the public and private sectors to utilize in their investment planning (Inskeep, 1991).

3.3. The History of Tourism Planning

When tourism became a significant socioeconomic activity in the late 1950s, national, regional, community, and resort tourism planning started to develop. Especially in the Asia-Pacific Region, planning became important and through the 1960s and 1970s, tourism plans were prepared for places like Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Nepal, Malaysia, Taiwan, Bali, Fiji. The 1959 State Plan of Hawaii, which is one of the most successful island tourism destinations and includes tourism as a major component, was quite progressive for its time in integrating tourism planning into the total regional development plan. In Europe, during this period, major tourism plans were prepared for Yugoslavia, Cyprus, Corsica, and the Languedoc-Roussillon coastal region of France (Inskeep, 1991). During the 1980s, tourism planning has exceeded and been undertaken for many places of the more and less developed world. It is now being persuaded in many countries, and regions that wish to develop tourism on a controlled basis (Inskeep, 1991: 18).

In many countries, tourism planning is now aimed to develop tourism on a controlled basis. Therefore, international agencies, world tourism organization (WTO), and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), The European Economic Community, and several of the bilateral aid agencies are financing tourism planning process in developing countries (Inskeep, 1991).

In the past, the key aims of tourism planning were summarized as “to ensure that opportunities are available for tourist to gain enjoyable and satisfying experiences and at the same time to provide a means for improving the way of life for residents and of destination areas” (cited in Mason, 2008: 70). Moreover, tourism planning was very site specific and linked to the supply side of tourism activity (cited in Mason, 2008).

Inskeep expresses that in the past, tourism planning was seen as a simplistic process of encouraging new hotels to open, making sure that there was transportation access to the area, and organizing a tourist promotion campaign. In this manner, the only systematic planning was to select a suitable hotel or resort site and apply site planning, landscaping, and engineering design standards to the development. He claims that this approach was often successful for development of individual hotels or small resorts in the era before mass tourism (Inskeep, 1991).

Inskeep indicates the results of this approach and he emphasizes that during the post-World War II period, tourism developed rapidly, and several areas encouraged mass tourism without planning it. Therefore, these places have since paid the social and environmental consequences of unplanned tourism development (Inskeep, 1991).

The concept of mass tourism has changed over time and recently, tourism plans give much more emphasis than previously to the environmental and socio-cultural factors of tourism development. The concept of sustainable development have become important, and surveying and analytical techniques have been much improved. Planning principles and development standards are now better understood and this current tourism planning does not ignore existing development such as classic hotels, resorts, major historic cities (Inskeep, 1991).

Previously, planning concepts and approaches being applied are that master plans were assumed to be sufficient for guiding and controlling the future development patterns. However, these plans were too rigid, not taking into account changing lifestyles, technology, and other circumstances. Now, it is admitted that planning is a continuous process and it must be flexible (Inskeep, 1991).

3.4. Contemporary Planning Approaches

It is mentioned above; recently, tourism concept and tourism-planning approaches have changed. It is underlined that tourism is a very complex concept and it has a close

relation with other sectors. Therefore, it should be carefully planned, and controlled to avoid its harmful effects.

Successful planning for tourism is very important for the future of tourism sector. Williams (1998) stated that unplanned tourist destinations are those associated with negative impacts. Similarly, Jenkins (1991) claimed that all countries should have a planning process in place to make use of resources in a wise and efficient manner (cited in Mason, 2008).

Accordingly, Williams (1998) suggested a number of general aims for tourism planning. He indicated that planning can help to shape and control physical patterns of development, conserve scarce resources, provide a framework for active promotion and marketing of destinations and can be a mechanism to integrate tourism with other sectors (cited in Mason, 2008)

Williams also considered that tourism planning, as part of an integrated plan involving other human activities, gives tourism a political significance and hence provides legitimacy to an activity, which has not always been accorded this status. Planning can also be an attempt to match supply and demand for tourism services/activities (cited in Mason, 2008)

Similarly, Inskip insists that planning should be done incrementally with continuous monitoring and feedback on effects of previous development, and evaluation of new trends (flexibility approach). This incremental planning can be done from general to the more specific levels (Inskip, 1991). He defines the basic planning process, and emphasizes the steps of it as follows:

- *Study preparation:* This process includes decision to proceed the study, that is writing of the study project terms of reference, and organization of the project. In this step, a decision has been made by government to develop tourism, or improve its present development in a planned manner. The determination of the project, which is

organized effectively by a carefully selected and coordinated team, preparation of a realistic and detailed work program is essential during this preparation stage.

- *Determination of development goals and objectives:* The goals and objectives of development are first decided in a preliminary manner. This includes feedback during the plan formulation and evaluation stage. This step indicates the desired results of developing tourism. Tourism objectives should reinforce any general development objectives for the country.
- *Surveys:* This part consists of surveys and inventory of the existing situation and characteristics of the development area. This survey activity includes field surveys of tourist attractions, facilities and services, infrastructure and other infrastructure, discussions with the relevant government officials, private sector representatives, community representatives, and review of existing documents, maps, data, and any other means to obtain the information required.
- *Analysis and synthesis:* Analysis of the survey information and synthesis of the analyses provides much of the plan formulation and recommendations. Quantitative and qualitative analysis and synthesis of the survey information must be carefully done. The analysis of physical, social and economic factors include establishing general visitor carrying capacities to help determine the overall optimum level of tourism development in the region.
- *Plan formulation:* Formulation of the development policy and physical plan is typically based on preparation and evaluation of alternative policies and plans. This step refers to formulation of tourism policy on all the plan components and preparation of the physical structure plan and its related elements. In this stage, there should be much involvement of the government.
- *Recommendations:* It is formulation of the recommendations on plan-related project elements. During this stage, the structure plan can be finalized in detail and all the

relevant recommendations are made based on the analysis and synthesis prepared and optimum policy and plan selected.

- *Implementation*: Implementation of the plan and related recommendations, utilizing various techniques that have been identified in the plan. This stage is the final step in the planning process. Under the implementation step, specific techniques, such as preparation of the project development program, are used.
- *Monitoring*: This part includes continuous monitoring and feedback on the plan's recommendations and implementation with any necessary adjustments made. After implementation, tourism development must be monitored. This stage is used to ensure that tourism development is accomplishing the objectives, following the development schedule, and not generating any economic, environmental, or socio-cultural problems (Inskeep, 1991).

Correspondingly, Wu (2007) claims that because of the theoretical foundation of tourism planning, which concerns many fields of politics, economy, culture, environment, it is necessary to perform comprehensive analysis and demonstration and to coordinate different factors (Wu, 2007). He divides “*the tourism planning theories*” into five theoretical parts; these are listed as follow;

- *Economy*: Wu (2007) defines economy part as the first theoretical frame for tourism planning. In this part, tourism is taken as an economic phenomenon such as economics of tourism, market of tourism, tourism statistics, finance, enterprise management, tourism marketing, tourism commodity, asset of tourism scene, tourism accounting and the theories focus on the relationships of people in the allocation of tourism resources, the tourism production, the tourism process, the tourism service (Wu, 2007).
- *Environment*: The other part is the theories of environmental values, which focus on the evolvement of natural ecological resources and the relationships between

tourists and ecological environment, the laws of tourists, special behaviors' and tourism space, such as tourism geography, ecological environment of tourism, tourism sight, forest tourism, gardening, ecology of tourism, ecology of sight. These theories can help to research the relationships between tourists and atmosphere, the relationships between tourists and tourism resources, and provide references for tourism planning's resources, resources allocation, protection of ecological environment, utilization of resources, construction of tourism environment, layout of tourism site (Wu, 2007).

- **Humanism:** The theories of humanism deal with activities of tourists, the laws related with tourism, people-oriented tourism, and the relationships between tourists and non-tourists (including residents, managers of tourism business, tourism agents, and other tourist-related media), include tourism sociology, tourism psychology, tourism culture, history, archaeology, culture, anthropology, leisure and entertainment, education, gymnastics, aesthetics of tourism. These theories of humanism are helpful for setting up a model for human and shaping a cultural connotation, inspiring tourists, guiding tourists, pursuing tours that are more gracious, adjusting the scale, structure, and quality of tourism development, as well the behavior relationships between different tourists, different corporations, tourists, and corporations (Wu, 2007).
- **Planning:** Planning theories deal with laws of tourism development, operation of tourism planning, relationship coordination between men, men and nature, tourism industry and other industries. They include programming, planning, futurology, systematic engineering, architecture, transportation planning, land programming, garden planning (Wu, 2007).
- **Technology:** These theories concern with the technologies that support tourism planning. These theories, which include photography, computer science, remote sensing, Geographic Information System, are important for investigation, analysis of tourism resources and tourists market. Moreover, engineering

planning, architecture and scene design, tourism projects, application and construction, production and design of text are other technologies used in tourism planning process (Wu, 2007).

3.5. Tourist Attractions and Activities

The attraction features of a country, which provide the basis for the developing tourism, form the most essential element of the tourism product. Inskip, (1991) classifies the types of tourist attractions as follows:

Natural attractions: These are based on features of the natural environment (Inskip, 1991).

- Climate: The most tourists prefer a warm, sunny, and dry climate. However, some types of tourist activities such as snow skiing require cold weather. A long climatically desirable season is an advantage for development of tourism.
- Scenic beauty: The natural scenic beauty of an area is a major motivation to visit there. Many tourist activities such as pleasure driving, hiking, picnicking, camping, wildlife viewing, rafting, rock climbing, trekking are associated with areas of scenic beauty.
- Beaches and marine areas: Beaches and marine areas attract general interest tourists who are seeking relaxation, recreation and also special interest tourists who are seeking different activities such as diving, water skiing, scuba diving, sport fishing, board surfing.
- Flora and fauna: Unusual and interesting flora and fauna can be very important attractions such as the game parks of East Africa and the redwood parks of California. General interest tourists and tourists with special interests such as bird watchers visit these places.
- Special Environmental Features: High Mountains, unusual geological formations, caves, geysers, hot springs, and mild forms of volcanic activity

are important attractions for both general sightseeing and special interest tourists.

- Parks and Conservation Areas: Important natural areas, and their flora and fauna, beach and marinas should have conservation measures. These areas should be designed for some type of conservation status, such as parks, nature reserves, and wildlife refuges. The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) has specified categories and criteria for establishment of parks and conservation areas.
- Health Tourism: As mentioned before, spas were first developed by the Romans and therefore many spa resorts were developed during the 19th century. Recently, spas have become major form of tourism and another type of health tourism, which can be called as the “diet” resort where people go to lose weight, has developed.

Cultural Attractions: These attractions are based on man’s activities (Inskip, E., 1991).

- Archeological, Historical, and Cultural Sites: Cultural and national monuments, historic buildings, districts, historic towns, important religious buildings such as churches, mosques, synagogues, temples, monasteries, places of historic events are major types of attraction features in most parts of the world.
- Distinctive Cultural patterns: Cultural patterns, traditions, and lifestyles that are different from those tourists can be of much interest to many tourists. These can be customs, dress, ceremonies, lifestyles, and religious beliefs, practices.
- Arts and Handicrafts: Art forms including dance, music, and drama, painting, sculpting and well-executed contemporary architecture can be important attractions. Moreover, handicrafts can be both an interesting attraction for tourist and a source of income for local artisans.
- Interesting Economic Activities: Interesting economic activities, which require very little investment to present tourists, such as operation of tea,

traditional fishing, and agricultural techniques are important attractions for tourists.

- Interesting Urban Areas: Large urban areas with their varied architectural styles, historic buildings and districts, civic centers, shopping facilities, restaurants, parks, and street life are of interests to many tourists. People prefer these places for urban sightseeing, understanding city's character, visiting specific attraction features such as museums, watching theater performances such as theater, dance, concerts, operas.
- Museums and Other Cultural Facilities: different types of museums such as archeology, history, ethnology, natural history, science, technology, industry, arts and crafts, and many specialized subject are of interests to tourists.
- Cultural Festivals: Cultural festivals can be major attractions for tourists. For example, religious festivals, pageants such as the Carnival in Rio de Janeiro, Mardi Gras in New Orleans, Sri Lanka are important attractions for both residents and domestic, international tourists.
- Friendliness of Residents: An important real attraction for many tourists is friendly, hospitable character of local residents, and more generally, their tolerance and acceptance of tourists visiting their environment.

Special Types of Attractions: These attractions are not particularly related to either natural or cultural features. They are artificially created activities (Inskeep, 1991).

- Theme Parks, Amusement Parks, and Circuses: Theme parks are also very important attractions. They have particular themes such as history, adventure, unusual geographic places, fantasy, and futurism. The best-known theme park, Disneyland in Anaheim, opened in California in 1955. After that time, theme parks became increasingly popular in the world. Today, it can be said that large theme parks can greatly affect the economy, land use and transportation patterns of a region.
- Shopping: Shopping must be considered as a possible attraction for tourists. Well-known, large shopping centers attract much shopping activity by tourists visiting those places.

- Meetings, Conservations and Conferences: Domestic and international conference, convention tourism (small meetings, training courses, seminars, workshops) is a significant type of tourism throughout the world. There is an advantage for the conference facilities to be located in a country or a region. That is it allows to tourists interest in other activities such as sightseeing, shopping, eating, recreation.
- Special Events: Special events such as international sports events, Olympic, Commonwealth, and Asian Games, can be of much interest to many tourists for a short time periods. International fairs and expositions can attract both international and domestic tourists.
- Gambling Casinos: Gambling casinos have been developed in areas that have limited natural and cultural attraction features. These areas have become major tourism destinations such as Nevada, especially the cities of Las Vegas and Reno.
- Entertainment: Entertainment is a broad category, which includes many facilities such as nightclubs, discos and some restaurants provide evening entertainment. It can be defined as activities that are popular with many tourists and considered essential for successful operation of some hotels and resorts.
- Recreation and Sports: Recreation and sport facilities may be developed as the primary attraction. For example, sport hunting, fishing, which are popular sports in North America and Europe, championship golf courses, and tennis are important to attract tourists.

Tourist Facilities, Services as Attractions: These can be attractions in themselves and induce tourists to visit an area (Inskeep, 1991).

- Hotels and Resorts: Well-designed, historic, or unusual hotels and resorts can be attractive for tourists. High quality service is also important for this type of facilities.
- Transportation: Interesting, historic, and unusual forms of transportation can be attractions for tourists. For example, the Nile River cruises in Egypt,

camel trekking in the Sahara, steamboat tours on the Mississippi River in the USA attract tourist from all over the world.

- Cuisine: The food of an area can be significant secondary tourist attraction especially if the area offers a special type of cuisine that is well prepared and presented.

Other Attractions: (Inskeep, 1991)

- Ethnic, Religious, and Nostalgic Associations: Ethnic, religious and nostalgic associations can be the reason for travel to those destinations. For example, religious pilgrimages comprise a major type of travel such as Mecca, Medina, Jerusalem, and Varanasi.
- Political Stability, Public Health, and Safety: The political stability and public safety of an area is a significant factor in attracting tourists. A pattern of terrorist actions in particular areas can be a deterrent to tourist travel. Therefore, political stability and safety must be realistically assessed in a tourism area.
- Destination Travel Costs: A major factor in the attract ability of tourists may be the cost of travel to the destination. Travel cost is very important factor for tourists when they prefer a tourism destination (Inskeep, 1991).

3.6. Tourism Planning Issues

It is mentioned at the previous chapter that tourism has a very close relationship with other sectors. Especially, tourism uses natural resources and therefore it is very important to protect these resources against negative effects. Tourism planning must contain all activities of tourism and demands of tourists.

Although people realize the importance of tourism planning, a systematic operational system and a valid tourism theory is still absent. People usually use theories of garden planning or city planning to plan tourism (Wu, 2007). However, there are some approaches in tourism planning explained by tourism researchers.

Inskeep defines the basic tourism planning approaches in the formulation of tourism development policies and plans (Figure: 12). He classifies these approaches as continuous and incremental, systems oriented, comprehensive, integrated, and environmental, with the focus on achieving sustainable development, community involvement (Inskeep, 1991)

- *Continuous, incremental, and flexible approach:* Tourism planning is seen as a continuous process, in which adjustments are made as needed based on monitoring and feedback, but still based on an adopted policy and plan. These plans are made within the framework of maintaining the basic objectives and policies of tourism development (Inskeep, 1991)

According to Trigano, impacts of tourism are taken as case-by-case basis and mostly actions taken are simply remedial and do not have a longer-term focus (Trigano, 1984).

- *Systems approach:* In this approach, tourism is viewed as an interrelated system and should be planned as such, utilizing systems and analysis techniques (Inskeep, 1991).
- *Comprehensive approach:* Related to the systems approach, all aspects of tourism development including its institutional elements and environmental and socioeconomic implications are analyzed, and planned comprehensively, it is a holistic approach (Inskeep, 1991).

Another words, it is an analytic point of view and is prevalent in the recommendations of leading organizations such as the WTO (1977, 1983), UNEP (1982), OECD (1980). (Trigano, 1984).

- *Integrated approach:* Related to the systems and comprehensive approach, tourism is planned, developed as an integrated system within itself. Moreover, tourism is integrated into the overall plan and total development patterns of the area (Inskeep, 1991).
- *Environmental and sustainable development approach:* Tourism is planned, developed, and managed in such a manner that its natural and cultural resources are not depleted. However, it is maintained as viable resources on a permanent

basis for continuous future use. Carrying capacity analysis is an important technique used in the environmental and sustainable development approach (Inskeep, 1991).

- *Community approach:* There is maximum involvement of the local community in the planning and decision making process of tourism. There is maximum community participation in the actual development and management of tourism and its socioeconomic benefits (Inskeep, 1991).
- *Implementable approach:* The tourism development policy, plan, and recommendations are formulated to be realistic and implementable. The techniques of implementations are considered throughout the policy and plan formulation with the implementation techniques, which includes a development and action program or strategy, specifically adopted (Inskeep, 1991).
- *Application of systematic planning process:* The systematic planning process is applied in tourism planning based on a logical sequence of activities (Inskeep, 1991: 50)

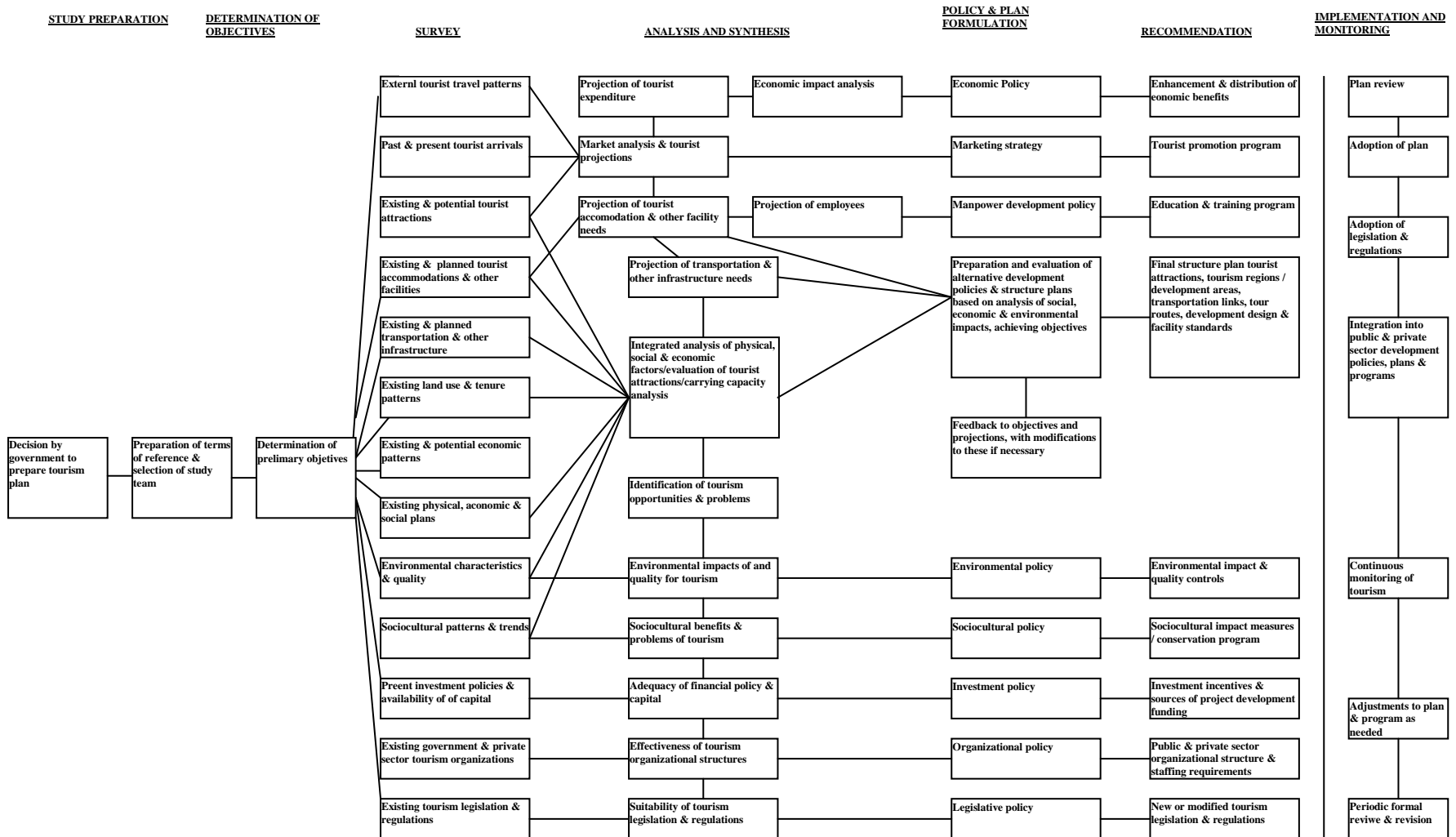


Figure 12: Process for Preparing the Comprehensive Tourism Development Plan at the National and Regional Levels
Source: Inskip, 1991: 50

Similarly, Getz (1986) and Hall (2000) define five approaches- or traditions- of tourism planning. These are boosterism, economic, industry-oriented approach, physical/spatial approach, community-oriented approach, and sustainable tourism approach (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

- *Boosterism*: It can be defined as a form of non-planning. It claims that tourism development is inherently good and will be of automatic benefit to the destination. This approach is characterized as “being part of an attitude to development that growth is good and that any negative externalities of tourism development will be outweighed by positive benefits”. From this perspective, in this approach, the primary planning problem is one of how to attract as many people as possible to a given location (Cooper & Hall, 2008).
- *Economic approach*: This approach constructs the tourism-planning problem around economic questions in terms of tourism’s role in regional and national economic growth and development. It has been dominant in destination planning to attract visitors and develop a tourist industry. Within the economic approach, “the planning emphasis is on the economic impacts of tourism and the most efficient and effective use of tourism to create income and employment benefits for regions, communities or countries as a whole” (Cooper & Hall, 2008)
- *Physical/spatial approach*: This approach has its origins in the work of urban and regional land-use planners, geographers and environmental scientists. Tourism destinations are planned based on consideration of the renewability of natural resources, spatial interactions, spatial organization, regional planning and development. This perspective includes carrying capacity; hazard and risk assessment; understanding stakeholder attitudes, behavior and perceptions; resource and landscape evaluation; resource appraisal and allocation; decision-making and evaluation and the development of appropriate institutional arrangements (Cooper & Hall, 2008)
- *Community-oriented approach*: This approach has an increased recognition that tourism development had negative socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts on some members of destination communities. Moreover, it has a

realization in urban planning that community stakeholders often needed to be involved in decision-making if planning interventions were to be successful (Cooper & Hall, 2008)

- *Sustainable tourism*: This approach is seen as entering its current interpretation from the 1980s following the emergence of the sustainable development paradigm (cited in Cooper & Hall, 2008). The primary objective of sustainable development is “the provision of lasting and secure livelihoods that minimize resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability”.

The report of the World Commission of Environment and Development (WCED) (Brundtland Commission 1987) extended the basic objectives of sustainable development. These are concerns of equity; the needs of economically marginal populations; and the idea of technological and social limitations on the ability of the environment to meet present and future needs (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

3.7. Tourism Planning in Cultural Sites

Tourism uses cultural resources especially in historical sites. It, unlike other industries, relies on the goodwill and cooperation of local people because they are part of its product (Murphy, 1985). For this reason, this section explores tourism planning in the historical places. Primarily, it is explained the relationship between culture and tourism and then cultural tourism elements are questioned.

3.7.1. The Relation between Culture and Tourism

The inter-relationships between tourism and culture have attracted considerable attention over recent years and have become a focal point for policy at regional, national, and international level. “In policy and planning terms much has been done to ‘protect’ culture, heritage resources and related natural environments from the excesses of unplanned and uncoordinated tourism development” (UNESCO, 2006).

In order to explain culture and tourism relation, some scientists use identity concept. Urry (1995), Simonsen (2001), Zukin (1996), emphasize especially the importance of culture and identity in social analysis. According to them, there is a complex relation and interaction between place and culture and they are so important to understand tourism concept. Cohen insists that tourism is a cultural phenomenon, which evolves because of a very basic attitude of man to change in his native habitat (Cohen, 2004)

Tourists experience different or 'other' cultures in the settings of ordinary life and this presents its own challenges. Tourists, and people, in a globalizing world, are increasingly in contact with 'other' cultures, able to experience the uniqueness of each and the commonalities of all. In fact, tourism can be a powerful mechanism for understanding other places, peoples, and pasts. (UNESCO, 2006).

As Jaworski and Pritchard claims that because much of the world itself shifts from a production economy to a service economy, social science's preoccupation with production and politics is increasingly being challenged so that the cultural arenas of cuisine, leisure and tourism are gradually becoming respected fields of enquiry (Jaworski & Pritchard, 2005: 1-19).

"Tourism is centered on the fundamental principles of exchange between peoples and is both an expression and experience of culture. Tourism is cultural, and its practices and structures are very much an extension of the normative cultural framing from which it emerges" (UNESCO, 2006).

In the social sciences, the term of culture is used as widely inclusive meaning, almost everything may be considered as culture (Harouel, 2001: 3179). Culture has many different meaning and it can be said that it is a complex concept (or phenomenon), and it has many possible definitions therefore there is not a single definition of it and difficult to summarize briefly. However, it may best be thought of as consisting of as Giddens's definition "ways of life" (Knox & Pinch, 2000).

The word culture, in fact, has completely different meanings in the social sciences and in current language. “The meaning of the term has been influenced by the humanistic conception of culture, which derives from the Roman *Cultura animi*” (Harouel, 2001: 3179). This term is based upon high productions of mind and art. This refers to the intellectual, aesthetic, and ethical aspects of human beings (Harouel, 2001).

Today most would agree with a more inclusive definition of culture: Culture is a set of shared meaning, values, and beliefs that characterize national, ethnic, or other groups and orient their behavior, the thoughts, languages, the things we produce, and the methods we use to produce them.

Culture is often thought of as “high art” in the form of paintings, sculpture, drama, and classical music, as found in museums, art galleries, concert halls and theatres. However, in social sciences culture is usually interpreted in a much broader sense (Knox & Pinch, 2000: 54).

It might be said “culture is everything” because it includes too many things like socially learned experience, social institutions, science, history, art, music, theatre with this definition culture gains a deep meaning (Burns, 1999).

Tylor. (1871[1924]), *Primitive Culture*) defines culture as:

“culture or civilization... is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, moral law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (Burns, 1999: 56)

This definition is important because the sub-text it carries culture is about far more than material culture. The word “acquired” makes the definition more meaningful and it can be said that culture is about interaction of people and how they learn from each other. Culture consists of behavioral patterns, knowledge and values which have been transmitted through generations. (Burns, 1999)

Giddens (Sociology, 1989) claims that these ways of life involving some important elements. First one, he claims that there are values that people hold (such as people's ideals and aspirations). Second element is the norms that people follow as the rules, and principles that govern their lives and the last one is the material objects that people use like consumer goods, transportation systems, buildings and urban facilities (Knox & Pinch, 2000).

Knox and Pinch claim that these three elements of culture-values, norms and object- are highly interrelated so culture is not just about ideas, values and material objects. Culture meaning has more than high art, indeed in cultural studies can include any form of representation, that is advertising, popular television programs, films, popular music and even food and so on (Knox & Pinch, 2000).

Secondly, they say that culture also includes sets of understandings that are discourses and narratives. Semiology (or semiotics) explores the signs that give values about these meanings. Large architectural projects with full of such symbolism is often called as monumental architecture which involves imposing buildings and monuments in which an attempt is made to symbolize particular sets of values (Knox & Pinch, 2000).

Another idea that Knox and Pinch defend is that dominant value systems of societies are often resisted by many groups. That means, for example, "A large downtown office block may some for be a symbol of financial strength and influence but for some others may regard it as a symbol of unfair working practices and corporate greed." The huge monumental buildings of Canary Wharf in the London Docklands may be an example of symbolic value of buildings as role of private capital in urban regeneration (Knox & Pinch, 2000: 55).

According to Knox and Pinch, diversity and difference is a key theme of cultural studies. They say that there are within the dominant values of a society many smaller subgroups with their own distinctive cultures that can be called as subcultures (Knox & Pinch, 2000).

Fourthly, the diversity of cultural values in society raises issues of identity, which is defined by Knox and Pinch as the view that people take themselves. The philosopher Descartes, on the other hand, assumes that people's identities are single, rational, and stable. His assumption is criticized as being so simple. Because it can be said that our identities are shaped by many factors such as class, age, occupation, gender, sexuality, nationality, religious affiliation, region of origin, and characteristics and abilities that are called as subject positions (Knox & Pinch, 2000). "Identity may therefore be thought of as being shaped by many subject positions." (Knox & Pinch, 2000: 57)

Geert Hofstede, (Cultures and Organizations: Softwares of the Mind, 1991), defines different layers of culture as:

- A national level according to one's country
- A regional and/or ethnic and/or religious and/or linguistic affiliation (given that nations can be composed of different regions with unique ethnic/language/religious groupings)
- A gender level
- A generation level
- A social class level, associated with educational opportunities and with a person's occupation or profession
- For those who are employed, an organizational or corporate level according to the way employees has been socialized by their work organization. (Burns, 1999: 56)

Burns claims that Hofstede's first observation about description of culture with a nation is not valid, because there is not a single culture in many complex nation states (such as Indonesia, Malaysia, the United States, or Britain) (Burns, 1999).

He defines culture as linked set of rules and standards shared by a society, which produces behavior judged acceptable by that group. However, it is agreed that society and so culture changes in response to environment and technology, passing on of

knowledge and behavior through generations. It can be said that culture is dynamic concept so it includes many components on it (Burns, 1999). Burns summarizes the components of culture as:

- Religion, myths, heroes, values, attitudes, norms, ideologies, and moral systems
- Education and other structures for passing on knowledge and generating new knowledge
- Language, categorization, perception of the world around and communication
- Formal and informal, legal and political frameworks for social control and conflict resolution
- Social organization including gender age relations and working patterns kinship
- Economics, technology, and material culture (Burns, 1999).

Therefore, many scientists such as Urry, MacCannell, Hannerz and others have placed tourism on the map of critical social scientific investigations (Jaworski & Pritchard, 2005: 1-19). In recent years, also cultural geographers, art historians and cultural and American studies scholars have turned their attention to tourism.

Because of the complexities of culture have evolved, and the pace and extent of change has increased within the context of globalization, so new challenges have emerged and new ways of addressing problems are required. UNESCO, 'Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage' (1972), identifies four key changes relating to the tourism and culture interface (UNESCO, 2006).

UNESCO defines the first of these changes as understanding of culture, which is a concept, and its fundamental importance for the construction of social identity has both broadened and deepened considerably. "The definition of cultural heritage now also relates not only to material expressions such as sites and objects, but also to intangible expressions such as language and oral tradition, social practices, rituals, festive and performative events". Culture is seen as a 'ways of life' and everyday practice as well as being manifest in buildings, sites and monuments. Moreover, the diversity of culture(s)

should be with the principles of sustainable development and thus something, which needs to be both “recognized and affirmed for future generations” (UNESCO, 2006).

3.7.2. Consumption of Tourism and Culture

Consumption of tourism and culture has been explained by many social scientists. One of these sociologists, Urry defines tourism with consumption concept and with tourist gaze. He argues that tourism behavior, “which is the pleasurability of seeing or gazing upon the different and unusual,” is a contrast to the familiarity of everyday life (cited in Franklin, 2003). Urry emphasizes that the fundamentally visual nature of the tourism experience, and of how changing tourism practices relate to transformations in how people gaze, and in what people expect to gaze upon. He explains that the compulsion to mobility in a simple sense relates to the widespread importance of various tourist gazes (Urry, 2003).

Urry characterizes the sociology of consumption with some arguments. Firstly, he states that the services must be considered as much as material objects when we explain the sociology of consumption. Secondly, travel, which is defined as one particular kind of service by Urry, should be examined and surveyed. He explains that the development of railway is very important for mass travel and because until the 19th century to travel for non work reasons was only available to a small group of people especially elites and it was a mark of status (Urry, 1995).

To be able to buy time, this means to be able to avoid work and to replace it either with leisure or with other kinds of work, is the other argument for consumption. Urry claims that everyone has at least some rights to leisure, to be non-working, to consume time away from work, being able to go on holiday in the week or the year. To need a holiday is a clear reflection of modern view and it is accepted as to be a characteristic of modern citizenship (Urry, 1995).

Fourth, the consumption of tourist services, which involves a particular social grouping, a family household, a couple, or a group, is social. Because to convert a range of tourist services into a satisfactory holiday involves a great deal of work like selling the services, holiday experiences- hoteliers, your operators, restaurateurs. (Urry, 1995).

The last argument that is suggested by Urry is that the consumption in the case of many tourist services is a rather complex process. He says that the minimal characteristic of tourist activity to look at, or gaze upon artistic objects, towers are much more consuming than the actual purchases (the meal, the ticket, the hotel bed) in tourism (Urry, 1995).

Zukin and Maguire, on the other hand, claim, “Consumption is an ideal bridge between research on the economy and the sociology of culture and provides new sites for examining the family, gender, and social class” (Zukin & Maguire, 2004)

They explain the problems about consumption one of that they define “consumption is a huge topic that overlaps different institutional areas and both the public and private spheres.” Therefore, it is impossible to devise a single analytic framework to grasp its many historical forms and influences or the diverse theoretical perspectives (Zukin & Maguire, 2004).

The other problem Zukin and Maguire claim is that “consumption is broadly taken for granted and often denigrated. Thorstein Veblen—a social critic but an economist by profession—was the first theorist to discuss consumption in terms of specific social practices in the United States. However, his work on “the leisure class” (Veblen 1959) also uses general, anthropological observations instead of systematic empirical research. From the beginning, then, consumption has been viewed as both amoral and gendered” (Zukin & Maguir, 2004).

A third problem is explained that, since the 1930s, applied sociologists and psychologists have dominated consumer research. There is little crossover between the academic and applied domains. (Zukin & Maguire, 2004).

According to some sources, it is defined that culture is the lifeblood of tourism and people travel, not just to relax and recreate but also to satisfy their need for diversity and their curiosity on how other people live in environments different from their own. Other people's lifestyles are expressed through their religion and that are defined as cultural manifestations; festivals; costumes; cuisine; arts and crafts; architecture; music and dance; folklore; and literature. (World Tourism Organization, 2001)

Craik (Resorting to Tourism: Cultural Policies for Tourist Development in Australia, 1991: 90) summarized this problem with the status of tourism-culture understanding in this way:

‘Most anthropological studies of tourism provide evidence of the destruction of traditional ways of life, rituals, habits, kinship patterns, and forms of employment in the host society. Yet if anthropologists are not to engage simply in salvage ethnography, that is, the reconstruction of a culture in its pure, primitive, pre-contact state, analysts must deal with the dynamics of cultural change accelerated by tourism’ (cited in Carter & Beeton, 2004).

Urry supports this cultural relation and points out the importance of cultural mobility. He claims that not only people travel but also cultures travel. He explains that “...in the case of many cultures, even that of well-established one such as the ‘English’, travel will entail the crossing of national frontiers.....The importance of such patterns of mobility across borders are most marked in the case of diasporic cultures that entail a reconceptualization of the very sense of what is a social group’s ‘heritage’....” (Urry, 2003).

MacCannell (1992) similarly emphasizes that tourism has been a primary grand for the production of new cultural forms on global base (cited in Yamashita , 2001).

3.7.3. Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism, is a form of international tourism in our world today (WTO, 2005b), and one of the most important and fastest growing tourism trends (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008).. Cultural tourism represents movements of people motivated by cultural intents such as study tours, performing arts, festivals, cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, as well as travel for pilgrimages (WTO, 2005b). Therefore, cultural tourism is also called as cultural heritage tourism (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008).

The Association for Leisure and Tourism Education (ATLAS) has explained cultural tourism with its conceptual and operational meanings, namely:

“A conceptual definition of cultural tourism to cities

The movement of persons to cultural attractions in cities in countries other than their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs.

An operational definition of cultural tourism to cities

All movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama to cities outside their normal country of residence” (cited in WTO, 2005c)

Cultural tourism is defined by its destination such as museums, theatres, art galleries, historical sites, architectural treasures and heritage; or ethnic events by the motivation of cultural tourists to seek an authentic experience with a unique heritage, social fabric or place. It consists of cultural and heritage assets, which include built environments (e.g. museums, theatres and art galleries), historical sites, natural environments, as well as cultural practices and collections (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008).

In similar case, the predominance of festivals, heritage gatherings, historical re-enactments and plays, the variety of museums and local events indigenous to the destination can be counted as the cultural tourism products. (Edgell & Allen & Smith & Swanson, 2008).

Howard (2002) claims that cultural tourism has consists of several dimensions. He defines them as historical and contemporary (time), objects and performance (type), contextual and non-contextual (travel) as well as wide or narrow (scope). Furthermore, he indicates, “the term cultural tourism is applied to any or all of these but the diversity means that it will be difficult to treat visits to them all as an entity” (cited in WTO, 2005c)

According to Richards and Wilson “heritage tourism has been concerned with the supply of museums, heritage centers, monuments and the like; cultural tourism with theatres, public art and daily lives; lifestyle tourism with festivals, boutiques and cafes” (Richards & Wilson, 2007)

In tourism planning studies, public policy planners are using culture as a vehicle for sustainable tourism development. Apart from the socioeconomic benefits, which cultural tourism can generate for the well-being of countries and cultural tourism is also a potential tool in fighting against poverty. Many poor communities in the world are rich in intangible cultural resources such as customs and folklore and are often located near famous heritage sites. “If well combined and integrated into tourism products, these two cultural resources, intangible and tangible, can become a powerful and perhaps the only tool for reducing poverty levels of such communities” (WTO, 2005b).

3.8. Tourism Planning in Turkey

Tourism planning concept and approaches are explained in the previous part. According to these explanations, in Turkey, the development of tourism and tourism planning policies are explored in that section.

In Turkey, tourism planning is not different from urban planning process. Generally, it can be explained that the Government sets general tourism policy objectives and policies; by means of these decisions, The Ministry of Culture and Tourism defines medium-and long-term strategies, makes or gets made and approves physical plans.

Turkey's first tourism movements are known to begin with Seyyahine Interpretation No. 190 (Seyyahine Tercümanlık Edenler Hakkında Tatbik Edilecek 190 sayılı Nizamname), which came into force in 1890 (Akdogan & Kozak, 1996). Then, "Tourism Facilities Encouragement Law No. 5647" that was the first legal arrangement in order to develop tourism sector in Turkey was accepted in 1950,. This law regulated tourism investments, tourism institutions and defined tourism organizations (Akdogan & Kozak, 1996). After that, the Law for Encouragement of Tourism Industry No: 6086 was prepared in 1955. The law (No:6086) suggested a new system for the tourism facilities. According to this law, the facilities should supply some service requirements, and standards to obtain the official tourism certificate.

After these regulations, the Ministries' Committee identified 10 tourist regions in 1960, which were reduced to eight tourism regions in 1973. These tourist regions reflected geographic regionalization and a tourism region were defined as follows: "an area whose boundaries are defined by the Ministries' Committee by considering suggestions of the Ministry of Tourism and Culture". This definition was published as a legal document on Official Gazette (Tosun & Jenkins, 1996). In spite of these regulations, actually, tourism planning was based on when Turkey entered the planned development in 1962.

In 1982, the Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634 was accepted and came into force by being published on Official Gazette. With this Law, the Government determined tourism regions, tourism zones, and tourism centers.

In order to encourage tourism development of an area, tourism regions, tourism areas and tourism centers are defined in the Tourism Encouragement Law. The tourism regions are defined as; regions borders of which are determined and declared by the

Committee of Ministers - with the recommendation of the Ministry of Tourism (recently named the Ministry of Culture and Tourism). Tourism zones can be explained as specific physical areas in the tourism regions. In these areas, tourism investments are allowed and a higher priority is given for tourism investments. The Committee of Ministers upon the recommendation of the Ministry of Tourism draws the location and borders of these areas. Similarly, tourism centers refer to geographical areas in the tourist regions or out of the tourism regions whose location and borders are determined by the Committee of Ministers - with the recommendation of the Ministry of Tourism (Tosun & Timothy & Öztürk, 2003).

The Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634 provided many incentives such as:

- “Allocation of public land to investors on a long-term basis;
- Provision of main infrastructure by the state,
- Long-term, medium- and short-term credit lines for construction, furnishings and operations;
- Preferential rates for electricity, water, and gas consumption, in priority areas and centers; priority for communication installation;
- Permitting tourism-related companies to employ up to 20% of their total workforce with foreign personnel;
- Some exemptions from customs duties; encouragement premiums; investment allowances;
- Subsidizing up to 40% of the total cost of tourism projects; exemption of tax, duties and fees for long- and medium-term investment credits;
- Exemption from building construction duties;
- Postponement of value added taxes” (cited in Tosun & Timothy & Öztürk, 2003).

With the Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634, the Government gave priority to large-scale tourism investment projects to attract the maximum numbers of tourists, who would bring in maximum foreign currency earnings – the most critical need for an economy in crisis.

The Association of Turkish Travel Agencies (*TURSAB*) expresses that after the adoption of Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634, a coastal strip from Balıkesir provincial border, up to the end of Antalya province was planned. This line-included Izmir, Kusadasi, Bodrum, Marmaris and the other popular destinations of today - was declared a priority region to concentrate both public and private investments. Then the Ministry of Tourism, in co-ordination with the Ministry of Reconstruction and Resettlement, initiated tourism-oriented physical planning works, to fill the gap between the development plans, which had no spatial dimension and the implementation projects (cited in Tosun & Timothy & Öztürk, 2003).

Five Year Development Plans between 1963 and 1989 suggests increasing the number of international tourist arrivals and increasing international tourism receipts. These plans aim to improve the superstructure of tourism (e.g. hotels, shops, and restaurants) (Tosun & Timothy & Öztürk, 2003).

According to Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634, the Ministry of Tourism (recently named the Ministry of Culture and Tourism) was responsible from approving 'Tourism Oriented Implementation Plans' in tourism regions, areas and centers. Public Environment Arrangement Plans, which are defined as strategic plans, are generally 1/25000 scale and produced by the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement. It could be said that the Ministry of Tourism has not right of producing or designing strategic plans or policies.

Accordingly, it can be said that, in these years, tourism policies of Turkey were based on mass tourism. According to Tosun, in Turkey, there has not been a contemporary development strategy in tourism sector for more than 30 years. These politics appears to provide tourism development and achieve tourism growth in volume and value terms, in both demand and supply-side aspects. Therefore, according to Tosun, these activities do not aim to create sustainable tourism development. In other words, in relation to tourism growth in Turkey, these efforts are not effective planning and do not reflect the concerns of contemporary development approaches (Tosun, 2001).

Because of these problems, the Tourism Encouragement Law (No: 2634) was amended by Law numbered 4957 and the regulations and changes were enacted in 2003. The purpose of this Law is “to ensure that necessary arrangements are made and necessary measures are taken for the regulation and development of the tourism sector and for giving this sector a dynamic structure and mode of operation” (Official Gazette No: 17635).

With this Law, some important changes are made and these can be summarized as; tourism regions and tourism areas are taken out of circulation. The Culture and Tourism Preservation and Development Regions are defined in this law. Accordingly, these regions are defined in the law as;

“The regions having a high potential for tourism development, and intensive historical and cultural importance, that are to be evaluated for the purpose of preservation, utilization, sectoral development and planned improvement and the boundaries of which are determined and declared by the Council of Ministers upon the proposal of the Ministry” (Official Gazette No: 17635).

Another important change is that “within the cultural and tourism preservation and development regions and tourism centers, The Ministry is authorized to make or to get made, to modify and to approve sua sponte, the plans of all scales” (Official Gazette No: 17635). As a result, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism become only authorized institution in the tourism planning within the cultural and tourism preservation and development regions and tourism centers.

After 1980s, the sun, sea, sand became important attractions in the regional distribution of tourism development. It has created an unbalanced growth and geographical concentration of tourism development. Furthermore, environmental and planning problems have occurred in different local tourist destinations. With this new Law, tourism plans become more comprehensive and the deficiencies of the old Law are tried to eliminate.

In fact, the Tourism Encouragement Law (No: 2634) was amended by Law numbered 4957 aimed to implement sustainable and environmentally planning approaches. However, this new Law does not encourage new investments to alternative tourism activities (such as cultural, health, thermal, winter sports, golf etc.) and extend the season throughout the year. Because of implementation problems, it does not solve the unbalanced tourism development in special tourism destinations. Furthermore, it does not support tourism development in alternative tourism centers, or the central parts of Turkey.

3.9. Conclusion

This part has explained tourism planning concept and tourism planning approaches in the world. Especially, importance of tourism planning for development of sector is explained. Accordingly, tourism planning in historical places is studied and the relationship between culture and tourism are questioned. In the last part of the chapter, tourism planning policies of Turkey is explored.

It is determined that in Turkey, tourism is concentrated on the coastal areas and so tourism has not supply economic benefits to the central part of the country. Moreover, the alternative tourism types such as golf, winter sports, thermal, cultural tourism are not developed in the country.

Consequently, it could be said that tourism planning is a crucial issue to be dealt with and the strategies for tourism are also very important for continuity and success of the sector. In this manner, sustainability and conservation of cultural, natural and historical resources should be the first policy, when tourism plans are made.

It is suggested that sustainable tourism planning approach should be implemented in the conservation plans of Safranbolu. Furthermore, legal, administrative regulations should be designed with this purpose.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction:

The studies of conceptualizations of social theory on tourism and relation of culture and tourism have been examined in the earlier chapters of this study. This chapter is concerned with the methodological purpose of the study. It starts with the aim of the thesis and explains the context of the problem. The problem, the methodological aspects, purpose, and data collection methods are explained in this chapter. The methodology stated in this chapter brings about an explanation to the issues and analyses related to the following chapters.

4.2. The Aim of Thesis

Turkey has an important location being the cradle of different cultures and so, it has many different cultural values and natural beauties. Tourism uses these values to attract tourists in all around the world. In this respect, cultural values are being important for tourism to attract tourists and cities are challenged to develop an urban identity or 'image'.

Safranbolu has been successful to develop an urban image and so the town has attracted attention, and become an important tourism destination recently. After being placed in the world Cultural Heritage list in 1994, the town started to be known as a tourism center

and many tourists wanted to visit it. It became an open-air museum by promotion and financial help of UNESCO. In Safranbolu, tourism activities have started as daily visits and then they have turned to weekend trips. Later, these trips have changed to several days stay including downtown tours, nature activities, and cultural tourism activities.

It is mentioned before the thesis argues that Safranbolu has changed socially, physically and culturally after becoming a tourism destination. However, because of conservation strategies and sustainable tourism-planning approaches, Safranbolu has not influenced from economic and social diffusions of 1980s period. Therefore, the town has been well protected and tourism development has not caused important negative impacts. The aim of this thesis is exploring these changes, (positive and negative impacts of tourism in the town), and searching planning strategies, proving that Safranbolu has gained a new image by tourism activities.

To prove this argument, it has been explored economic, socio-cultural, environmental impacts of tourism in the town. Accordingly, positive and negative effects of tourism that are explained in the previous chapters as theoretical frame of the thesis are analyzed with following data.

Economic Impacts,

- Economic Resources of the Town
- Investments
- Employment
- Sectoral Divisions of Economic Activities
- Tourism Dimension / Analysis of Tourism Development

Socio-Cultural Impacts,

- Demographic Change
- Migration
- Education
- Local Perceptions for tourism development (Survey Analysis)
- Non-local perceptions for tourism development (Survey Analysis)
- Political, Administrative Dimension / Conservation and Planning

Environmental Impacts

- Spatial Structure of the Town
- Protected Areas in the Town

There are three main reasons why the relation between culture and tourism, and importance of cultural values in tourism are chosen as the focus of this thesis:

- In tourism planning, the tourism resources of a place, which are natural beauties, cultural values and historical monuments, are determined. Tourism mostly uses these resources for promoting and marketing a place. After this process, these values are managed, and planned to serve visitors. In this thesis, these values are examined and tourism potential is questioned in the case study area, Safranbolu.

- Moreover, the growing interest in cultural values, historical areas and “*using them while protecting*” will be examined. In this manner, community awareness, which is increasing all over the world, in terms of the protection historical values, will be surveyed. There is also growing public awareness in Safranbolu and therefore it is investigated if there is a positive approach to tourism development. This thesis aims to measure public awareness on the changes in the town because of tourism by applying questionnaires to tourists and local people.

- Besides being one of the important tourism destinations, Safranbolu is a culture center and has a very significant role to strengthen the relation between local people and tourists. This relation gives local people an opportunity to introduce different cultures and to promote their traditions, histories and properties to tourists. In addition to this, Safranbolu takes advantages of tourism economically and this makes local people more sensitive about the concept.

In this context, within theoretical framework of the thesis some aims are defined. These are classified as follows:

- To show the importance of culture for tourism and to evaluate the dynamics of the effects of tourism upon the small sized cities.
- To assess potentials and possibilities for creating a tourism destination in Safranbolu, and to identify innovative urban governance strategies for sustainable development of cultural tourism.
- To measure the assessment of the impact of tourism in a locality, with particular regard to built heritage issues in order to improve their strategies, plans, and policies.
- To explore through which planning strategy should be used to supply that Safranbolu has become a preferable, attractive town while preserving cultural values and not polluting the environment.

4.3. Statement of the Problem and Selection of Case Study

This study aims to investigate a description of cultural effects and spatial reflections of global tourism in the case of Safranbolu. The study also focuses on consequences of tourism development in the town and therefore, this study can be defined as descriptive. The research is concerned with explanations of social phenomena and understanding the world. It deals with opinions, experiences, feelings, and approaches of individuals for a subject.

According to the aims that are explained before, the following questions are determined:

- What are the features of Safranbolu to be an important place for culture and tourism? What characteristics have converted Safranbolu to an attractive tourism center?
- With what characteristics has Safranbolu produced as a world heritage and how has been protected as a tourism destination?

- What are the impacts of tourism (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental)?
- What is the relationship between local people and tourism? What are their aspects to tourism development in the town?

After determination of the problems of the study, the following objectives can be identified:

- To measure tourism potentials of Safranbolu for creating an important tourism center in the town.
- To search the historical background, economic, social and physical features of the town and develop a framework to analyze these potentials.
- To search tourism development in the town, that includes static, geographic, and chronological analysis, and the presentation upon the graphs and maps.
- To carry out a detailed survey on tourists, and local people to understand their aspects of tourism in Safranbolu. To apply questionnaires to actors in tourism, that is local people, and tourists.

As mentioned earlier, in order to answer these research questions and search these objectives, Safranbolu is chosen as the case study. In fact, there are many reasons for selection of Safranbolu.

First, Safranbolu is selected because it has very important historical monuments, well-protected houses, mosques, foundations and many cultural values, traditional food, clothes, habits. It is one of the major cities in the world heritage list and it is promoted as one of the well-protected cities of the world. It can be said that it is in similar positions with other towns such as İstanbul, Mardin, which are also in the world heritage list. However, it has a status of being a tourism center at the same time. In spite of other cities, after entering the world heritage list, the town has become a tourism destination.

Secondly, the development of tourism in the town is different from the other tourism destination centers of Turkey. As an example, Antalya, İstanbul, Muğla can be

considered as the most important and best-known tourism centers of Turkey. However, they have the status of being a province center and have a key position in the country's transportation network, economy, and tourism. On the other hand, Safranbolu is not only being a province center. Neither it is an important transportation center nor does it have an economic contribution to the country's economy. In spite of these, the town has become important for tourism and attracted tourist. This study investigates the reasons of these and compares the differences of the town among other tourism centers.

4.4. Hypotheses

In respect to the statement of the problem, and the objectives mentioned above, the thesis is designed and some assumptions are determined. These assumptions are determined as follows;

- The research will be based on spatial and static analysis.
- The research will focus on Safranbolu and its tourism development.
- GIS will be used
- A field survey will be accomplished.
- The research will be deal with quantitative and qualitative data.
- The visual and descriptive materials will be used.

After determination of these assumptions, some important hypotheses are put forward for this case study area. Three main hypotheses, which can be divided as structural, physical, and social, are noted as follow:

- **Structural Assumption:** First assumption is interested in structural features of Safranbolu. Establishment and development of tourism in the town is the main and the critical factor for economic, demographic changes in the town. It can be assumed that development of tourism will cause economic, demographic development in the town.

- **Physical Assumption:** Second assumption deals with physical differentiations in the town. It can be expected that after development of tourism in the town, some physical changes will be experienced, tourism investments, environmental arrangements, conservation and restoration projects will increase.
- **Social Assumption:** Third assumption is for social changes in the town. As looking to other examples from Turkey, it can be expected that local people will think that tourism supplies an economic support to the town. However, there will be low participation and interaction among local people for development of tourism more in the town.

Following these three main assumptions, other minor hypotheses are as follows:

- It is assumed that the population in Safranbolu will increase especially after entering the World Heritage List, and so being an important tourism place.
- It is assumed that tourism establishments and accommodation units will increase.
- It is assumed that an awareness of cultural heritage is expected to exist among the local people; the sense of identity will be high.

4.5. Methods of Data Collection

According to the research questions and hypotheses mentioned above, the study pursues designing a research method. This research has been formed in a complexity of different analyses. The main data collection method used in this research is field survey, literature review, and observation. In other words, ‘statistical data collection’, ‘theoretical analysis’ and ‘field survey data’ are performed for this study.

The statistical data and fieldwork are the main data sources in this study. The aim of the survey is to figure out the spatial, economic and social (educational) characteristics of the town, so that these issues can be analyzed. The other sources, which are benefited throughout the thesis, are books, e-thesis, journals, visual documents, online materials,

web sites. Moreover, Geographic Information Systems is used to represent these analyses. This helps to represent the spatial distribution of statistical data.

In this thesis, two different data collection methods are carried out. First is general analysis of the case study area that is “field study”, which includes statistical and spatial analysis of Safranbolu. Second is “tourism survey” and “questionnaires”, which includes those with local people live in Safranbolu and those with tourists visit the town. These methods helps to understand people’s experiences and the processes that they lived throughout the development of tourism.

4.5.1. Field Study

That survey includes demographic, spatial, economic, and educational analyses of the study area. Within the field study, firstly it is focused on understanding the location of place, general characteristics of the town. Secondly, the historical background of the town is analysed and the development of the town is searched. Thirdly, spatial characteristics of Safranbolu are analysed to determine its cultural and tourism potentials.

In the field study, the following problems are intended to be answered. These questions are determined as;

- The importance of the location of Safranbolu.
- The place of Safranbolu on tourism among the other cities of Turkey
- The population change in Karabük and Safranbolu.
- The historical background of the town.
- What are the spatial characteristics of Safranbolu.

The historical places and the protected areas in the town.

The districts of Safranbolu and their characteristics.

The spatial structure of the town.

- The economic development in the town.

- The educational status of the town.

To answer the questions the field survey, different methods of analyzes are used. According to structural assumption, which is explained above as the changes of the structure of Safranbolu within years, the detailed analyses are carried out. The data used in the analyses is collected mainly from the Ministry of Tourism, and The State Institute of Statistics and the Governorship of Karabük.

According to these data, statistical analyses are carried out and these analyses are presented on the graphs and maps by using Geographic Information Systems model.

4.5.2. Tourism Survey Study

In this thesis, tourism survey analyses are carried out to investigate tourism potentials and opportunities of the study area. With this respect, Safranbolu is analysed according to the number of tourists visited Safranbolu, the number of tourism establishments, the number of other establishments related with tourism.

Within this part, it is concentrated on investigating tourism potentials of the town. Firstly, tourism opportunities in the town is searched and questioned. Secondly, development of tourism in the town is examined by time.

According to these questions, data is collected from mainly from the Ministry of Tourism. These data is analysed according to the years and then these analyses are represented by the graphs and maps by using Geographic Information Systems.

4.5.3. Questionnaires

Because tourism is a complex concept and related with many other sectors, one institution does not organize the process of tourism development in Safranbolu. Therefore, the case itself involves some major actors that are the local people and

tourists. In addition to monitoring actors in tourism, it is also necessary to understand the viewpoints of people about changes in the town because of tourism. In this manner, questionnaires are applied to the local people and tourists.

Two different categories of questionnaires are applied to local people and tourists. Samples of questionnaire sheets are given in Appendix A.

Tourist Questionnaire: 93 (48 women, 45 men, 1 invalid) randomly selected domestic tourists consisting of 7 teenagers (20-), 71 young and middle aged (21-50) and 14 old aged (51+) have filled out the questionnaire.

Local People Questionnaire: 100 (31 women, 68 men, 1 invalid) randomly selected local people working in Safranbolu city center have filled out the questionnaire. Of those who attended the questionnaire, 6 local people are teenagers (20-), 84 of them are middle aged and 9 of them are old aged (51+).

CHAPTER 5

GROWTH OF SAFRANBOLU AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this part is to search the general characteristics of Safranbolu and give information about the town. In this respect, the town is analyzed according to its economic, social and physical characteristics.

This section first describes history, tourist attractions and natural beauties of the town. In the second part, in order to show changes in the town over the years, economic and social analyses are performed. Then these studies are displayed using graphs and maps. According to these results, the city of Karabük and its six districts are compared and the effects of tourism on the town are questioned.

5.2. General Features of the Town

Safranbolu, which is known as one of the best-preserved old towns in Anatolia, (Council of Europe, 1992), is an important tourism and culture center of Turkey. The architectural monuments in the town, which consists of items of many civilizations (Roman, Byzantine, Seljuk and Ottoman, Turkish), have been well preserved.

Safranbolu is a town of Karabük Province, which is located 50 kilometers from the Black Sea, approximately 200 kilometers from Ankara and 350 kilometers from Istanbul (Council of Europe, 1992), and is only 8 km away from the center of Karabük (Figure:

13). Karabük (central town, Ovacık, Eflani) Bartın (Ulus) and Kastamonu (Araç) have surrounded the town.

The area of town is 1013 square km and it is possible to reach the town from Ankara-Istanbul highway and Karabük city center by railways. The big part of the town is covered with forests and it has big pasturages, which the most known are Sariçiçek and Uluyayla. The climate of the town shows characteristic of a transition from Black Sea Region to Central Anatolia (www.karabuk.gov.tr, last visited on November 2008).



Figure 13: Map of Karabük

(Adapted from www.kgm.gov.tr, last visited on January, 2009)

Geographical formation of the area created deep and long canyons some of which are Tokatlı, Düzce (Kirpe) and Sakaralan (Tekekurum), Mencilis (Bulak), and Hızar. There are geographical formations and caverns, which are best known and visited by cavern specialist of the world, in the town (www.karabuk.gov.tr, last visited on November 2008)

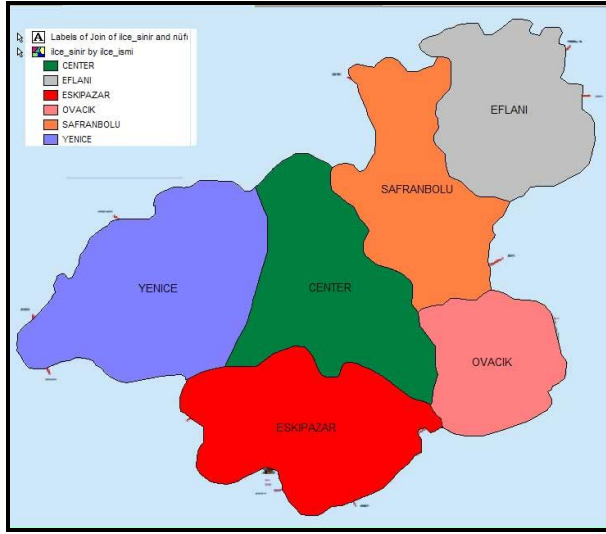


Figure 14: The City of Karabük and Districts
 (Created by using GIS)
 (Adapted from www.karabuk.bel.tr, last visited on November 2008)

5.2.1. The Name of the Town

The name of the town was Dadybra in Byzantian period, before the sovereignty of Turks in 1196, Kıranköy region was called as Theodoropolis in this time. After the Seljuk period beginning with 1196, its name was changed to Zalifre. Its name was Borglu and Borlu during the principality and early Ottoman period. Because Taraklı tribe settled in the region, Borlu became Taraklı-i Borlu at the end of 16th century (Yazıcıoğlu, 1998).

In the middle of the 18th century, in the Ottoman Period, it was called as Zağfiran-i Borlu, and in the second half of the 19th century, it gained the name of Zağfiran-i Benderli (Aksoy & Kuş, 1999). In the last quarter of 19th century, it was called as Zağfiranbolu, and then its name became Zafranbolu. Then later, it was named Safranbolu (Yazıcıoğlu, 1998). In fact, the town received today's name from the saffron, which is native in Safranbolu.

5.2.2. Historical Background of the Town

The region, in the middle of which is Safranbolu situated, has been inhabited since prehistoric times. The known history of Safranbolu, dates back as far as 3000 BC, the region was called "Paphlagonia" in the epic Iliad written by Homer in ancient times (Aksoy & Kuş, 1999)

Safranbolu had previously known as Paphlagonia. It hosted many different civilizations in its history including Romans, Byzantines, Seljuk and Ottomans. The Turks conquered it in 1196 during the period of Muhiddin Mesut Şah (www.sarfarnbolu.gov.tr and www.kultur.gov.tr, last visited on January 2008).

The town reached its economic and cultural peak during the Ottoman Empire, partly because its position as an important stop on the Istanbul to Sinop trade route in the 17th century. It was on the Silk Road and so especially after building of Cinci Caravanserai, the economy of the town improved in terms of trade production, traditional handicraft, enriched the social life (www.safranbolu.gov.tr, www.kultur.gov.tr, last visited on January 2008). During this period Kazasker Cinci Hodja, Grand Vizier İzzet Mehmet Pasha, Grand Captain Salih Pasha who grew up in Safranbolu enabled close relationship between Safranbolu and the Otoman Palace (www.safranbolu.gov.tr, last visited on January 2008). The wealthy inhabitants of the town built large houses made from wood and stucco, many of which still survive (Aksoy & Kuş, 1999).

In 1416, the Ottomans took over Safranbolu and the town was separated to different two towns, one was "Medine-i Taraklı Borlu" which is at the center of the town, the other was "Yörükân-i Taraklı Borlu, which is at today's Yörük village. Bolu Sancak, which was abolished, ruled those two towns and these two towns started to be ruled by Kastamonu in 1692. Safranbolu gained an independent Viranşehir Sancağı in 1826, and then it became sancak of Kastamonu in 1846 and in 1870, with rearrangement of Ottoman Administrative structure Safranbolu became a town of Kastamonu and the same year the town became a municipality and first mayor was Hacı Muhammet Ağa. In

1927, Safranbolu became a town of Zonguldak and then in 1995, it became a town of Karabük, which showed a rapid growth with the establishment of iron-steel industry (Aksoy & Kuş, 1999).

5.3. Economic and Social Analysis

As mentioned before, Safranbolu became an important settlement and a tourism center especially after entering the World Heritage List in 1994. In this part, the demographic, economic changes of the town are explored. It is questioned whether significant changes have experienced in the town after that event.

5.3.1. Demographic Change

This part analyzes population data collected from Census 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009 and highlights population size between 1990 and 2009 in Karabük. While by taking into consideration the results of 2009 Population Census, the population of Karabük is counted 218564 people. Correspondingly, the population of city center is 118713, and the population of Safranbolu, which is the second crowded district after the center of Karabük, is 51088.

Safranbolu is the biggest district of Karabük with 1000 km² surface area, which is almost 24, 34 % of Karabük's. The population density of Safranbolu is around 154 people / km². (See Table 9)

In Census 2009, share of the population in the center of Karabük is 54, 31 %, in Safranbolu, it is 23, 37 %, 10, 53 % in Yenice and 5, 76 % in Eskipazar.

Table 9: Population, Surface Area, and Population Density by Districts year 2009

Districts	Total Population 2009			Total Population 2009 (%)			Surface Area (km ²)	Surface Area (%)
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
Total	109389	109175	218564	100	100	100	4109	100
Center	59453	59260	118713	54,35	54,28	54,31	760	18,50
Eflani	4582	5091	9673	4,19	4,66	4,43	587	14,29
Eskipazar	6250	6333	12583	5,71	5,80	5,76	740	18,01
Ovacık	1774	1724	3498	1,62	1,58	1,60	402	9,78
Safranbolu	26099	24989	51088	23,86	22,89	23,37	1000	24,34
Yenice	11778	11778	23009	10,77	10,79	10,53	620	15,09

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2008, 2009

According to Table-9, the population of men and women in Karabük is reported respectively as 109389 and 109175. Similarly, the population of men and women in Safranbolu is very close and, according to the results of 2009 Population Census, there are 26099 men, and 24989 women living in the town.

In nineteen years, between the years 1990 and 2009, it is observed to have an important decrease in the population of Karabük. It has reduced by 10, 48 % and it has decreased to 218564 people in 2009. Accordingly, it can be said that, when the total population of Karabük decreases, the population of Safranbolu increases in these years.

Table 10: Urban and Rural Population (1990, 2000, 2007, 2008 and 2009)

Districts	1990			2000		
	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total
Total (Karabük)	152469	91708	244177	157756	67346	225102
Center	105373	17988	123361	100749	16055	116804
Eftani	2894	14777	17671	3897	8373	12270
Eskipazar	8560	14126	22686	8457	7908	16365
Ovacık	1451	5648	7099	1728	3727	5455
Safranbolu	24351	18464	42815	31697	15560	47257
Yenice	9840	20705	30545	11228	15723	26951

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population (1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009)

**Table 10: Urban and Rural Population (1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, and 2009)
(Continued)**

Districts	2007			2008			2009		
	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total
Total (Karabük)	164072	54391	218463	163365	52883	216248	167550	51014	218564
Center	105159	13925	119084	106148	10523	116671	108167	10546	118713
Eftani	2506	7086	9592	2367	7820	10187	2243	7430	9673
Eskipazar	7357	5860	13217	7091	5920	13011	6916	5667	12583
Ovacık	819	2588	3407	783	3038	3821	783	2715	3498
Safranbolu	38334	11487	49821	37092	11722	48814	39669	11419	51088
Yenice	9897	13445	23342	9884	13860	23744	9772	13237	23009

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009

The population of Safranbolu rises by 19, 32 % from the years 1990 to 2009. In the same way, Turkey's population increases by 28, 48 % between these years. Thus, it is clear that for nineteen years, the population of Safranbolu has increased by a similar proportion of Turkey's.

Table 11: Population Growth (1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009)

	1990	2000	2007	2008	2009
Safranbolu	42815	47257	49821	48814	51088
Karabük	244177	225102	218463	216248	218564
Türkiye	56473035	67803927	70586256	71517100	72561312

In Karabük, urban population is more than rural population between the years 1990 and 2009. It has 76, 66 % and rural population has 23, 34 % shares in the total population of Karabük in 2009. In this respect, for the same year, urban population of Safranbolu has 77, 65 % and rural population has 22, 35 % shares in the total population of the town (Figure 15).

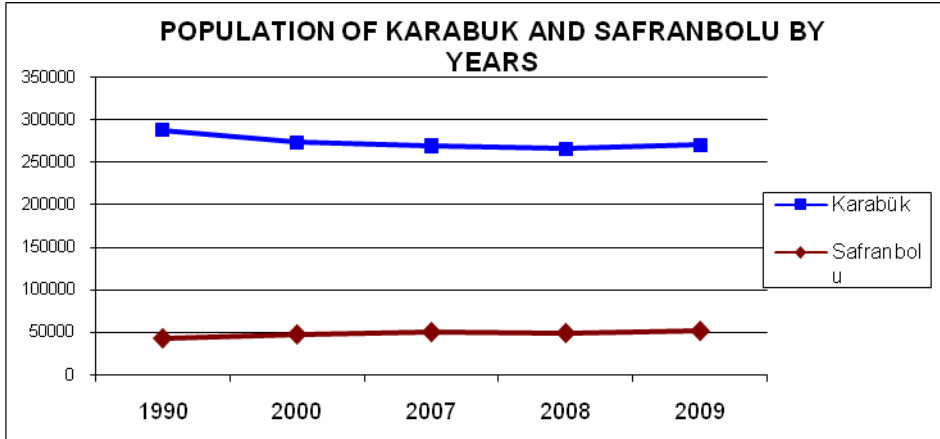


Figure 15: Population of Karabük and Safranbolu by Years

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009

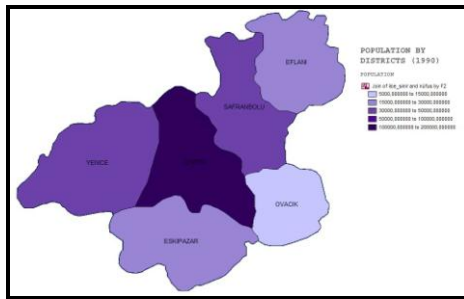


Figure 16: Population by Districts (1990)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 1990 (Created by using GIS)

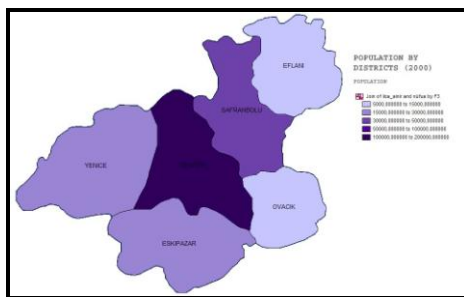


Figure 17 : Population by Districts (2000)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000 (Created by using GIS)

The Figure 16 and Figure 17 show the population of districts of Karabük between the years 1990 and 2000. According to the figures, in these years, the population of Center has the highest share. Expressly, the population of Safranbolu has the second big share after the city center. It can be observed from these figures that in spite of an increase in the population of Safranbolu, there is a decrease in the other districts of the city between the years 1990 to 2000.

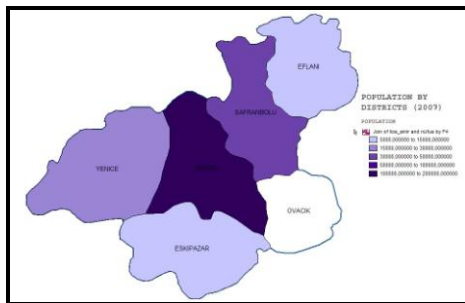


Figure 18: Population by Districts (2007)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2007
(Created by using GIS)

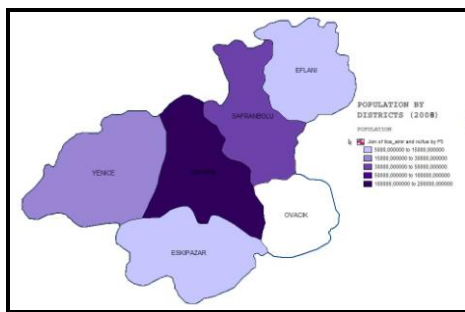


Figure 19: Population by Districts (2008)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2008
(Created by using GIS)

The Figures (18, 19 and 20) show the share of population in Karabük's districts in 2007, 2008 and 2009. As if the other figures above, the population of Center and Safranbolu has the highest share in the total population of the city. While the population of Safranbolu has a share of 20, 99 % in the population of the city in 2000, it is 22, 80 % in 2007, and 22, 57 % in 2008 and 23, 37 % in 2009. This shows that the share of

population of Safranbolu increases by years when the population of other districts decreases in the city.

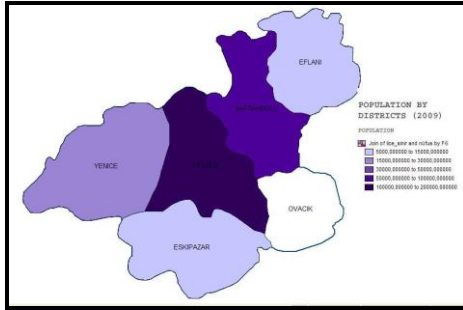


Figure 20: Population by Districts (2009)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2009
(Created by using GIS)

The census of population in 1997 is not announced formally because of some technical problems about census data. Therefore, this data are taken from the governorship of Karabük. According to this data, the population of Safranbolu is 45970. It could be said that the annual population growth rate of Safranbolu increases within the years 1990 and 1997. It has shown its highest value with 7, 37 % in 1990-1997 period.

In 1997-2000 periods, the annual growth rate of Safranbolu has 2, 80 % share. The population of Safranbolu does not change too much between years 1997 and 2000 and so in 2000-2007 periods the annual growth rate of Safranbolu has 5, 43 % share. On the other hand, the annual growth rate of Karabük decreases by 5, 95 % in 1990-1997 period and 2, 95 % in 2000-2007 periods and 1,01 % in 2007-2008 periods (Table-12).

Table 12 shows that the population of Safranbolu increases between 1990-2009 periods, while the population of the other districts decreased. According to this result, it could be said that the province of Karabük has not grown much in 1990 and 2009 periods. The population of Karabük decreases because of migrations towards more developed cities such as Istanbul and Ankara. The migration in Karabük is analyzed at the next part,

Table 12: Change of Population between Years 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009 in Karabük

Districts	% change 1990-2000			% change 2000-2007			% change 2007-2008			% change 2008-2009		
	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total	urban	rural	total
Total	3.47	-26.56	-7.81	4,00	-19,24	-2,95	-0,43	-2,77	-1,01	2.56	-3.53	1.07
Center	-4.39	-10.75	-5.32	4,38	-13,27	1,95	0,94	-24,43	-2,03	1.90	0.22	1.75
Eftani	34.66	-43.34	-30.56	-35,69	-15,37	-21,83	-5,55	10,36	6,20	-5.24	-4.99	-5.05
Eskipazar	-1.20	-44.02	-27.86	-13,01	-25,90	-19,24	-3,62	1,02	-1,56	-2.47	-4.27	-3.29
Ovacık	19.09	-34.01	-23.16	-52,60	-30,56	-37,54	-4,40	17,39	12,15	0.00	-10.63	-8.45
Safranbolu	30.17	-15.73	10.37	20,94	-26,18	5,43	-3,24	2,05	-2,02	6.95	-2.58	4.66
Yenice	14.11	-24.06	-11.77	-11,85	-14,49	-13,39	-0,13	3,09	1,72	-1.13	-4.49	-3.10

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2009

Unlike Karabük, the annual growth rate of population in Safranbolu increases between 1990 and 2009. This is mainly because of increase in employment opportunities and tourism development in the town.

Table 13: Population Projections

years	Safranbolu projection of population	% change
2000	47179	0,04
2001	47198	-0,10
2002	47152	-0,24
2003	47037	-0,39
2004	46855	-0,54
2005	46602	-0,69
2006	46280	-0,85
2007	45886	-1,02
2008	45416	-1,21
2009	44868	-1,40
2010	44239	

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

According to projections that are calculated by State Institute of Statistics in 2000-2010 periods, total population of Safranbolu decreases from 47179 to 44239 during 2000-2010 periods. The population of Safranbolu is expected to be decrease in these years. It is estimated that the population of Safranbolu will reach to 45886 persons.

However, this prediction is not real for these years because, the population of Safranbolu is 49821 in 2007 and 48814 in 2008 and 51088 in 2009. It is seen that the population of the town has increased for these years.

5.3.2 Migration

Karabük is a new city province and so the growth of it is lower than the other cities. It has become an important settlement with the beginning of iron and steel production activities.

Karabük Iron and Steel Factories were established in 1937 as a public enterprise, and then it was privatized in 1995. After that time, settlement faced with losses in the social and economic values especially with the privatization process (Çevik, 2003). Up to that time, the villagers of Karabük have migrated from different cities to work in the factory. However, after 1990s, the city has lost its importance and out migration has started.

In Karabük and its districts, the migration has occurred from rural to urban settlements. The decrease in population of rural has been searched and the gap between rural and urban has been stated in the previous part. In this part, the migration in Karabük is searched between the years 1990-2009.

Table 14: Change of Rural-Urban in Karabük and Safranbolu

Cities	1990-2008		1990-2009		2000-2009	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Karabük Total	-42,34	7,15	-44,37	9,89	-24,25	6,21
Safranbolu	-36,51	52,32	-38,16	62,91	-26,61	25,15

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 1990, 2008, 2009

According to data taken from the State Institute of Statistics, the annual growth rate of rural settlements in Karabük has decreased by 42, 3 %, when the growth rate of urban settlements has increased by 7, 15 % between the years 1990-2008 (Table-14).

According to analyses, the growth rate of rural decreases by 36,5 % in Safranbolu. The growth rate of urban settlements, on the other hand, increases by 52,3 % in Safranbolu.

Similarly, the population of rural settlements decreases by 44,3 % in Karabük and 38, 16 % in Safranbolu between the years 1990-2009. However, there is a very rapid increase in the population of urban in Safranbolu that is 62, 91 %. However, there is a slow increase in the population of urban in Karabük, which is 9, 89 %, for the same years. This shows that there is an important out migration from rural settlements to urban settlements in 1990 and 2009 periods. The reason of this change can be explained by increase in economic activities in Safranbolu after development of tourism.

By means of the census of population in 2000 and 2009, the rate of net migration is calculated and the results are mapped on the figures. The rate of net migration shows the most preferred cities to migrate by the people.

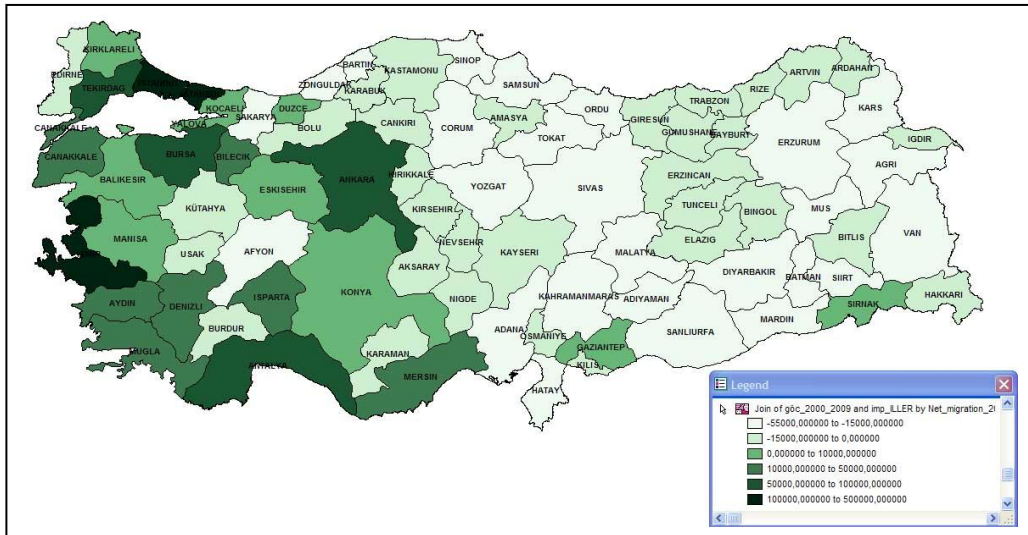


Figure 21: Rate of Net Migration (2000)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000 Migrations (Created by using GIS)

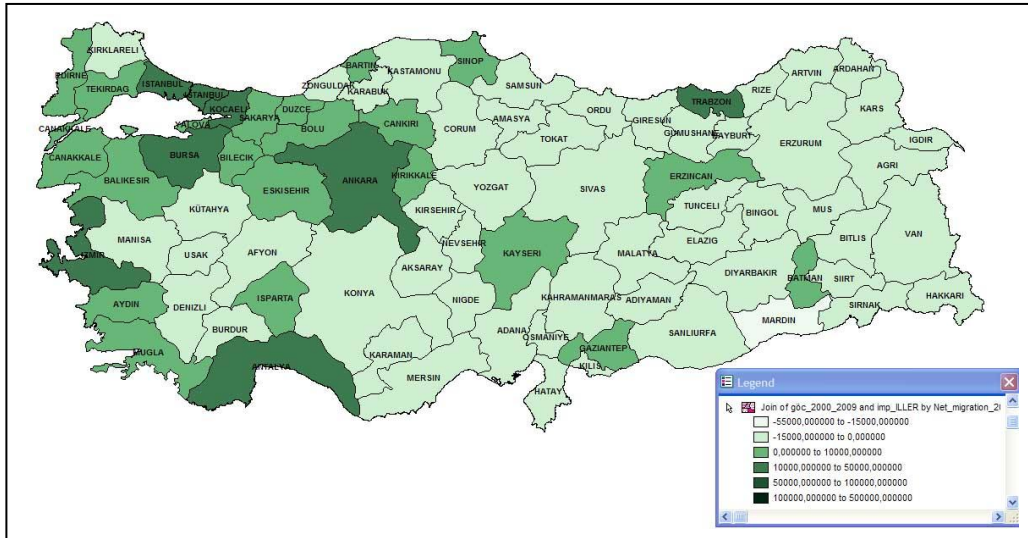


Figure 22: Rate of Net Migration (2009)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000 Migrations (Created by using GIS)

In this respect, in 2000, Tekirdağ (96, 81 %), Muğla (70, 20 %), Antalya (64, 31 %), İstanbul (46, 09 %) are the cities that the rates of net migration are the most. The share of migration in Turkey decreases from 7, 8 % in 2000 to 3, 08 % in 2009. In 2008, Yalova has the highest migration ratio with 52, 58 %, and then Tekirdağ has the second one with 33, 19 %.

Table 15: Provincial In-migration, Out-migration, Net migration and Rate of Net migration

Karabük	Total population	In-migration	Out-migration	Net migration	Rate of net migration (%)
2000	208057	15440	24080	-8640	-40,68
2008	216248	8383	8489	-106	-0,49
2009	218564	8511	9242	-731	-3,34

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000, 2008, 2009

On the other hand, the rate of net migration in Karabük is very small in 2000. There is a great out-migration in this year. According to the census of population in 2008, the rate of migration increases and the gap decreases between the number of in-migration and out-migration.

Table 16: Immigration, Outmigration in Karabük, 2008 and 2009

Cities	Karabük immigration 2008	Karabük outmigration 2008	Karabük immigration 2008 (%)	Karabük outmigration 2008 (%)	Karabük immigration 2009	Karabük outmigration 2009	Karabük immigration 2009 (%)	Karabük outmigration 2009 (%)
ADANA	59	37	0,70	0,44	71	40	0,83	0,43
ADIYAMAN	15	20	0,18	0,24	25	10	0,29	0,11
AFYON	42	25	0,50	0,29	41	40	0,48	0,43
AGRI	38	38	0,45	0,45	40	27	0,47	0,29
AMASYA	33	28	0,39	0,33	40	25	0,47	0,27
ANKARA	620	801	7,40	9,44	724	842	8,51	9,11
ANTALYA	112	171	1,34	2,01	133	119	1,56	1,29
ARTVIN	21	18	0,25	0,21	13	13	0,15	0,14
AYDIN	50	54	0,60	0,64	52	61	0,61	0,66
BALIKESIR	59	67	0,70	0,79	92	76	1,08	0,82
BILECIK	14	22	0,17	0,26	30	27	0,35	0,29
BINGOL	16	15	0,19	0,18	18	10	0,21	0,11
BITLIS	26	26	0,31	0,31	15	9	0,18	0,10
BOLU	226	256	2,70	3,02	188	272	2,21	2,94
BURDUR	17	20	0,20	0,24	14	9	0,16	0,10
BURSA	139	248	1,66	2,92	238	189	2,80	2,05
CANAKKALE	37	46	0,44	0,54	45	56	0,53	0,61
CANKIRI	222	252	2,65	2,97	254	370	2,98	4,00
CORUM	38	29	0,45	0,34	38	31	0,45	0,34
DENIZLI	64	49	0,76	0,58	40	32	0,47	0,35
DIYARBAKIR	18	35	0,21	0,41	47	25	0,55	0,27
EDIRNE	86	24	1,03	0,28	19	76	0,22	0,82
ELAZIG	25	9	0,30	0,11	23	20	0,27	0,22
ERZINCAN	18	17	0,21	0,20	22	27	0,26	0,29
ERZURUM	78	33	0,93	0,39	48	69	0,56	0,75
ESKISEHIR	74	92	0,88	1,08	75	100	0,88	1,08
GAZIANTEP	19	43	0,23	0,51	29	21	0,34	0,23
GIRESUN	31	25	0,37	0,29	31	33	0,36	0,36
GUMUSHANE	12	4	0,14	0,05	8	4	0,09	0,04
HAKKARI	21	37	0,25	0,44	25	21	0,29	0,23
HATAY	101	115	1,20	1,35	86	102	1,01	1,10
ISPARTA	46	34	0,55	0,40	28	34	0,33	0,37
MERSIN	60	36	0,72	0,42	76	47	0,89	0,51
ISTANBUL	2302	2061	27,46	24,28	2261	2546	26,57	27,55
IZMIR	142	199	1,69	2,34	176	178	2,07	1,93
KARS	33	14	0,39	0,16	13	23	0,15	0,25
KASTAMONU	436	525	5,20	6,18	441	387	5,18	4,19
KAYSERI	61	40	0,73	0,47	66	56	0,78	0,61
KIRKLARELI	12	20	0,14	0,24	26	21	0,31	0,23
KIRSEHIR	12	18	0,14	0,21	10	16	0,12	0,17
KOCAELI	289	514	3,45	6,05	426	489	5,01	5,29

Table 16: Immigration, Outmigration in Karabük, 2008 and 2009 (Continued)

Cities	Karabük immigration 2008	Karabük outmigration 2008	Karabük immigration 2008 (%)	Karabük outmigration 2008 (%)	Karabük immigration 2009	Karabük outmigration 2009	Karabük immigration 2009 (%)	Karabük outmigration 2009 (%)
KONYA	139	81	1,66	0,95	126	118	1,48	1,28
KÜTAHYA	55	28	0,66	0,33	49	49	0,58	0,53
MALATYA	50	32	0,60	0,38	47	15	0,55	0,16
MANISA	56	66	0,67	0,78	47	75	0,55	0,81
K.MARAS	37	38	0,44	0,45	31	24	0,36	0,26
MARDIN	45	27	0,54	0,32	35	8	0,41	0,09
MUGLA	50	62	0,60	0,73	38	74	0,45	0,80
MUS	20	19	0,24	0,22	17	5	0,20	0,05
NEVSEHIR	15	19	0,18	0,22	12	12	0,14	0,13
NIGDE	32	20	0,38	0,24	18	27	0,21	0,29
ORDU	36	20	0,43	0,24	31	34	0,36	0,37
RIZE	39	30	0,47	0,35	25	33	0,29	0,36
SAKARYA	106	94	1,26	1,11	81	160	0,95	1,73
SAMSUN	120	114	1,43	1,34	132	129	1,55	1,40
SIIRT	30	40	0,36	0,47	20	16	0,23	0,17
SINOP	27	45	0,32	0,53	49	39	0,58	0,42
SIVAS	57	20	0,68	0,24	54	43	0,63	0,47
TEKIRDAG	117	214	1,40	2,52	102	169	1,20	1,83
TOKAT	48	31	0,57	0,37	47	25	0,55	0,27
TRABZON	79	90	0,94	1,06	81	290	0,95	3,14
TUNCELI	30	8	0,36	0,09	15	15	0,18	0,16
SANLIURFA	46	21	0,55	0,25	29	49	0,34	0,53
USAK	11	10	0,13	0,12	20	16	0,23	0,17
VAN	29	57	0,35	0,67	45	24	0,53	0,26
YOZGAT	70	19	0,84	0,22	21	28	0,25	0,30
ZONGULDAK	802	582	9,57	6,86	672	709	7,90	7,67
AKSARAY	20	9	0,24	0,11	15	10	0,18	0,11
BAYBURT	7	2	0,08	0,02	7	4	0,08	0,04
KARAMAN	18	6	0,21	0,07	16	7	0,19	0,08
KIRIKKALE	36	26	0,43	0,31	35	42	0,41	0,45
BATMAN	17	15	0,20	0,18	26	3	0,31	0,03
SIRNAK	56	45	0,67	0,53	37	16	0,43	0,17
BARTIN	259	339	3,09	3,99	315	280	3,70	3,03
ARDAHAN	19	7	0,23	0,08	13	1	0,15	0,01
IGDIR	4	12	0,05	0,14	15	7	0,18	0,08
YALOVA	20	44	0,24	0,52	22	37	0,26	0,40
KARABUK	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0	0,00	0,00
KILIS	3	1	0,04	0,01	2	2	0,02	0,02
OSMANIYE	6	13	0,07	0,15	35	12	0,41	0,13
DUZCE	48	66	0,57	0,78	82	82	0,96	0,89

Source : Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population, 2008, 2009

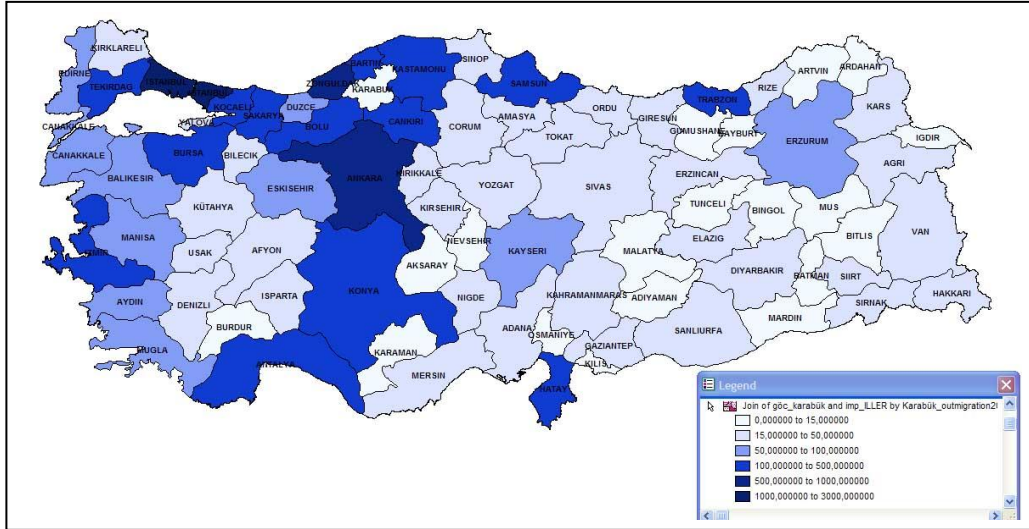


Figure 23: Out-Migration in Karabük (2009) (Migrants go from Karabük)
 Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2008-2009 Migrations
 (Created by using GIS)

Between the years 2007-2008, according to the census data in 2008, in-migration ratio of Karabük is 0,36 % and out-migration ratio is 0,37 %. The number of in-migration of the city is 8383 people in 2008 and 9242 in 2009. Similarly, the number of out-migration is 8489 people in 2008 and 8511 in 2009. It is calculated that the number of total migration is 2273492 people in 2008 and 2236981 people in 2009.

The figure 24 shows the distribution of population migration according to data on 2008-2009. According to this, Karabük's local migrate to big cities around the city and mostly to İstanbul, then Ankara, and Zonguldak, Kastamonu, Kocaeli, Bartın. One of the most important reasons of the out-migration is job opportunities in the big cities. As there is no investment to industry in Karabük, which is described in detail in the next section, the job opportunities are restricted and so the migration ratio is more than the other cities of Turkey.

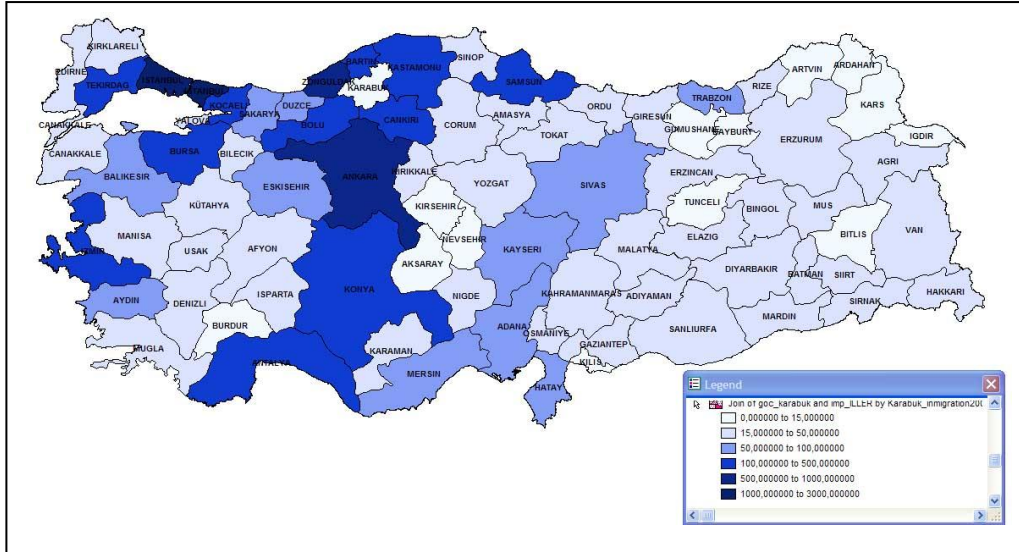


Figure 24: In-Migration for Karabük (2009) (Migrants come to Karabük from these cities)

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 20087-2009 Migrations (Created by using GIS)

According to the Figure 24, migrants usually come from the villages and districts of İstanbul, Ankara, Zonguldak.

5.3.3. Education

According to data in 2000 census of population literacy status in Karabük is 83288 people, that approximately consists 86, 92 % of total population of Karabük and literate people in Safranbolu are 26942 that is 92,30 % of total population of Safranbolu. That shows that the percentage of literacy status in Safranbolu is more than the one in Karabük. According to census data in 2009, 92, 6 % of total population of Safranbolu is literate and that is 93 % for Karabük. It seems that literacy status of Karabük increases, when that of Safranbolu does not change between the years 2000 and 2009.

Table 17: Change of Literacy Status in Karabük and Safranbolu (%)

City	Sex	2000			2009		
		% of illiterate	% of literate	Literacy Status Unknown (%)	% of illiterate	% of literate	Literacy Status Unknown (%)
Safranbolu	Total	7,68	92,3	0,02	4,06	92,62	3,31
	Male	3,2	96,79	0,01	1,17	94,35	4,48
	Female	11,76	88,21	0,03	7,15	90,67	2,18
Karabük (Total)	Total	13,06	86,92	0,02	5,12	93,04	1,84
	Male	6,12	93,86	0,02	1,65	96,42	1,94
	Female	19,79	80,19	0,02	8,57	89,70	1,74

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population, 2000, 2009

According to following data, 96,79 % of population of Safranbolu is men and 88,21 % is women in the year 2000. In 2009, male literacy is 94,35 % of the population and female literacy is 90,67 % of the population of Safranbolu.

According to census 2000, education level of Safranbolu and Karabük shows similar schema. It can be said that, in Safranbolu, the number of person completed primary school, which is 39,84 %, is the biggest among total literate people. The number of people who are not completed any school is 18,53 %, and the percentage of people who are completed a high school is 11,39 %.

Table 18: Population by Literacy, Education level and Sex, Safranbolu Center of District (2000)

	Total	Total	Illiterate	Literate											Literacy Status Unknown	
				Total of Literate	No School Completed	Completed School										Education Level Unknown
						Completed School Total	Primary School	Primary Education	Junior High School	Vocational School at junior high school level	High School	Vocational School at High School Level	Higher Education			
Safranbolu	Total	29190	2243	26942	4993	21926	10734	1564	2236	126	3069	2055	2142	23	5	
	Male	13907	445	13461	2323	11132	4536	806	1460	99	1488	1431	1312	6	1	
	Female	15283	1798	13481	2670	10794	6198	758	776	27	1581	624	830	17	4	
Karabük (Total)	Total	204710	26730	177937	38555	139273	79672	8751	14814	658	15889	9970	9519	109	43	
	Male	100843	6176	94649	18712	75909	37057	4886	10479	519	9190	7420	6358	28	18	
	Female	103867	20554	83288	19843	63364	42615	3865	4335	139	6699	2550	3161	81	25	

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

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Table 19: Literate Persons

City	No School Completed	Primary School	Primary Education	Junior High School	Vocational School at junior high school level	High School	Vocational School at High School Level	Higher Education	Education Level Unknown	Total of Literate
Safranbolu	4993	10734	1564	2236	126	3069	2055	2142	23	26942
male	2323	4536	806	1460	99	1488	1431	1312	6	13461
female	2670	6198	758	776	27	1581	624	830	17	13481
Total (% Values)	18,53	39,84	5,81	8,30	0,47	11,39	7,63	7,95	0,09	100,00
Male	17,26	33,70	5,99	10,85	0,74	11,05	10,63	9,75	0,04	100,00
Female	19,81	45,98	5,62	5,76	0,20	11,73	4,63	6,16	0,13	100,00
Karabük	38555	79672	8751	14814	658	15889	9970	9519	109	177937
Male	18712	37057	4886	10479	519	9190	7420	6358	28	94649
Female	19843	42615	3865	4335	139	6699	2550	3161	81	83288
Total (% Values)	21,67	44,78	4,92	8,33	0,37	8,93	5,60	5,35	0,06	100,00
Male	19,77	39,15	5,16	11,07	0,55	9,71	7,84	6,72	0,03	100,00
Female	23,82	51,17	4,64	5,20	0,17	8,04	3,06	3,80	0,10	100,00

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

5.3.4. Economic Development of the Town

The economic structure of the town of Safranbolu shows mostly semi-dependant agricultural economy. However, it has been changing over time, because the Iron and Steel Factory is now situated on the extensive rice fields. Many of the inhabitants have fields and gardens outside the city where each family produces its own food, mostly fruits, vegetables: wheat, barley, rice, and straw (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

Saffron

Safranbolu is the one of the rare places where saffron that is a plant, which the city takes its name from, is grown (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994). A member of the iridaceous family, saffron is a bulbous plant, which blooms in the months of September and October (Günay, 1987). Saffron can dye a fluid 100000 (one hundred thousand) times its own weight and so it is used as a spice and in chemical industry. Mostly, in three of the villages of Safranbolu (Ak Oğulveren and Davutobası) the families produce it (Günay, 1987).

Animal Husbandry

Another important economic activation is animal husbandry and the most commonly bred animal is Angora goat, which is important for the other by-products: wool, hair and hide, cows are also quite common. In general, each household in the city owns a cow, which is mainly kept for its milk from which yogurt and butter are produced. On the high plateaus, honey is used as a substitute for sugar while honey wax, which is also utilized locally as a subsidiary element by the shoe-makers, is exported (Günay, 1987)

Leather Manufacturing

Leather manufacturing has completely disappeared but there are still shoemakers, textile production has stopped. The most significant area of production in Safranbolu was leather and leather goods (Günay, 1987)

There is no record as to when leather production actually began in Safranbolu however; the change of fashion in footwear and the mass production of less costly rubber shoes for the villagers decreased the importance of shoe making. The semi-manufactured leather products could not compete with the products of the factories established in various places in Anatolia. Finally, the establishment of the nearby Iron and Steel Factory nearly stopped leather manufacturing.

5.3.4.1. Employment

According to Mübeccel Kıray, 1982 the wholesale trade, retailing, and handicrafts makes up 42% of the economic distribution of Safranbolu market. % 15 of inhabitants is retired officials having being sons of the tradesmen of 19th century keeping their houses, skilled workers are 31 % and farmers are only 1% of total population. 63 % of working population is working in Karabük and living in Safranbolu according to data in 1982.

Table 20: Division of Labor

Labor	Percentage of Labor
Unemployed	11
Farmer	1
Worker	4
Skilled Worker	31
Tradesman	8
Artisan	7
Merchant	1
Independant businessman	4
Retired	15
Other	4

Source: Mübeccel Kıray, 1982

In 2000, this schema doesn't change too much and 1,03 % of employed population deals with agriculture as economic activity, 33 % of it works at the service sector (community, social and personal services), 26,53 % of employed population works at manufacturing and industry sectors.

Table 21: Employed Population by Locality, Economic activity (Population 12 years of age and over) year 2000

Locality	Economic Activity					
	Total	Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing industry	Electricity, gas and water	Construction
Total	100	41,85	2,18	16,22	0,32	4,34
Province Center	100	0,79	3,67	32,00	0,47	6,37
Total of District Centers	100	3,89	2,42	22,24	0,81	7,93
Eflani (center)	100	14,81	0,12	12,35	1,11	5,80
Eskipazar (center)	100	5,95	0,99	16,60	0,93	9,11
Ovacık (center)	100	10,92	0,00	7,47	0,29	7,18
Safranbolu (center)	100	1,03	2,50	26,53	0,81	7,29
Yenice (center)	100	6,79	4,42	18,05	0,67	10,10
Total of Subdistricts and Villages	100	79,40	1,16	4,46	0,07	1,95

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

Table 21: Employed Population by Locality, Economic Activity (Population 12 years of age and over) year 2000 (Continued)

Locality	Economic Activity				
	Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	Transport, communication and storage	Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	Community, social and personal services	Activities not adequately defined
Total	8,03	3,85	2,15	20,83	0,23
Province Center	12,69	6,11	3,79	33,74	0,37
Total of District Centers	16,98	6,20	4,50	34,61	0,42
Eflani (center)	18,52	6,79	3,95	36,05	0,49
Eskipazar (center)	18,03	8,61	3,90	35,13	0,74
Ovacık (center)	8,62	9,20	2,87	52,87	0,57
Safranbolu (center)	17,90	5,56	5,01	33,01	0,37
Yenice (center)	13,94	5,85	3,71	36,15	0,31
Total of Subdistricts and Villages	2,32	1,70	0,40	8,45	0,08

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

The following table shows employed population distributed according to economic activities of centers of provinces. According to this table, 75 % of employed population of center of province deals with mining and quarrying, 74 % with manufacturing and industry, 66,36 % with transport and 66,09 % with personal services. In Safranbolu

center, employed population works in manufacturing and mining sectors decrease to 18,32 % of and 15,22 % orderly. The biggest share in economic activities is the group of workers at electricity, gas and water activities with 27,65 % and then, the second important share is the wholesale, retail, trade, restaurants and hotels with 25, 15 %.

Table 22: Distribution of Economic Activities in Karabük

Locality	Economic Activity				
	Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing industry	Electricity, gas and water	Construction
Total (Centers only)	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00
Province Center	28,80	75,19	74,21	53,92	61,61
Eflani (center)	17,73	0,08	0,94	4,15	1,84
Eskipazar (center)	14,18	1,32	2,51	6,91	5,75
Ovacık (center)	5,61	0,00	0,24	0,46	0,98
Safranbolu (center)	11,23	15,22	18,32	27,65	20,99
Yenice (center)	22,45	8,19	3,78	6,91	8,84

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

Table 22: Distribution of Economic Activities in Karabük (Continued)

Locality	Economic Activity					Total
	Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	Transport, communication and storage	Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	Community, social and personal services	Activities not adequately defined	
Total (Centers only)	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00
Province Center	59,92	66,36	62,74	66,09	63,89	66,66
Eflani (center)	2,86	2,41	2,14	2,31	2,78	2,18
Eskipazar (center)	5,55	6,10	4,21	4,49	8,33	4,35
Ovacık (center)	0,57	1,40	0,67	1,46	1,39	0,94
Safranbolu (center)	25,15	17,98	24,68	19,25	18,75	19,85
Yenice (center)	5,95	5,75	5,55	6,40	4,86	6,03

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

According to distribution of occupation in Safranbolu in 2000, % 42,33 of employed population is in nonagricultural production and related jobs. % 18,26 is scientific, technical, professionals and related workers, % 14,99 is service workers and % 11,85 is commercial and sales workers.

Table 23: Employed population by Locality, Occupation % (Population 12 years of age and over) year 2000

Locality	Occupation								
	Total	Scientific, technical, professionals and related workers (%)	Administrative and Managerial workers	Clerical and related workers	Commercial and sales workers	Service Workers	Agricultural, animal husbandry, forestry workers, fishermen and hunters	Nonagricultural production and related workers, transport equipment operators and laborers	Unknown
Total (Karabük)	100	8,54	1,42	5,21	5,17	9,37	41,57	28,61	0,11
Province Center	100	14,03	2,40	9,97	9,03	14,61	0,72	49,08	0,15
Total of District Centers	100	16,42	2,46	9,18	10,28	16,75	3,00	41,74	0,17
Eflani (center)	100	13,70	3,21	5,68	10,99	21,60	13,33	31,23	0,25
Eskipazar (center)	100	14,00	2,29	9,11	7,74	22,80	3,72	40,02	0,31
Ovacık (center)	100	13,79	1,72	14,94	5,46	16,38	9,20	37,93	0,57
Safranbolu (center)	100	18,26	2,54	9,31	11,85	14,99	0,65	42,33	0,07
Yenice (center)	100	13,49	2,19	9,16	7,46	16,49	5,50	45,40	0,31
Total of Subdistricts and Villages	100	2,64	0,48	0,99	1,16	3,79	79,18	11,70	0,06

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

Table 24 Distribution of Occupation according to Centers of Provinces percentage

Locality	Scientific, technical, professionals and related workers (%)	Administrative and Managerial workers	Clerical and related workers	Commercial and sales workers	Service Workers	Agricultural, animal husbandry, forestry workers, fishermen and hunters	Nonagricultural production and related workers, transport equipment operators and laborers	Unknown
Total (Centers only)	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00
Province Center	63,08	66,11	68,49	63,71	63,55	32,55	70,16	64,41
Eflani (center)	2,02	2,89	1,28	2,54	3,08	19,64	1,46	3,39
Eskipazar (center)	4,10	4,11	4,08	3,56	6,47	10,91	3,73	8,47
Ovacık (center)	0,87	0,67	1,44	0,54	1,00	5,82	0,76	3,39
Safranbolu (center)	24,45	20,78	19,03	24,89	19,42	8,73	18,02	8,47
Yenice (center)	5,48	5,44	5,69	4,76	6,49	22,36	5,87	11,86

Source: State Institute of Statistics Census of Population 2000

5.3.4.2. Sectoral Division of Economic Activities in the Town

According to investment incentive certificates, which are given by the State Treasury Organization, Manufacturing Sector, Iron-Steel industry and Services, Transportation are the most preferred investments in 2002. In 2003, Manufacturing and Textile-clothing are the most important investments. After that year, between the years 2004 and 2007, the total investments to Karabük decreases and total number of certificates decrease from 5 certificates to 1 certificate.

Table 25: Sectoral Breakdown of Investment Incentive Certificates by Cities Karabük (2002-2008)

Years	Sectors	Sectors	Number of Certificates	Total Investment (Million TL.)	Fixed Investment (Million TL.)	Working Capital (Million TL.)	Foreing Exchange (1000 \$)	Employment (Person)
2002	03-MANUFACTURING	Food and drink	1	1.158.000	1.158.000	-	-	40
		Textile and clothing	3	3.741.084	3.741.084	-	1.902	400
		Iron and Steel	2	13.227.298	13.227.298	-	6.087	-
	05-SERVICES	Transportation	2	2.022.447	2.022.447	-	1.162	40
		Tourism	1	15.333.005	15.333.005	-	1.343	400
		Health	1	214.475	214.475	-	123	10
		Total	10	35.696.309	35.696.309	-	10.617	890
2003	03-MANUFACTURING	Textile and clothing	5	12.306.522	12.306.522	-	4.959	775
		Iron and Steel	1	875.000	875.000	-	-	-
	05-SERVICES	Transportation	1	1.547.417	1.547.417	-	-	9
		Total	7	14.728.939	14.728.939	-	4.959	784
2004	03-MANUFACTURING	Forest products	1	1.571.950	1.571.950	-	365	80
		Metallic Goods	1	2.000.000	2.000.000	-	140	18
		Cement	1	1.400.000	1.400.000	-	205	25
	05-SERVICES	Transportation	1	291.300	291.300	-	-	-
		Total	5	5.974.055	5.974.055	-	1.121	203
2005	03-MANUFACTURING	Forest products	1	1.820.000	1.820.000	-	-	35
	05-SERVICES	Health	1	417.506	417.506	-	197	6
		Infrastructure	1	320.000	320.000	-	-	-
		Total	3	2.557.506	2.557.506	-	197	41
2006	03-MANUFACTURING	Textile and clothing	1	1.869.501	1.869.501	-	977	20
	05-SERVICES	Tourism	1	9.476.458	9.476.458	-	710	400
		Infrastructure	2	15.530.000	15.530.000	-	1.538	8
		Total	4	26.875.959	26.875.959	-	3.225	428
2007	02-MINING	Extraction	1	2.437.548	2.437.548	-	1.209	60
		Total	1	2.437.548	2.437.548	-	1.209	60
2008	01- AGRICULTURE	Animal husbandry	1		4.000.000			55
	04- ENERGY	Energy	2		118.000.000		23.046	21
		Total	3		122.000.000		23.046	76

Source: Adapted from State Treasury Organization, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008

The investments to Karabük are very less between these years and only in 2006, there is an important investment in infrastructure with 15.530.000 million TL. In 2007, there is only one investment in mining sector. In 2008, there are two important investments in energy and agriculture.

The development of tourism sector can be seen from the table. When we look at the schema of investment incentive certificates given by the State Treasury Organizations, it

can be said that there are only two investments in the tourism sector between the years 2002 and 2008.

According to annual change of vegetable productions increases by 156,3 % in Safranbolu between the years 1995-2008. The number of total fruit productions decreases by 22,8 % in Safranbolu in these years. In generally, it can be said that the productions of vegetables in Safranbolu do not change too much even, after 2004, they increase rarely. The vegetable productions in Safranbolu stay at 3100-3400 tones between these years, except in 1998, because of economic crisis the number of production decreases to 1540 tones (Table- 26).

Table 26: Agricultural Productions (1995-2008)

years	Safranbolu production (Vegetable) (tone)	Annual % change of Production (Vegetable)	Safranbolu production (Fruits) (tone)	Annual % change of Production (Fruits)	Fruited Land (Area) Dekar	Vegetable Land (Area) Dekar
1995	3119	7,09	4259	16,20	3460	2840
1996	3340	-0,15	4949	5,54	3560	2510
1997	3335	-53,82	5223	-45,36	3560	2510
1998	1540	122,60	2854	83,71	3560	2210
1999	3428	-0,73	5243	0,00	3570	2220
2000	3403	3,23	5243	-10,09	3600	2340
2001	3513	-6,83	4714	11,22	3660	2350
2002	3273	8,95	5243	-21,65	4750	1820
2003	3566	-2,69	4108	12,03	3040	1910
2004	3470	37,90	4602	82,05	3020	1910
2005	4785	-3,62	8378	-72,75	2640	2670
2006	4612	43,10	2283	73,50	2900	2684
2007	8002	0,55	3267	-0,07	2317	3039
2008	7996		3285		2452	3044

Source: Adapted from State Treasury Organization, 1995- 2008

The production of fruits between the years 1995-2008 is more than the production of vegetables in the town. The production of fruits is average 4546 tones for fourteen years and the production of fruits is constant between these years. The production of fruits and vegetables decrease in the year 1998, and increase after the year 2004.

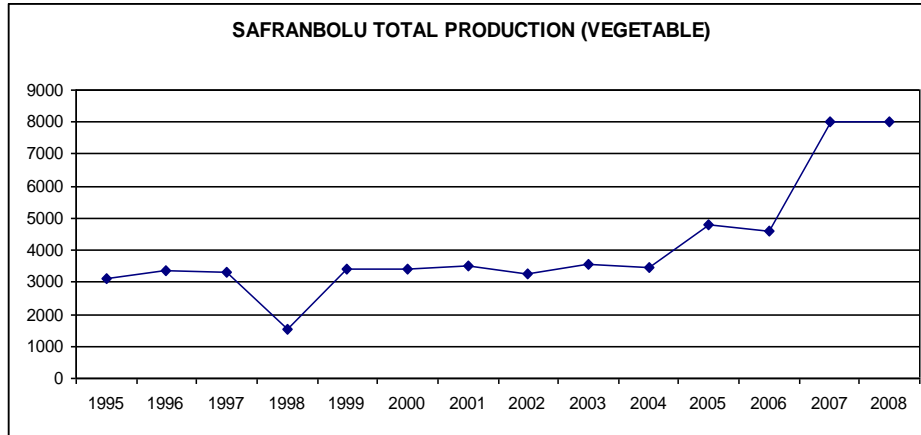


Figure 25: Total Production of Vegetables and Fruits in Safranbolu
 Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics

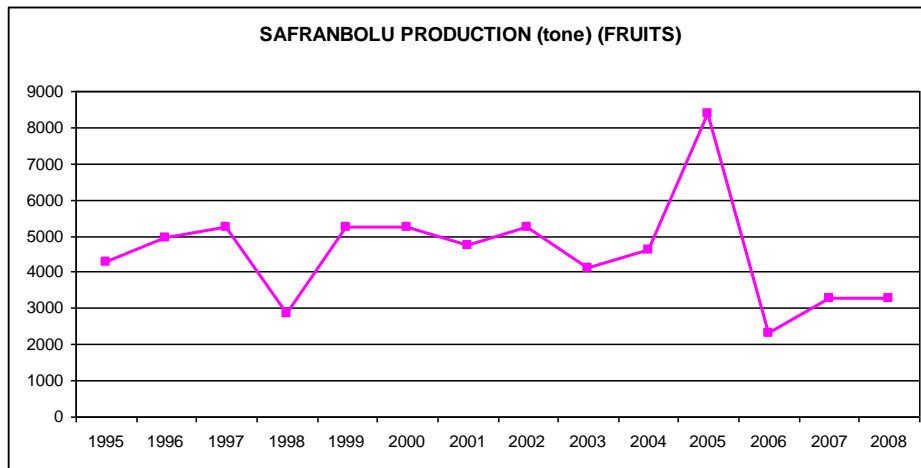


Figure 26: Total Production of Vegetables and Fruits in Safranbolu
 Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics, 1995-2008

The fruited lands decrease by 16,1 % in these years, and especially after 2002, that year tourism sector started to increase by a bigger proportion, they are reduced.

The following graph shows the change of total agricultural productions (vegetables and fruits) in Safranbolu from 1995 to 2008. According to this graph, it can be said that in Safranbolu the number of total productions increases by 52,9 %. It is clear that agriculture as an economic sector does not lose its importance after tourism.

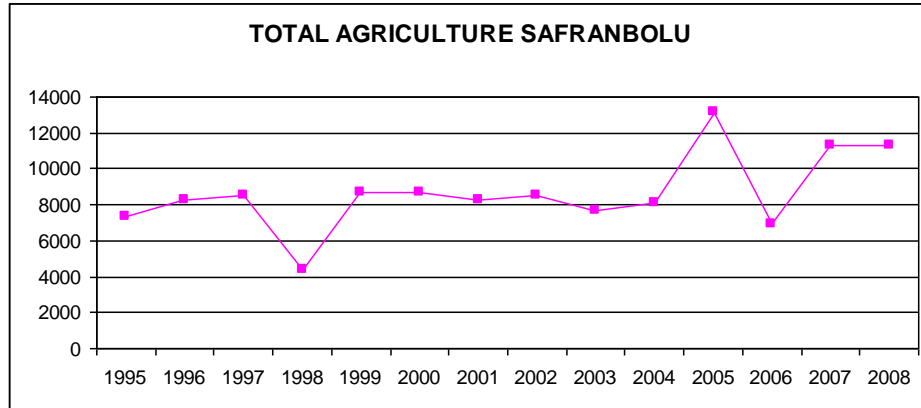


Figure 27: Total Agriculture in Safranbolu

Source: Adapted from State Institute of Statistics, 1995-2008

5.4. Conclusion

In this chapter, Safranbolu is defined and Socio-Cultural and Economic Impacts of tourism are investigated within the years. Accordingly, the change of population, migration and education are analyzed to determine the socio-cultural effects of tourism. Similarly, economic resources of the town, investments, employment, economic activities are analyzed to search economic influences of tourism.

Consequently, it is seen that the population of Safranbolu increases by 19, 32 %, when the population of Turkey increases by 28, 48 %, between 1990 and 2009. This shows that there is a significant increase in the population of Safranbolu. According to migration analyses, it can be said that there is not an out-migration in the town, while Karabük has a great migration ratio. This could be a result of tourism development in the town that causes economic fluctuations and an increase in employment. Moreover, a result of these socio-cultural analyses, it can be said that education status of the town is very high. However, the literacy status of the town has not changed within the years 2000 and 2009.

According to investments analyzes, it could be said that there is not a significant investment to Karabük for tourism. Mining and infrastructure are given more importance and so it is argued that tourism has not been a valuable sector in the town by means of

investments. Agricultural economy is the most dominant sector in the town and that result has not changed within the years. It can be said that agriculture does not lose its importance after tourism development in the town.

CHAPTER 6

SPATIAL AND TOURISM ANALYSIS OF SAFRANBOLU

6.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the spatial structure of Safranbolu is searched, and environmental impacts of tourism on the town are determined. Because of its distinctive spatial and architectural features, Safranbolu has a strong urban character used for tourism. Especially, architectural buildings, historical monuments are important resources for tourism. Moreover, the spatial transformations and changes that occurred in the town throughout the years are also taken into consideration in this chapter. Since by doing so; the reflections of those differentiations in identity of the town are analyzed.

The objective of part is to analyze the tourism development of the town, to explore conservation studies and to present these results spatially. It focuses upon firstly spatial characteristics of the town, secondly environmental changes within the years are analyzed, and thirdly, tourism planning approaches and conservation plans are questioned.

6.2. Spatial Structure of the Town

The city of Safranbolu can be defined with 4 main regions:

- The market place of the inner city called as Çukur, Çarşı or the Hole, which consists of some districts called Çavuş, Çelebi, Çeşme, İzzetpaşa.

- Kıranköy; Çeşme Districts
- Bağlar-Vineyards;
- The new settlement area, (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

The first settlement had been established at the south border of the town; however, it lost its importance in the 15th and 16th century. Therefore, a new settlement area, which was called Çukur, was established at the south east of the town. After that, the town center expanded to the west of Kıranköy region.

During the 18th century, Bağlar was established on the north-west and it became the summer resort of the town. After 1950s, another settlement area was built outside of the old town center, which was controlled by limitations of construction plan (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

Çukur (Çarşı-the Market) name is derived from its topographical position, which is situated at the lower part of the town. Therefore, there is a natural flow to this district from the higher parts of the town (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

Çarşı region-the market quarter, which is known as old Safranbolu, is on the side slopes of the hills. The snowfall of this area is less than the other parts of the town. This region is protected against wind, and so winter houses are located on that area (M. Aksoy, A. Kuş., 1999).

Bağlar region- the Vineyards district, which is called as new Safranbolu, is located on the higher part of the town. Therefore, this region is open to air currents, it is cool in summer and snowy in winter, and so the summerhouses are located on there (M. Aksoy, A. Kuş., 1999). This district has single mansions in great gardens set apart from each other and it shows the typical form of Turkish tradition. Summerhouses are very modestly furnished and most of life is outside conducted (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

In this district, the houses of tradesmen and artisans are outside of the market place and densely built near the market. These houses are very typical for Anatolian cities on the contrary to European cities on the same age (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994).

Kıranköy is the former settlement of the non-Muslim community, so in contrast to Çukur district, it shows very similar socio-architectural structure of European towns. In this region, the artisans and tradesmen are living in the upper stores of their shops (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994) where the buildings combine working and living spaces (www.ovpm.org, last visited on, May 2009).

The differentiation between these regions shows the separation of Muslim and non-Muslim quarter during the Ottoman period. The main reason of this separation is the politics of the period that was to enable each community to establish their living spaces according to their own traditions and wishes (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994). Therefore, Kıranköy settlement has huge wine factories in the cellars and stone buildings in spite of Çarşı district, where there are wooden houses.

The recent settlement area was constructed with an effective and successful zoning plan of 1967, which did not disturb the historical city (WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994). It was declared as “Urbanized Site” by the Ministry of Culture on 08.10.1976 and taken under protection (www.safranbolu.gov.tr, last visited on May 2009).

The oldest houses are combinations of wood structures with clay, brick, and stone; their ground floor streetscapes are without window openings, but the upper levels have generous projecting windows offering perspective views. Several mosques occupy the landscape (www.ovpm.org , Last visited on May 2009)

There are 20 districts in Safranbolu city centre; Atatürk, Yeni Karaali, Bağlarbaşı, Hüseyinçelebi, Esentepe, Camikebir, Cemalcaymaz, Hacıhalil, İsmetpaşa, Musalla, Babasultan, Aşağıtokatlı, Çeşme, Emek, Kirkille, Çavuş, İzzetpaşa, Akçasu, Barış. These districts are shown in the following map.

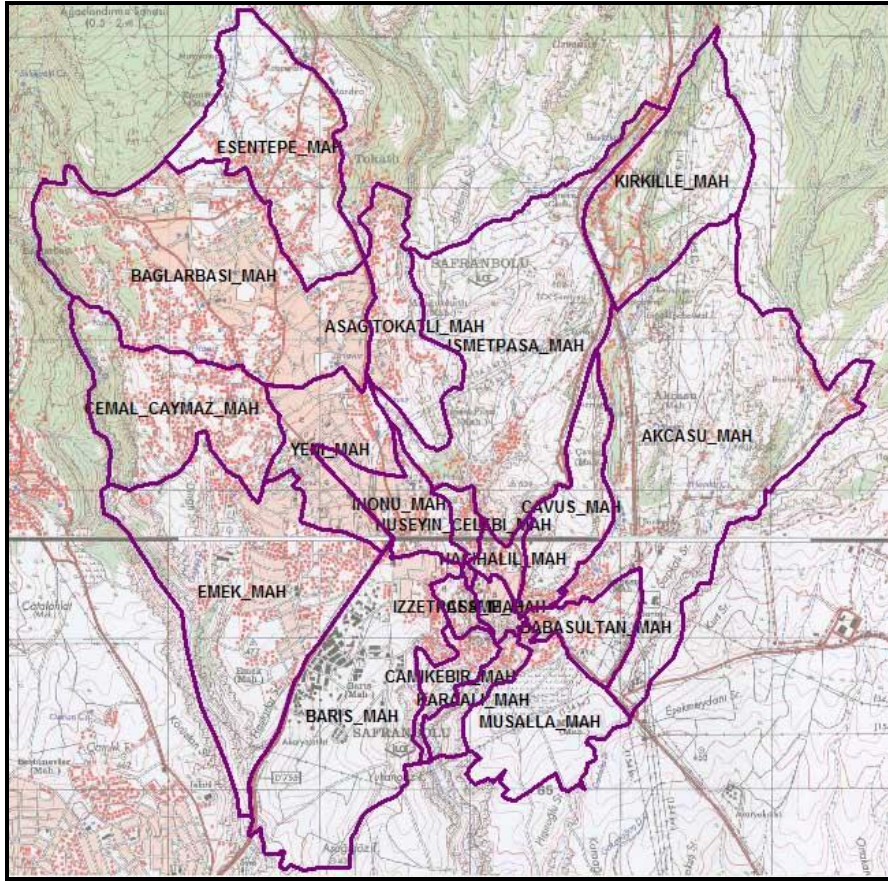


Figure 28: Safranbolu and Districts
(Created by using GIS)

6.2.1. Important Monuments

Safranbolu is located in the Western Black Sea Region, and it is an important route between Amasra on the coast and central Anatolia. Therefore, over the ancient times, the city has become a transition location and so it has many old monuments, buildings, mosque, and fountain.

In this context, Safranbolu is one of the important cities of Ottoman time, therefore it can be seen the traditional Turkish social life of mostly 18th and 19th century of the town. In spite of many other, historical cites of Turkey, the old city of Safranbolu is well preserved by repairs and restoration projects. As a result, the town still shows the Ottoman-Turkish architectural features of old Turkish cities.

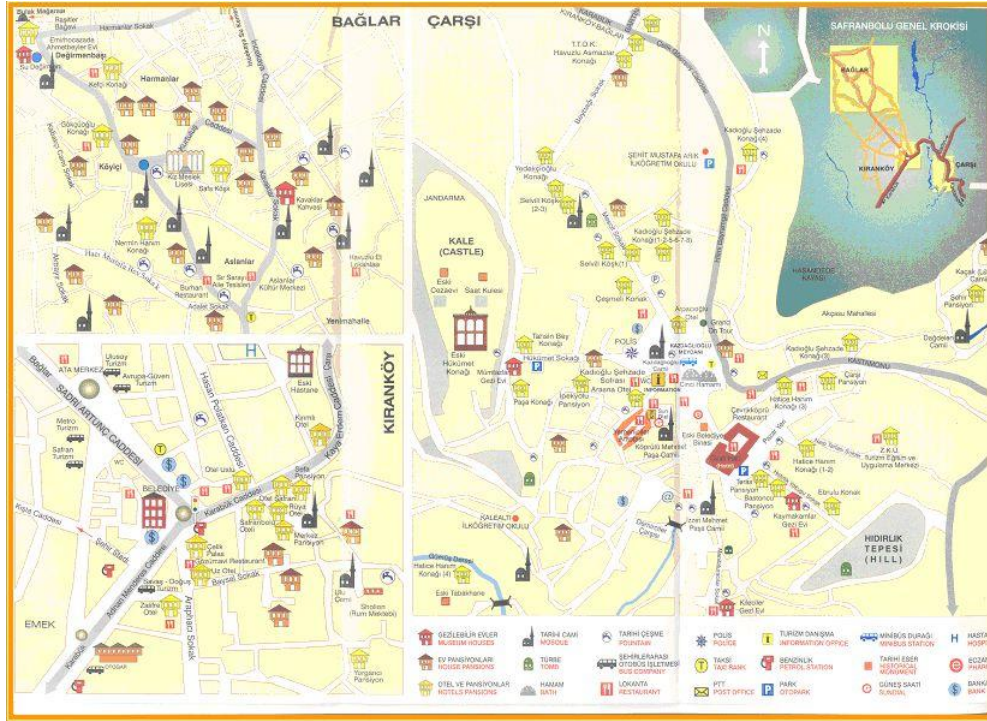


Figure 29: Safranbolu, Çarşısı, Kıranköy, Bağlar Map
 Source: www.karabuk.bel.tr, last visited on November, 2008.)

The wealthy inhabitants of the town built large houses made from wood and stucco, many of which still survive. Some of the most significant buildings are listed below (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

Religious Buildings

There are around 30 mosques. The oldest one is the Süleyman Paşa Camii (Eski Cami) mosque from the Candaroğulları period (14th century). The other most important ones are Köprülü Mehmet Paşa mosque (1662), İzzet Mehmet Paşa mosque (1796). (Günay, 1987)

Educational Buildings

The Süleyman Paşa Madrasa (14th century) of which only the foundations exist today, is the only educational building worth noting (Günay, 1987)

Social Buildings

Cinci Hoca Hanı (Cinci Hodja Caravanserai 17th century), Eski Hamam (Old Baths 14th century), Yeni Hamam (New Baths, 17th century). In addition to these buildings, approximately 180 fountains and 15 bridges can be listed (Günay, 1987).

Safranbolu began to gain importance in the 14th century and many important monuments were built during the 17th and 18th century; and since then, with the increase in its own economic power, many more buildings -mostly small mosques and fountains, to the existing stock- were built (see Table-20) (Günay, 1987).

Table 27: Monumental Buildings in Safranbolu

No	Name of monument	Who made it built	Year	Location
1	Old Mosque	Candaroğulari period	1322	Camikebir District
2	Old Turkish Bath	Candaroğulari period	1322	Camikebir District
3	Gazi Süleyman Paşa Muslims Seminary		1322	Camikebir District
4	Sundial	-	-	Çarşı
5	Taş Minare Mosque	-	-	Hüseyin Çelebi District
6	Kalealtı Tekkesi Mosque	-	1550	Kalealtı
7	Cinci Hoca Caravanserai	Cinci Hoca	1640-48	Çarşı
8	New Turkish Bath	Cinci Hoca	-	Çeşme District
9	Köprülü Mehmet Paşa Mosque	Köprülü Mehmet Paşa	1662	Çarşı
10	Köprülü Fountain	Köprülü Mehmet Paşa	1662	Çarşı
11	Akçasu Fountain	Muslubeyoğlu Hacı İbrahim	1683	Akçasu District
12	Taş Minare Fountain	Zaim Osman Ağa	1692	Hüseyin Çelebi District
13	Hidayetullah Mosque	Hacı Hidayet Ağa	1719	İzzet Paşa District
14	Dağdelen Mosque	Hacı Mehmet	1768	Akçasu District
15	Hışır Pınarı Fountain	Cevizoğlu Mehmet	1776	Musalla District
16	Kazdağlı Mosque	Kazdağlıoğlu Mehmet Ağa	1779	Çeşme District
17	Tokatlı Su Aqueduct	-	-	A. Tokatlı District
18	Paşa Pınarı Fountain	Ali Galip ve Salih Beyler	1795	Kıranköy-Kışla Street
19	İzzet Mehmet Paşa Mosque	İzzet Mehmet Paşa	1796	Çarşı
20	Clock Tower	İzzet Mehmet Paşa	1796	Kale
21	Hidayetullah Fountain	Hidayetzade Hacı Mehmet Ağa	1802	İzzet Paşa District
22	Antepzade Fountain	Antepzade Hacı Mehmet Ağa	1811	Çeşme District
23	Abdi Çavuş Fountain	Binbaşı Hacı Ağa	1813	Kıranköy-Hastane
24	Tuzcupınarı Fountain	Emeksizzade Mehmet Ağa	1814	Akçasu District
25	Salih Paşa Fountain	Hacı Salih Paşa	1818	Hacı Halil District
26	Ali Baba Dervish	-	1824	Çavuş District
27	Çatal Pınarı Fountain	-	1834	Musalla District
28	Talim Meydanı Fountain	Dede ağa	1837	Musalla District
29	Köprü Başı Fountain	Mehmet Asım Bey, Fatma Hanım	1838	İsmet Paşa District
30	Hasan Paşa Tomb	Köstendil Kaymakamı Hasan Paşa	1845	Hıdırlık

Source: Aksoy & Kuş., 1999

Table 27: Monumental buildings in Safranbolu (Continued)

No	Name of monument	Who made it built	Year	Location
31	Gazi Süleymanpaşa Muslims Seminary	Sultan Abdülmecid	1846	Cami Kebir District
32	Ala Bekir Fountain	Hacı Sare Hanım	1848	Karaali District
33	Çuhadar Fountain	Çuharzade Ali Beyin eşi Fatma Hanım	1850	Hacı Halil District
34	Fatma Hanım Fountain	-	1862	Çeşme District
35	Kamil Efendi Fountain	Eski Cami Vaizi H. Kamil Efendi	1864	Karaali District
36	Hacı Emin Efendi Tomb	Halveti Tarikatı Şeyhi H. Emin Efendi	1867	Çeşme District
37	Şeyh Mustafa Efendi Tomb	Halveti Tarikatı Şeyhi H. Emin Efendi	1871	Musalla District
38	Sadullah Fountain	Hacı Abdullah Ağa	1871	Babasultan District
39	Ali ve Hasan Baba Tombs	Ali ve Hasan Baba	1872	Çavuş District
40	Hidayetullah Tomb	Dindarzade H. Süleyman Efendi	1874	Musalla District
41	Karakullukçu Fountain	Karakullukçuzade Hacı Mehmet Ağa	1874	Babasultan District
42	Kaçak (Lütfiye) Mosque	Hacı Hüseyin Hüsnü	1879	Akçasu District
43	Hamidiye (Zulmiye-Mescit) Mosque	-	1884	Çeşme District
45	Cılbır Pınarı Fountain	Emir Hocazade Mustafa Efendi	1890	Hacı Halil District
46	Cephane Building	Sultan 2. Abdülhamit	1890	Kale
47	Kadı Efendi Fountain	Kadı Mantarcızaade Mehmet	1896	Çeşme District
48	Government Office	Kastamonu Valisi Enis Paşa	1904	Kale
49	Hamidiye (Mescit)Fountain	Ali Bey Müh. Emir Hocazade	1905	Çeşme District
50	Ekmekçi Numan Fountain	Gani Oğlu Numan Ağa	1906	İzzet Paşa District
51	Prison (Cezaevi)	Sultan 2. Abdülhamit	1906	Kale
52	Serkatip Fountain	Kırmlızade Hüseyin Ağa	1910	Hacı Halil District
53	Secondary School	Sultan 2. Abdülhamit	1915	Bağlar
54	Şükrü Efendi Fountain	Hacı Bakizade Şükrü Efendi	1924	Çeşme District
55	Leather Factory	Safranbolu Debağ Şirketi	-	Karaali District
56	Town Hall	Refik Güler Efendi	1924	Çarşı

Source: Aksoy & Kuş., 1999

According to Figure 30, which is formulated by using data on the Table-20, it can be said that the monumental buildings are concentrated mainly on the Çeşme District, which is the oldest settlement in the town that includes Çarşı region.

Tourism activities in the town are also gathered in Çeşme District and, therefore, the conservation plans and protection strategies are important in this region. (See also Figure: 40). Musalla, İzzetpaşa, Hacıhalil, Camikebir Districts are other regions, which have important historical monuments.

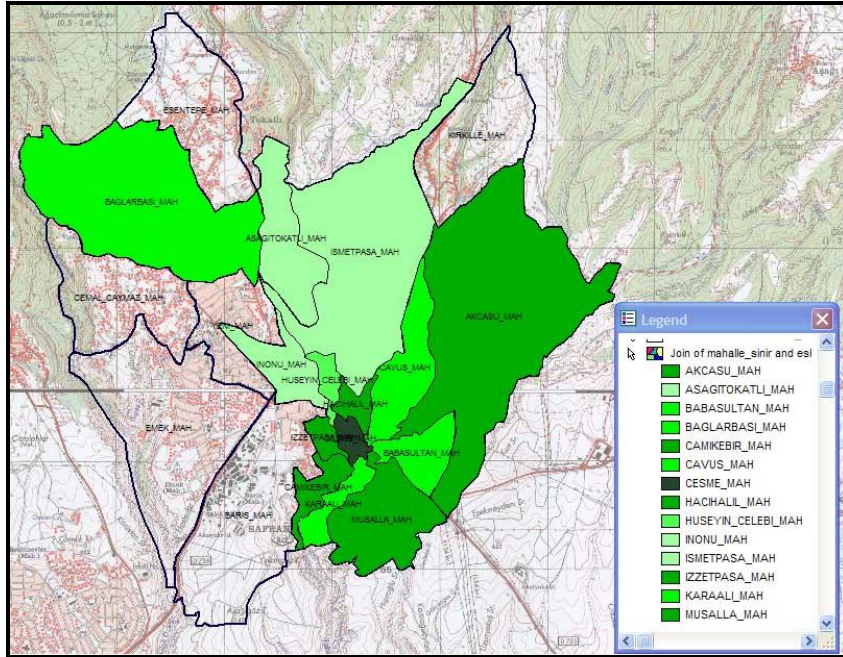


Figure 30: The Number of Monumental buildings & Districts
 (Created by using GIS, Adapted from M. Aksoy, A. Kuş., 1999).

6.2.2. The Organization of Guilds in Safranbolu

All production and trade activities in Safranbolu used to be carried out by guild system. In this system, all production activities are organized among each other as separate profession groups. Guilds are equivalent to professional chambers of today like leather shoemaker’s guild, ironsmith’s guild, coppersmith’s guild (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

A guild consisted of skilled workers and tradesman of a profession and each of them have a chief called as “yiğitbaşı” who is chosen by secret voting and yiğitbaşı selects four or five assistants from guild members. Yiğitbaşı and his assistants organize the production and sales in their guild, check the production quality, and offer their confidential help to merchants of their quild who are in financial trouble. They also arrange the mastership proficiency examination, tradesmen prayer, solve the conflicts between merchants, keeps the tradition and passing through new generations (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

In Safranbolu, especially in Çukur or Çarşı district, it is possible to see the markets, which are established according to guild tradition (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999). The examples of some guilds -the tannery, arasta- are given as at the following;

The Tannery: It is situated within a valley along a stream with its own mosque and coffeehouse, the Tabakhane, which means tannery, a time consuming and wearying job. The chemical content of the water springing from beneath the mosque is suitable for tanning which were organized within the guild system. The shoemakers, saddlers and manufacturers of leather goods purchased the leather treated in the tanneries. The best raw hides gathered from the area were transformed into leather of the finest quality after being treated and traditional methods were employed in leather treatment. In 1987 there were two workshops using the traditional methods. (Günay, 1987)

Arasta (market place): The makers of light shoes (yemeniciler) 46 shops were gathered in the arasta, a part of bazaar for the same artisans, in their self-owned shops. Three to five people worked in each of the tiny shops and hung on strings, the light-shoes were exhibited in the shops.

In spite of the hard work, which sometimes kept them busy until dawn, the shoemakers never became rich, but managed to sustain a modest life. During the War of Independence it was Safranbolu that supplied a great part of the army's need for footwear and in 1975 there were a few shops still operating in the arasta (Günay, 1987)

Saddlers and Leather Workers: Horses and donkeys, which were important means of transport, were used in great numbers in and Safranbolu, therefore saddle, and harness making were a common field of production. The producers of saddles and harnesses were gathered in two separate streets in the Çarşı, called "semerciler içi" where saddle workers were working and "saraçlar içi", where saraç producers were working. It is known that in 1923 there were 120 people engaged in saddle-making (Günay, 1987)

Farriers: Another artisans group that was organized according to guild system was farriers. As each household owned at least one or two saddle-horses, there were a sufficient number of farriers engaged in horse-shoeing (Günay, 1987)

Ironmongery: Ironmongers, who even today exist in the market area, were in a well established branch of activity in the Ottoman times. Farming equipment, metal parts of harnesses, tools for wood and leather working, household utensils, tools and building elements (such as axes, adzes, gimlets, hammers, nails, screws, hinges, locks, door handles, door knocks, iron hooks for window shutters latches and hooks) were used in building construction and they were manufactured in the market of ironmongery. (Günay, 1987)

Coppersmiths: Cooper is very important element for Safranbolu economy so there is a copper market in the city, which was organized according to this guild system. The shops sell ready-made copperware today (Günay, 1987)

6.3. The Emergence of Tourism in Safranbolu

Safranbolu is at the north center of Turkey and it has an important location for transportation. Therefore, it is explained before, there are many ruins of ancient civilizations in the town. Because of its historical buildings, monuments; cultural values, which are classified as tourism attractions as stated in Chapter-3, Safranbolu has become one of the most popular tourism destinations of Turkey. Accordingly, tourism development in the town between the years 1990 and 2009 is analyzed in this part.

According to data taken from District Governorship, foreign tourists are mostly from Japan, New Zealand, Australia and United States of America (www.safranbolu.gov.tr last visited on January 2010). The historical buildings at Çarşı and Bağlar main subjects of interest of the visitors are the samples of civil architecture. Moreover, historical remains around Safranbolu, ancient villages (Yazıköy, Yörük, Akören, Hacılarobası, Üçbölük), natural beauties like canyons, caverns, forests and pasturages are other attractive places for visitors.

6.3.1 Analysis of Establishments Licensed By the Ministry of Tourism

The following figure shows the number of arrivals in Safranbolu. According to this figure, there is a smooth increase in the number of arrivals before the year 2000. After that time, the number of arrivals rises rapidly.

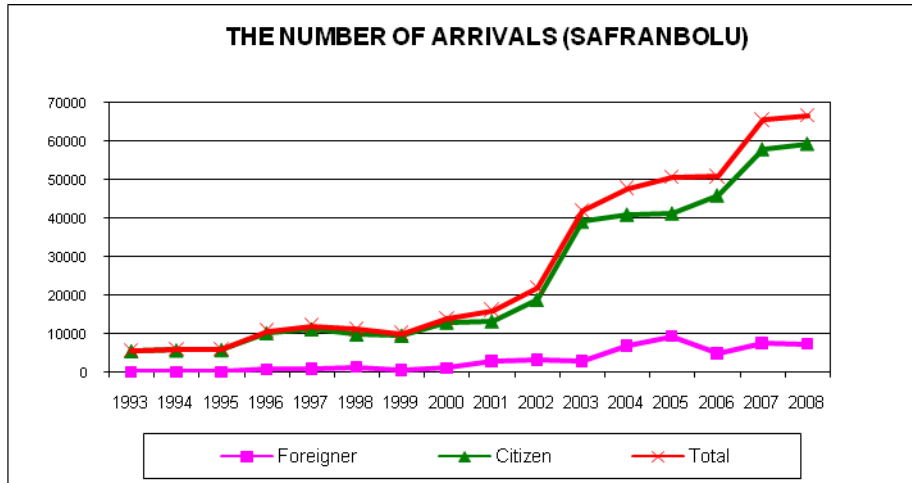


Figure 31: The Number of Arrivals in Safranbolu (Establishments Licensed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism)

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

In Safranbolu, the number of citizen is more than foreigners. In spite of foreigners, the number of citizen increases after 1999 and this continues with a rapid acceleration. From 1993 to 2008, the number of arrivals for foreign visitors is less than the one for citizens. In 1993, the number of arrivals for foreigners increases by 4,20 % and the number of citizens increases by 95, 80 %. These numbers change a little after 2001 and in this year, they are counted as 18, 1 % for foreigners and 81, 9 % for citizens.

In 2008, the number of foreign visitors is only 11 % of total arrivals. Between the years 1993 and 2008 the number of foreign visitors increases 30 times, when the number of citizens visiting Safranbolu increases 10,8 times.

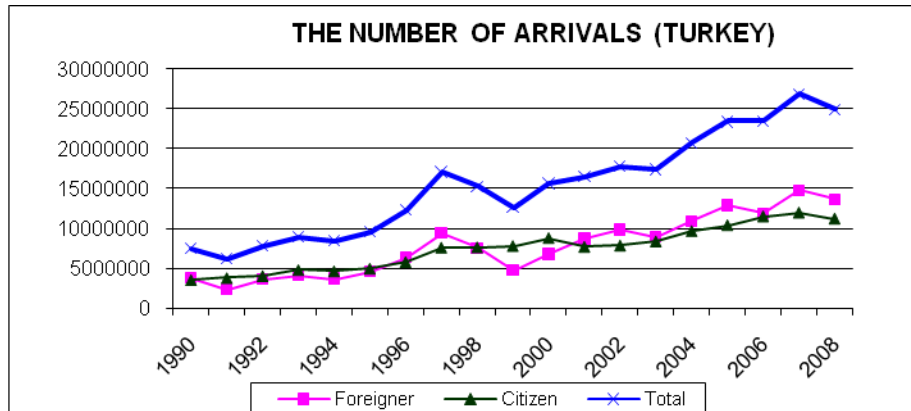


Figure 32: The Number of Arrivals in Turkey (Establishments Licensed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism)

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

The number of arrivals between the years 1990 and 2008 in Turkey increases sharply and it decreases in the years 1998-1999. Different from Safranbolu, the number of foreign visitors is approximately equal to the citizens. From the year 1993 to 2008 the number of arrivals for total foreigners and citizens increase by 179,2%, 133,6 % for citizens, 233 % for foreigners.

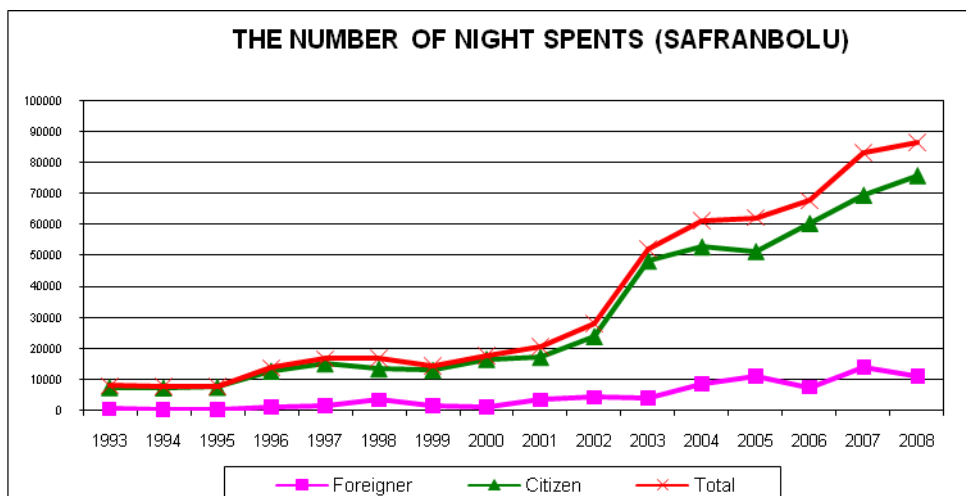


Figure 33: The Number of Nights Spent in Safranbolu (Establishments Licensed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism)

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

The number of nights spent in Safranbolu also shows a similar schema with arrivals. The number of nights spent is more than the number of arrivals between the years 1990 and 2008, however, the number of nights spent in Safranbolu increases especially after 2002.

The number of nights spent in Turkey rises from the year 1990 to 2008, and only between the years 1997 and 2000, it decreases sharply. However, different from the number of arrivals, the number of nights spent in Turkey is more for foreigners, and very less for citizens.

According to Figure 34, the number of nights spent in Turkey decreases by 18,99 %, in 1998-1999 period. Especially, in 1997-1998 period it goes down with 10,1 % that is very low. From 1993 to 2008 the number of nights spent (foreigners and citizens) increases by 190,5 %, the number of foreigners increases by 233 % and citizens rises with 114 %. In Safranbolu the number of nights spent increases by 1638 % for foreigners, 922 % for citizens and 978 % for total nights spent between the years 1993 and 2008.

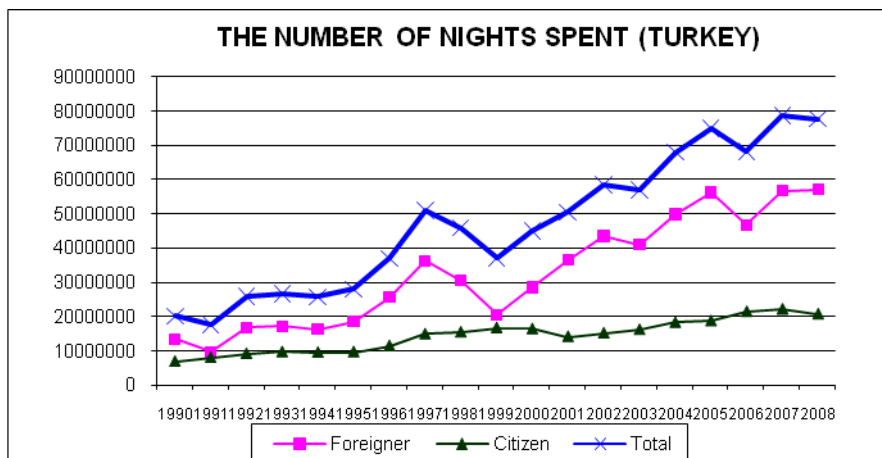


Figure 34: The Number of Nights Spent in Turkey (Establishments Licensed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism)
 Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

When we look at the change of the number of arrivals in Safranbolu from 1993 to 2008, the highest level for change of total arrivals (foreigners and citizens) is in 2002-2003

with 90,3 % and then in 1995-1996 with 81,3 %. In 1998-1999 and in 2005-2006 years, the number of arrivals for foreigners decreases, especially it falls too much in 1999, and it reaches to 56,4 % percentage. This fall is probably because of the earthquake that was a big disaster in the North Anatolia Region. From 1993 to 2008, the number of arrivals increases by 1065 % (total), 2965 % for foreigners, 982 % for citizens.

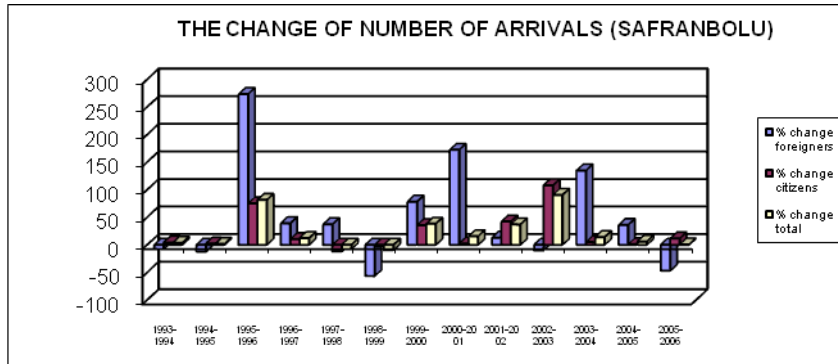


Figure 35: The Change of the Number of Arrivals in Safranbolu
Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

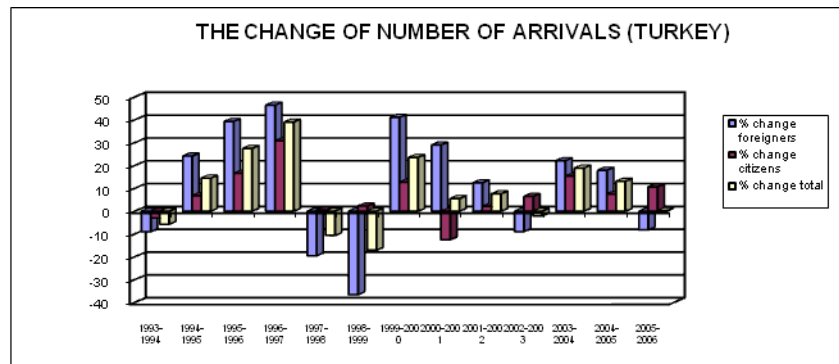


Figure 36: The Change of the Number of Arrivals in Turkey
Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

The change of the number of nights spent for Safranbolu is similar with the previous graphics. The change of the number of nights spent in Safranbolu from 1993 to 2006, in 2002-2003 the number of nights spent for total (foreigners and citizens) reaches its highest level with 84,85 % and then the number in 1995-1996 follows it with 76,49 %. Similar with the number of arrivals in 1998-1999 years, the number of nights spent for foreigners decreases and it is reduced with 56,33 %. After that years the number of

nights spent for foreigners increases however, this number decreases by 32,12 % in 2005-2006 period.

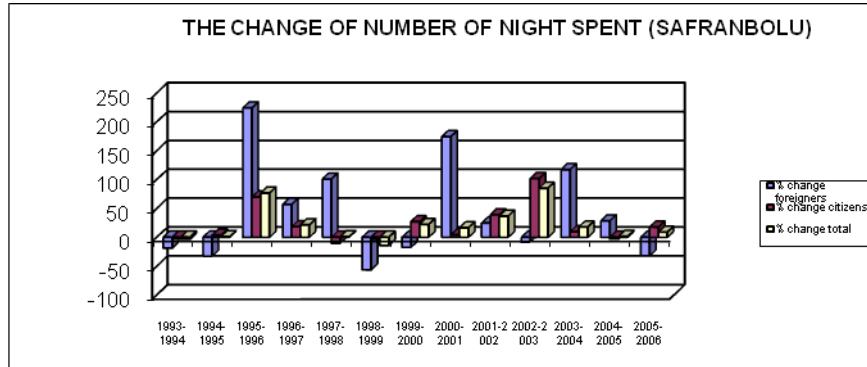


Figure 37: The Change of the Number of Nights Spent in Safranbolu
Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

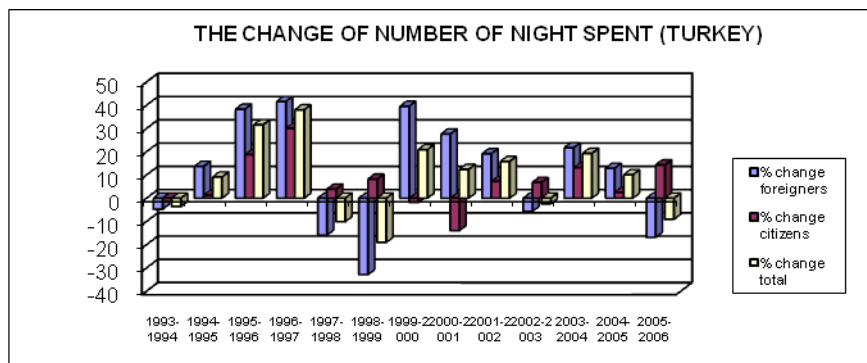


Figure 38: The Change of the Number of Nights Spent in Turkey
Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

When we look the change of nights spent in Turkey, the graph is not different from the previous one. In 1998-1999 years and in 2005-2006 years, the number of nights spent decreases.

Total number of establishments in Safranbolu increases from the year 1993 to 2009. According to the number of licensed establishments given by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, in 2009, the number of establishments is 17, the number of rooms is 336, and the number of beds is 578. It can be seen from the table below that the number of

establishments increases approximately 4 times, the number of rooms increases 7 times and the number of beds increases 6 times between the years 1993 and 2009.

Table 28: Total Number of Accommodation Establishments

Years	Tourism Investment Licensed			Tourism Operation Licensed		
	Number of Establishment	Number of Rooms	Number of Beds	Number of Establishment	Number of Rooms	Number of Beds
1993	3	59	123	1	20	40
1994	3	59	123	2	23	46
1995	2	52	111	1	20	40
1996	4	83	171	3	30	58
1997	4	233	479	4	38	74
1998	4	233	479	5	47	90
1999	6	309	641	5	57	105
2000	8	410	842	5	57	105
2001	8	426	876	8	94	164
2002	5	353	725	11	167	315
2003	5	353	725	10	164	309
2004	5	343	702	12	198	377
2005	4	247	510	13	222	429
2006	1	202	422	14	236	457
2007	1	202	422	16	327	565
2008	1	202	422	16	297	599
2009	1	202	422	17	336	578

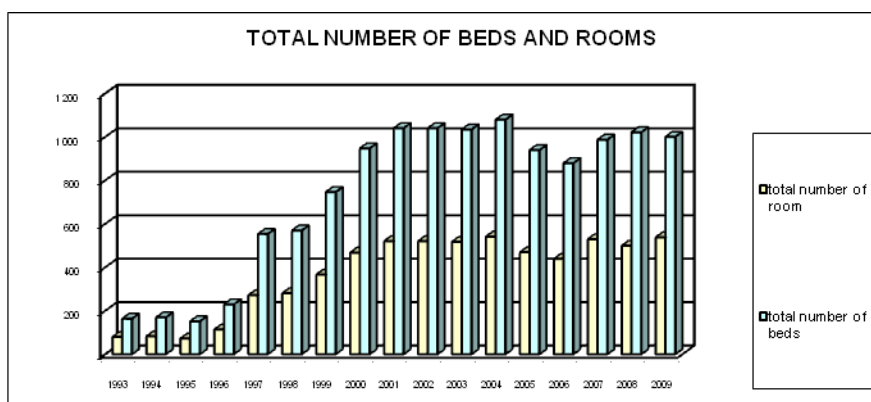


Figure 39: Total Number of Beds and Rooms in Safranbolu

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

However, the number of dining facilities is not change in between 2004 and 2006. There is only one dining facility with tourism investment licensed and two with operation

licensed. However, this data does not include the other facilities, which are not given any license by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in the town (Appendix B)

6.4. Conservation and Planning in Safranbolu

Safranbolu is one of the most interesting settlements of North western Anatolia and one of the important examples of Anatolian cities. It has preserved its characteristics up to date, with its monumental buildings dating from the Ottoman period and very well preserved examples of traditional civil architecture (Günay, 1998). Therefore, the town is one of the most important Turkish historic centers qualifying for protection.

As mentioned before, Safranbolu is a highly typical example of Turkish building technique with traditional Turkish ways of living (Giritlioğlu, 1975). It reflects traditional Turkish society of the Ottoman period, mainly in 18th and 19th century (www.sarfranbolu.gov.tr, last visited on December, 2010).

Safranbolu reached its top economical and cultural level during Ottoman period, it served as an important junction on the Kastamonu - Gerede (Bolu)- Istanbul route of the famous silk road. Because of being an important lodging place in this road, trade developed in a short time, that caused to increase prosperity and wealth in Safranbolu, and the town had a highly developed market place. Cinci Han in Çarşı, at the centre of the city, which is the indicator of old Safranbolu, has still protected its importance (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

Up to 1940s, the town had not changed and a new style had not been explored. At that time, the establishment of Karabük Iron and Steel industry had witnessed a rapid development and had started to become a new center of attraction. In this way, the risk of post-1950 period, which is rapid urbanization and unplanned development, had not experienced any distortion of Safranbolu. In this period, urbanization had been concentrated in Karabük and Safranbolu Kıranköy-Hastarla (www.sarfranbolu.gov.tr,

last visited on December 2010). Therefore, until 1940s, Safranbolu did not develop or changed and it was well preserved.

Indeed, after 1975, measures of protection were studied in Safranbolu by the public and corporate organizations. Before that period, there was a well protection in the town which independent of any measure (Ulukavak, 1999).

Safranbolu Architectural Assets and Folklore Week were organized by the Institute for Architectural History and Restoration of the Faculty of Architecture, Istanbul Technical University, and the Municipality of Safranbolu in 1975. This Cultural Week was beneficial for the visitors and locals of Safranbolu. These visitors were acquainted with the architecture of houses in Safranbolu and thee rich components of its culture (Günay, 1998). The locals noticed that these cultural resources should be protected. By the end of the week, several articles and photographs appeared in the press and so the event promoted a countrywide reflection (Günay, 1998).

This action was very important, because it was the first time in Turkey that an attempt to conserve a city was equally shared by academicians, administrators and the local of Safranbolu. It had been decided that Safranbolu should be conserved as a whole; its old buildings should be rehabilitated for contemporary use. As a result, these resources should be passed on the future generations as a significant product of civilization. (Günay, 1998). Especially, local governments gave efforts with cooperation of universities for preservation of the town (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

It was noted in this decision that the development plan approved in 1968 would not meet the requirements of conservation (Günay, 1998). The new development should be outside the present settlement areas and also there should be a Transitional Conservation Plan for this rehabilitation period. After these decisions, it is concluded that there should be more effective conservation plan and further research, documentation and planning for the town.

This organization about promotion of Safranbolu became more effective in 1976 and an exhibition on Safranbolu Houses attracted great interest. With these efforts, protection and preserving became important in the city and the buildings to be protected were selected, protection of roads and road structures, yard walls and natural appearances and control of infrastructures was suggested (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

In that year, Asmazlar City-House was bought by the Touring and Automobile Club of Turkey to adopt it into a guesthouse. In the same year, High Council for Historic Buildings and Monuments of the Ministry of Culture approved decision, which included legal, cultural and historical justifications, for conserving Safranbolu (Günay, 1998).

In 1981 “Safranbolu Conservation and Development Plan prepared by the Istanbul Technical University, Faculty of Architecture was submitted for approval to the Ministry of Culture.

In 1985, two regions of the city (Çarşı and Bağlar) were declared as urban historical sites and 1117 civil architectural and monumental buildings were taken under protection by the ministry of Culture. Then in 1991 reconstruction plan for the preservation of Safranbolu was accepted and was put in application (Aksoy & Kuş., 1999).

At the OWHC (Organization of World Heritage Cities) Meeting in Rhodes in 2003, Safranbolu was selected as one of the best-preserved cities among 20 cities in the World. There are many historical buildings in Turkey and some of them are scattered in another cities except for Safranbolu. The city of Safranbolu and its historical buildings, houses and culture are different. Safranbolu is very sumptuous with its historical houses and streets.

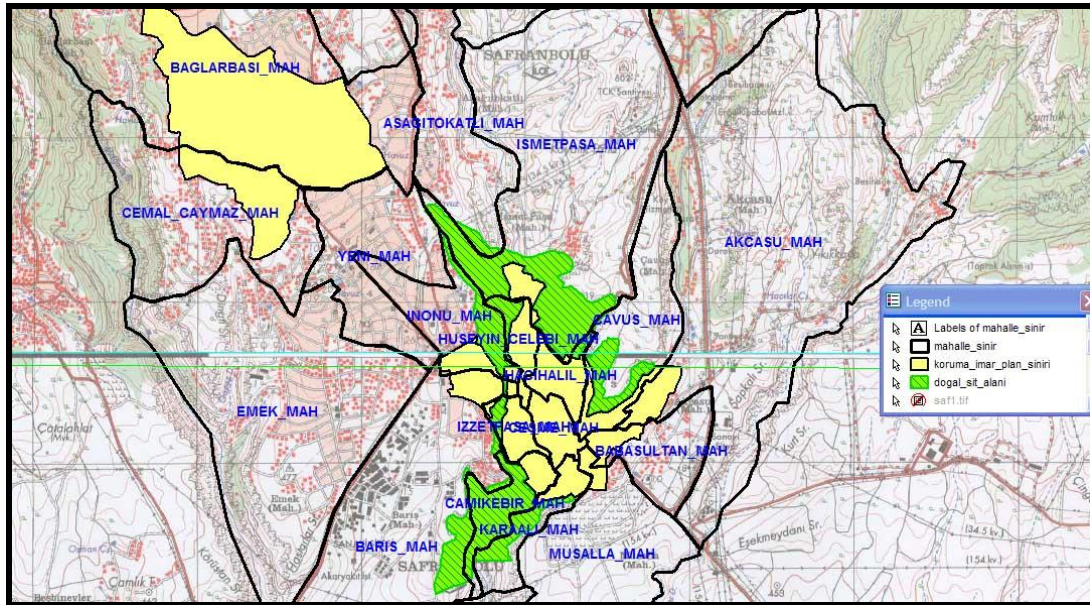


Figure 40: Conservation Areas and Natural Sites by Districts

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

6.4.1. Protected Areas in Safranbolu

The World Heritage List resulted from a global treaty that seeks to identify, recognize, and protect places that are of outstanding universal value; human made sites and natural sites. Human made sites are often cultural sites, or historic sites that include archaeological sites, ruins, or in act structures still in use today or adapted for new purposes (ICOMOS, 1993). Cultural sites contain the physical evidence of human creativity or serve as mute witnesses of major historical events (ICOMOS, 1993).

The Organization of World Heritage Cities (OWHC) was made up of 215 cities in which are located sites included in the UNESCO World Heritage List. In this list, seven cities are located in Africa, 38 in Latin America, 20 in Asia and the Pacific, 125 in Europe and North America and 25 in the Arab States and two of them are in Turkey, Safranbolu and Istanbul (www.ovpm.org last visited on).

The Council of Europe, which is the oldest international organization working towards legal standards, human rights, democratic development, the rule of law and cultural cooperation, believes that people should protect their own culture and their own heritage. Therefore, this council issued invitations to 500 small towns to help protection of these towns and received answers from 300 (Giritlioğlu, 1975).

As mentioned above, because of its traditional features and that it preserved its traditional buildings up to the present day, Safranbolu was taken to the “World Heritage List” by UNESCO in 1994.

Because of increasing global awareness of the important cultural and economic benefits of conservation, a decision was made formally in 1981. This decision aims to establish the Old Town of Safranbolu as a Conservation Area and, of the 1500 houses, 859 are registered as of architectural importance, as are a further 169 monuments. (Council of Europe, 1992)

As a result of this decision, a Conservation Plan on a 1:1000 scale had been prepared for the town and the prospects for development of the town by various Professors from the Istanbul Universities. It included detailed surveys of the major monuments and the measurement of many of the individual houses. Moreover, a list of tourist features had been prepared (Council of Europe, 1992)



Figure 41 Old Safranbolu Çarşı Region

Source: <http://wowturkey.com>, last visited on January 2011



Figure 42: Safranbolu-Çarşı Region

Source: www.safranbolu.gov.tr, last visited on January 2011



Figure 43 Old Safranbolu

Source: <http://wowturkey.com>, last visited on January 2011



Figure 44: Safranbolu

Source: www.safranbolu.gov.tr, last visited on January 2011

These pictures show that the spatial view of the town did not change too much. However, it can be understood that some regulations, restorations were made and the old settlement area was renewed.

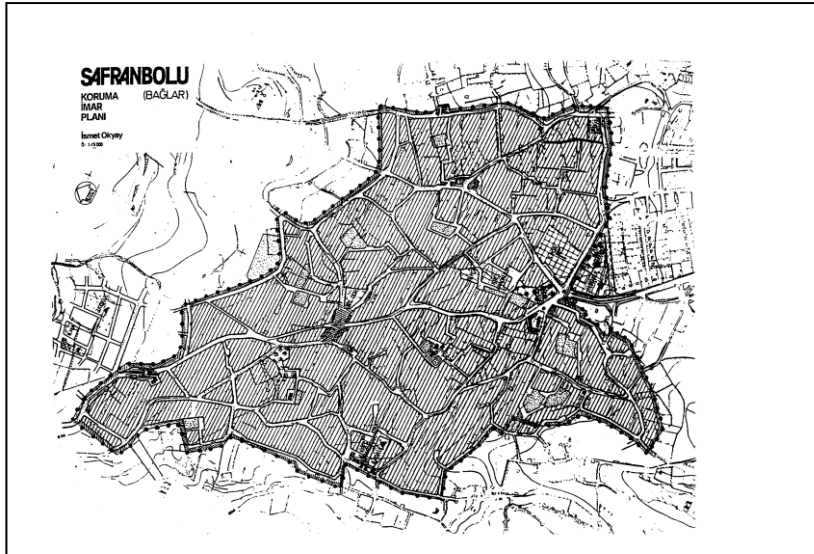


Figure 45: The Protected Areas in Safranbolu

Source: WHC Nomination Documentation, 1994

In this survey, it is analyzed that preserved and protected areas of the town according to data taken from The Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Data is classified according to district, name, group, decision date, and no and following table is formed. In this table, it is shown that there are the numbers of 30 protected areas, which are grouped as urban site, archaeological site, and natural protected area, in Karabük

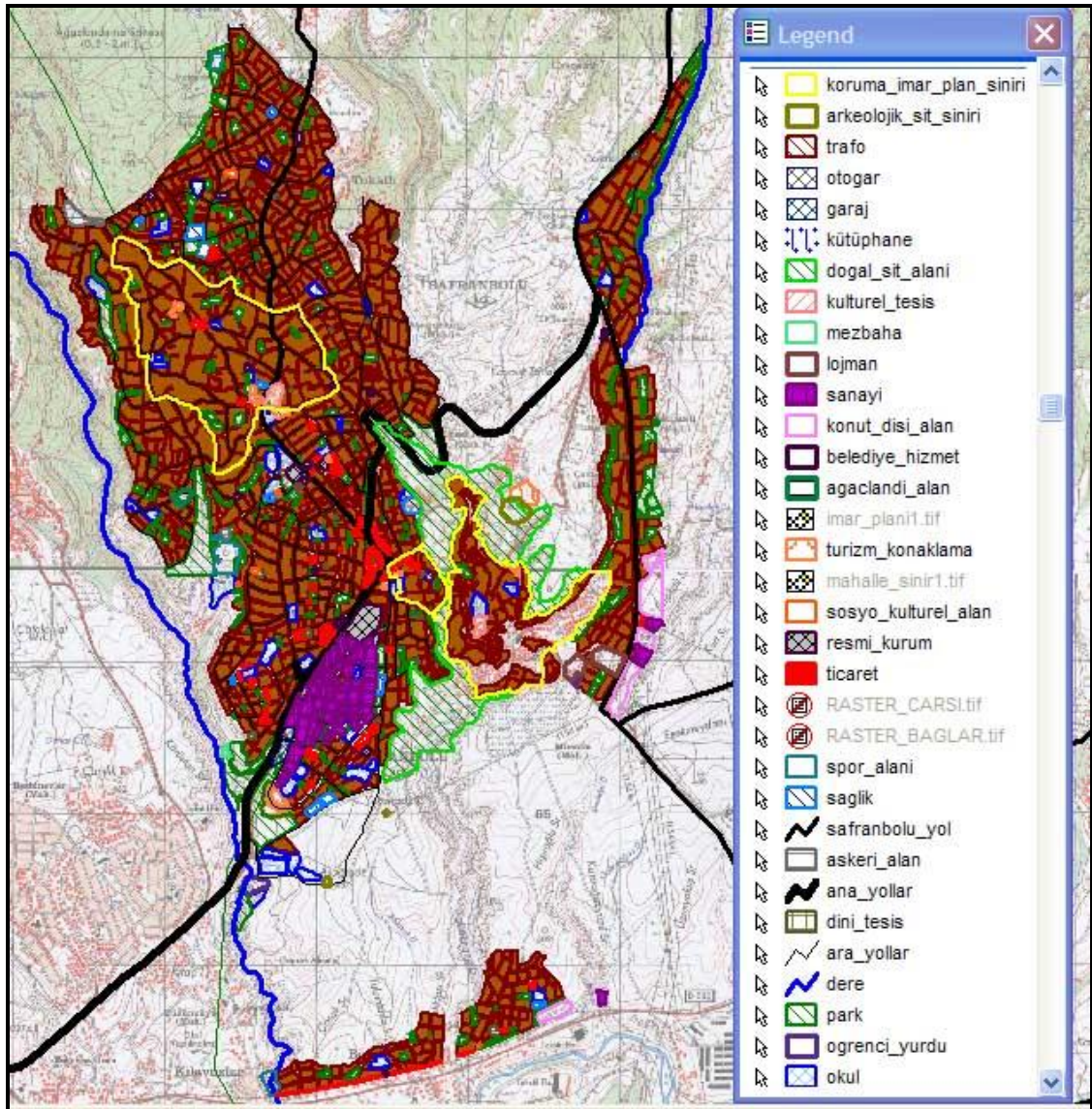


Figure 46: Land use and Protected Areas in the Town Center
 (Source: Adapted from Municipality of Safranbolu, 2009, Created by using GIS).

There are the numbers of nine protected areas in the city Center, seven of them are Archeological Site and only one of them is Urban Site and the Natural Protected area.

Table 29: Protected Areas and Archaeological Sites in Karabük

No	District	Name	Group	Type	Degree	Protection Board	Decision Date	Decision No
1	CENTER	Urban Site	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK	12.05.1996	4595
2	CENTER	Necropol I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Necropol	1	ANKARA_KBK	25.10.2004	104
3	CENTER	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	20.06.2002 and 29.09.2000	8007 and 7026
4	CENTER	3.Degree Natural Protected Area	Natural Protected Area	Natural Protected Area	3	ANKARA_KK	12.05.1996	4595
5	CENTER	Roman Period Necropol Area (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Necropol	1	ANKARA_KK	23.11.2001	7679
6	CENTER	Ademlik Necropol I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	21.06.2002	8034
7	CENTER	Necropol 3. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Necropol	3	ANKARA_KBK	03.06.2005	580
8	CENTER	Tumulus and architectural ruins from Roman Period	Archeological Site	Archeological Site		ANKARA_KK	15.06.2001	7379
9	CENTER	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	30.03.2001 and 05.05.2000	7253 and 6778
10	EFLANI	Arapoğlu Tümülüsü (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Tumulus	1	ANKARA_KK	16.02.1990	1097
11	EFLANI	Urban Site	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK	16.02.1990	1100
12	EFLANI	Mezarlık Tepe Tümülüsü (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Tumulus	1	ANKARA_KK	16.02.1990	1097
13	EFLANI	Esencik Höyüğü (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Mound	1	ANKARA_KK	16.02.1990	1097
14	EFLANI	Hıdırlı Mound (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Mound	1	ANKARA_KK	16.02.1990	1097
15	ESKIPAZAR	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	14.06.2002 and 29.09.2000	7997 and 7026
16	ESKIPAZAR	Hadrianapolis Ancient City I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	30.01.1990 and 14.02.1989	1063 and 674
17	ESKIPAZAR	Necropol	Archeological Site	Necropol		GEEAYK	10.09.1982	3778
18	ESKIPAZAR	I. and III. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1+3	ANKARA_KBK	03.06.2005	579

Source: www.kultur.gov.tr last visited on April 2010

Table 29: Protected Areas and Archaeological Sites in Karabük (Continued)

No	District	Name	Group	Type	Degree	Protection Board	Decision Date	Decision No
19	SAFRANBOLU	Tumulus and Tomb of the King (Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Tumulus		ANKARA_KK	19.11.1999	6493
20	SAFRANBOLU	Göztepe I & Göztepe II Tumulus	Archeological Site	Tumulus		ANKARA_KK	04.04.2003	8501
21	SAFRANBOLU	Tumulus (I. Degree of Archaeological Site)	Archeological Site	Tumulus	1	ANKARA_KK	09.07.1999	6340
22	SAFRANBOLU	Urban Site	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK	21.11.1997	5536
23	SAFRANBOLU	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KK	14.03.2003 and 16.02.1990	8451 and 1101
24	SAFRANBOLU	Natural Protected Areas	Natural Protected Area	Natural Protected Area		ANKARA_KK and TKTVKYK	27.11.1990 and 03.05.1985	1500 and 997
25	SAFRANBOLU	Yörük Village Urban Site	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK	14.08.2002	8140
26	SAFRANBOLU	Urban Site (Çarşı Place)	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK and TKTVKYK	27.11.1990 and 03.05.1985	1500 and 997
27	SAFRANBOLU	Urban Site (Bağlar Place)	Urban Site	Urban Site		ANKARA_KK and TKTVKYK	27.11.1990 and 03.05.1985	1500 and 997
28	SAFRANBOLU	Tumulus I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Tumulus	1	ANKARA_KK	15.06.2001 and 18.05.2001	7392 and 7339
29	YENICE	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KBK	03.06.2005	580
30	YENICE	I. Degree of Archaeological Site	Archeological Site	Archeological Site	1	ANKARA_KBK	09.09.2005 and 15.06.2001	868 and 7380

Source: www.kultur.gov.tr last visited on April.2010

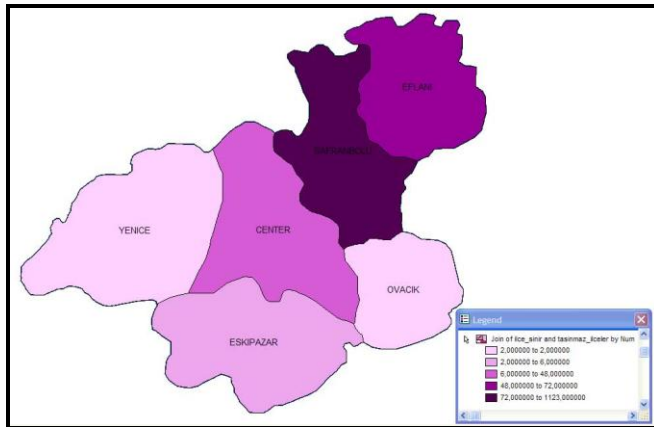


Figure 47: Monuments by Districts

(Created by using GIS, Adapted from www.kultur.gov.tr last visited on April 2010)

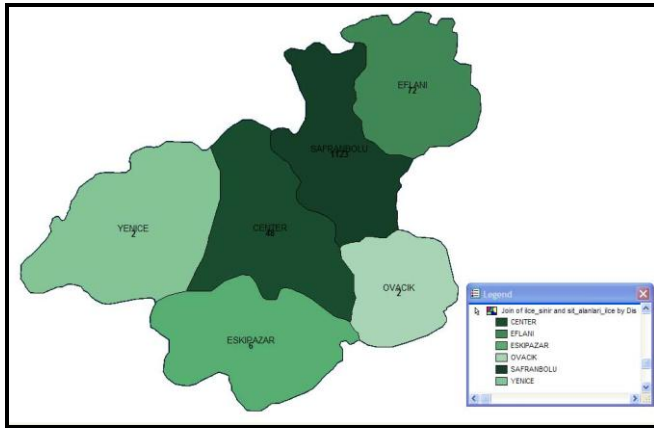


Figure 48: Protected Areas by Districts
 (Created by using GIS, Adapted from www.kultur.gov.tr last visited on April 2010)

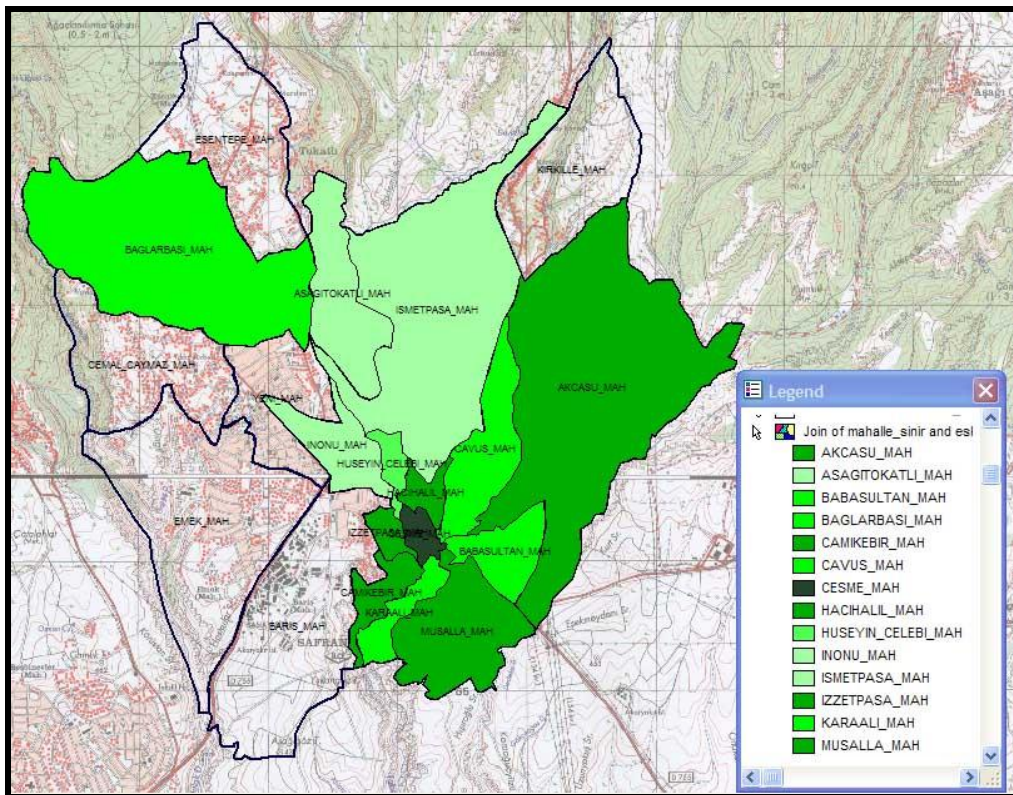


Figure 49: Registered Buildings by Districts
 (Created by using GIS, Adapted from www.kultur.gov.tr last visited on April 2010)

6.5. Conclusion

Safranbolu has important historical monuments and different cultural resources. This chapter describes these monuments and historical buildings and gives spatial analysis of the town.

Accordingly, it is concluded that Safranbolu has many cultural values, which are concentrated on Çeşme District. The old settlement of the town is called as Çarşı and this region is preserved by conservation plans. Therefore, this place is not affected from the negative impacts of tourism.

Tourism development in Safranbolu is also analyzed in this part. It is determined that the number of arrivals and nights spent increase rapidly between the years 1993 and 2008. However, the number of arrivals is more than the number of nights spent. This result shows that tourists prefer one-day trip and they do not want to stay more than one day in the town. Moreover, it is understood from the analyses that especially the citizens choose Safranbolu as cultural tourism destination.

Tourism planning approaches are explained and it is concluded that because of the conservation plans and politics, the town has been preserved well and the spatial structure of it has not changed too much. The old buildings are restored and used as tourism accommodations.

CHAPTER 7

TOURISM SURVEY ANALYSIS

7.1. Introduction

The purpose of this part is to determine perceptions of residents and tourists about tourism impacts in Safranbolu. It studies social, cultural and physical changes that have occurred in the town, because of tourism development. It focuses upon, firstly the problem of tourism development, its positive and negative effects, secondly the significance of tourism in terms of social, cultural, and physical development

7.2. Research Method

In order to search for tourism development in Safranbolu, the recommended research model is a survey in the town. Two different questionnaires were generated for this aim and they were applied to tourists visiting Safranbolu and residents of the town. First was generated composing of 13 questions to search thoughts of tourists about tourism development in the town. The other questionnaire including 22 questions was applied to Safranbolu residents.

These questionnaires have been applied in two different ways, one of them is the application by face-to-face, the other is the application by distribution of questionnaires to the tourism facilities, which are the City Historical Museum, Tourism Information Office, hotels, and pensions. Face to face application were usually made to the different

places of Safranbolu, the industrial area (Barış District), the residential area (Bağlar) and new center of the city (Yenimahalle District), the old center of the city (Çukur Area).

The application of the questionnaires took place at especially at the workplaces around the Çeşme, Çarşı, Barış and Yeni Districts.

The questionnaires have been prepared in Turkish language in the spring of 2008 and applied in the summer of that year. They involve both open format questions, which give an opportunity to express he or she chooses, and closed format questions, which include multiple-choice answers.

Tourist questionnaire was applied to domestic tourists visiting Safranbolu in the summer of 2008. It contains preferences of tourists about the town, whether a change have been lived in the town because of tourism and the reasons of visiting it. On the other hand, residents' questionnaire contains views of local people about tourist and tourism, and includes detailed questions about social, physical and cultural changes in the town.

Both of the questionnaires, for tourists and residents, include two group of questions; the first group includes the demographic information about tourists and residents as age, sex, nationality, education level, birth place, occupation. The second group is aims to determine the effects of tourism development in the town and to investigate the results of these effects over tourists and residents.

93 tourists and 100 residents have answered the questions and they gave their opinions about tourism development in Safranbolu. According to this survey, the answers are reported as following data. The answers are taken totally and used the SPSS programme to analyze these data. The questions are given at the Appendix and the analyses are shown at the tables bellow.

7.3. Tourist Questionnaire

First of the analysis are done for tourists visiting Safranbolu and the first table shows the ages of the tourists. Total 92 tourists answered the questions and there is only one “not answered” among 93 data. It can be reported that 51,6 % of tourists visiting Safranbolu are women and 48.4 % are men.

The question about respondent’s age has been divided into five age groups. According to this, 40, 9 % of tourists pointed out they are between 21 and 30 years old, and 21,5 % of them are between 31 and 40 years old. The highest percentage for the age distribution is for the range of 21-30 years old. The results indicate that tourists who visited Safranbolu are young and the middle-aged tourists generally do not come to the town.

Table 30: The Ages of Tourists visiting Safranbolu

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 (invalid)	1	1,1	1,1
1 (less than 20 years old)	7	7,5	8,6
2 (21-30 years old)	38	40,9	49,5
3 (31-40 years old)	20	21,5	71,0
4 (41-50 years old)	13	14,0	84,9
5 (more than 51 years old)	14	15,1	100,0
Total	93	100,0	

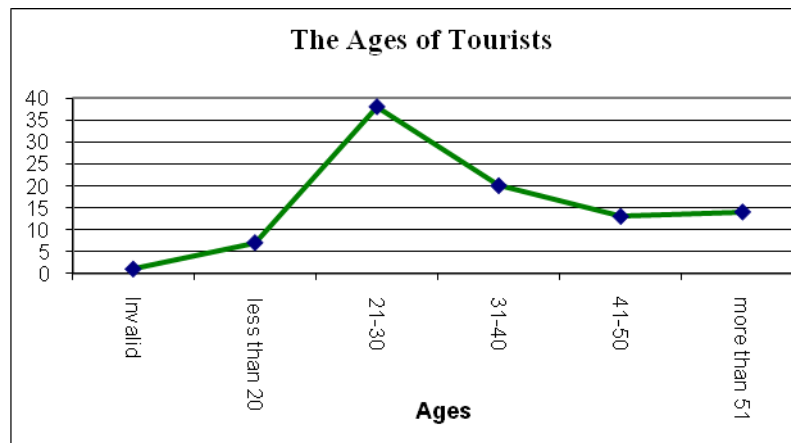


Figure 50: The Ages of Tourists visiting Safranbolu

The question that asked the respondent's birthplaces is prepared to explore where tourists come from. The answers are classified according to 81 cities of Turkey. In this context, it is resulted that 21,5 % of tourists are born in Istanbul, 5.4 are born in Trabzon, and Düzce and 4.3 % are born in Ankara

Table 31: Education

Education	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
3 (Primary education)	6	6,5	6,5
4 (High school graduated)	24	25,8	32,3
5 (University)	63	67,7	100,0
Total	93	100,0	

To determine the education level of tourists, the last graduated school was asked. The answers given to this question are classified into five education groups. The education levels of the respondent are reported that 67.7 % of tourists have university degrees, 25.8 % of them are graduated from high school and 6 % of them from a primary school. (See Table: 29). These answers give us a result that tourists visited Safranbolu has a certain level of education and especially university-graduated tourists have been visiting the city.

The occupation distributions of the sample data are shown in the following table. The occupational groups are classified into ten main groups, which are education (teacher), health sector (doctor, nurse) public authority (officer), trade, architect-engineer, tourism, not working, students, economic administrative sciences (law-business), and workers.

The majority of tourists, that is 30,1 % of respondents, indicated that they are engineers or architects. The other biggest group is "education (the teachers)" with the share of 15.1 %. Tourists who answered the question as "I'm not working" are at the rate of 10, 8 % and in spite of these results, workers in the tourism sector remains only at a rate of 6.5 %.

Table 32: Occupational Group

Occupational Group	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 Education (Teacher)	14	15,1	15,1
2 Health Sector (Doctor, Nurse)	7	7,5	22,6
3 Public Authority (Officer)	1	1,1	23,7
4 Trade	9	9,7	33,3
5 Architect-engineer	28	30,1	63,4
6 Tourism	6	6,5	69,9
7 Not Working	10	10,8	80,6
8 Students	10	10,8	91,4
9 Economic Administrative Sciences (Law-Business)	7	7,5	98,9
10 Workers	1	1,1	100,0
Total	93	100,0	

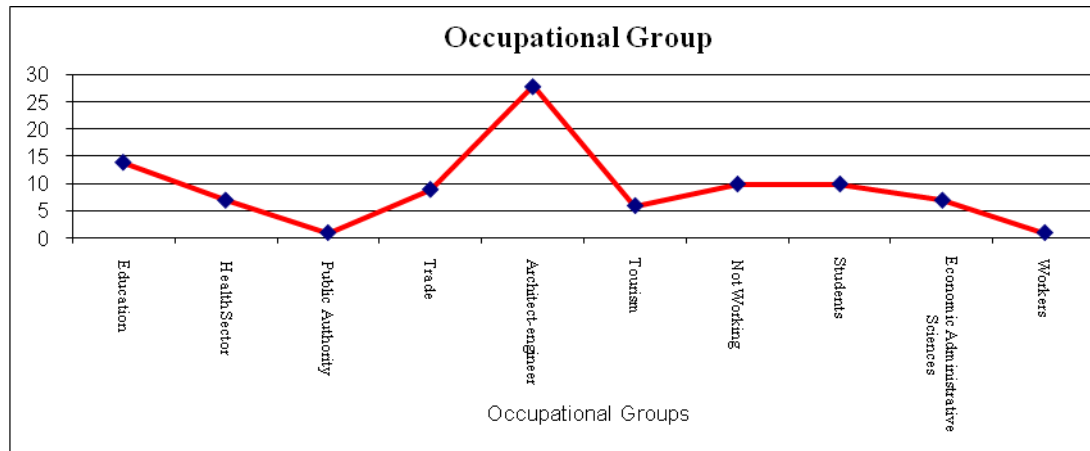


Figure 51: Occupational Group of Tourists

According to the survey, while 60, 2 % of the tourists are expressed that they have been visited Safranbolu for the first time, only 39, 8 % of them indicate that they have been visiting Safranbolu for the second time.

The following question is asked “Since the first arrival in the town of Safranbolu, what has changed in terms of tourism sector?”. The research results, which are collected from 37 tourists visited the town more than once, are evaluated, and listed below.

Table 33: The changes in Safranbolu

The changes in Safranbolu	Frequency	Percent
1- Accommodation units have increased	16	% 43,24
2- Eating-drinking units have increased	13	% 35,13
3- The number of tourists has increased, cultural development has been experienced	15	% 40,54
4- Transportation opportunities have increased	8	% 21,62
5- The quality of service sector has increased	4	% 10,81
6- Environmental regulations have been done in the traditional architectural areas	16	% 43,24
7- Social opportunities have increased	7	% 18,91
8- Cultural (traditions, customs) diffusions have been lived	3	% 8,11
9- Settlement pattern has changed and it has been corrupted	3	% 8,11
10- There have been negative changes in local people	1	% 2,7
11- There has not been any change.	4	% 10,81
12- Other	1	% 2,7

Accordingly, 43,24 % of tourists indicate that accommodation units have increased in the town and, environmental regulations have been done in the traditional architectural areas. About 40,54 % of tourists specify that the number of tourists visiting Safranbolu has increased, and cultural development has been experienced. 35,13 % of tourists answer this question as the number of eating-drinking units has increased.

It is observed from Table 31 that the number of tourists who believes that “there have been negative changes in local people” and “cultural diffusions have been lived” is very few.

The question is asked as; ‘What is your purpose of visiting Safranbolu district?’. The choices of answers to this question are also classified in Table 32. The most preferred answer for this question is “Tourist trips” (for tourist activity), which has 75.26 % share. “I interested in traditional architecture and settlement pattern” is second option preferred by 18.27 % of tourists. 13.97 % of the respondents answer this question as “in order to visit relatives”.

Table 34: Purpose of Visit

Purpose of visit	Frequency	Percent
In order to visit relatives	13	% 13,97
Tourist trips (Tourist activity)	70	% 75,26
I had previously came, I came again because of loving to much	12	% 12,90
I came for business purposes	7	% 7,52
My family lives here	5	% 5,37
I came for education	6	% 6,45
I'm interested in traditional architecture and settlement pattern	17	% 18,27
In order to taste the local dishes	7	% 7,52
I have come up with tourism tour	5	% 5,37
Other	0	0

There are valid 92 answers, which are given to the question of how did you decided to come to Safranbolu. According to this, 36,56 % of tourists agree with the option of “I came individually due to wondering about the district”. It is indicated that 23 % of tourists prefer “I came after investigating from the internet, television, the newspaper” as the second choice. 21, 50 % of visitors answer this question as “I came with friendly advice”.

Table 35: Decision for visiting the town

Decision for coming	Frequency	Percent
On my way, I visited when I was passing	18	% 19,35
I came with friendly advice	20	% 21,50
I came after investigating from the Internet, television, the newspaper	22	% 23,65
I came with Package tours	10	% 10,75
I came individually due to wondering about the district	34	% 36,56
I came for education or for business purposes	11	% 11,83
Other	2	% 2,15

In order to search the most common view about the features of the town and beauties, the tourists are asked a question about the favorite features of the town. The responses to this question are shown in Table 33. According to these answers, “Traditional architectural features” is the most proffered option, which is about 96.8 %. About 60, 21 % of respondents prefer the option of “Natural beauties of the town”, and 33, 3% of

them indicate “settlement pattern” as the most favorite features of the town. Local foods and folkloric values are the other preferred answers for this question.

Table 36: Favorite features of the town

Favorite Features	Frequency	Percent
Traditional architectural features	90	% 96,77
Natural beauties of the town	56	% 60,21
Folkloric values of the town (tradition, customs)	22	% 23,65
The festival, concert activities of the town	0	0
Local food	20	% 21,50
Natural vegetation	11	% 11,83
Climate	8	% 8,60
Local people’s attitude	16	% 17,20
Settlement pattern	31	% 33,3
Other	0	0

The following question is asked as; “What are there characteristics of Safranbolu that you do not like?”. The research results, which are collected from 93 tourists, are classified according to frequency and percentage of the features and shown in the following table.

In this manner, 21,5 % of tourists indicate that they do not like service opportunities of the town. “Inadequate transportation opportunities” is second option preferred by 19, 35 % of tourists. The 16, 13 % of tourists state the lack of accommodation facilities and inadequate, poor quality food-drink units are other negative features of Safranbolu.

Table 37: Negative features of the Town

Negative features	Frequency	Percent
Lack of accommodation facilities	15	% 16,13
Poor service opportunities (post office, hospital, parks)	20	% 21,5
Tourist facilities have insufficient staff and services	11	% 11,83
Inadequate transportation opportunities	18	% 19,35
Inadequate and poor quality food-drinks units.	15	% 16,13
Unsuitable climate	6	% 6,45
The negative attitude of the local people	2	% 2,15
Other	5	% 5,37

7.4. Residents' Questionnaire

Residents' questionnaire determines what the effects of tourism development are, and the results of this part are given below. The questions for residents differ from the questions asked to the tourists, because local people sense the changes of the city a little more than the tourists do. Therefore, the questions are classified with four main categories as, the personal information, tourism development, cultural changes and social opportunities.

Accordingly, the answers for the distribution of the workplaces in the city classified at the following table. About 81 % of the residents indicate that their offices are in Safranbolu and 11 % of them answer as outside and 9 % of them do not answer the question.

Table 38: The Workplaces of Respondents

The Name of the Districts	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Blank	21	21,0	21,0
1- Atatürk	1	1,0	22,0
2- Yeni	14	14,0	36,0
3- Karaali	3	3,0	39,0
4- Bağlarbaşı	3	3,0	42,0
5- Hüseyinçelebi	4	4,0	46,0
6- Esentepe	1	1,0	47,0
8- Cemalçaymaz	1	1,0	48,0
10- İsmetpaşa	3	3,0	51,0
12- Babasultan	2	2,0	53,0
14- Çeşme	36	36,0	89,0
15- Emek	2	2,0	91,0
17- Çavuş	2	2,0	93,0
20- Barış	7	7,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	

The answers given to the districts of workplaces indicate that 36 % respondents are working in the Çeşme District, 14 % of them in Yeni District and 7 % in the Barış District. 21 % of residents do not answer this question.

The following question shown in Table 37 is about the distribution of the professions of the respondents. The highest percentage for this question is trade with 35 %. The number of 20 residents indicates that they are working at the tourism sector. Only the number of 10 residents explains that they work at the industrial sector and the number of nine residents is at the public sector.

Table 39: The Distribution of Professions

The Group of Professions	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Blank	3	3,0	3,0
1- Industry sector (manufacturing, production, factory)	10	10,0	13,0
2- Tourism sector (hotels, motels, travel agents, guides)	20	20,0	33,0
3- Trade	35	35,0	68,0
4- Public (State Officers)	9	9,0	77,0
6- Agriculture-Stockbreeding	6	6,0	83,0
7- Health	2	2,0	84,0
8- Banking	7	7,0	91,0
9- Education	3	3,0	94,0
10- Information-Technology	2	2,0	96,0
11- Construction	3	3,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	

When the questionnaires for residents are analyzed, it was seen that 68 % of the respondents are males and 31 % are females. To analyze the distribution of the ages of the people that participated to the survey, the ages of the residents were asked and the following table is formed. The question is divided into five age groups as, ‘less than 20’ years, between “21 and 30” years, between “31 and 40” years, between “41 and 50” years, and over 51 years. The percentages in these groups are respectively 6, 39, 23, 22, 9.

Table 40: The Ages of Residents

Graduated School	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- invalid	1	1,0	1,0
1- less than 20 years old	6	6,0	7,0
2- 21-30 years old	39	39,0	46,0
3- 31-40 years old	23	23,0	69,0
4- 41-50 years old	22	22,0	91,0
5- more than 51 years old	9	9,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	

The answers given to the marital status indicate that 58 % of respondents are married, 40 % of them are single, and only 2 % are divorced.

The answers to the question about the birthplace of respondents are shown in the following table. According to this table, the number of two residents does not answer the question, and 42 % point out their birthplaces is Karabük and the number of 31 residents indicates that their birthplace is Safranbolu. Respondents specify the other provinces that are Bartın, Ankara and Zonguldak rarely as the answer of this question.

With reference to this result, it can be said that the external or internal migration is not too much in Safranbolu, and generally, indigenous people live in the town.

Table 41: Birthplaces of Residents

Provinces	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Invalid	2	2,0	2,0
1- Zonguldak	3	3,0	5,0
2- Karabük	42	42,0	47,0
3- Safranbolu	31	31,0	78,0
4- Bartın	7	7,0	85,0
5- Ankara	3	3,0	88,0
7- Others	12	12,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	

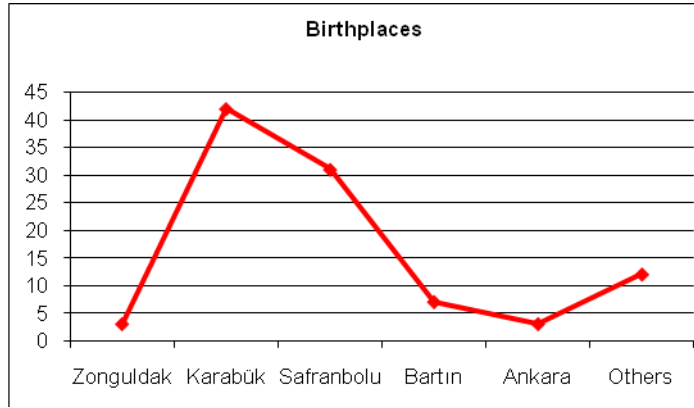


Figure 52: Birthplaces of Residents

The education level of residents participated the survey is determined in Table 39. Accordingly, the answers indicate that 40 % of respondents are graduated from high school, 30 % from primary school, and 40 % have university degrees.

Table 42: Education Level

Graduated School	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
3- Primary education	30	30,0	30,0
4- High school graduated	40	40,0	70,0
5- University	30	30,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	

It is determined that the number of 39 residents (among 95 valid one) indicates their occupation as workers. The number of 11 people answers this question as public authority, only ten of them specify their occupation as economic-administrative sciences, and the same number of people states that they are not working.

Table 43: Occupational Group

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 Invalid	5	5,0	5,0	5,0
1 Education (Teacher)	6	6,0	6,0	11,0
2 Health Sector (Doctor, Nurse)	2	2,0	2,0	13,0
3 Public Authority (Officer)	11	11,0	11,0	24,0
4 Trade	5	5,0	5,0	29,0
5 Architect-engineer	2	2,0	2,0	31,0
6 Tourism	3	3,0	3,0	34,0
7 Not Working	10	10,0	10,0	44,0
8 Students	7	7,0	7,0	51,0
9 Economic Administrative Sciences (Law-Business)	10	10,0	10,0	61,0
10 Workers	39	39,0	39,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	100,0	

Of those who attended the questionnaire, 17 % live in the Yeni and Emek Districts, 10 % live in Cemalcaymaz District, 9 % live in Aşağıtokatlı District. The number of 32 of residents does not answer this question.

Table 44: Distribution of Living Places

The name of Districts	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 Blank	32	32,0	32,0	32,0
1 Atatürk	1	1,0	1,0	33,0
2 Yeni	17	17,0	17,0	50,0
4 Bağlarbaşı	7	7,0	7,0	57,0
5 Hüseyinçelebi	1	1,0	1,0	58,0
6 Esentepe.	2	2,0	2,0	60,0
8 Cemalcaymaz	10	10,0	10,0	70,0
13 Aşağıtokatlı	9	9,0	9,0	79,0
14 Çeşme	3	3,0	3,0	82,0
15 Emek	17	17,0	17,0	99,0
20 Barış	1	1,0	1,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	100,0	

Table 45: Education Level and Residence

Graduated School	Districts											Total
	0	1	2	4	5	6	8	13	14	15	20	0
3- Primary education	17	0	4	0	0	1	0	5	0	3	0	30
4- High school graduated	5	0	9	5	0	1	4	4	2	9	1	40
5- University	10	1	4	2	1	0	6	0	1	5	0	30
Total	32	1	17	7	1	2	10	9	3	17	1	100

Districts: 1- Atatürk, 2- Yeni, 3- Karaali, 4- Bağlarbaşı, 5- Hüseyinçelebi, 6- Esentepe, 7- Camikebir, 8- Cemalcaymaz, 9- Hacıhalil, 10- İsmetpaşa, 11- Musalla, 12- Babasultan, 13- Aşağıtokatlı, 14- Çeşme, 15- Emek, 16- Kirkille, 17- Çavuş, 18- İzzetpaşa, 19- Akçasu, 20- Barış

In order to search education level by residences, following cross table is created. In this manner, it is seen that high school graduated people are the most in Yeni and Emek Districts. According to this analyze, people graduated from primary school live mostly in Aşağıtokatlı District; in spite of university-graduated people who live in Emek and Cemalcaymaz Districts.

Table 46: The workplaces and Living Places

Workplaces	Living Places											Total
	0	1	2	4	5	6	8	13	14	15	20	0
0 Blank	12	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	21
1 Atatürk	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2 Yeni	1	0	6	1	0	0	1	3	0	2	0	14
3 Karaali	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
4 Bağlarbaşı	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
5 Hüseyinçelebi	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
6 Esentepe	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
8 Cemalcaymaz	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
10 İsmetpaşa	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	3
12 Babasultan	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
14 Çeşme	5	0	7	3	0	0	7	5	3	6	0	36
15 Emek	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
17 Çavuş	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
20 Barış	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	7
Total	32	1	17	7	1	2	10	9	3	17	1	100

Districts: 1- Atatürk, 2- Yeni, 3- Karaali, 4- Bağlarbaşı, 5- Hüseyinçelebi, 6- Esentepe, 7- Camikebir, 8- Cemalcaymaz, 9- Hacıhalil, 10- İsmetpaşa, 11- Musalla, 12- Babasultan, 13- Aşağıtokatlı, 14- Çeşme, 15- Emek, 16- Kirkille, 17- Çavuş, 18- İzzetpaşa, 19- Akçasu, 20- Barış

The relationship between the workplaces and the living places of residents is shown in Table 46. According to this table, there is not any remarkable relationship between the living places and the workplaces. In this manner, it could be said that a few residents work at their living places.

The residents were asked how long they had been living in Safranbolu and the answers are shown below. In this table, it is determined that the most of people have been living in Safranbolu since birth. Among the number of 95 valid answers, 31 % specify that they have been living in the town for more than 10 years.

Table 47: Living Time in Safranbolu

Years	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Invalid	5	5,0	5,0	5,0
1- (0-3 years)	6	6,0	6,0	11,0
2- (3-5 years)	1	1,0	1,0	12,0
3- (5-10 years)	5	5,0	5,0	17,0
4- More than 10 years	31	31,0	31,0	48,0
5- Since birth	52	52,0	52,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	100,0	

The question that asked the respondent's working status is divided into seven groups as, private business owner, private business employees, public employees, not working group, retired, student, and other. According to this classification, the private business employees have the biggest share, which is 38 %. The private business owner is the second preferred option for this question. The number of 15 people is at the group of public employees and retired, students follow this group with the number of nine and eight people orderly.

Table 48: Working Status

Working Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Invalid	5	5,0	5,0	5,0
1- Private Business owner	21	21,0	21,0	26,0
2- Private business employees	38	38,0	38,0	64,0
3- Public employees	15	15,0	15,0	79,0
4- Not Working	4	4,0	4,0	83,0
5- Retired	9	9,0	9,0	92,0
6- Student	8	8,0	8,0	100,0
7- Other	0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Total	100	100,0	100,0	

In order to determine the frequency of tourism and related jobs in the town, the residents were asked description of their works. The answers given to this question indicate that 27 % are working at the other jobs that are not described in this question, 18 % are working at restaurants, bar, cafe. The number of 35 people does not answer the question.

Table 49: Description of Work

Job Description	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0- Invalid	35	35,0	35,0	35,0
1- Accommodation Units	4	4,0	4,0	39,0
2- Travel Agency	2	2,0	2,0	41,0
3- Museum, historical places keeper or employee	3	3,0	3,0	44,0
4- Tourism Information Office	4	4,0	4,0	48,0
5- Guidance	1	1,0	1,0	49,0
7- Food-drink units (restaurants, bar, cafe)	18	18,0	18,0	67,0
9- Gift items manufacturer or vendor	6	6,0	6,0	73,0
11- Other	27	27,0	27,0	100,0
Total	100	100,0	100,0	

When they were asked whether there have been any changes in tourism sector in your town for 5-10 years, their answers were categorized as follows. A big share (88 %) of people agree about a tourism development has been lived in the town.

The other question, which was whether these changes had been useful, was asked to respondents who indicate that there have been lived changes in tourism sector. The most of them (85 %) think that tourism is useful for development of the town. It could be said that residents are happy about tourism development in the town.

The question is asked as; ‘What are the benefits of tourism to the town that you think?’ and the answers are classified in Table 49. The most preferred answer for this question is “The investments have been increased in the town”, which has 48 % share. About 42 % of residents point out that “The number of workplace has increased and workforce has been provided”. Similarly, 35 % of people agree about the infrastructure, transportation facilities have been developed, and 32 % of them claim that new residential areas have been located in the town.

Table 50: Positive Effects of Tourism

Benefits of tourism	Frequency	Percent
The infrastructure and transportation facilities have been developed	35	35,0
The number of workplace has increased and workforce has been provided	42	42,0
Out-migration has decreased	21	21,0
There has been in-migration to the town from other places	15	15,0
New residential areas have been located in the town	32	32,0
The investments have been increased in the town	48	48,0
There has not been any contribution of tourism to the town	6	6,0
Other	4	4,0

The following table shows the percents and frequencies of answers, which are given to the question of negative effects of tourism. According to this, 44 % of respondents agree with the option of “Housing prices have increased” since tourism increased in the town. About 39 % of them claim that there is not any harmful effect of tourism. On the other hand, 22 % of residents believe that tourism caused morally harmful effects and 19 % specify that there exist difficult living conditions.

Table 51: Negative Effects of Tourism

Harmful Effects	Frequency	Percent
There exists a decrease in our cultural values	5	5,0
It is harmful to the environment	9	9,0
There has been too much migration from outside to the town	7	7,0
Housing prices have increased	44	44,0
There exist difficult living conditions.	19	19,0
There have been morally negative effects	22	22,0
The local community did not benefit from tourism	15	15,0
There is not any harmful effect of tourism	39	39,0
Other	1	1,0

It is explored whether any cultural changes have been lived in the town because of tourism. About 64 % of residents think that cultural changes have been lived and, 44 % of them indicate that these changes are positive for the town and only 27 % of them think that they are negative.

In order to determine which cultural changes have been lived in the town, the residents were asked their thoughts about following cultural changes. The answers given to this question indicate that 38 % of respondents agree with the option of “There have been an opportunity to get to know different cultures”. The number of 34 residents indicates that because of tourism development, the region's cultural values (tradition, customs, units...) are recognized in the world and in Turkey. About 29 residents answer that tourism helps protecting cultural values of Safranbolu. Only the number of 14 residents indicates, “There has been a breakdown in terms of religion and morality”.

Table 52: Cultural Effects of Tourism

Cultural Changes	Frequency	Percent
The language used in the area has changed	8	8,0
Specific eating-drinking habits have changed	7	7,0
The region's traditions and customs has changed	12	12,0
There has been a breakdown in terms of religion and morality	14	14,0
There have been an opportunity to get to know different cultures	38	38,0
The region's cultural values (tradition, customs, units,..) are recognized in the world and in Turkey	34	34,0
Cultural values of Safranbolu have been protected	29	29,0
Other	1	1,0

The following question shown in Table 52 is about social opportunities, which are provided by tourism development. The number of 71 residents answers that activities such as festivals, exhibitions, bazaars have increased in the town. About 46 % of them indicate that concert, festival programs have started to be made in the town because of tourism.

Table 53: Social Effects of Tourism

Social changes	Frequency	Percent
The number of cinema, the theater has been an increase in visual arts such as	20	20,0
Concert, festival programs have started to be made	46	46,0
Activities such as festivals, exhibitions, bazaars have increased	71	71,0
Possibility of social reinforcement increased (park, children's playground, hospital...)	17	17,0
There has not been any contribution to the city	3	3,0
Other	11	11,0

The question, which is asked the respondent's suggestions about getting more tourists to the town, contains eleven options. The answers are classified in the following table. In this context, it is resulted that 53 % of respondents point out that more promotion should be undertaken and 52 % of them indicate that environmental cleaning services and infrastructure should be increased. The number of 51 respondents suggests that accommodations and social opportunities should be increased and the number of 40

residents believe that transportation facilities should be increased and about same number of respondents answers that traditional houses should be used having been restored.

Table 54: Suggestions about Tourism Development in the Town

Suggestions	Frequency	Percent
Accommodations should be increased	51	51,0
Social opportunities should be increased	51	51,0
Transportation facilities should be increased	40	40,0
Educational opportunities must be increased	33	33,0
Environmental cleaning services and infrastructure should be increased	52	52,0
Five-star hotels and luxurious eating-drinking facilities should be opened	31	31,0
There should be large shopping centers should be built	17	17,0
Traditional houses should be used having been restored	39	39,0
Crafts should be encouraged	32	32,0
More promotion should be undertaken	53	53,0
Other	1	1,0

Due to being a new sector in the town, the local people are not ready to service visitors and tourism opportunities are not enough to supply this new existing demand. There are insufficient tourism establishments and infrastructure in the town.

7.5. Conclusion

This part aims to search impressions of tourists and residents about tourism development According to this survey, it is determined that both of tourists and residents are pleased for tourism development in the town. Cultural tourism is very important in the town and it is understood from the survey that especially educated people prefer to visit Safranbolu. This result proves that mostly educated and conscious tourists choose cultural tourism.

Tourists indicate that they select Safranbolu because of its archeological values. However, the residents believe that because of tourism, the town has changed and housing prices have increased. Consequently, it is determined that the residents demand from the government to encourage more investments to the town and promote its tourism potentials to the world.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

The main departure point of this thesis has been the argument that Safranbolu has changed over the years due to tourism development. However, it has not influenced negatively because, it has been well protected by conservation plans and projects. In this context, the study has assessed possibilities for creating a better-planned tourism destination in Safranbolu. Therefore, detailed economic, social and spatial analyses, and questionnaires with tourists and residents were carried out.

In the first chapters of this study, tourism is explored as a social theory and it has been investigated and evaluated. The relationship between tourism and other sectors is examined and the concept of tourism is defined in a variety of theoretical perspectives. It has been argued that tourism is not only an economic sector but also it is a social and complex concept and it is closely related with other sectors.

Tourism, which is, in fact, a very old concept and emerged with travel motivations of people, has taken its accurate meaning after the industrial revolution. Maslow, Crandall, Kabanoff, and Chadwick explain these motivations with different ways. However, many of the social theorists claim that tourism emerges with the motivation of “escaping from daily routine” and “experiencing new things”.

In this thesis, it is argued that tourism as an important economic and social phenomenon has negative and positive impacts over the society. When tourism develops in a destination, it will cause some important changes in that area. First, as an industry,

tourism constitutes the products and services of other sectors. Therefore, with tourism development in a country, the productions and consumptions will rise and there will be experienced economic revivals. Thus, there will be economic profit; especially revenues, incomes, job opportunities, new investments, productions will increase.

It is assumed that besides these positive economic benefits of tourism, there are some negative effects like inflation. The development of tourism in a region causes an increase in land prices and leads to the formation of land rents in that area. Moreover, tourism creates seasonal jobs to people and lower wage jobs emerge so it does not provide regular income.

Similarly, tourism has some socio-cultural effects over the community. It is assumed that the development of tourism will improve the quality of life for the local population, provide an opportunity for a community to produce traditional art forms, to maintain their local values, traditions and heritage. It can cause *cultural exchange* between people and increase education of local people. However, tourism can also cause migrations to tourism destinations and overcrowding in resorts. Moreover, regions can become over-dependent on tourism, so traditional activities may decline. It can cause *cultural imperialism* and *assimilation* of the weaker culture and social and cultural changes in the host communities; that is the host community is often affected from culture of the visitors.

Tourism has also some positive and negative effects on the physical environment. Many social scientists explain that tourism pollutes the environment, destroys the ecosystem, and causes the depletion of natural resources. However, tourism can also encourage environmental and infrastructure regulations. Ecotourism activities and sustainable planning methods can provide the protection of the environment while being used environmental resources for tourism.

This thesis searches whether Safranbolu has changed economic, social, physically (environmental) and culturally, due to tourism development, especially after entering

Cultural Heritage list in 1994. In this manner, it has been designed in a perspective to understand these changes, which prove that Safranbolu has gained a new image. In doing so, tourism potentials of the town such as natural beauties and cultural values, are determined and so sustainable tourism planning policies are suggested.

As mentioned before, tourism has been affecting many aspects of social, economic and cultural life of a settlement. In this thesis, the growing importance of cultural values and historical areas in tourism planning has been questioned. It explores the public awareness of the residents in Safranbolu to protect historical monuments, cultural values and traditional resources of the town. Moreover, the relationship between tourists and local people has been searched, and positive and negative impressions of the people about promoting their settlements are investigated.

Accordingly, the findings of this study are summarized as follow:

Due to the presence on the major transport networks, Safranbolu has been an important city and a major cradle of civilization since old times. The district reflects of the influence of civilizations; especially Roman, Byzantine, Seljuk and Ottoman Empire. Therefore, it has many architectural monuments.

After being a town of Karabük in 1995, the town has developed and population of the town has risen. Accordingly, the years between 1990 and 2009, the population of Karabük has decreased, when the population of Safranbolu has increased. The population of Turkey between the same years increases by 28, 48 % and it is close to the growth rate of Safranbolu. In both Karabük and Safranbolu, urban population is more than rural population according to the results of 2009 Population Census. It is clear that the migration has occurred from rural to urban settlements in Karabük in between the years 1990 and 2009.

The share of population is examined in Karabük and its districts for the years 1990, 2000, 2007, 2008 and 2009. In all theses years, the most crowded district of Karabük is Center, and Safranbolu follow this district. According to the study, the population of

Safranbolu increases by years when the population of other districts decreases. The reason of this increase can be result of rising in employment opportunities and economic development of the town.

Karabük was an important city of Turkey because it was one of the major steel producers of Turkey. Karabük Iron and Steel Factories supplied very important job opportunity to local community, who was earning their living from the production activities of iron and steel and sub sectors. However, after privatization of Karabük Iron and Steel Factories, there have been the unemployment and migration problems in the settlement. Therefore, there existed an important migration from Karabük to other cities.

According to the results of 2000 Population Census 2000, Tekirdağ, Muğla, Antalya, İstanbul has the highest rates of net migration. The share of migration in Turkey is 7, 8 % in 2000 and this value decreases to 3, 1 % in 2008. In 2008, Yalova has the highest net migration ratio and then Tekirdağ follows it. Between the years 2007-2008, in-migration ratio of Karabük is the similar with out-migration ratio. According to Population Census 2008 and 2009, the number of in-migration -(migrants come to Karabük)- is less than out-migration -(migrants go from Karabük)- in Karabük. Local community migrate from Karabük to big cities that are sorted orderly as İstanbul, Ankara, and Zonguldak, Kastamonu, Kocaeli, Bartın. Similarly, migrants come to the city from the same cities, which are counted by starting with the highest rate, İstanbul, Ankara, and Zonguldak.

Safranbolu has been changed economically over times. The town has depended mostly to agricultural economy; especially cultivation of saffron, animal husbandry and leather manufacturing is important economic activities of the town. However, after tourism development, service sector has also become an important economic activity of the settlement.

According to data collected from Census 2000, in Safranbolu, employed population mostly works in community, social and personal services and workers at manufacturing

and industry sectors follow this economic activity. According to distribution of occupation, employed population works mostly in nonagricultural production and related jobs, then scientific, technical, professionals and related workers follows it. The workers in the service sector are the other important occupation group in the town.

In this thesis, it is explored which investments are made to the town. According to the results of the analysis on Government investments, which are given by the State Treasury Organization, Manufacturing Sector, Iron-Steel industry and Services, Transportation are the most preferred sectors between the years 2002 and 2008. Accordingly, there is not so much demand for tourism to invest in these years; there are only two investments in 2002 and 2006.

According to total agricultural productions (vegetables and fruits) in Safranbolu from 1995 to 2008, the number of total productions increases by 52,9 %. However, while the amount of the vegetable fields remains almost same, the fruited lands decrease by 16,1 % between these years. Consequently, it could be said that agriculture still the most important sector of the town, and tourism does not block the agriculture. With the help of new technologies, agricultural production has become much more efficient.

In this study, education levels of the local community are analyzed. It is found that in Safranbolu, the number of literate men is almost same with the number of women, whereas in Karabük, where the number of literate men is more than women. According to this study, it is clear that education level of Safranbolu is very high, and especially women are educated, probably works.

According to the spatial analyses of the town, it can be said that the town has not changed too much after including the World Heritage List. Safranbolu still represents the effects of the traditional Turkish social life. Hence, there are many old monuments and houses in the town, a large part of the town has been declared as the protected area by the state. Therefore, the town is well preserved and reconstruction plans and restoration projects are implemented. There are the numbers of 30 protected areas (urban site,

archaeological site, and natural protected area) in Karabük, and the number of 10 areas is located in Safranbolu.

It is assumed that tourism has become one of the important sectors of the town. This assumption has been proved by some statistical data. According to these analyses, between the years 1993 and 2008, the number of arrivals increases from 5716 to 66636 visitors. This shows that the number of arrivals rises by 1065 %, approximately 11 times, while it increases by 179 % in Turkey between these years. Similarly, the number of nights spent increases too much in the town between these years. It reaches to 86645 visitors and that means it increases by 978 %, however, in Turkey that rises by 194 %.

It is determined that the number of foreign arrivals is more than the number of citizens in Safranbolu. It is calculated that from 1993 to 2008, the number of arrivals in citizen is average 90 % of total arrivals and the number of nights spent has average 88 % share. This shows that mostly citizens prefer Safranbolu and it is not attractive enough for foreign tourists. Therefore, it could be said that foreigners do not prefer to stay in the town.

Moreover, it is calculated that in 2008, the average length of stay is 3,1 in Turkey, although, it is 1,3 in Safranbolu. The reason of this could be Safranbolu is not a tourism destination that foreign tourists want to stay. Therefore, they are visiting the town with daily tours or they visit when they are passing. However, the occupancy rate of Safranbolu is 40 %, and that is 51 % in Turkey. Moreover, total number of licensed establishments, the number of beds increases by 275 % and 439 % from the year 1993 to 2006. These results show that there are not enough tourism facility in the town, furthermore, the existing ones are not using efficiently.

In order to search general view about tourism development in Safranbolu, two different questionnaires were applied to the number of 93 tourists and 100 residents in the town.

Tourist Survey:

According to tourist survey, it is determined that tourists who visit the town are very young and many of them come from Istanbul. There is almost same number of men and women attended this survey.

The education levels of tourists are asked to people and it is founded that many of respondents are graduated from university and a great percentage of them indicate that they are architects and engineers. Consequently, it can be said that educated people mostly prefer cultural tourism, which is promoted in the town.

It is understood from the survey that the number of tourists who visit the town for the second time is very low. Many of them indicate that Safranbolu has been changed since the first arrival of the town. They argue that accommodation units have increased and, in the traditional architectural areas, environmental regulations have been done, and also the number of tourists has increased.

Tourists do not believe that tourism has caused negative effects and cultural changes in Safranbolu. Tourists explain their purposes of visiting as tourists trips, and secondly they indicate that they have been interested in architectural beauties of the town. Many of them express that they have been coming individually due to wondering about the town. Another answer to this question, which is preferred by many tourists, is that I came after investigating from the internet, television, the newspaper.

Tourists express their view about the town and they state that they love most archeological features of the town. In that context, big proportion of tourists indicates that they like natural beauties of the town. On the contrary, many tourists do not answer the question about negative features of the town. A small number of tourists explain that they do not like service opportunities of the town and they complain about inadequate transportation opportunities, the lack of accommodation facilities and inadequate, poor quality food-drink units.

Survey of Local Residents:

This survey explores the impressions of local residents about tourism development of Safranbolu. Many residents indicate that they are working as tradesman and a smaller proportion of them works at the tourism sector.

The highest amount of residents explains that they are born in Karabük and Safranbolu. Similarly, a big proportion of respondents indicates that they have been living in Safranbolu since birth, 31 % of them answer that they have been there for more than 10 years. From these answers, it could be said that local residents do not migrate from the town.

Accordingly, many respondents answer the question about their education level as they are graduated from high school, and university. Respondents graduated from high school mostly live in Yeni and Emek Districts.

People think that there have been some changes in tourism sector for 5-10 years, and they agree that tourism has been developed in the town. Many respondents indicate that these changes are useful for development of the town and they are pleased about these experiences. They indicate that tourism supplies some benefits to the town and explain that it makes way for new investments to be done to the town. Moreover, some local people express that the number of workplace has increased and workforce has been provided because of tourism development.

People explain negative effects of tourism and most of them agree about because of tourism development in the town, increase in the housing prices. The big amount of respondents also indicates that tourism has not any harmful effects.

Many people think that some cultural changes have been lived in the town, and they claim that these changes are good for the town. They are happy about knowing different

cultures and promotion of their tradition, customs, and units. Moreover, many of respondents indicate that tourism helps protecting cultural values of Safranbolu.

Many residents express that exhibitions, bazaars have increased in the town after tourism development. Big amount of them think that concert, festival programs have also increased and there exist more opportunities for social activities.

Consequently, people indicate that Safranbolu should be promoted in the world, and accommodations and social opportunities should be increased. They also suggest that environmental cleaning services and infrastructure, and transportation facilities should be increased.

The whole analyses show that Safranbolu has been one of the important tourism destination of Turkey. It has many archeological and cultural values and therefore, it is noticed as having well-preserved cultural and natural resources. In that sense, it is meaningful to say that the town should truly be planned, and managed for protecting these resources for translating to next generations. Therefore, the existing condition of the town - economically, spatially, socially, and environmentally- should be analysed, and the problems must be redefined for determining a tourism planning method.

This thesis shows that because of tourism development, Safranbolu has been changed for 15 years. However, these changes have become very slow, because it has been well protected. It is mentioned that tourism has some negative and positive effects on community. As a result of protecting plans, tourism does not cause harmful effects in the town. In other words, these negative effects are not seen too much in the town and therefore, the residents are very pleased about these changes.

There exist an increase in population and migration in the town, because there is an increase in job opportunities for people. They find an alternative to work except from Iron-Steel industry, and this can be counted as very important advantages of tourism. Another advantage of tourism can be explained that educated people should work at the

tourism sector. This encourages public authority to educate local and train them for tourists. Moreover, because of importance of cultural and historical values in tourism sector, the public authority and local residents should protect them. In order to use these resources for tourism and different purposes such as pension, restaurants, museum, people should protect and restore them.

It is understood from the thesis that foreign tourists do not come to the town. Hence, foreigners search for better service opportunity to travel. They could not find services they are looking for like entertainment, activity, security. Therefore, they do not want to stay in the town too much. They visit the town with daily tours and so the town could not take any economic advantages of tourism.

For this reason, some investments should be suggested to increase tourism quality of the town. Therefore, supporting tourism facilities that could be tourism complexes like boutique hotels, alternative tourism activities such as aqua parks, entertainment units, trekking routes, ecotourism activities. These tourism facilities could be constructed away from the historical center of the town, but it should be connected to it and local should be benefit from these investments.

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APPENDIX A

COUNTRIES AND WORLD HERITAGE SITES PARTICIPATING IN THE UNESCO CROSS CUTTING PROJECT (2005-2006)

THE GREAT VOLGA RIVER ROUTE

*Uniting the Seas (Baltic, Black and Caspian Seas) in favor of World Heritage
Education for Sustainable Development through ICTs*

Turkey Area 780 580 km²

Population 68,1 mln

1- Historic Areas of Istanbul

City and Province of Istanbul

Date of Inscription: 1985.

Criteria: C (i) (ii) (iii) (iv)

With its strategic location on the Bosphorus peninsula between the Balkans and Anatolia, the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, Istanbul has been associated with major political, religious and artistic events for more than 2,000 years. Its masterpieces include the ancient Hippodrome of Constantine, the 6th-century Hagia Sophia and the 16th-century Suleymaniye Mosque, all now under threat from population pressure, industrial pollution and uncontrolled urbanization.

2- Göreme National Park and the Rock Sites of Cappadocia

Nevsehir Province (Cappadocia) in Central Anatolia

Date of Inscription: 1985.

Criteria: N (iii) C (i) (iii) (v)

In a spectacular landscape, entirely sculpted by erosion, the Göreme valley and its surroundings contain rock-hewn sanctuaries that provide unique evidence of Byzantine art in the post-Iconoclastic period. Dwellings, troglodyte villages and underground towns. The remains of a traditional human habitat dating back to the 4th century can also be seen there.

3- Great Mosque and Hospital of Divrigi

City and District of Divrigi, Province of Sivas

Date of Inscription: 1985. Criteria: C (i) (iv)

This region of Anatolia was conquered by the Turks at the beginning of the 11th century. In 1228_29 Emir Ahmet Shah founded a mosque, with its adjoining hospital, at Divrigi. The mosque has a single prayer room and is crowned by two cupolas. The highly sophisticated technique of vault construction, and a creative, exuberant type of decorative sculpture particularly on the three doorways, in contrast to the unadorned walls of the interior are the unique features of this masterpiece of Islamic architecture.

4- Hattusha

District of Sungurlu, Corum Province

Date of Inscription: 1986.

Criteria: C (i) (ii) (iii) (iv)

The archaeological site of Hattusha, former capital of the Hittite Empire, is notable for its urban organization, the types of construction that have been preserved (temples, royal residences, fortifications), the rich ornamentation of the Lions' Gate and the Royal Gate, and the ensemble of rock art at Yazilikaya. The city enjoyed considerable influence in Anatolia and northern Syria in the 2nd millennium B.C.

5- Nemrut Dag

Adiyaman Province

Date of Inscription: 1987. Criteria: C (i) (iii) (iv)

The mausoleum of Antiochus I (69_34 B.C.), who reigned over Commagene, a kingdom founded north of Syria and the Euphrates after the breakup of Alexander's empire, is one of the most ambitious constructions of the Hellenistic period. The syncretism of its pantheon, and the lineage of its kings, which can be traced back through two sets of legends, Greek and Persian, is evidence of the dual origin of this kingdom's culture.

6- Xanthos_Letoon

Province of Mugla and Antalya

Date of Inscription: 1988. Criteria: C (ii) (iii)

This site, which was the capital of Lycia, illustrates the blending of Lycian traditions and Hellenic influence, especially in its funerary art. The epigraphic inscriptions are crucial for our understanding of the history of the Lycian people and their Indo European language.

7- Hierapolis_Pamukkale

Denizli Province

Date of Inscription: 1988. Criteria: N (iii) C (iii) (iv)

Deriving from springs in a cliff almost 200 m high overlooking the plain, calcite_laden waters have created at Pamukkale (Cotton Palace) an unreal landscape, made up of mineral forests, petrified waterfalls and a series of terraced basins. At the end of the 2nd century B.C. the dynasty of the Attalids, the kings of Pergamon, established the thermal spa of Hierapolis. The ruins of the baths, temples and other Greek monuments can be seen at the site.

8- City of Safranbolu

City and District of Safranbolu, Province of Karabuk

Date of Inscription: 1994.

Criteria: C (ii) (iv) (v)

From the 13th century to the advent of the railway in the early 20th century, Safranbolu was an important caravan station on the main East_West trade route. The Old Mosque, Old Bath and Su_leyman Pasha Medrese were built in 1322. During its apogee in the 17th century, Safranbolu's architecture influenced urban development throughout much of the Ottoman Empire.

9- Archaeological Site of Troy

Province of Canakkale

Date of Inscription: 1998. Criteria: C (ii) (iii) (vi)

Troy, with its 4,000 years of history, is one of the most famous archaeological sites in the world. The first excavations at the site were undertaken by the famous archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann in 1870. In scientific terms, its extensive remains are the most significant demonstra_ tion of the first contact between the civilizations of Anatolia and the Mediterranean world. moreover, the siege of Troy by Spartan and Achaean warriors from Greece in the 13th or 12th century B.C., immortalized by Homer in the Iliad, has inspired great creative artists throughout the world ever since

APPENDIX B

DISTRIBUTION OF DINING FACILITIES WITH TOURISM OPERATION LICENSE AND DISTRICTS ACCORDING TO TYPES AND CLASSES

	TOURISM OPERATION LICENSE			TOURISM INVESTMENT LICENSE		
	Type of Facility	Number of Facility	Capacity	Type of Facility	Number of Facility	Capacity
2004	Private Facility	2	370	2. class restaurant	1	288
2005	Private Facility	2	370	2. class restaurant	1	288
2006	Private Facility	2	370	-	-	-

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009

APPENDIX C

SAFRANBOLU YERLEŞMESİNDE TURİZMİN ETKİLERİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ İÇİN ANKET FORMU

AÇIKLAMA

Bu anket formundaki bilgiler, Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Şehir ve Bölge Planlama Bölümünde doktora tez çalışmasında istatistiksel amaçla kullanılacaktır. Soruların tam ve doğru olarak cevaplanması çalışmamızın sonucunu olumlu yönde etkileyecektir. Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

1) İşyerinizin yeri:

- Safranbolu içi: Mahalle:belirtiniz
 Safranbolu dışı: Diğer:belirtiniz

2) İş Alanınız:

- Sanayi Sektörü (imalat, üretim, fabrika vs.)
 Turizm Sektörü (otel, motel, seyahat acentesi, rehberlik vs.)
 Ticaret
 Kamu (Devlet Memuru)
 Tarım-Hayvancılık
 Sağlık
 Bankacılık
 Eğitim
 Bilişim-Teknoloji
 İnşaat
 Diğer..... belirtiniz.

3) Yaşınız:

.....belirtiniz

4) Cinsiyetiniz:

- Kadın Erkek

- 5) Medeni Durumunuz:
 Bekar Evli Dul (Eşlerden Biri Ölmüş) Boşanmış
- 6) Uyuşunuz:
 T.C. Diğer (Yabancı)..... belirtiniz
- 7) Doğum yeriniz (İl olarak belirtiniz):
 Zonguldak
 Karabük
 Safranbolu
 Bartın
 Ankara
 Bolu
 Diğer..... belirtiniz.
- 8) Eğitim Durumunuz
 Okuma Yazma Bilmiyor
 Okuma Yazma Biliyor
 İlköğretim Mezunu
 Lise Mezunu
 Üniversite Mezunu
 Diğer..... belirtiniz.
- 9) Mesleğiniz
.....belirtiniz
- 10) Nerede ikamet ediyorsunuz
 Safranbolu içi: Mahalle:belirtiniz
 Safranbolu dışı: Diğer:belirtiniz
- 11) Kaç senedir Safranbolu'da yaşıyorsunuz?
 0-3 yıldır
 3-5 yıldır
 5-10 yıldır
 10 yıldan fazla
 Doğduğumdan beri
- 12) İş durumu:
 Özel İş yeri sahibi
 Özel işyeri çalışanı
 Kamu çalışanı
 Çalışmıyor
 Emekli
 Öğrenci

() Diğer.....belirtiniz

13) İşin Tanımı:

- () Konaklama Ünitesi
() Otel
() Motel
() Pansiyon
() Misafirhane
() Tatil Köyü
() Diğer belirtiniz
() Seyehat Acentası
() Müze, Örenyeri bekçisi, çalışanı
() Turizm Danışma Bürosu
() Rehberlik
() Turizm Derneği
() Yeme-içme ünitesi (Lokanta, bar, restaurant, cafe vs.)
() Şöförlük
() Hediyelik eşya imalatçısı, satıcısı
() Elişi imalatçısı, satıcısı
() Diğer belirtiniz

14) İlçenizde turizm sektöründe son 5-10 yılda bir gelişme yaşanmış mıdır?

- () Evet () Hayır

15) Safranbolu ilçesinde turizm ile ilgili bir gelişme yaşandıysa bunun kente yarar sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz?

- () Evet () Hayır

16) (15. sorudaki cevabınız evet ise) Safranbolu ilçesindeki turizm gelişiminin kente ne tür YARARLAR sağladığını düşünüyorsunuz? (Önem sırasına göre 3 seçeneği 1'den 3'e kadar numaralandırınız)

- () Altyapı ve ulaşım olanakları gelişti
() İşyeri sayısında artış yaşandı ve iş gücü sağladı
() Dışarıya göç azaldı
() Başka yerlerden kente göç oldu
() Kentte yeni yerleşim alanları gelişti
() Kente yatırımlar arttı
() Herhangi bir katkısı olmadı
() Diğerbelirtiniz

17) Safranbolu ilçesindeki turizm gelişiminin kente ne tür ZARARLAR verdiğini düşünüyorsunuz? (Önem sırasına göre 3 seçeneği 1'den 3'e kadar numaralandırınız)

- () Kültürel değerlerimiz azalmıştır
() Çevreye zararlıdır
() Dışarıdan çok fazla göç olmuştur.

- Konut fiyatları artmıştır
- Yaşam koşulları zorlaşmıştır
- Ahlaki açıdan olumsuz etkiler olmuştur
- Yerel halk turizmden yararlanamamıştır
- Herhangi bir zararı yoktur.
- Diğer..... belirtiniz

18) Safranbolu ilçesinde turizm gelişimine bağlı olarak kültürel bir değişim yaşanmış mıdır?

- Evet
- Hayır

19) (18. sorudaki cevabınız evet ise) Yaşanılan kültürel değişimler sizce olumlu mudur?

- Evet
- Hayır

20) (18. sorudaki cevabınız evet ise) Turizmin gelişimi ile kültürel anlamda ne tür değişimler olmuştur? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretlenebilir)

- Yörede kullanılan dil değişmiştir
- Yöreye özgü yeme-içme alışkanlıkları değişmiştir
- Yörenin gelenek ve görenekleri değişmiştir
- Din ve ahlak yönünden bir bozulma yaşanmıştır
- Farklı kültürleri tanıma imkanı olmuştur
- Yörenin kültürel değerleri (gelenek, görenek, örf, adet vs.) dünyada ve Türkiye’de Tanınmıştır
- Kültürel değerlerimizin korunmasını sağlamıştır
- Diğer.....belirtiniz

21) Turizm gelişimi ile ne tür sosyal imkanlar sağlanmıştır? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretlenebilir)

- Sinema, tiyatro gibi görsel sanatlarda artış olmuştur
- Konser, şenlik programları yapılmaya başlanmıştır
- Festival, sergi, kermes gibi etkinlikler artmıştır
- Sosyal donatı imkanları artmıştır (Park, çocuk bahçesi, hastane vs.)
- Diğer.....belirtiniz.

22) Turizme yönelik olarak daha fazla turist gelmesi için ilçenizde neler sağlanmalıdır?

(Önem sırasına göre 5 seçeneği 1’den 5’e kadar numaralandırınız)

- Konaklama imkanları arttırılmalıdır
- Sosyal imkanlar arttırılmalıdır
- Ulaşım olanakları arttırılmalıdır
- Eğitim olanakları arttırılmalıdır
- Çevre temizliği ve altyapı hizmetleri arttırılmalıdır
- Beş yıldızlı oteller ve lüks yeme-içme üniteleri açılmalıdır
- Büyük alışveriş merkezleri kurulmalıdır

- Geleneksel konutlar restore edilip kullanılmalıdır
- El sanatları teşvik edilmelidir
- Daha fazla tanıtım yapılmalıdır
- Diğer..... belirtiniz

Gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX D

SAFRANBOLU YERLEŞMESİNDE TURİZMİN ETKİLERİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ İÇİN TURİST ANKETİ FORMU

AÇIKLAMA: Bu anket formundaki bilgiler, Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Şehir ve Bölge Planlama Bölümünde doktora tez çalışmasında istatistiksel amaçla kullanılacaktır. Soruların tam ve doğru olarak cevaplanması çalışmamızın sonucunu olumlu yönde etkileyecektir. Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

- 1) Yaşınız:
.....belirtiniz
- 2) Cinsiyetiniz:
 Kadın Erkek
- 3) Medeni Durumunuz:
 Bekar Evli Dul (Eşlerden Biri Ölmüş) Boşanmış
- 4) Uyuşunuz:
 T.C. Diğer (Yabancı).....belirtiniz
- 5) Doğum yeriniz:
.....belirtiniz
- 6) Eğitiminiz:
 Okuma Yazma Bilmiyor
 Okuma Yazma Biliyor
 İlköğretim Mezunu
 Lise Mezunu
 Üniversite Mezunu
 Diğer..... belirtiniz.
- 7) Mesleğiniz
.....belirtiniz

- 8) İlçeye ilk kez mi geliyorsunuz?
() Evet () Hayır
- 9) **(8. Soruya cevabınız hayır ise)** İlk gelişiniz ile sonrakiler arasında Safranbolu ilçesinde turizm sektörü açısından neler değişmiştir? **(Birden fazla seçenek işaretlenebilir)**
() Konaklama üniteleri artmıştır
() Yeme-içme alanları artmıştır
() Turist sayısında artış olmuş, kültürel gelişme yaşanmıştır
() Ulaşım imkanları artmıştır
() Servis sektöründe kalite artmıştır
() Geleneksel mimari alanlarda çevre düzenlemesi yapılmıştır
() Sosyal imkanlar artmıştır
() Kültürel bir bozulma yaşanmıştır (gelenek, görenek, örf vs.)
() Yerleşim dokusu değişmiş ve bozulmuştur
() Yöre halkında olumsuz değişimler olmuştur
() Herhangi bir değişim olmamıştır
() Diğer.....belirtiniz
- 10) Safranbolu ilçesini ziyaret amacınız nedir?
() Akraba-tanidik ziyareti
() Turistik amaçlı gezinti
() Daha önce gelmişim çok beğendiğim için yeniden geldim
() İş amaçlı geldim
() Ailem burada yaşıyor
() Okuma amaçlı geldim
() Geleneksel mimari ve yerleşim ilgimi çekti
() Yöresel yemekleri tatmak amacıyla
() Tur kapsamında
() Diğer.....belirtiniz
- 11) Safranbolu ilçesine gelmeye nasıl karar verdiniz?
() Yolumun üzeri, geçerken uğradım
() Tanıdık, eş-dost tavsiyesi ile geldim
() İnternette, televizyondan, gazeteden araştırarak geldim
() Paket tur kapsamında geldim
() Bireysel olarak merak ettiğim için geldim
() Okumak için veya iş amaçlı olarak geldim
() Diğer.....belirtiniz
- 12) Safranbolu ilçesinin en **beğendiğiniz** 3 (üç) özelliği nedir **(Önem sırasına göre 1'den 3'e kadar numaralandırınız)**?
() Geleneksel mimari özellikleri
() İlçenin doğal güzellikleri
() İlçenin folklorik değerleri (gelenek, görenek vs.)

- İlçenin festival, şenlik, konser etkinlikleri
- Yöresel yemekleri
- Doğal bitki örtüsü
- İklimi
- Yerli halkın tutumu
- Yerleşim şekli
- Diğerbelirtiniz

13) Safranbolu ilçesinin en olumsuz bulduğunuz 3 (üç) özelliği nedir (Önem sırasına göre 1'den 3'e kadar numaralandırınız)?

- Konaklama imkanının azlığı
- Yetersiz servis imkanının olması (postane, hastane, park vs.)
- Turistik tesislerde yetersiz personel ve servis olması
- Ulaşımın yetersiz olması
- Yeme-içme ünitelerinin yetersiz ve kaliteli olmaması
- İkliminin elverişsiz olması
- Yerli halkın tutumunun olumsuz olması
- Diğer.....belirtiniz.

Gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

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