

**A STUDY ON THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS OF THE
QUALITATIVE VALUES IN MASS HOUSING AREAS IN SUBURBS : A
CASE STUDY IN ANKARA-ERYAMAN**

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BY

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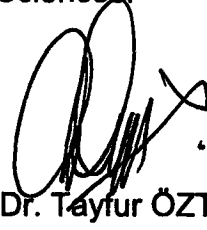
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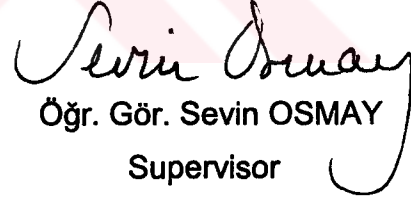
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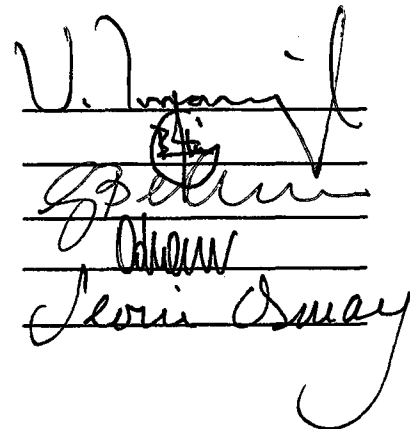
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ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITATIVE VALUES IN MASS HOUSING AREAS IN SUBURBS : A CASE STUDY IN ANKARA-ERYAMAN

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In this study, qualitative values of social environment of suburban residential areas is analysed. This analysis is preceded by a general discussion of the suburbanization process and the characteristics of suburban settlements in Turkey.

The case of Eryaman First Stage in Ankara/Turkey is selected as an example for a suburban mass-housing complex, which provided the empirical analysis material on qualitative values. The main focus in this analysis was to obtain first hand information from the inhabitants of this area and their subjective evaluation of their living environment, in order to understand how they judge their social environment and how this subjective evaluation can be embedded into the planning process.

Keywords: suburb, suburban way of life, quality of social environment, mass-housing, social environment.

ÖZ

ALTKENTLERDEKİ TOPLU KONUT ALANLARINDA SOSYAL ÇEVRENİN NİTELİKSEL ANALİZİ ÜZERİNE, ANKARA-ERYAMAN ÖRNEK ALANINDA BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu tezde kent dışında gelişmekte olan konut alanlarındaki sosyal çevre kalitesi irdelenmiştir.

İlk olarak, altkentleşme süreci ve Türkiye'deki altkentlerin özellikleri teorik bir çerçevede tartışılmıştır.

Ankara-Eryaman 1. Etap Toplu Konut Alanı Türkiye'deki altkentlerde sosyal çevre kalitesi üzerine bir analiz yapmak için örnek alan olarak seçilmiştir. Eryaman 1. Etap kullanıcılarının yaşam çevrelerine yönelik öznel değerlendirmelerini anlamak, çalışmanın odak noktasıdır. Böylece, kullanıcıların yaşam çevreleri ile ilgili fikirleri ve bu öznel değerlendirmelerin planlama sürecine nasıl katılması gerektiği anlaşılacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Altkent, altkentlerde yaşam biçimi, sosyal çevre kalitesi, toplu konut, sosyal çevre.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to examine the qualitative values of social environment of suburban residential areas, which develop as an outcome of the urban growth. Trying to perceive housing and the living environment only in the light of numerical values is considered to be incomplete and misleading. In this sense, satisfaction with housing and the living environment is an important factor for qualitative research.

In 1920s, the suburbs represented the early stages of development of an exciting new urban form an area that combined the amenities of the city with the low density of the countryside a place that brought together the best of worlds (Douglas, 1925). Moreover, suburbanization has been viewed as the solution to the cause of urban ills. However, the process found as a solution to urban problems was redefined as a problem itself. The suburbs within the cities are generally in the way to become urbanised (Baldassare, 1992).

About twenty years ago, surveys indicated that suburban residents had a higher degree of satisfaction with their communities than did city residents (Baldassare, 1981). But, as suburbia became transformed from an area that is overwhelmingly residential to one that includes commercial, business and even industrial activity, suburban residents have become

concerned about the impact these changes may have on their lives and communities.

According to Palen (1995), as growth has gone from inner city to outer city, there is a belief that the general quality of suburban life is decreasing. While applauding increases in employment and greater shopping alternatives, suburbanites feel frustration over traffic congestion, environmental degradation, crime and crowded schools.

Here, the questions to be posed within the framework of this research is, whether this process of suburbanisation which is widely analyzed in economically developed countries follow a similar pattern in Turkey or not? How far people living in suburban mass housing are satisfied with their social environment?

Thus, in this study, answers to the above mentioned questions are sought in the case of Ankara Eryaman First Stage mass housing area. Although many studies on the quantitative and physical dimensions of mass housing areas have been undertaken the social environmental satisfaction of people living in mass housing areas is not analyzed within its qualitative context sufficiently. In this thesis, the social environment and satisfaction with this environment, which includes physical as well as social variables, is analyzed from a qualitative perspective (See, figure 1).

While social environmental satisfaction is analyzed in this research, the hypothesis mentioned below are tested.

* Suburban residents are satisfied with their living environment. Suburbs are safe settlements and also they have more privacy than cities. However, they are isolated from public and city life and social-cultural facilities. They do not have sufficient cultural facilities.

* Suburban residents are interested in their neighbourhoods and involved with their neighbours. However, neighbours are not involved with each other very much.

* Personal and socio-economic characteristics of the people is effective on their expectations from their environment.

* Age and class (income and education) are the most important characteristics in neighbourhood relations.

* There exists a relationship between housing satisfaction and housing type. Residents of single family detached houses have a higher degree of satisfaction with their housing than do residents of apartment dwelling .

* There exists an opposite relationship between the desire of moving to another settlement and environmental satisfaction.

* Accessibility to the center of the city and other services is one of the most important factors affecting the residents' environmental satisfaction.

* Social relationships are influenced by homogeneity with respect to a variety of personal characteristics.

* Residents' concerns with neighbourhood environmental quality as well as safety is one of the most important predictor of their social environmental satisfaction.

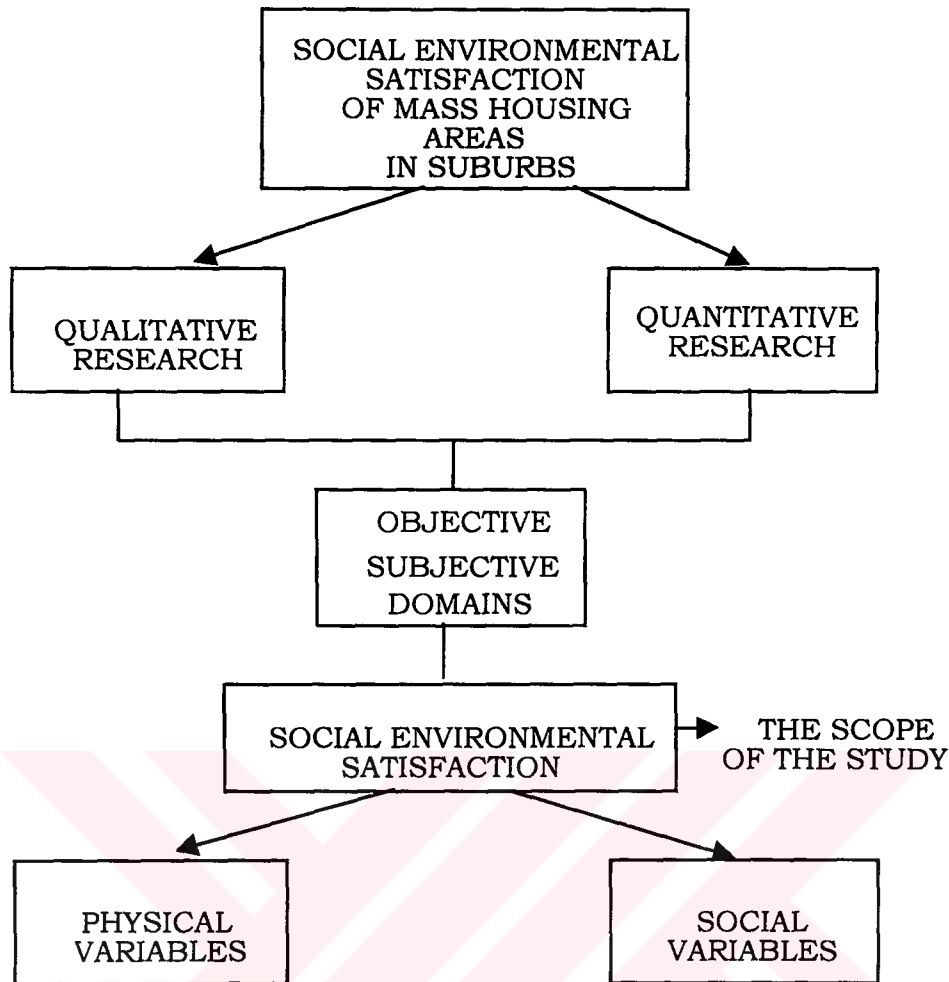


Figure 1: The Framework and the Scope of the Study

1.2. METHOD AND ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

First of all, a literature survey was undertaken in order to understand the concept and process of suburbanization in developed countries and to compare it with the on going process in Turkey. Next, an empirical analysis of a suburban complex as a case study is included in order to be able to obtain first hand information on how the residents perceive the quality of their social environment.

In the first chapter, the scope of the study is framed. After defining the problem of quality of social environment in the suburban settlements, the basic hypotheses of this research are claimed. Also, method and organization of the study are structured.

In the second chapter, the concept of suburbia and its basic aspects are examined with reference to a variety of sources and researches. The changing character of suburbia in developed countries that becomes apparent through the establishment of social structure, is expressed.

In the third chapter, suburbia in the context of Turkey is analyzed and the new residential developments taking place on the periphery of metropolitan cities examined. Ankara is chosen for its rapid urbanisation and expansion to the periphery and as a model of suburbanisation in Turkey.

In the fourth chapter, first a discussion of the conceptual framework of qualitative and quantitative research methods is attempted. Thereafter, objective and subjective domains of qualitative research is analyzed and main indicators are selected for social environmental well-being research with reference to some international and national research material. According to Cummins (1997); qualitative studies have two axis, objective and subjective. Objective domain comprises culturally relevant measures of objective well-being. Subjective domain comprise the domain of satisfaction weighted by their importance to the individual . In this thesis, both are used while analyzing the quality of social environment. The physical dimension of quality of environment in mass housing areas is examined by evaluating human and human-environment interaction patterns and behavioural evaluations.

Therefore, personal and socio-economic characteristics of people such as age and social class is also included in evaluation of this research.

The satisfaction of user variables are classified under two main topics. These are physical and social variables. Physical variables are evaluated in terms of housing and its environmental satisfaction. Social variables are examined in relation to social interaction, neighbourhood relationships, privacy and safety.

Furthermore, empirical research is designed in the fourth chapter too. Three kinds of data collection techniques are utilized (interviews, observation and documents). This meant using several kinds of data collection methods, including both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

In the fifth chapter, for a detailed case analysis, Ankara Eryaman first Stage mass housing settlement is chosen. As it exposed an example for a heterogeneous settlement including different housing types. Basic information and written documents on the selected case is obtained from Mass Housing Association (TOKI). Analysis of Eryaman is carried out with an emphasis on the basic data as it relates to social environmental satisfaction. After a preliminary pilot survey, where five questionnaires were tested, the main questionnaire which was prepared to incorporate indicators that enabled the qualitative evaluation of social environment in Eryaman was implemented. The questionnaire was given to 55 households and took place from April 5 to 21, 1999. Households were selected randomly from a stratified settlement area for interviewing.

Finally, in the last chapter, an evaluation of the study in terms of the social environmental satisfaction perceived is made.

CHAPTER 2

THE RISE OF SUBURBIA AND SUBURBANIZATION PROCESS IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

2.1. THE RISE AND DEFINITION OF SUBURBIA

Population growth and development of residential areas at the periphery of urban areas are well known natures of most of the developed countries. Likewise, this process has begun to present its effects in developing countries, especially after the introduction of industrial production. In these developing countries, with urbanisation and consequent concentration of population in some large cities, the tendency to move out of the built-up area to the periphery has arisen.

In developed countries, especially after the First World War decentralisation of urban activities have accelerated. Furthermore, housing became a commodity which could be sold and bought in the market and a new life style that is *suburban life* became attractive. Consequently the supply of suburban house with garden coincided with the desires and preferences of population and this new life style became popular in these developed countries.

However, in newly industrializing countries (NIC), the rise of suburbia offers serious differences. In Turkey, being a NIC, decentralisation of urban activities together with scattered residential settlements over the countryside has been accelerated by the development of industrial production.

H. Paul Douglas (1925:6), perhaps the first scholar to focus attention specifically on suburbs as an aggregate, in the mid-1920s defined the suburbs as being;

the belt of population which lives under distinctly roomier conditions than is the average lot of city people, but under distinctively more crowded conditions than those of the adjoining open country.

The criterion he used was basically housing density. The suburbs were the intermediate landscape. By definition, suburbs were residential. The definition also indirectly suggests that suburbs are *more affluent* by noting "*roomier conditions*" in suburbs.

As Martin (1958) has put forward, the definition of suburbs as the relatively small but formally structured community adjacent to and dependent upon a larger central city.

A more widely used definition of a suburb, and one traditionally used by academics, is that a suburb is a community that lies apart from the city but is adjacent to and dependent upon it (Popenoe, 1988). Historically, this definition fits rather well, and it is still commonly used.

As Choldin (1985) indicates that a suburb was predominantly residential and that its citizens commuted to a city to work, but suburbs should no longer be defined in this way because many are not exclusively residential and most suburbanites do not commute to the city to work.

Furthermore, Palen (1995:9) asserts that;

as we move toward the new century, the assumption of suburban economic and social dependency on the central city becomes increasingly questionable. More and more suburbs are becoming the dominant metropolitan economic and social units. Definitions for contemporary suburbs that assume that suburbs are economically dependent and sub to their central cities are out of date.

Some urban scholars try to side step these difficulties by making more general definitions. Thus Mark Baldassare (1992:476), in a review of suburban communities, states:

Suburban communities are the municipalities and places in metropolitan areas outside the political boundaries of the large central cities. Suburban communities differ from central cities in the presence of sprawling, low density land use, the absence of a central downtown district, and the existence of a politically fragmented local government.

The definition has the advantage of not assuming economic or social dependence on the central city. However the definition does assume that suburbs lack central retail, commercial, and business districts such as are found "*downtown*" .

Suburbs today, though, have grown to where deciding which business and retail districts are central and which are peripheral is no longer simply a matter of geography. In many cases suburban shopping and business districts are now "*central*" to more people than are the old traditional downtown.

All in all, there is no ideal or universally agreed upon definition of what a suburb is. When I speak of suburbs in this study, I will be referring to incorporated spatial communities of moderate density that lie outside the central city but within the metropolitan area. The area's primary economic activities are non-agricultural, and government is usually through independent and sometimes uncoordinated local units. Contemporary suburbs are not necessarily dependent economically on the central city they surround, but they are tied to the city by a dependency on the automobile.

2.2. THE PROCESS OF SUBURBANIZATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Although the process of suburbanisation has been studied by ecologists and urban sociologists for more than fifty years, it is poorly understood. A review of the literature on the suburbs shows that at times suburbanisation has been viewed as the solution to and at other times the cause of urban ills.

In the past decade, a new generation of sociologists begun to study suburbs and they questioned the images of the suburb developed in the past. They questioned whether, suburban growth intensify the political social and economic problems of the central cities or was this a myth?

Schwab (1982) asserts suburbanisation is one part of a more general process of population redistribution. This deconcentration of population is not a new process. It has been found to have occurred in humankind's earliest cities. Although suburbia seemed to spring up full-blown after World War II, there have been suburbs that took different forms, depending upon the predominant technology of their times.

In this part, suburban history is examined into five periods:

1. The walking and horsecar era, pre-1850 to the late 1880s
2. The electric streetcar and railroad era, late 1880s to 1920
3. The recreational automobile era, 1920 to 1945
4. The post World War era, 1945 to 1980s
5. The freeway era, 1980 to the present

1. The Walking and Horsecar Era, Pre-1850 to the Late 1880s

As it is known, before the Industrial Revaluation, cities were small and few in number. After the Industrial Revolution this relationship changed drastically, with the turn of the nineteenth century most of the towns in Europe, had faced with the industrialisation process and, as a consequence, with rapid urbanisation.

Furthermore, Büyükalıntıaş (1995 :11) explains that;

the development of industries and concentration of them in large cities drew many families from the agricultural districts to the industrial towns. Industrialisation converted the structure of the pre-industrial city. It cased the manufacturing activities which were located in the center of the cities. Due to the propulsive effects of these activities such as smoke and noise and the existence of working class, rich and middle income classes tendend to live on the peripheral areas of towns.

Within the city one walked to work in the morning, walked home for lunch, walked back to work, and then walked home again in the evening. Tunnard and Reed (1956:59) state that;

this was not a major chore, since home and business were never far removed. They might, in fact, be in the same building: The first floor was given over to commerce, the second and third reserved for the family and clerks, and the fourth perhaps for storage. People lived and worked in the same house or at least in the same neighbourhood.

Spacial and social separation of socio-economic classes would be a product of the technologies of the industrial era.

In the second half of the century suburbanisation was so weak so that the high density residential areas, which were built up during the first half of the century, were still desirable by high and middle income families. Additionally, in most of the large cities the majority of the residents continued to live in flats or apartments even in the peripheral districts.

Sutcliffe (1981) asserts only in the early 1900s did a distinct movement of low-density suburbanisation begin to take-shape. He concludes that this delay was not because of that the process of industrial urbanisation, in France and Germany were less revolutionary.

2. The Electric Streetcar and Railroad Era, Late 1880s to 1920

Warner (1962) asserts that late 1880s to 1920, streetcar suburbs for the new middle class arose later in the nineteenth century.

According to Dobriner (1963), back in the 1920s the white collar commuter whose job was in the central city might have been the model suburbanite. With the decentralisation of manufacturing and commercial activities into the suburbs, the economic dependency of the suburbs is changing. They are becoming dominant economic areas in their own right.

Perhaps, the model suburban journey to work pattern is from a residential suburb to a neighbouring industrial suburb.

In 1888 the diffusion of cities' population was made possible by a technological innovation-the electric streetcar. Schwab (1982) states that the electric streetcar enabled urban populations to spread out and dramatically reduced residential densities. They gave middle-class families their first opportunity to acquire the highly desired single-family detached house with a yard. Thus these areas were built up at far lower densities than the existing city's.

According to Muller (1981), residents of the new suburbs depended upon the city for everything, especially work, getting only everyday goods and services locally bread and groceries.

3. The Recreational Automobile Era, 1920 to 1945

With the turn of the century we see the growing urban problems in both North America and Western Europe. These problems were mostly depend upon the global phenomenon of urban growth and expansion consequent upon general improvements in the economy.

As Schonore (1958) explains that the First World War brought two particularly significant developments. First, migration from abroad, which had provided a large share of the city's manpower needs, was particularly cut off. Urban manufacturing centers had to increase their output. The second crucial development accessioned by the war was the rapid increase in the number of motor vehicles, he adds that the techniques of mass production and increased mechanisation had to effect of reducing the manpower required in industry.

According to Choldin (1985:357)

in the post-war era, companies stopped building new factories in the cities; they put them in the suburbs. Just as factories come to the suburbs, so, too, did their offices. This is an enormously important fact: Now most people live in suburbs do not commute to the city; they work in suburbs also.

After the First World War, the private automobile rapidly became a predominant mode of urban transport at a large-scale. Suburbanisation occurred simultaneously with the widespread adoption of the automobile. (Schwab 1982) The undeveloped areas between the streetcar corridors in the city's fringe finally were accessible by means of this transportation innovation. Cars also became more reliable and convenient.

4. The Post World War Era, 1945 to 1980s

Choldin (1985) asserts since 1950 many large cities have lost population. Between 1950 and 1970 the suburbs were the fastest growing segment of the United States population. All cities responded to population growth and suburbanisation was the process by which these cities expanded between 1950 and 1970.

Post-1945 central cities affected by the war were dealing with the problem of limited land resources in the face of overwhelming population pressure. At the same time, redevelopment of these central cities often reduced their residential carrying capacity because, overcrowding was eliminated, new roads provided and new standards applied to space around buildings and to schools, playing fields and so forth.

The process of outward urban growth created many transportation lines between central city and suburbs. Because, at this time the significant

proportion of suburban dwellers continued to work in the central city. Consequently the existing network of streets and highways linking the far flung suburban communities was inadequate. Therefore, the flight of firms and households from central cities to the suburbs continued. As a result of this movement new paradox emerged. As Scott (1980), indicates, white-collar workers had to commute from suburbs to central business districts while the blue-collar workers commuted from central city to new peripheral industrial belts.

By the early 1970s this peripheral residential development began to slow down. This was due to the fiscal crisis that was beginning to pervade economy.

5. The Freeway Era, 1980s to the Present

Suburbia was losing its solely residential character in 1980s.

Suburbia at the end of the twentieth century is too diverse to be simply and uniformly categorised. In general, one can say that suburbs have characteristics that tend to fall between those of cities and those of small towns. According to Popenoe and Vliet (1988), when one compares suburbs with small towns, suburbs have less neighboring, less community participation, and localism.

Suburbs also are more private and anonymous, possibly because they are not *whole* communities but only the residential piece. They lack the overlapping social networks found in small town where people work and shop as well as live together. In most suburbs residents must commute outside the proximate community for work or shopping. Suburbs, while

having more neighboring than cities, have less than small towns. Suburbs similarly lack the strong informal social control mechanisms of small towns, which leads to suburbs having greater freedom, more anonymity, and more delinquency and crime than small towns. Socially as well as physically, suburbs are a middle landscape (Palen, 1995).

The recent decades have seen North America transformed into a suburban continent. Suburbia, is not only where most of people live, it is also where most of them shop, go out to eat, and catch a movie. It also is where most of them work. Regardless, the suburban transformation is now clearly a social fact. Palen (1995) states that whatever one thinks about suburbs, it is now indisputable that they are no longer *sub*. Outer cities may sprawl over the landscape, but they contain all the functions of the older downtowns.

If you had to pick one symbol that would represent contemporary suburban life, that symbol would very likely be the shopping mall. It is impossible to discuss suburbia today without noting the importance of the malls not only for retail purchasing but also for social life. As the old downtowns decline, the malls have become the primary site where people rub elbows with other citizens (Bein and East, 1981).

Current developments in telecommunications have important implications for the physical form of contemporary cities. Telephone at one stage contributed to the growth of the great downtown's and at a later stage to suburban migration (Pool, 1977).

At a number of different levels telecommunications can now overcome the time and space constraints which forced activities to locate in close physical proximity within cities (Graham and Marvin, 1996).

Fathy (1991:44) argues that;

as telecommunications increase the ease and cost of communication they are likely to encourage people to live further away from their jobs or other places they visit frequently. Improvements in accessibility of activities encourage dispersion of both homes and activities. Telecommunications are speeding this process of decentralisation for jobs and services.

According to Graham and Marvin (1996) cities will not necessarily be the only centres of economic activity as they are challenged by rural areas who are able to attract *footloose* information services.

By increasing the flexibility of locational decisions, telecommunications help spatially to rearrange the distribution of work, retail, services, manufacturing and leisure activities. The extract by Schuler (1992) examines how telecommunications are likely to support the further decentralisation of activities away from the center. According to him,

* Production of Goods: Manufacturing requires workers to be present simultaneously, but increased automation and manufacturing's declining share of gross national product (GNP) mean that the influence of this urbanising force will continue to decline.

* Production of Services: This is the greatest area for the potential decentralisation of activity through telecommunications and linked computer networks.

* Wholesale and Retail Trade: Catalogue shopping is currently making major inroads on retail trade in wealthy neighbourhoods, and the availability of interactive video catalogues in most homes with smart terminals should greatly accelerate shopping from home. The limits to the use of electronic shopping are for those commodities where more than two senses are required, for those goods where the shopping process is lengthy and for those occasions where shopping is also a social activity.

* Social Interaction: This may be the one human activity where all senses are employed and personal contacts are desired. Nevertheless, preliminary searches may be conducted more efficiently through telecommunications systems, and in this case transportation and telecommunications activities may be complementary (Schuler, 1992).

Even though some activities will disperse away from cities, despite the physical distance they are in fact still under the control of higher order functions based in cities. (Graham and Marvin, 1996).

Telecommunications and physical changes in cities push in similar directions. For example, the development of multicentered, fragmented cities or home centred social life is supported by both the development of telecommunications networks in electronic space and the development of transport networks and suburbs in urban places (Graham and Marvin, 1996).

2.3. THE SUBURBANISATION OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Business and industry have decentralised for many reasons. Schwab states (1982) that the development of the motor vehicle has dramatically reduced the need for a central location.

Second, the CBD is not the only point within the metropolis where major transportation lines converge. The geographic point where two major interstate highways cross is an accessible from within the metropolitan area as the CBD.

Third, dramatic changes in communication and energy technology have further reduced the need for a location at the city's center. Sassen asserts (1991:73);

as a result of the increasing communication facilities, back offices are decentralising to suburbs and to small towns. Customer services follow the residential pattern of suburban sprawl. Concentration takes place in two different locations: in the centres of concentrated suburbs and in the global cities.

Traditionally, service activities have followed their markets, locating at the point of maximum consumer accessibility. Thus the follow of such activities appears to be toward the suburbs, along high speed highways accessible to major suburban population concentrations. According to Hughes (1974), this retail shift has been facilitated by the automobile and increasing per capita income, as well as by absolute population growth. Also, Choldin asserts (1985:363) ;

the optimum location for a shopping center is near a major highway which allows it to attract customers from the central city, as well as from several suburbs, and even from small towns beyond the suburban zone.

Furthermore, Palen states (1995) that the downtown retail outlets essentially suburbanised to the malls during the 1970s, leaving only skeletal

remains in the once dominant cores. The 1980s saw the dramatic proliferation of suburban office and manufacturing complexes.

According to Garreaw (1991 :251);

transportation, and especially communication technologies, no longer favor centralisation over dispersion. Fax machines and e-mail work equally well from suburban and urban locations.

Bein and East explains (1981:170) ;

shopping mall as a symbol that would represent contemporary suburban life. You may love the malls or believe they are sterile and without soul, but it is impossible to discuss suburbia, today without noting the importance of the malls not only for retail purchasing but also for social life.

Choldin states (1985:363) that;

shopping centers have come to play multiple functions in community life. Most movie theaters built in the past two decades are in shopping centers. The typically shopping center includes at least a couple of restaurants and many also have pinball arcades with electronic games, as well as motels, banks and other facilities. Often, the large shopping center server as a community center-it attracts so many adults and teenagers that it is the place to see friends and acquaintances and to be seen.

Also, he adds that recently, though, many of the new entertainment and sporting facilities are going to the suburbs. Suburbs are building civic facilities suitable for concerts.

2.4. PARADIGMS AND SUBURBS

2.4.1. Ecological Paradigm

The theoretical approach or paradigm that doubtlessly has had the greatest influence on the spatial organisation of suburbs and cities is that of urban ecology.

Palen states (1995:15) that;

the spatial organisation of the metropolitan area evolved, according to the ecologists, not through planning or government action, but through competition influenced by the ecological processes of invasion, succession, segregation of new groups, and new land uses.

Also, Dobriner adds (1963:21) that;

the high rate of suburban commuting results from the unique ecological position of the suburbs in relation to a larger city and goes on to suggest that as a result of the physical separation of suburb from city. According to him suburbanites participate less in the social opportunities of the central city.

The ecological explanation for suburbanisation centers on the effect of changes in transportation and communication technology that are perceived as producing hinterland development. According to Hawley (1950) and Berry and Kasarda (1977), among many others, the automobile was the most important single innovation responsible for suburban development.

For urban ecologists urban analysis was a branch of human ecology. Their ideas brought them closest to the work of the philosopher Herbert

Spencer, who also viewed society as dominated by biological rather than economic laws of development.

According to Robert Park, the social organization of the city resulted from the struggle for survival which then produced a distinct and highly complex division of labor, because people tried to do what they were best at in order to compete.

McKenzie explained land-use patterns as the product of competition and an economic division of labor, which deployed objects and activities in space according to the roles they played in society. Thus, if a firm needed a particular location in order to perform its function, it competed with others for that location. The patterns resulting from that process were studied by ecologists.

The most famous ecological model of the spatial-organisational development of the city is the concentric zone hypothesis developed by Ernest Burgess in 1924. In this model, commercial and retailing activities were concentrated in the Central Business District (CBD). Surrounding the downtown were the industrial, warehousing, and tenement areas. The next ring out was predominantly working-class residences, followed by a ring of middle-class homes, and finally a band of suburbs. According to Burgess (1924:85) that;

suburbs are thought of as peripherally located upper-income or middle income communities of relatively low density on substantial lots holding free-standing single family homes. However, this mental image of what a suburb is does not adequately reflect the contemporary scene.

Burgess' model was proposed by Homer Hoyt (1933) and was called "sector theory". Hoyt suggested that all activities, but especially manufacturing and retailing, had a tendency to spin off away from the center and agglomerate in sectors that expanded outward. Thus the city grew in irregular blobs rather than in Burgess' neat circles (Gottdiener, 1994 : 109).

A short time after Park, Burgess and McKenzie worked in tandem to discover the forces creating patterns of daily life within the city, another Chicago School sociologist appeared who defined a different theory of urban space, Louis Wirth. He wanted to know what it was about the city itself that produced unique behaviors which might be called an "urban way of life" (Gottdiener, 1994 : 110).

2.4.2. Political Economy Perspective (The Paradigm of New Urban Sociologists).

For many decades the ecological model was the model of urban growth. However, during recent decades it has increasingly come under attack by scholars favoring *neo-Marxian* or *political economy* models. Unlike ecological approaches, which explain suburbanisation as occurring as a consequence of technological factors such as the streetcar or automobile, political economy views stress the role played by corporate and real markets. Feagan and Parker state (1990) that suburbia is not a consequence of individual homeowner choice, but a consequence of a deliberate decision by elites to disinvest in the cities.

The ecological theory of suburbanisation also has been obliterated by the new urban analysis. First, Storper and Walker express (1983) that manufacturing plant decentralisation was occurring long before the

introduction of the automobile and they add that labor-sourcing strategies are major factors in the determination of company location decisions.

Second, Gottdiener shows (1985) that the factor of movement technology emphasised by ecologists was vealed to be important in deconcentration, but principally as a means of change rather than as a causal factor itself.

Third, Gotdiener explains (1996) that new plant location and household relocation decision were found to be structured more by supply side pull actors than by the demand-side incentives stressed by the mainstream theory of location.

Fourth, in Gottdiener (1988 : 172), Lefebvre (1970), Feagin (1983) and Gottdiener (1985) show that ;

land development, speculation and government progrowth efforts were discovered to be intimately related to the capital accumulation process through the infrastructure mechanism of a second circuit of capital compused of real estate and financial activities.

Fifth, Borchert (1967) and Adams (1970) show that the ecological center piece of suburbanisation theory the correlation of suburbanisation waves to innovations in transport technology.

As Flanagan explains (1990:212) that ;

the early ecologists understood that urban land use patterns were the result of competition among various elements of the urban population Marxists argue that urban patterns, like all areas of social relations in society, are the results of the basic economic process of capital accumulation, profit-taking strategies, and various particularly urban manifestations of the class struggle. Contrary to the central Marxist contention ecologists did not believe that the order they described was necessarily injurious to some social classes as others pursued their own ends; there was no argument that the order which produced these changes was unworkable in the long term.

Therefore, political economy paradigm explain suburbanisation as occurring as a consequence of labor-sourcing strategies and capital accumulation.

2.5. THE STRUCTURING OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS AND THE WAY OF LIFE IN SUBURBS

Suburbia has a physical and a social content. Early suburbs not only represented an idealised place, but also an idealised way of life.

The suburb was the humane alternative to dehumanizing aspects of the city caused by rapid industrialization and uncontrolled change of physical and social structure. Thus the suburban way of life determined by an anti-urban image, negatively evaluating cities, especially in comparison with small, rural communities, which are seen as morally and environmentally superior.

Suburbs that best met this idealized goal were the nineteenth century suburbs of privilege. These affluent suburbs were places treated to reflect an idealized and romanticized image of nature. But this idealization of that period was ignoring inconveniences and liabilities. In Palen's (1995 : 68) words "suburb was the place which is the perfect merger of the energy of the city, and the charm and openness of the country. The aim of it was to seek the residents to return to nature".

By the early twentieth century, dominant role of the central city on this glorified landscape has been acknowledged. The city was still the core and suburbs a residential property. Moving one's family to suburbs meant a residential decision and no more. Suburban way of life prior to the contemporary post World War II period, did not imply any abandonment of the city in other respects. Choldin, (1985 : 386) indicates the development that suburbia no more rejects the city in order to cope with the deficiencies of suburban life based upon familism, fostering a conformity, which would produce great homogeneity.

In choosing suburban location and a single family house with garden indicated that people express a widespread value for privacy and space. According to a theory of Bell (cited in Choldin, 1985 : 394), people moved to be with greater numbers of persons who were like themselves. A process of selection was at work. In Michelson survey (cited in Choldin 1985 : 394) people said suburban neighborhoods are more suitable for raising children.

A study by Gans (cited in Palen, 1995 : 88) in 1962, shows that neighbors are not much closely involved with each other. The interaction is more intimate than a secondary contact, but more guarded than a primary one. Fisher (cited in Choldin, 1985 : 395) states that suburban dwellers,

compared with ones in the city, are more interested in their neighborhoods and more involved with their neighbors.

In most cases, individuals and families have a fair degree of freedom in choosing the location of their residence and neighborhood. The house and neighborhood one chooses have implications for the quality of schools, the quality of the environment, the family members' personal safety, the types and number of friends and neighbors, and the availability of parks and recreation areas (Schwab, 1982).

As the review of literature, the flight to the suburbs of middle-class child-oriented families during the post-world War II period appears to be the result of people searching for a good environment in which to raise children. This lifestyle called *familism*. According to Schwab (1982), familism refers to a lifestyle that emphasizes activities centered around home and children.

Gans (1967) found there were few differences that occurred in lifestyle that could be attributed to city-suburban differences. There were some differences, such as more sociability among neighborhood couples over back fences while doing lawnwork. Gans, however, suggested that the sociability that occurred within Levittown was not a result of suburban residence, but rather a direct consequence of the homogeneity of residents' backgrounds, particularly in age and income.

It also deserves noting that the limitations of suburban life stressed by critics have not been echoed by suburban residents. National surveys going back several decades indicate that suburban residents have a higher degree of satisfaction with their communities than do city residents (Baldassare, 1981). According to Baldassare, suburbanites are more likely to

rate the cultural opportunities and activities in their areas slightly higher than do city dwellers. Suburbanites, additionally, are much more satisfied with a whole range of community facilities and services including schools, police protection, parks and community services. Residents of new fast growing suburbs tend to express somewhat lower satisfaction than longer term residents of more established areas.

Humman, in his study of the extent of community ideology and identity (1990), states three sets of imagers salient to the suburban ideology that are frequently volunteered by suburbanites :

First, suburbanites describe suburbs as *clean, quiet and natural places*. Residents view suburbs as small and quieter places with an easygoing ambience. They lack the frenetic pace and perhaps also the excitement, of the city. On the other side, the suburbs may not be country, but they have openness and provide access to natural things such as birds and trees.

Second, the suburbs are seen as a place of *domesticity*. Suburbanites view themselves as interested in home, family life and children. Suburbs are seen in the suburban ideology as "the best of both worlds". This is particularly true when the focus is on raising children. Children are believed to receive a good education in an environment where they have both freedom and security.

Third, suburbs are viewed as being much different from cities insofar as suburbs are *safe*. The safety of the suburb, in turn, is seen as making other values, such as sociability, family, and good rearing of children possible.

Joseph Zelan (cited in Palen, 1995) asserts those living in suburbs have some minor differences in tastes from city dwellers, for example, preferring gardening and rating cultural affairs lower.

It can be stated that suburbia has some characteristic aspects, defining it as the sub of the city. It is at the same time, growing and changing entity. But this change is not on the values that made up suburbia, but on the quality of the environment on the way these values are defined as a whole. The suburban imagery that is created in minds, seems to be not a desire for a total quality of environment, but one which is concentrated on the domestic life, symbolized by the family house. It was the desire for privacy and controlled public relations characterizing the suburban way of life.

2.6. THE CRITICS OF SUBURBIA

The explosive growth of fringe areas of cities in the decade ending in 1960 led many students of the city to worry about the future of American culture.

In general, this group believed that the growth of suburbs was a unique phenomenon emerging for the first time in the post-World War II period. As Schwab (1982) asserts this group viewed suburban growth as negatively affecting city life in many ways. First, these critics argued that as the middle and upper classes moved to the suburbs, the city would be deprived of its traditional leadership. Second, as these groups moved outward, leaving behind the poor, the old, and minority people, the problems of poverty and racism in the city would become worse. Third, these critics suggested that the movement of the middle class to the suburb would cause an erosion of the tax base, and that cities would have fewer financial

resources with which to solve their problems. Finally, these sociologists suggested that the financial plight of cities was worsened by suburbanites' practice of living on the city's fringe in politically autonomous communities but working at the city's center, consuming city services but not paying for them. In this sense, the poor in the central city were viewed as subsidising the affluent in the suburban ring.

These authors also directed their criticism to the structure and lifestyle of the suburbs. Planners argued that suburbs squandered the nation's resources. Because of their low density, suburbs consumed large amounts of land in housing construction. Normally built on a modified grid pattern, they used water, sewer, gas, road and electrical systems inefficiently. Socially, they were viewed as negatively affecting both men and women the housewife isolated with the children by day was ignored at night by the bread winner exhausted from commuting to the city. Thus the critics thought the modern suburban lifestyle was unique, and inevitably transformed the character of suburbanites.

During the 1960s and 1970s another generation of sociologists began to study the suburbs and to question the prevailing image of the suburban life. Scott Greer (1962) in the early 1960s was among the first to interject a cautionary note into the central city-suburban debate. Most new construction takes place outside a city's boundaries because undeveloped land is unavailable in central locations. In addition, Greer noted that the population attributes used by Reisman and others in the 1950s to characterise suburbs are shared by people living in many of the central city's neighborhoods. Greer in other books and articles employed social area analysis in exploring the political behaviour, neighboring and community involvement of people living in different parts of the city.

While the first generation of post-World War suburban studies discovered alleged widespread suburban conformity, the 1960s research saw the effects of suburbanisation as being far more problematical. Sociologists such as Bennett M. Berger, William Dobriner, and Herbert Gans began examining how much of the popularly accepted view of suburbia was reality and how much was myth. The empirical question being asked was whether the commonly accepted *facts* regarding suburbia were indeed facts or simply widely accepted beliefs. In simple terms, did moving from city to suburb change social behaviour?

Suburbia was confronted with remaining central problems. Three aspects of suburbs; distance, being separate, and being selected, identify the problem. Low density zoning results in sprawling development patterns that require lengthy automobile commutes to employment and retail concentrations. With distance, comes the suburbia's duality of content which is an inevitable aspect of the suburban ideal. Moreover, there comes the conscious separation from both advantages and disadvantages of the city. The result is the isolation from public life. Clark (1966 : 143) states that the loneliness of suburban life did nothing more than accentuate more directly felt physical discomforts of residence in a community socially was yet far from complete. For him this community is a form of urban community that is created through the mass movement of population from the city. Being a selected community, suburbia mostly aimed homogeneity in social terms. The need to provide large estates of virtually identical dwellings caused the monotony.

2.7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

A review of the literature on the suburbs shows that at times suburbanization has been viewed as the solution to and at other times the cause of urban ills. Suburban communities differ from central cities in these respects:

1. Low density land use
2. The absence of a central downtown district
3. Suburbs are not compact, dense and diverse
4. Suburbs having more neighbouring than cities (Palen, 1995)
5. Suburbs have a higher degree of satisfaction with their communities than do city residents (Baldassare, 1981).

However, the process framed as a solution to urban problems was redefined as a problem itself. They are generally in the way to become urbanized. They are simply getting to be cities. Their street traffic increases. They are no longer sub. Thus, there is a belief that the general quality of suburban life is decreasing (Palen, 1995).

Douglas stated (1970) that in the most general sense the suburbs are thus a belt of near-by but less crowded communities which have *close connections* with the city, made possible by physical arrangements for the rapid transfer of people and goods between the two. It is the area within which many people go to the city to work and come back at night, the area within which numerous shoppers flock to city stores which make daily deliveries of purchases. Also, he adds that the suburbs within the cities are generally in the way to become urbanised. They continuously tend to follow the central areas in congestion and other characteristics and to become more and more homogeneous with the total structure of the city. They are

simply getting to be cities. The structures erected to house their additional people follow the city type. Their street traffic increases. Rapid growth urbanises the suburbs.

Will the people of metropolitan areas in the future have to live under more congested conditions and will the escape to the suburbs be less practicable and available for a smaller proportion than at present?

No happy outcome can be predicted with any certainty if the expansion of cities continues to be so largely as in the past an uncontrolled process. The future of the suburbs is thus partially in the hands of the present.

Certainly, those experts writing at the end of World War II had no idea that suburbanisation would become the dominant trend for the last half of the twentieth century.

Palen predicts (1995:226) the future of suburbs:

As someone who loves the vitality and variety of large cities, I have hoped for many years to see central cities make a strong comeback. However, research indicates that this is not what is occurring. Moreover, there are few reasons, except my wishing it to be so, to predict that such restructuring of current patterns will occur in the next decade or two. The twentieth century, which began as the age of the city, is departing as the age of the suburb.

Ford states (1998:509) that:

The term suburban was used to describe areas that were either outside the city limits and a long way from the traditional downtown. They were assumed to be relatively socially and racially homogenous with populations made up of young, white, middle-class families. Suburbia, then, was simply what the traditional city was not. It was not compact, dense, and diverse.

Many of earlier criticisms are no longer valid. Since 1960, for example, more apartment units have been built in the suburbs than in central cities. Suburbia no longer is made up of only single family homes and middle-class nuclear families. Similarly shopping malls and office parks have brought immense numbers of jobs, shopping, and recreational activities to the once homogeneously residential suburbs. The more the character of suburbia has changed, however, the more many of the problems of isolation and anomie have remained the same. (Ford, 1998). Ford adds that (1998) the basic allegation in many of the critiques of suburbia is that something has gone very wrong with the way many middle class Americans have chosen to live. As houses and neighborhoods have increasingly come to be seen as refuges from the social ills of the city and as sound financial investments as much as places to live, we have tended to isolate ourselves from civilisation and each other. Authors such as Longdon, Kunstler, Barnett, Davis and others have discussed the increasing segregation and isolation of the modern metropolis. Also, Ford asserts (1998:509) ;

people buy bigger homes with more luxurious features than they can afford and so two or more family members must work long hours and commute long distances to pay for them. The home as a center for family life thus becomes more of a dream than a reality as people are rarely at home. In addition, many new residential areas are walled, gated and located at the end of long cul de sac street system.

Therefore in the following chapter, the suburbanization process of Turkey is discussed and the similarities and / or differences of this process between Turkey and the developed countries is scrutinized.



CHAPTER 3
THE DYNAMICS OF SUBURBANIZATION IN TURKEY AND URBAN
SPRAWL IN ANKARA

3.1. URBAN DYNAMICS AND SUBURBANIZATION IN TURKEY

With increases in population, industrialization and urbanization more and more people moved into cities starting in 1950's. This movement led to changes in environmental ideals. Accordingly, people discovered apartment living, which represented a prestigious type of accommodation, preferred by the well-to-do and aspired to by lower income groups. This movement which still continues, give rise to higher apartment buildings, disappearance of green areas and abolishment of neighbourhoods. Thus, the closely settled neighbourhoods of homogenous people were transformed into the densely populated, heterogeneous areas where people might not be acquainted with even the people living in the same apartment building. In response to such changes, many people aspired to live in the newly developing suburban areas. Thus, parallel to the rural-urban migration, there is a relatively recent move from central areas to outskirts of city (İmamoğlu and İmamoğlu, 1996).

According to Kıray (1981), following are the aspects which direct the sprawl in Turkey;

* High technology which, with great amount of capital, tends to locate on empty, cheap land with its extensive plantation, quite far from the city center,

* Gradually growing middle scale industries which tend to locate just around the periphery of large cities and around the small cities.

* With the change in agricultural production migration of population from rural sites and fluctuations of residential choices of this group within metropolitan area.

Therefore, the suburban developments in Turkey are in its initial stage and due to its recent development, there is a difficulty in reaching clear and necessary data about the characteristics of these new settlements (Ersöz, 1997). In most of the studies and discussions, these developments were considered as solution to housing shortage in Turkey.

3.1.1. Reasons for Moving to the Suburbs

In a survey (cited in Altaban, 1978) undertaken by the Ankara City Planning Office among housing cooperatives which had chosen land outside the city, the reasons for preferring lands outside the city has been asked. High land prices and high rents were the main reason given for moving to suburbs.

As a second reason difficulty in living conditions (air pollution, bad quality of environment and insufficient infrastructure) was expressed. Retirement was the last factor for moving.

Similarly, in another research carried out by (İmamoğlu and İmamoğlu 1996 : 49) among a three socio-economic residential groups within and outside the city of Ankara, it is found that most of the important reason for choosing the location was economical.

The increase in the mobility through private car ownership was another factor that positively affected the decisions for moving to suburban areas. Private car ownership compensated for the negative role of long distance commuting. Although, it seems that suburban living is supported by private car in developed countries, in Turkey, mass transportation is an important means of commuting especially in middle and low income settlements. Therefore, the increase in private car ownership are not considered as a reason for moving to suburban areas in Turkey.

The declining quality of life in the city, is also a factor increasing the desire for living outside the congested urban area. The increase in the population has resulted in the increase in densities within the city.

Studies on the new residential districts in Turkey, concerning the re-evaluation of occupants point out to similar results. For most people living outside the city means to live in a house having a private or a semi-public garden. Suburban life is characterized by a private garden house although most of the houses do not have sufficient land to provide a garden.

However, community consciousness in social and physical terms is found not to be present yet. This can be observed from the importance given to the environmental quality while choosing the houses (Ersöz, 1997).

3.1.2. Social Character of Suburban Growth

Before industrialisation, the only tendency is seen by upper income families that has moved to a new residential suburb. Some high income families tended to have houses at the periphery or at the seaside close to

the urban areas. These were the only settlements showing some features close to sprawl (Kıray, 1981).

After 1950's the concentration of population in some big cities and the existence of metropolitan cities began to emerge at this phase of development. The low income group migrating from rural areas to metropolitan cities, has a great difficulty in occupying a house within a planned environment. Thus, the early suburban residential settlements were formed and occupied by the low income groups. These were unplanned, low density, isolated, squatter settlements. Although these squatter settlements developed in a gradual and disorderly way and lacked the prestige of the planned suburban settlements, in terms of their relation with the city they reflected a suburban character (Pulat, 1992).

Finally, in Turkey the elite composed of the most powerful members of the society tends to move out of the city boundaries and to live more spaciouly. Likewise due to the increase in land prices in the city middle income people has to move out of the city. However with their limited income they aim to buy the same quality of dwelling as one in the city because the prices are lower. The result is the density apartment settlements at the periphery of the large cities, every so often combined with the squatting which are the housing settlements market for the urban poor (Büyükalıntaş, 1985).

In terms of the relationship between distance from the center and occupation groups, in 1970's Ankara reflects a sharp division of social groups. According to the results of research by Ankara city planning office low income group occupy the land outside the four kilometres distance ring from the center. Middle income group occupies the land between four to

the ten kilometres distance from the city center. It is the upper income group who live in the central areas within the four kilometres circle from the center (Ankara'nın İmarı, 1970).

The residential developments on the periphery of the city were occupied by low and middle income families. This reflects the characteristics of the city during the beginning of mass suburbanization in Turkey. Suburbanization of high income group residences has begun after 1970's as a conversion of early established working class residential areas, or as new seasonal houses built close to rural villages. Income groups, were influenced in their choice by different considerations. The rich moved to the suburbia in search of a better place to live, the poor in search of a cheaper. For the moderate income family, the choice was determined by considerations, distance from city, its accessibility by road, a desirable local community environment.

3.1.3. Means of Residential Production

Suburban settlements are improved through some basic means of production in Turkey. The production is undertaken by;

- * Local Authority or State Organizations.
- * Private Enterprise
- * Cooperative Organizations
- * Banks
- * Partnerships of them

Among these means, Mass Housing Association (TOKİ), as a state organization aims to provide housing as a whole environment for middle

and low income group. But in time, due to the tendency of profit offered by the rent-value, this aim was partially achieved, houses were owned by middle and upper income groups and rented to the lower income group people.

Private organizations and banks most of the time responds to the needs of middle or high income groups. They prefer to produce similar type schemes and houses which is more suitable and economical regarding their production systems (Ersöz, 1997).

Residential developments by cooperatives have the potential to respond people from every income group, and offer an opportunity to join the decision making process for the group who constitute it. Cooperative organizations are composed by people who has the similar socio-economic standards, and share the similar living conditions.

3.2. REVIEW OF SUBURBANISATION IN ANKARA

In this part, suburbanisation in Ankara is examined. The aim is to understand the dynamics behind the urban sprawl and nature of the implementations out of the city boundaries.

3.2.1. Residential Development Tendencies in Ankara Until 1970 s

In early years of this century, Ankara was a small town. Before the declaration of capital of Turkey the only sign that shows sprawl character around the Ankara was the existence of houses in vineyards (Karaosmanoğlu, 1981; Atay, 1980).

After being the capital of Turkey Ankara had faced very rapid invasion by the civil servants, governmental officials, military officers, other job holders in the governmental body and bureaucrats. Consequently, the first and serious housing shortage began to emerge.

The members of elite group, who come to Ankara from different cities, mostly the bureaucrats and the military offices (Atay, 1980) work at the center, Ulus and live out of the city. Then the houses of countryside became a part of the city and these houses were scattered out on the countryside far from the city center. The transportation mode were the horses or horse-carriages at that time.

As time passed and new comers grew in number, Ankara had very rapid population concentration which other urban settlements hardly reached after 1960s.

Additionally, having the aim of creating contemporary cities and urbanisation process which would reflect the nature and the success of the new republic, (Tekeli, 1980) the government began to establish new housing environment out of the boundaries of old Ankara.

In 1930s a land-use plan was prepared by Jansen with a competition and new plan was approved in 1934. In these years, even until the second world war, the only urban area which had serious urbanisation rate in Turkey was Ankara (Tekeli, 1978).

With these pressure the first successful development was realised by Bahçelievler Housing Cooperative.

The selection of the site for Bahçelievler was quite an interesting example of the urban sprawl at that time and still it is. Furthermore, the future development pressures around it are typical features of sprawled residential settlements in Turkish cities. About its effects to urbanisation of Ankara, Tekeli and Ilkin (1984:107) add that;

with the location of the Bahçelievler, the city scattered towards the west side seriously. About this sprawl accessibility to centers and the recreational areas were the main encouragements.

The most important characteristics of Bahçelievler is that a shows the features of a suburban residential sprawl of a developed country with respect to density mostly single family detached houses-price of land and distance to the center.

After the second world war, the urbanisation process which slowed down in other cities in Turkey did not lose its speed in Ankara (Akçura, 1982). Due to the effects of the war the construction of new dwellings decreased so the housing shortage was doubled. Yenimahalle had the dense suburban character for the moderate and middle income groups.

3.2.2. Residential Development Tendencies in Ankara in 1970s.

In 1970s Ankara had the highest urbanisation rate among the cities in Turkey. Due to the increase in population, inadequacy of formal housing supply created serious excess demand in the formal housing market. Rapid increase in population and excess demand has led to a continuous rise in land prices within the planned area (Türel, 1981). Then, the desires to operate out of the cities especially by organised middle and moderate income groups were seen (Altaban 1978, Altaban 1982). These groups tend

to select new areas by jumping over the ring fortifications of squatter settlements. Altaban (1978) in his study for metropolitan area of Ankara states that much of the cooperatives try to move out of city boundaries. Meanwhile these are not the low density suburbs, rather, they are dense apartment settlements of the middle class who works at the city center (Kiray, 1981).

3.2.3. Conclusion About the Residential Sprawl in Ankara Until 1980s.

So far, three important examples of the sprawled residential developments through the historical urban development in Ankara. From this analysis characteristics and similarities of peripheral development in Ankara may be derived as followings:

- * Due to to increase in population new dwellings, so new urban sites are needed,

- * This population increase leads to continuous rise in land prices,

- * If the development plans do not permit the expansion of the planned area, land price increases will be more important and desire to move out of the built-up area will be greater,

- * New sprawled area defines the future location of the urban residential expansion,

- * If as time passed, the sprawled area becomes a part of a prestigious residential district, the pressures for additional storeys emerge,

- * Due to the inferiority of transportation facilities and lack of social and technical infrastructure the elite does not have much desire to live far from the city center unless there exist important propulsive reasons or if they can organise to build a housing estate as a group, making use of their political and social power.

3.2.4. Suburbanisation of Ankara After 1980s.

The most significant mode of housing supply developed in the fifties was the emergence of the so called *build and sell* practice. It constituted the dominant mode of housing supply up to early 1980's (Tekeli, 1987). According to Tekeli (1987), another important characteristic of housing supply in the 1975-1985 period is the emergence of mass-housing initiatives.

Cooperative housing created at fringes of the city since the mid seventies, may be considered as signs of suburban development (Tekeli, 1987).

In a new plan called Ankara-2015, decentralisation was determined as the primary aim for the future developments of Ankara as the compact form of the city was creating pollution. Günay (1988) states that the new macroform is based on six growth directions where geomorphically suitable *western corridor* is still the bulkiest. Batıkent, Eryaman, Eskişehir road, Çayyolu and Konutkent are the developments in western corridor. Eskişehir road or Çayyolu development neighborhood unit is the basic planning principle which define the limits and characteristics of the layouts. It was the same period that the urban elite has begun to move into suburban areas for residential purposes. Another aspect of these developments is the construction of high-rise blocks within more spacious layouts along with the low-rise garden houses.

Suburbanisation has accelerated by a search for affordable land and housing. This also reflects the social character of the occupants. In a research (cited in Altaban, 1978) by Ankara City Planning office among housing co-operatives that chose land outside the city, *their reasons for*

preferring lands outside the city has been asked. High land prices and high rents were the main reason for moving to suburbs. Later, difficulty in living conditions was expressed as a reason. Retirement was the last factor for moving.

Dülgeroğlu (1996) in the study of new residential districts in Istanbul and Ankara, claimed some important aspects of living outside the city. According to the results of the study:

- * Most of the people want to live in low rise houses having a private garden

- * Open spaces are mostly of concern in visual terms and important for the satisfaction from the environment.

- * When their preferences for the quality are asked, the quality of house is more important than the quality of environment.

- * When their understanding of ideal house is asked, they do not include high-rise block among the contemporary and original house type although they live in those type of houses.

- * Social and cultural differences among the people, is effective on their expectations from their environment.

Furthermore, according to the results of the research by İmamoğlu and İmamoğlu (1996);

- * The importance of environment and aesthetic qualities increases as the socio-economic status increases.

- * The suburban life enable people to feel more control power on his environment and life.

* The people who live outside the city seems to be much more satisfied with their environments in comparison to the ones who live in the city.

3.3. THE COMPARISON OF THE SUBURBAN MOVEMENT IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES AND IN TURKEY

A review of the literature on the suburbs shows that at times suburbanisation has been viewed as the solution to and at other times the cause of urban ills. Suburbanization is one part of a more general process of population redistribution. This deconcentration of population is not a new process in developed countries. However, this process is observed in Turkey with industrialization in 1950's.

Suburbia is the most characteristic product of explosive urban expansion and a desperate protest against it, and suburban character emerged through a constant criticism of urban life. It was the urban man who questioned the city conditions and searched for new ways of living close to city in developed countries. Also, Günay (1987) asserts new settlements in developed countries appear as a reaction to the industrial city and with the highest priority, they aim to provide bio-physical system balance.

After the Industrial Revolution, due to the propulsive effects of the manufacturing activities such as smoke and noise, rich and middle income classes tended to live on the peripheral areas of towns (Büyükalıntaş, 1995).

Similarly, in Turkey, difficulty in living conditions (air pollution, bad quality of environment and insufficient infrastructure) was expressed. However, while suburbanization rise to an alternative for unhealthy housing environment in developed countries, in Turkey, this concept is perceived housing units constructed (Günay, 1987).

Moreover, he adds that new settlements in Turkey are started with highly good projects at the beginning but then, they are coming to high density residential areas.

In contrast, in developed countries, high-rise buildings in new settlements are constructed in order to create more open and green areas within the residential areas. By reason of, high-rise buildings of new settlements do not cause a speculative effect (Günay, 1987).

Suburban developments after the world war, accelerated by making use of the cheap land outside the city and of the programmes of loans. The ideal living situation was characterized by a single family home set on a lawn, far from noisy, dirty urban centres and factories (Jarden, 1993).

In Turkey, new settlements problem started with the Republic. After 1970's, phenomenon observed in Turkish cities, building codes continue to come to an end (Günay, 1987). The growth of the cities affected the value of land and housing within the city. Relative to the urban area, land prices on the peripheral rural area offered cheaper land.

In Turkey, urban elite has begun to move into suburban areas for residential purposes in 1980's. Another aspect of these developments is the construction of high-rise blocks within more spacious layouts along with the

low-rise garden houses. This is an important point that differentiates the Turkish experience from the English and American experiences on suburbia.

Rowe (1991) states that the dominant feature in the American middle landscape is the single family home. Similarly, English tradition of living place, the house, is the detached house. The differences appear on the character of suburbia depending on the income level of the dwellers (Ersöz, 1997). Schafer (1974) indicates that;

In England and American suburbs, well-to-do people live in low density areas while lower income groups live in flats with high density environment. The early high-rise apartment suburbs were mostly replaced by middle - rise, high - density residential environments.

Compared to the high-rise blocks on suburbs in Turkey, these apartments are limited in height to rise environmental quality and require a more specific design.

In contrast, suburban practices of nineteenth century has settled some constant patterns and concepts of spatial treatment. The concepts of openness, natural and the patterns of cul-de-sac, neighbourhood unit and single family house with garden constituted the suburban character and have found world wide application. In time, although they have lost their initial ideal, in the design of suburbia they were kept as goals in developed countries.

In addition to search for openness and free air, privacy of family life outside the city has developed its specific type of house, that was the symbol of suburban settlements. As the review of literature, the flight to the suburbs of middle-class child oriented families during the post-world War II

period appears to be the result of people searching for a good environment in which to raise children in developed countries.

Moreover, suburbs are viewed as being much different from cities insofar as suburbs are safe. The safety of the suburb, in turn, is seen as making other values, such as sociability, family and good rearing of children possible. Fisher (cited in Choldin, 1985) states that suburban dwellers, compared with ones in the city, are more interested in their neighbourhoods and more involved with their neighbours.

Being a selected community, suburbia mostly aimed homogeneity in social terms. The need to provide large estates of virtually identical dwellings caused the monotony. These aspects of suburbs; distance, being separate and being selected, identify the problem. The result is the isolation from public life. However, according to a survey results, suburbs have a higher degree of satisfaction with their communities than do city residents (Baldassare, 1981).

Do these characteristics of suburbs in developed countries follow a similar pattern in Turkey or not? How far people living in suburban mass housing are satisfied with their social environment? Thus, in the chapter five, answers to the above mentioned questions are sought in the case of Ankara-Eryaman First Stage Mass Housing Area.

Therefore, in generally, Turkey follow a similar way with developed countries in many aspects. In contrast, goals and results are important points which differentiate the Turkish suburban experience from the experience of the developed countries.

3.4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

With increases in population, industrialization and urbanization more and more people moved into cities starting in 1950's.

Similar to the developed countries, suburbanization as a mass movement was visible with the development of industrialization in Turkey.

Migration from rural areas to urban centers is the reality of growing cities. The accumulation of numbers in the city results in the shortage of appropriate housing watching in the city thus, giving way to the expansion through the periphery. Also, relative to the urban area land prices on the peripheral rural area offered cheaper land.

Moreover, the declining quality of living in the city, is also a factor increasing the desire for living outside the congestion of the city.

The suburbs of big cities in Turkey offer living places for middle and high income groups.

Mass-housing areas in suburbs are perceived from a quantitative perspective. Due to the desire of authorities (especially state and local) to solve the housing shortage in a short time period.

Thus, the suburban developments in Turkey are in their initial stages and due to their recent development, there exists limited data on the characteristics of these new settlements.

Ankara is selected as an example for, suburban residential developments offering new environments for the middle and upper income groups in Turkey. In the following chapters, this study aims to a survey research about Eryaman First Stage mass housing area developed as a new settlement in the periphery of Ankara, in order to understand social environmental qualitative values of Eryaman residential area.



CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND THE SELECTION

CRITERIA FOR THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

In this part, first a discussion of the conceptual framework of qualitative and quantitative research methods is attempted. Thereafter, objective and subjective domains of qualitative research is analyzed and the rationale for selecting the qualitative approach as well as the main criteria for empirical research is given.

4.1. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Most authors of methodology texts attempt to separate between qualitative and quantitative modes of research.

According to Patton (1990 : 14);

Qualitative methods permit the evaluator to study selected issues in depth and detail. Quantitative methods, on the other hand, require the use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which numbers are assigned. The advantage of a quantitative approach is that it's possible to measure the reactions of a great many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of the data. By contrast, qualitative methods typically produce a wealth of detailed information about a much smaller number of people and cases.

Low explains (1987) some aspects of qualitative and quantitative research methods. According to study carried out by Low, qualitative methods focus on validity and draw their strength from the close fit between actual situation and the researcher's description, understanding, and interpretation of that situation. Quantitative methods, in contrast, sample a wider range of phenomena and emphasize reliability of the measures. The strength of quantitative studies lies in the generalizability of the findings and the testing of deductive theory.

According to another study, Kirk and Miller (1986) state that distinguishing between quantitative and qualitative methods as procedures for counting to one. In qualitative methods, meanings rather than frequencies assume permanent significance. Also, they add that within the social sciences, qualitative research is a tradition that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language on their own terms.

4.2. THE METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF ANALYSIS

4.2.1. Domain of Objective and Subjective Analysis in Qualitative Research

Objectivity is central to scientific inquiry. Research designs, whether they employ quantitative or qualitative methods, are supposed to generate valid and reliable data and the researcher is supposed to report the outcomes in terms of meaningful variables, justifiable in terms of relevant theories. Objectivity is not the province of positivism; it is essential as the basis for all good research (Golledge and Stimson, 1997).

Patton expresses (1990 : 10) that ;

Objectivity has been considered the strength of the scientific method. Objective tests gather data through instruments that, in principle, are not dependent on human skill, perception, or even presence. Yet, it is clear that tests and questionnaires are designed by human beings and are, therefore subject to the intrusion of the researcher's biases. Subjectivity, on the other hand, has such negative connotations in the public mind that to openly advocate the value of subjective insight in evaluation research is to risk undermining the credibility of one's work.

He also adds that critics of qualitative inquiry have charged that the approach is too subjective. The researcher is the instrument of both data collection and data interpretation, and a qualitative strategy includes having personal contact with and getting close to the people and the situation under study.

According to Cummins (1997 : 20);

Quality of life is both objective and subjective. Objective domains comprise culturally relevant measures of objective well-being. Subjective domains comprise domain satisfaction weighted by their importance to the individual.

Thus, both objectivity and subjectivity can prove to be valid and reliable scientific research. Golledge and Stimson (1997) assert objectivity is central to scientific inquiry. It is essential as the basis for all good research. Also, subjectivity is an important domain in research about social environmental satisfaction. Thus, the main social environmental quality criteria are evaluated by objective and subjective domains in this study.

4.2.2. Techniques of Data Collection

Basically, qualitative methodologies are concerned with;

- * invention (research design)
- * discovering (observation and measurement)
- * interpretation (evaluation or analysis)
- * explanation (communication or packaging)

Patton describes (1990 : 10) qualitative methods consist of three kinds of data collection;

- * in depth, open-ended interviews
- * direct observation
- * written documents

He also adds that qualitative findings may be presented alone or in combination with quantitative data. Recent developments in the evaluation profession have led to an increase in the use of multiple methods, including combinations of qualitative and quantitative data. One important way to strengthen a study design is through triangulation, or the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena or programs. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Patton (1990 : 187) described that;

The logic of triangulation is based on the premise that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival causal factors. Because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observations must be employed. This termed triangulation.

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According to another study carried out by Yin (1994), with triangulation, the potential problems of construct validity also can be addressed, because the multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon.

Patton also adds (1990) that, combinations of interviewing, observation, and document analysis are expected in much social science fieldwork.

Interviews	→	findings	→	conclusions
Survey	→	findings	→	conclusions
Document analysis	→	findings	→	conclusions

In many ways a major trade-off between quantitative methods and qualitative methods is a trade-off between breadth and depth. Qualitative methods permit the evaluation researcher to study selected issues in depth and detail; the fact that data collection is not constrained by predetermined categories of analysis contributes to the depth and detail of qualitative data.

Patton expresses (1990) that there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what's at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources. With the same fixed resources and limited time, a researcher could study a specific set of experiences for a larger number of people (Seeking breadth) or a more open range of experiences for a smaller number of people (seeking depth).

In depth information from a small number of people can be very valuable, especially if the cases are information rich. Less depth from a larger number of people can be especially helpful in exploring a phenomenon and trying to document diversity or understand variation.

To understand the problem of small samples in the context of probability sampling. A qualitative inquiry sample only seems small in comparison with the sample size needed for representatives when the purpose is generalizing from a sample to the population of which it is part.

Thus, the validity, meaning fullness and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information-richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size (Patton, 1990).

Fieldwork, is not a single method or technique. Evaluation of the fieldwork means that the evaluator is on-site observing, talking with people and going through program records.

Furthermore, Marshall and Rossman states (1989 : 85) that;

Multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective on the program.

They also add that by using a combination of observations, interviewing and document analysis, the fieldworker is able to use different data sources to validate and cross-check findings. Using a combination of data types increases validity as the strengths of one approach can compensate for the weaknesses of another approach.

Thus, it is advisable to design a research that combines various methods of data collection, such as interviews, questionnaires, literature survey, observations and ratings.

4.3. THE SELECTION OF MAIN CRITERIA FOR SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTAL SATISFACTION

Although there is no simple and easy way to clearly delimit the concept of social well-being, it is even less easy to break it down into its component parts and specify these in such a way that they become tangible measurable and manageable (OECD, 1976).

There is a large body of contemporary as well as old research in the field of sociology, social psychology, planning and geography grouped under the generic title of "*Community/Neighborhood Satisfaction*" studies. Such research may investigate *macro-level* structural properties, including population size, overcrowding, population density, number of dwelling units in sites, ethnic heterogeneity, and urbanity of respective areas, and *micro-level* variables included personal attitudes of neighborhood satisfaction and positive evaluation, development of social networks, and socio-demographic characteristics (Nasar and Julian, 1995; Sagy and Stern, 1996).

Satisfaction is a reliable measure of social well-being and this measure is used as an anchoring point in assessing the relevance of social and physical indicators in the field of social well-being research.

When a good social life in both physical and social terms is considered attention must be paid to the following factors :

1. Personal and socio-economic characteristics; e.g. birthplace, age, sex, family size, employment status, income level and education level.
2. Physical variables such as housing and housing environment.
3. Social variables meaning, social interaction, neighborhood relations, privacy and safety.

Also, behaviour and perceptions of people relate to their personal characteristics such as birthplace, sex and age. Moreover, socio-economic characteristics such as income level, employment status and education level effect perceptions of people.

Thus, in this research, not only social but also physical indicators are used while measuring social well-being. Moreover, during the analysis personal and socio-economic characteristics of households are taken into consideration.

4.3.1. Personal and Socio-economic Characteristics in Relation to the Environmental Satisfaction

Seven respondent characteristics were used as control variables in the analysis, because they have been defined as causal factors in previous research on sense of community. They are age, sex, income level, employment status, education and family size (Wilson and Baldassare, 1996).

In other words, several studies have shown that, a clear relationships between age and evaluations of conditions of life, including the neighborhood exists (Harris, Marans and Rodgers, Campbell cited in Carp and Carp, 1982).

The gerontological literature abounds with studies which conclude that older individuals tend to evaluate their situations more favourably than seems warranted and this tendency has come to be accepted as characteristic of growing old. Gender has been of less interest with regard to environmental assessments (Carp and Carp, 1982).

According to Marans and Rodgers (1975), a resident's assessment of his or her environment is dependent on the perceptions of particular attributes of his or her environment and the standards of judgement used to evaluate those perceptions. Moreover, Baba and Austin state (1989) that, the socio-economic status of a resident has been demonstrated to have an impact on this subjective evaluation. Because of differences in expectations we can expect residents of higher socio-economic status to use a higher standard of evaluation in their social psychological assessment of their neighborhood. However, we can also expect their objective neighborhood conditions to be of a relatively higher quality, therefore raising both the standard of judgement and, presumably, the objective quality of the neighborhood being evaluated.

Social class and age play an important role in the degree to which such perceptions of neighborhood decline exist. That is, social class has an effect on local social bonds. Higher-status individuals tend to have fewer friends and relatives living in their own community and also belong to more formal organizations in the community (Berry and Kasarda, 1977).

Several studies of social life have shown that people tend to choose friends on the basis of similarities in backgrounds, such as age and socio-economic level; values, such as those with respect to privacy and interests, such as leisure activity preferences (Gans, 1961). These findings suggest that social relationships are influenced and explained by people's

homogeneity with respect to a variety of characteristics, although it is not yet known exactly what combination of characteristics must be shared for different social relationships.

Thus, in this research both physical and social indicators are evaluated in terms of personal and socio-economic characteristics of the residents.

Whereby personal characteristics birthplace, sex, age and family size are make up the personal characteristics. Socio-economic status on the other hand is defined by a composite scale comprising of the information on family income, education of the responded and the occupation of the household head.

4.3.2. Physical Indicators

Physical indicators like housing and housing environment which have been indicated as the basic determinants of the residential quality, affect peoples' level of satisfaction with their environment.

There exists a relationship between housing satisfaction and the number of rooms.

Kaplan expresses (1985) the physical characteristics of neighborhoods have also been studied, but perhaps less analytically. Upkeep and maintenance are identified as important to residents, as is access to facilities and services. As Rapaport (1980) rightly points out, designers can directly influence the environmental quality of urban housing in terms of many of these physical characteristics.

According to a number of surveys in the world, the effects of environment design can be seen in the interaction of people clearly (Festinger, 1950).

The most important factors contributing to housing environment satisfaction are :

- * accessibility to open and green areas.
- * accessibility to CBD (Central Business District)
- * accessibility to social services (such as school, shopping centers and socio-cultural facilities)
- * accessibility to office

Among them, the existence of open and green areas was the most important factor contributing to the environmental satisfaction of housing.

Also, there exists a negative correlation between the desire of the people to move to another district and environmental satisfaction of housing.

Taylor (1982) concludes from his survey research that physical deterioration and lack of green areas are strongly related to the dissatisfaction with the living environment. Widgery (1982) and Nasar (1983) also confirms that satisfaction with a residential area depends largely on the visual quality of the the housing area.

In Turkey, regarding the living environment, the absence of green areas (such as recreational areas like playgrounds for children, parks, sport areas) and pollution are the two most important factors the residents

complain about (Aydemir, 1991). Being at a distance from the city center is the other factor affecting the level dissatisfaction of residents.

Aydemir also adds (1981) that, in addition to the quality of social and physical environment, centrality and accessibility are the factors affecting the residents' environmental satisfaction.

Thus, in this study, the physical indicators of housing and housing environment are selected for analysis, as they seem to be the most important variables contributing to housing satisfaction environmental contentment of the residents.

4.3.3. Social Indicators

4.3.3.1. Social Interaction

Next to physical variables contributing to environmental satisfaction of housing, quite a number of research has shown that, also social interaction play an important role in residential satisfaction.

Neighborhoods have social as well as physical characteristics; not surprisingly, both domains, as well as their interaction, affect residential satisfaction (Kaplan, 1985).

Social interaction according to others like Fried (1982), is important only to those who value it.

In studying social interaction, among other indicators privacy, neighborhood relations and safety are considered the most important social indicators.

The use and frequency of social services are important determinants of social interaction. Also, the liveliness of social services is considered as a variable for social interaction.

According to Chermayeff and Alexander (1996), in considering the main aspects of lifetime habitats it is important to locate homes near to facilities and places which provide opportunities for social services as well as providing for the everyday needs of life (shopping, healthcare, religious ceremonies, banking and the like).

4.3.3.2. Privacy

Privacy which is considered as an important factor of housing, is defined by Altman (1975) as a selective control of access to the self or to one's group. It is accepted as a factor easing the stresses imposed on individuals by the complexity of the outdoor life. The attitudes towards privacy are reflected in the separation of both the house from neighbors and differentiation of domains within the house (Zarakolu, 1993).

Westin's analysis (1970) suggests that people seek a balance between openness and closedness, to be with others and to be away from others at different times. She also noted that too much or too little separation from others is an undesirable state of affairs, suggesting a nonmonotonic, dialectic approach to privacy, which is central to their framework. According to Simmel (1968), all social processes involve dialectic interplays between various forces helping and harming, harmony and conflict, openness and closedness to others, intimacies and trivia in social relationships.

Naturally, many societies rely on environmental mechanisms to achieve privacy. For example, in Bali, Geertz (cited in Westin, 1970) reported the existence of high walls which surround homes, and the fact that people only rarely entered other people's homes. Or, as Canter and Canter (1971) noted, the Japanese home is carefully designed to maximize privacy. High walls, careful lot and site locations insure prevention of visual access; elaborate inside miniaturization of detail and shifting room and wall arrangements are aimed at achieving appropriate levels of privacy.

Thus, if cultures are examined carefully, one will eventually uncover privacy mechanisms used to regulate social interaction. These mechanisms may be nonverbal, verbal, or environmental. To put the point more dramatically, one might say that mechanisms for regulating interpersonal boundaries to achieve a desired level of privacy are universal and present in all societies. While some cultures may appear to have little privacy, this is probably due to a traditional view of privacy as solely a physical and environmental process, not as a complex behavioral system which draws on many levels of functioning (Altman, 1979).

Thus, in this study, privacy in terms of housing privacy is selected for analysis as a factor contributing to environmental satisfaction. Level of privacy is measured based on the subjective evaluations of the respondents.

4.3.3.3. Neighborhood Relations

Social relationships are not based on census data, but on subjectively experienced definitions of homogeneity and heterogeneity which terminate in judgements of compatibility or incompatibility. Such interest and values do reflect differences in background characteristics since

a person's beliefs and actions are shaped in part by his age, income, occupation and the like. These characteristics can therefore, be used as clues to understanding the pattern of social relationships. Age and class (income and education) are probably the two most significant characteristics. Education is especially important, because its occupation choice, child-rearing patterns, time preferences and taste level.

Propinquity leads to visual contact between neighbors and is likely to produce face-to-face social contact. This is true only if the distance between neighbors is small enough to encourage one or the other to transform the visual contact into a social one. Thus, physical distance between neighbors is important.

If neighbors are homogeneous and feel themselves to be compatible, there is some likelihood that the relationship will be more intensive than exchange of greetings. If neighbors are heterogeneous, the relationship is not likely to be intensive, regardless of the degree of propinquity.

Generally speaking conflicts between neighbors seem to be rare. In the new suburbs, current building and marketing practices combine to bring together people of relatively similar age and income, thus creating sufficient homogeneity to enable strangers to live together peaceably (Gans, 1961).

Social services and open areas designed in housing areas affect neighborhood relationships positively or negatively. Neighborhood interaction is the most important variable of social relationships (Porteous, 1971).

The implication is that many of the people simply no longer value their neighborhood as a source of friends they look to work, school and other non-neighborhood places for their social needs. Whereas, the case may be different for the children and this may be an important factor for their parents in valuing their living environment (Zarakolu, 1993).

However, in Turkey, neighborhood relations is an important factor affecting the satisfaction from the neighborhood characteristics of a residential environment (Aydemir, 1991). This shows the importance of cultural differences influencing the residents' expectations from an housing environment.

Socio-economic status, homogeneity and the life styles are demonstrated as the factor affecting the neighborhood relations (Gür and Enön, 1990). Characteristics of physical environment are influential on social contact. Türel (1991) reminds that, in order not to loose cultural identity, housing environment should be designed in a way that, social contact should be provided.

It has been argued that, residents have a higher level of satisfaction with their neighborhood when they are more acquainted with their neighbors (Loo, 1986).

In this study, neighborhood relations is selected for analysis as a factor contributing to social environmental satisfaction.

4.3.3.4. Safety

Residents' concerns with neighborhood environmental quality as well as safety seem to be the most important predictor of their social environmental satisfaction.

Safety is defined as an important factor of living environment as a feeling safe in neighborhood to the residents.

In the Lewis and Salem (1981) study, for example, respondents described a range of incivilities as undesirable characteristics of their communities abandoned buildings, teenagers hanging around, illegal drug use and vandalism.

In addition, Lewis and Salem (1981) argued that the level of social integration is related to fear of crime. In communities with high levels of social integration, residents are more likely to know the people and the areas to avoid, leading to increased feelings of safety and a reduction the fear of crime.

More recent research by Taub et al. (1981) indicates that victimization has a fairly large and consistent effect on the perception of risk in a neighborhood.

There appears to be a strong relationship between fear of crime and the physical characteristics of a neighborhood, such as abandoned buildings and teenagers "hanging out" in a neighborhood (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

Likewise, Taub et al. (1981) reported that home owners exhibit a fairly consistent relationship between the presence of visible signs of neighborhood deterioration and the perception of greater risk of victimization.

As Lewis and Salem (1981) have argued, residents' concerns with neighborhood environmental quality as well as property victimization seem to be the most important predictor of their perception of neighborhood safety.

The following figure (See, figure 2) summarizes the variables of social environmental well-being in qualitative terms.



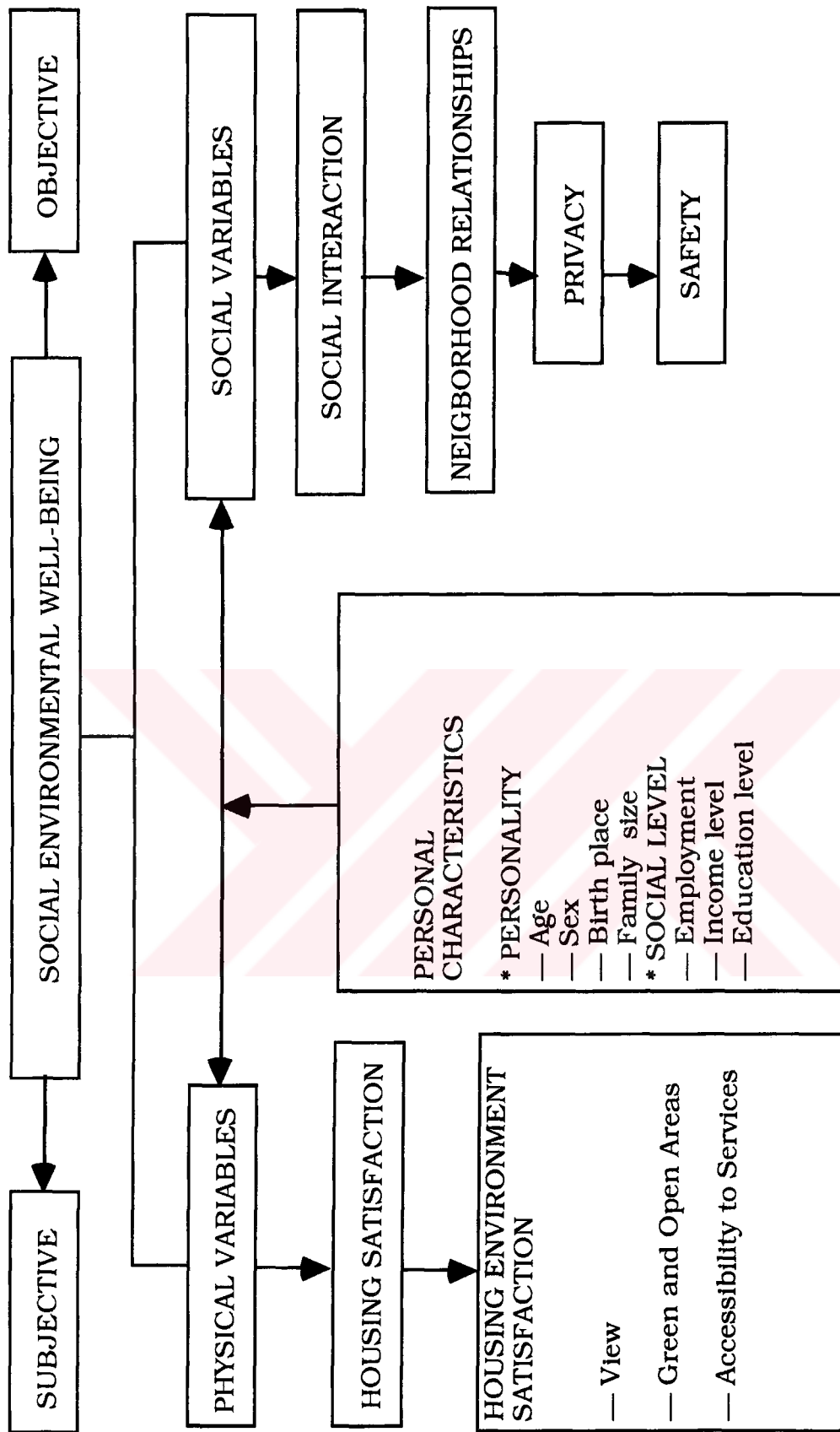


Figure 2: Social Environmental Qualitative Variables

4.4. THE DESIGN OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Objective and subjective domains of a research are seen as consisting of people's living circumstances and their evaluations of these circumstances respectively.

The objective domain comprises culturally relevant measures of objective well-being. The subjective domain comprises the domain of satisfaction as weighted by its importance to the individual (Cummins, 1997).

There kinds of data collection techniques (triangulation) have been utilized:

- * interviews
- * direct observation
- * written documents

This meant using several kinds of data collection methods, including both quantitative and qualitative techniques (See, figure 3).

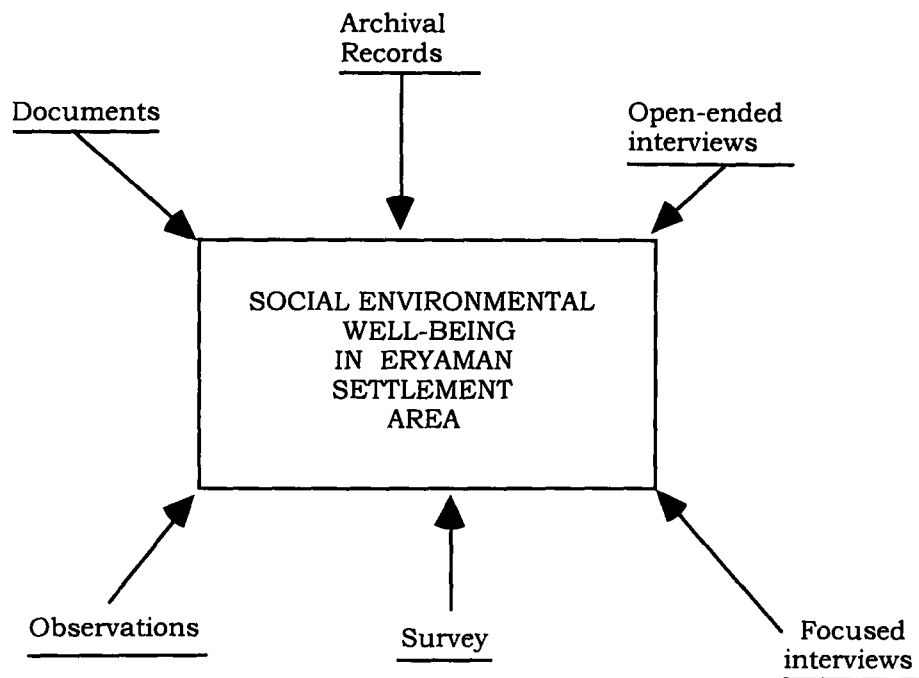


Figure 3. Data Collection Methods of the Study.

Based on Yin (1994)

The survey included 55 adult households and took place from April 5 to 21, 1999. At the beginning 10 questionnaire forms were not responded. Then, these questionnaire forms are given another households in order to complete questionnaire. Households were selected for interviewing stratified random sample in the settlement area .

Sample population is chosen by stratified random sampling. A stratified random sample is one in which the population is divided into subgroups and a random sample is then selected from each subgroup.

In qualitative researches, probability sampling is widely used regarding to purpose of studies. This study claims that there is a relationship between housing type and housing satisfaction. Eryaman First Stage mass housing area constitutes both high-rise apartment storeys and duplex single family houses. That is, stratified random sample is found most suitable because research area have different types of dwellings.

Questionnaire form included total 44 questions. Out of this questions 19 were closed-ended, 12 were open-ended and 13 were scale questions. Also, in depth interviews were made with residents about social facilities, neighborhood relations and safety.

Direct observation was done in the research area in order to complement data. Especially, housing environment variables are supported by observation. This observation was took place during weekends and also during one week.

The questionnaire included on neighborhood satisfaction where the respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction on a five point scale questions.

Finally, questionnaires were evaluated using by SPSS computer program.

4.5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, a discussion of the conceptual framework of qualitative and quantitative research methods was attempted in order to understand the nature of these studies. Also, data collection techniques are

examined to support the case study. Finally, the selection of main criteria for social environmental satisfaction was determined.

In the following chapter, Eryaman First Stage Mass Housing Area selected as case study for this research, is analyzed regarding to above mentioned methodology and criterion.



CHAPTER 5

CASE STUDY AT ERYAMAN

5.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF ERYAMAN FIRST STAGE MASS-HOUSING AREA

Eryaman Mass Housing zone is one of the settlement regions in the west corridor which is planned to be the most important housing development region in the Ankara Zoning Plan. Various industrial developments have been planned in the vicinity of Eryaman Mass Housing zone. There are sufficient number of workplaces within a 3 – 4 km. distance to the zone and the number will increase in the future by realisation of the planning investments. Transportation from this zone to the city center is facilitated by good connections at present and will be better in the future. Ankara – Ayaş road is located in the south and Ankara – İstanbul highway is located in the east. Ankara – Sincan railroad, on the other hand, is located at a distance of 1 km, in the south (TOKİ, 1994).

Of the 995,8 ha area expropriated by the Mass Housing Administration at Eryaman locality, 111 ha have been allocated for construction of the first phase investment. The first phase covered the construction of 4740 units for about 20.000 people (TOKİ, 1994).

Total project area is 111 ha. Of this area, 24.5 ha's have been allocated for green areas, 3,2 ha's for roads and autoparks, 3,9 ha's for educational buildings, 12.3 ha's for social and commercial activities. 1,7 ha's for infrastructure, 0,44 ha's for cultural facilities. Remaining 36,1 ha's are the housing areas (TOKİ, 1994).

During the preparation of Eryaman Mass Housing Project, housing areas are reserved for all the necessary social infrastructure and facilities (Tali, 1994).

According to Tali (1994) social infrastructure in Eryaman Location include the services to meet the daily or weekly needs, as well as educational buildings and green area investments. Such buildings located in areas reserved for training, health, culture, administrative and commercial functions were designed within a formal landscaping. Playing areas and sports areas were completed. The central areas are connected to each other and to the recreation area by the main pedestrian road.

The parks and green areas surrounding the project area have few functions: These meet the requirements of the inhabitants and separate the settlement zones from the main roads and decrease the effect of noise (Tali, 1994).

Apartment types and household characteristics can be described under four groups:

* **First Group:** These apartment dwellings are planned to meet the requirements of small families with one or two members or retired people. This group of apartments have 1 bedroom. This type of blocks are scattered among other blocks in order to obtain a balanced distribution. Number of these apartments in the project area is 392 which constitutes 8 % of total number of housing stock.

* **Second Group:** This group of apartments have 2 bedrooms. Number of these apartments in the project area is 1670 which constitutes 35 % of total number of dwellings. These type of apartments were designed as four – five storey buildings.

* **Third Group:** This group of apartments have 3 bedrooms. These type of apartments had been placed in all types of buildings which range from four – five storey to fourteen storey high. Number of these apartments in the project area is 2713 which constitutes 55 % of total housing stock.

* **Fourth Group:** This type of housing is rare in the project area. These are more luxuries than others with their private gardens, 4 bedrooms and an attic. The number of these houses in project area is 85 which constitutes 2 % of total housing stock.

5.2. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE POPULATION

Eryaman First Stage project area consists of 20.000 population, 4740 housing units, 5000 households. Out of this population and housing units, in accordance with the objectives of the study 55 households are interviewed. Because, in qualitative researches, sample size depends on what researcher wants to know, the purpose of the inquiry and what will be useful. There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry (Patton, 1990). The size of the sample is determined according to stratified random sampling technique.

Distribution of dwellings and blocks is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of Houses and Blocks

Dwelling Types	Dwelling Room Numbers	Number of Dwellings	Ratio %
A (4-5 Storey)	1	392	8
B (4-5 Storey)	2	1670	35
C (4-5 Storey)	3	1149	25
D (10-15 Storey)	3	1136	23
E (duplex)	3+1	85	2
F (14 Storey)	3	428	7
	Total	4740	100

Source: TOKI, 1994, Eryaman Mass Housing Feasibility Report

Thus, from 4 different types of dwellings (according to number of rooms) a total of 55 is selected. The distribution of this sample according to number of dwellings and households is as follows:

Of 392 units with 1 room 8 % and 6 households are selected.

Of 1670 units with 2 rooms 35 % and 18 households are chosen.

Questionnaire is made with of 2713 units with 3 rooms 55 % and 28 households are chosen.

Finally, of 85 units with 4 rooms 2 % and 3 households are chosen.

As a result, a questionnaire is given to the 55 households selected. Distribution of dwellings and sample population in the lay – out is given in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of Dwellings and Sample Population

Dwellings Room Numbers	Number of Dwellings	Ratio %	Distribution of Households
1	392	8	6
2	1670	35	18
3	2713	55	28
4	85	2	3
Total	4740	100	55

Questionnaire is given to the head of the household in the first place and to the wife of the households.

5.3. EVALUATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

In this part, the evaluation of questionnaires is made under the following headings:

- **Personal and Socio – economic Characteristics** are birth place, sex, age ownership pattern of the houses and car, income level, employment status, occupation and education level. Thus, the personal and socio – economic characteristics of people are considered while physical and social indicators below mentioned, are evaluated.
- **Physical Indicators** are housing and housing environment. These variables are evaluated by objective and subjective criteria.

- **Social Indicators** are social interaction, privacy, neighborhood relations and safety. Also, these social indicators are evaluated by objective and subjective criteria. Objective domains comprise culturally relevant measures of objective well – being. Subjective domains comprise domain satisfaction weighted by their importance to the individual as used by Rogerson (1998).

5.3.1. The Characteristics of Sample Population

The characteristics of sample population are classified under two headings:

1. Personal Characteristics
2. Socio – economical Characteristics

5.3.1.1. Personal Characteristics

Behaviour and perceptions of residents relate to their birthplace, sex and age.

In the sample population, 29,1 % were born in Ankara, İstanbul and İzmir, 20 % were born in Central – Anatolia Region, 20 % were born in East – Anatolia Region and finally 10,9 % were born in Aegean Region (See, Appendix B, Question 1).

Of the respondents, 56,4 % are female and 43,6 % are male (See, Appendix B, Question 2).

The majority of household population size is four (34,5 %) (See, Appendix B, Question 4).

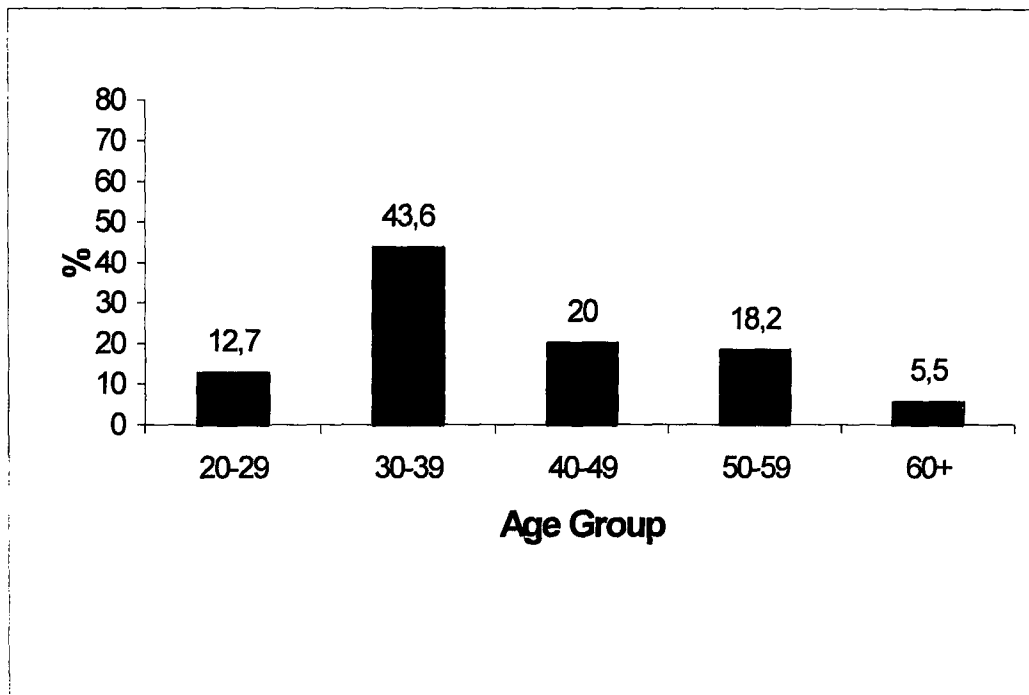


Figure 4: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Age Group

As seen in the figure 4, the age composition of sample population shows that 43,6 % are 30 –39, 20 % are 40 – 49, 18,2 % are 50 – 59, 12,7 % are 20 – 29 and finally 5,5 % are 60 and older than 60. While the highest ratio is the middle age group, the lowest ratio is constituted by the old age group (See, Appendix B, Question 3).

5.3.1.2. Socio – economic Characteristics

1. Ownership Pattern:

- House Ownership Pattern: According to the results of interviews 43,3 % of households are owner occupied, 36,4 % are rental and 16,4 % are family members who are not owner occupied (See, Appendix B, Question 8).
- Car ownership pattern: According to results 65,2 % of households own a private car, 34,5 % do not own any (See, Appendix B, Question 23).

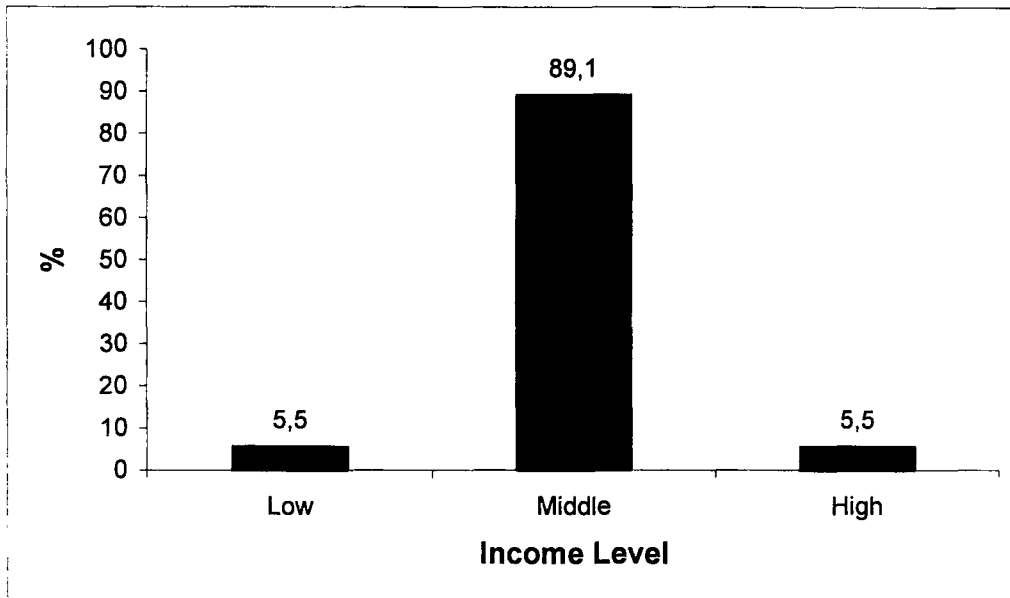


Figure 5: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Income

2. Income Level:

Of the sample population 89,1 % belong to the middle income, 5,5 % to the low income group. High income group has the same ratio with the low income group (5,5 %). As seen from figure 5 the middle income group is the dominant group residing in the research area (See, Appendix B, Question 9).

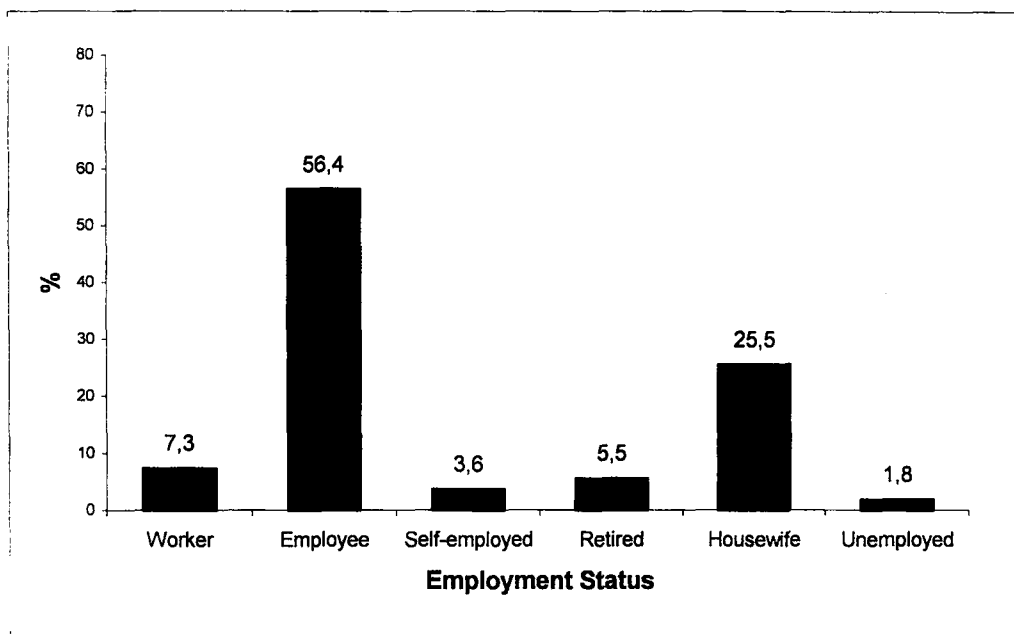


Figure 6: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Employment Status

3. Employment and Occupational Composition:

As seen in the figure 6, of the people interviewed 56,4 % are employees who work in state organizations, 25,5 % are housewives, 7,3 % are workers, 5,5 % are retired, 3,6 % are self – employed and 1,8 % are unemployed. It is obvious that most of the residents in the research area are employees in terms of employment status. The occupational composition of them shows that 18,2 % are engineers (architects, city planners and civic engineers), 14,5 % are security persons, 12,7 % are teacher and finally 9,1 % are military persons.

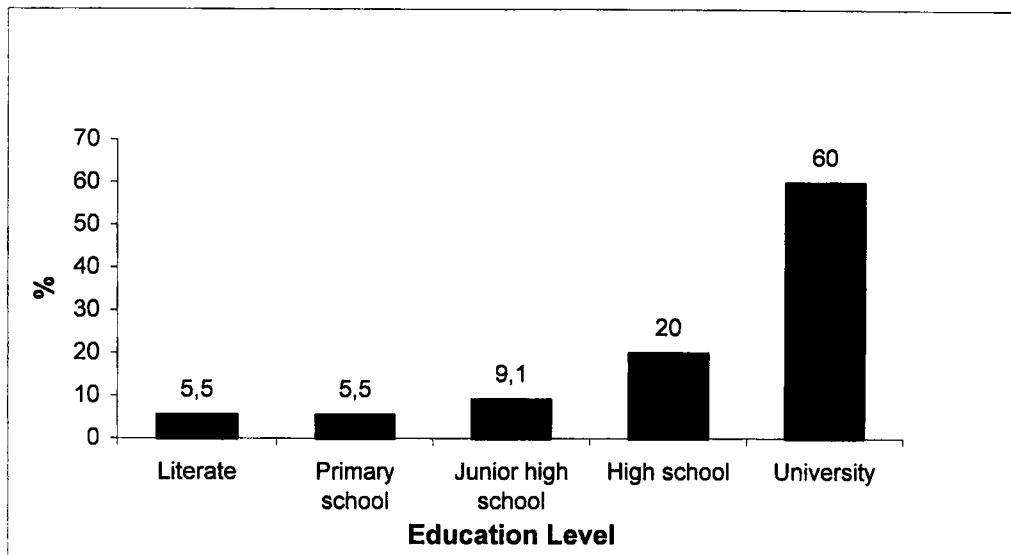


Figure 7: Percentage Distribution of the Education of Level of the Sample Population

4. Education:

The ratio of people who graduated from a university is 60 %, high school is 20 %, junior high school is 9,1 %, primary school is 5,5 %. Also, of the people interviewed 5,5 % are literate (See, figure 7). The residents with a university degree and high school education consist the highest group in the case area (See, Appendix B, Question 10).

Thus, income and education level are not considered while the data is evaluated. Because, the middle income group is the dominant group residing and of the households 80% graduated from a university or high school.

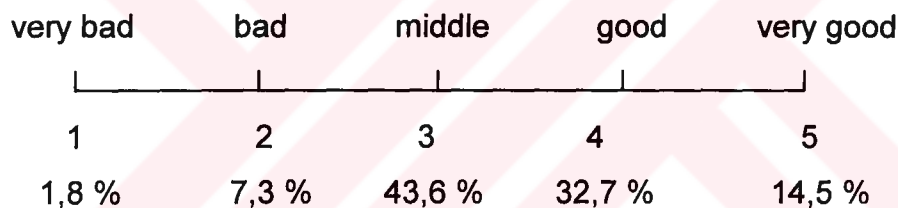
5.3.2. Physical Indicators

Physical indicators are constituted by housing and housing environment. Both indicators are evaluated by objective and subjective domains of social quality of life. In other words, housing satisfaction is analyzed through objective as well as subjective criteria.

5.3.2.1. Housing Satisfaction

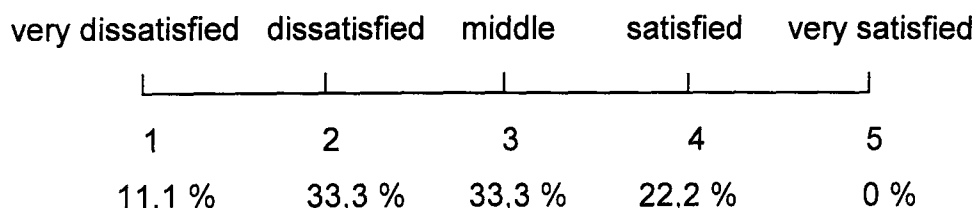
Objective Evaluation of Housing Satisfaction: The number of rooms is taken as an objective criteria of housing satisfaction.

Subjective Evaluation of Housing Satisfaction: Housing satisfaction concentrates around the 3,5 point in the scale which means that 43,6 % is middle, 32,7 % is good, 14,5 % is very good, 7,3 % is bad and finally 1,8 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 13).



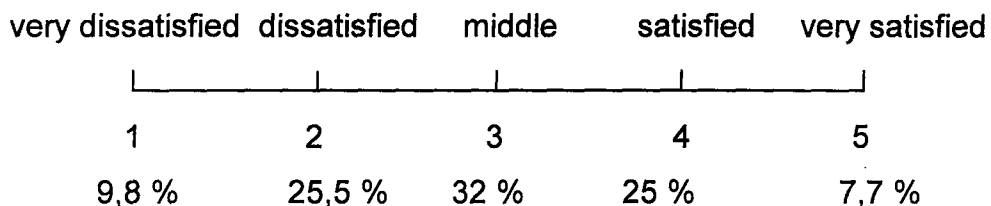
The ratio of people who prefer to live in single family detached house with a yard is 60 %, in a mass housing complex in the periphery of the city 34,5 % and finally, in an apartment in central of the city is 5,5 % (See, figure 8).

- Housing satisfaction level of houses with 1 room



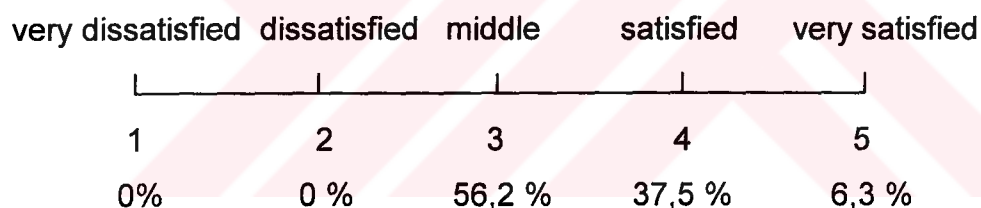
Of the households living in houses with 1 room, 33,3% are dissatisfied, 33,3% are middle, 22,2% are satisfied and 11,1 % are very dissatisfied in the scale. That is, of them about 22,2% are satisfied with their housing.

- Housing satisfaction level of houses with 2 rooms



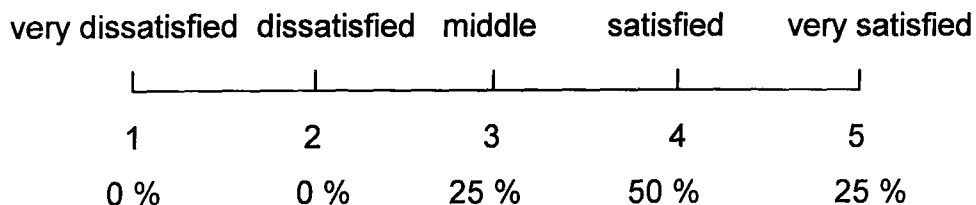
Of the households living in houses with 2 rooms, 32 % are middle, 25,5 % are dissatisfied, 25 % are satisfied, 9,8 % are very dissatisfied and finally 7,7 % are very satisfied in the scale. Of them, 32,7 % are satisfied with their housing.

- Housing satisfaction level of houses with 3 rooms



Of the households living in houses with 3 rooms, 56,2 % are middle, 37,5 % are satisfied and 6,3 % are very satisfied. Of them 43,8 % are satisfied with their housing.

- Housing satisfaction level of houses with 4 rooms



Of the households living in houses with 4 rooms, 50 % are satisfied, 25 % are middle and 25 % are very satisfied. Of them 75 % are satisfied with their housing.

As seen in the above scales, there is a relationship with housing type and housing satisfaction. While, number of rooms increases, housing satisfaction level increases too.

5.3.2.2. Housing Environment Satisfaction

Housing environment satisfaction is evaluated under the following topics:

- Garden
- The desire of the people interviewed to move to another district from Eryaman
- The reasons given another district for preference
- The reasons given central area for preference
- Playgrounds
- View
- Accessibility to open and green areas
- Accessibility to shopping center
- Accessibility to office
- Accessibility to school
- Accessibility to social and cultural facilities
- General level of satisfaction

Objective Evaluation of Housing Environment Satisfaction:

Objective data of housing environment is analyzed under these headings:

- The usage of the garden
- The usage of the playgrounds

- The sufficiency of green areas, shopping centers, schools and socio – cultural services

While 52,7 % of residents use the garden of their house 47,2 % do not make use of it.

76,4 % of the residents have children, out of them 45,2 % use the playground in the research area.

Housing areas are reserved for all the necessary green areas, shopping centers, educational buildings and socio – cultural functions. According to Eryaman Mass Housing Project Feasibility Report (1994), about 123.500 m² (9 units) as shopping centers, 39.200 m² (3 units) as school, 4431 m² (2 units) as cultural functions and 244.730 m² as green areas are reserved in Eryaman First Stage settlement area. Thus, commercial functions, educational buildings and green area investments are designed sufficiently.

Subjective Evaluation of Housing Environment Satisfaction

- The desire of the people interviewed to move to another district from Eryaman

The desire of moving to another settlement shows that households who want to move another place, are not satisfied with their living environment.

In the sample population, 65,5 % do not want to move from the area while 34,5 % want to move (See, Appendix B, Question 18).

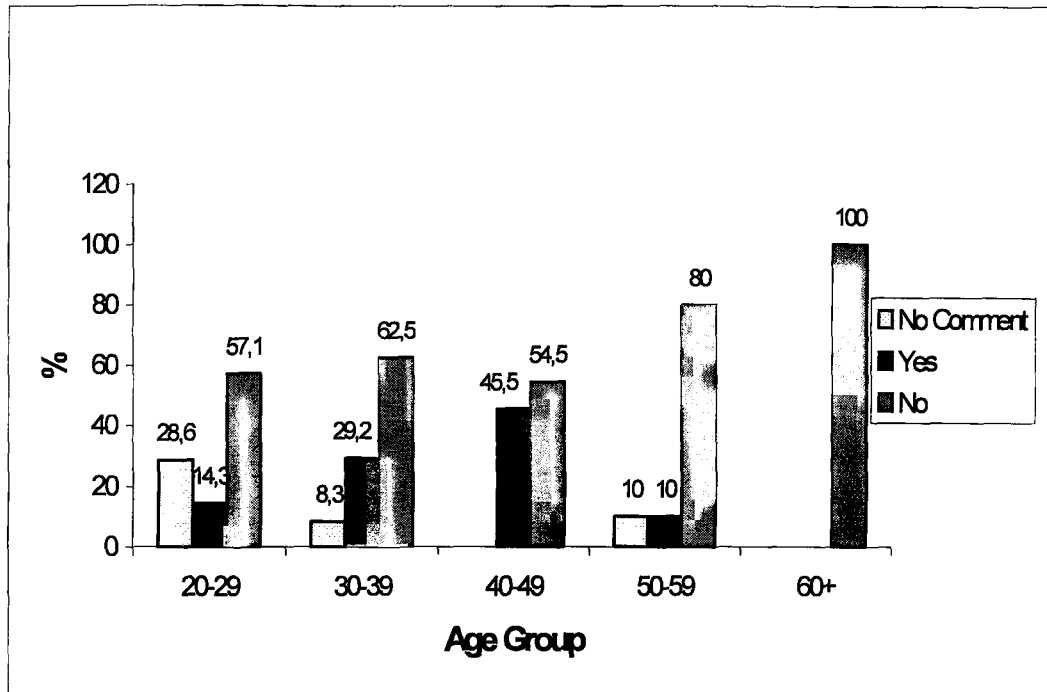


Figure 8: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population of Desire to Move From Eryaman by Age Group

Of the people interviewed 80% are in 50 – 59 age group, 54,5 % are in 40 – 49 age group, 62,5 % are in 30 – 39 age group, 57,1% are in 20 – 29 age group do not want to move from Eryaman First Stage to another district. It is seen that the middle age group is the dominant group who want to move from Eryaman First Stage. Also, all old people do not want to move from Eryaman (See, figure 8).

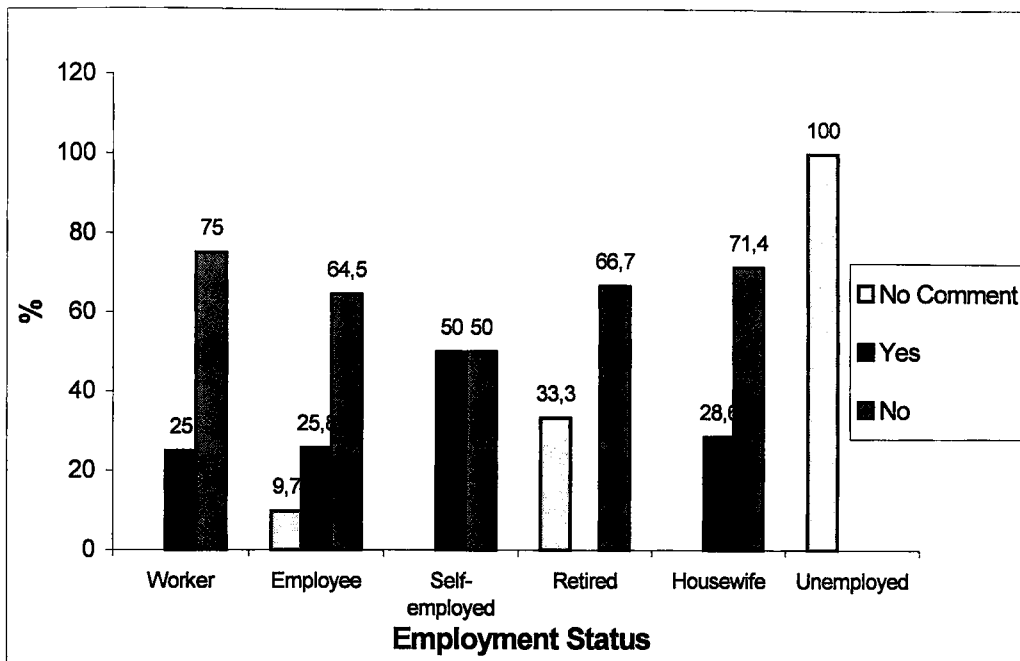


Figure 9: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Desire to Move From Eryaman by Employment Status

75 % of the workers interviewed, 71,4 % of the housewives interviewed, 66,7 % of the retired interviewed, 64,5 % of the employees and 50 % of the self – employed interviewed do not want to move from Eryaman First Stage. All unemployed people interviewed want to move from Eryaman First Stage to another district (See, figure 9).

- The reasons given about another district for preference

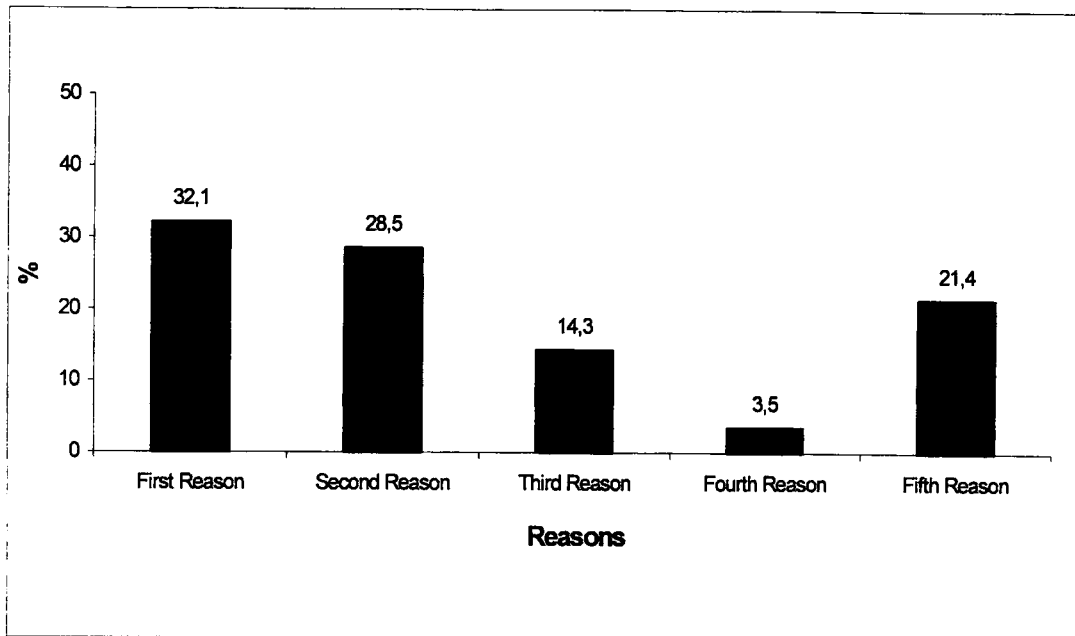


Figure 10: Percentage Distribution of Sample by Reasons for a Desire to Move From Eryaman

People interviewed think about moving from Eryaman to another place because of these reasons below mentioned.

First Reason: To live in a bigger house

Second Reason: To access office easily

Third Reason: To have access school easily

Fourth Reason: Because of traffic and noise

Fifth Reason: The desire of closeness to relatives

As seen in the figure 10, 32,7 % of the residents want to move from research area due to need bigger house, 28,5 % want easier accessibility to their office, 21,4 % want to be close to their relatives, 14,3 % want easier accessibility to school and finally 3,5 % desire to move because of traffic and noise (See, Appendix B, Question 19).

- The reasons given about central area for preference

People interviewed want to live in the center of the city because of the following reasons mentioned below.

First Reason: To be close to shopping centers

Second Reason: To be close to the office

Third Reason: To be close to cultural facilities

Fourth Reason: To be close to friends and relatives

In the sample population, 52 % want to live in the city center. 43,7 % of them want to live close to the office, 40,6 % in order to participate in social and cultural facilities in the city, 3,6 % want easier accessibility to school and finally 3,1 % want to be close to shopping centers in the city (See, Appendix B, Question 20).

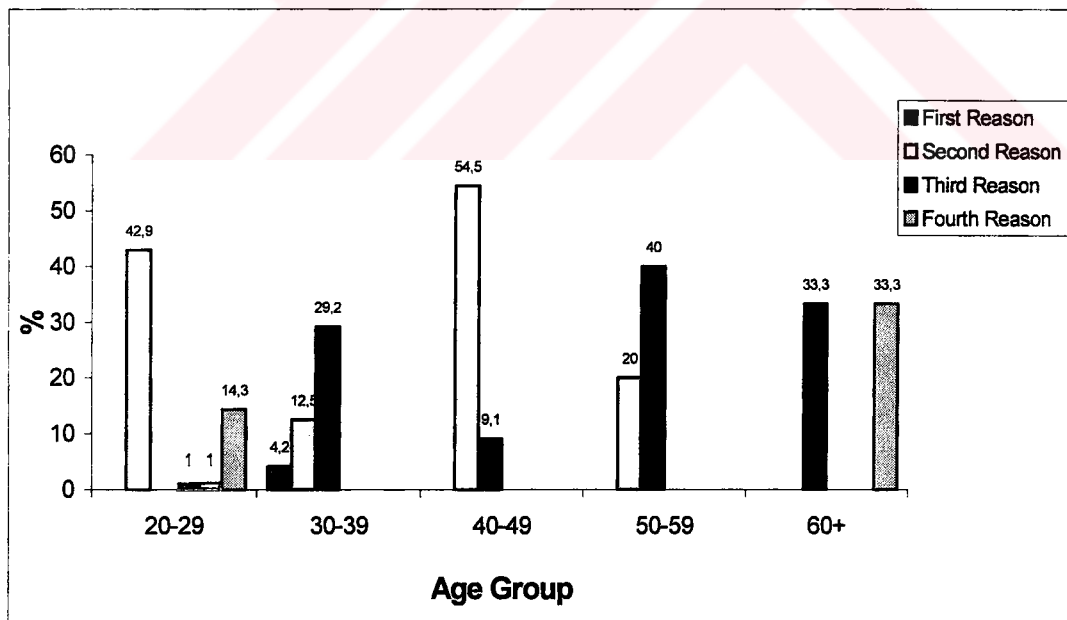


Figure 11: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Reasons Given Central Area For Preference by Age Group

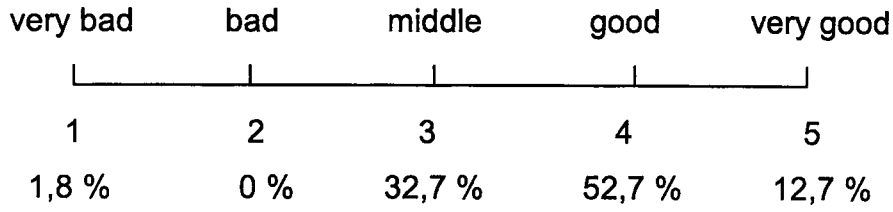
It is evident that the young and middle age group want to live in the city to be close to their office while old age group desire to participate social and cultural facilities in the city and to be close to their friends and relatives (See, figure 11, Appendix B and Question 20).



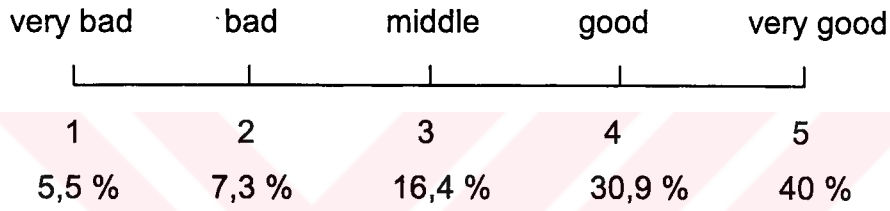
Figure 12: Percentage Distribution of Samples Population by the Reasons Given Central Preference by Employment Status

As seen in the figure 12, workers want to live in the city because of accessibility to job. Employees, self – employed, retired and housewives desire to live in center of the city for cultural and social facilities.

The degree of **housing environment satisfaction**: It concentrates around the 3,74 point in the scale. 52,7 % is good, 32,7 % is middle, 12,7 % is very good and 1,8 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 14).

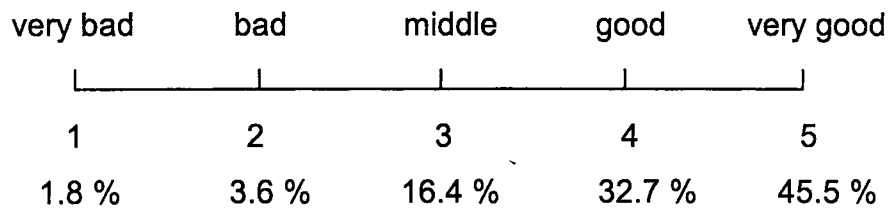


The degree of satisfaction of **view**: It concentrates around the 3,9 point in the scale. 40 % is very good, 30,9 % is good, 16,4 % is middle, 7,3 % is bad and finally 5,5 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 15).

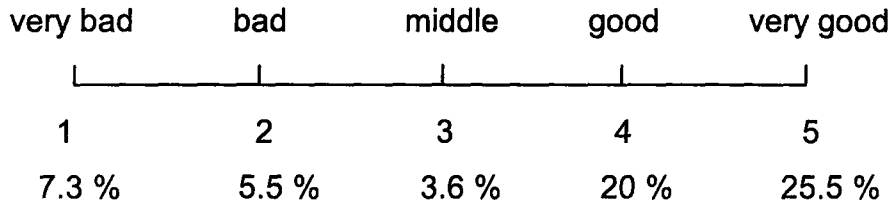


Accessibility to the center of the city and other services is one of the most important factor affecting the residents' environmental satisfaction.

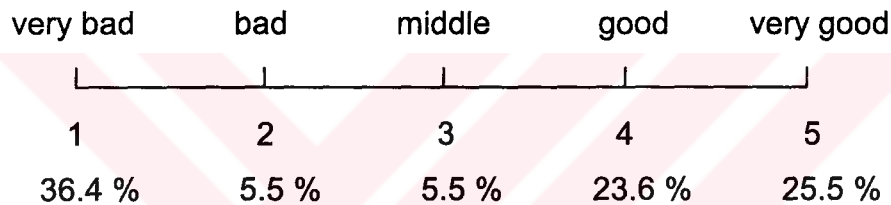
The degree of **accessibility to open and green areas**: It concentrates around the 4,1 point in the scale. 45,5 % is very good, 32,7 % is good, 16,4 % is middle, 3,6 % is bad and 1,8 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 25).



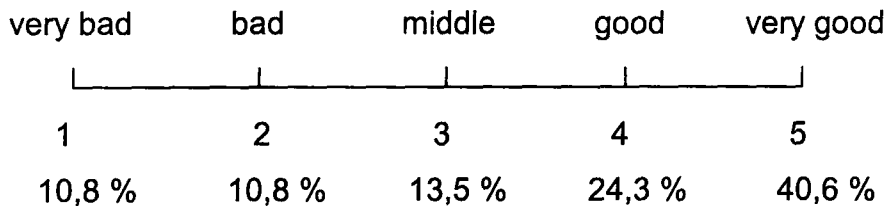
The degree of **accessibility to shopping center**: It concentrates around the 4,2 point in the scale. 25,5 % is very good, 20 % is good, 7,3 % is very bad, 5,5 % is bad and finally 3,6 % is middle (See, Appendix B, Question 26).



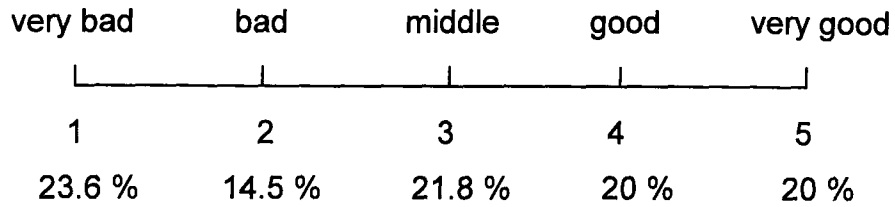
The degree of **accessibility to office**: It concentrates around the 2,8 point in the scale. 36,4 % is very bad, 25,5 % is very good, 23,6 % is good, 5,5 % is middle and 5,5 % is bad (See, Appendix B, Question 27).



The degree of **accessibility to school**: It concentrates around the 3,5 point in the scale. 40,6 % is very good, 24,3 % is good, 13,5 % is middle, 10,8 % is bad and finally 10,8 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 28).



The degree of **accessibility to social and cultural facilities**: It concentrates around the 2,9 point in the scale. 23,6 % is very bad, 21,8 % is middle, 20 % is very good, 20 % is good and 14,5 % is bad (See, Appendix B, Question 29).



Although, of the households 65,2 % have private car, the ratio of households use public transportation is 60.

5.3.3. Social Indicators

In the analysis of social interaction, privacy, neighborhood relations and safety constitute the social indicators. All four indicators are evaluated by objective and subjective domains of social quality of life.

5.3.3.1. Social Interaction

Under the evaluation of social interaction the following points are analyzed:

- The use of social services
- The frequency of social services used
- Social activities
- Appropriate environmental condition available for youth

Objective Evaluation of Social Interaction:

During the preparation of Eryaman Mass Housing Project, housing areas are reserved for all the necessary social infrastructure and facilities.

Social infrastructure in Eryaman Location include in general the services to meet the daily or weekly needs, as well as educational buildings and green area investments. Such buildings located in areas reserved for training, health, culture, administrative and commercial

functions had been designed within a formal landscaping than housing lots. Playing areas and sports were completed with cafe's and seats (Tali, 1994).

Thus, questions about the social infrastructure are not involved in the questionnaire form.

Social services are evaluated in terms of their usage.

- The use of social services
- The frequency of social services used

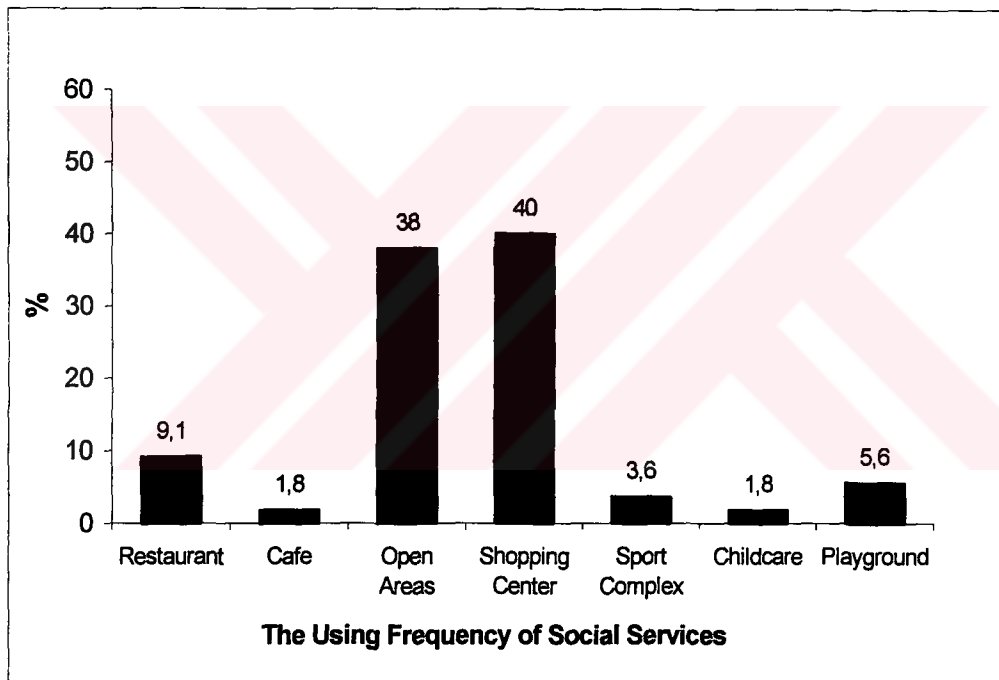


Figure 13: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Using Social Services

40 % of the people interviewed use shopping center, 38 % use open areas, 9,1 % use restaurant, 5,6 % use playground, 3,6 % use sport complex, 1,8 use cafe and 1,8 use childcare very often. It seen

that shopping centers and open areas are used very often (See, figure 13, Appendix B, Question 21).

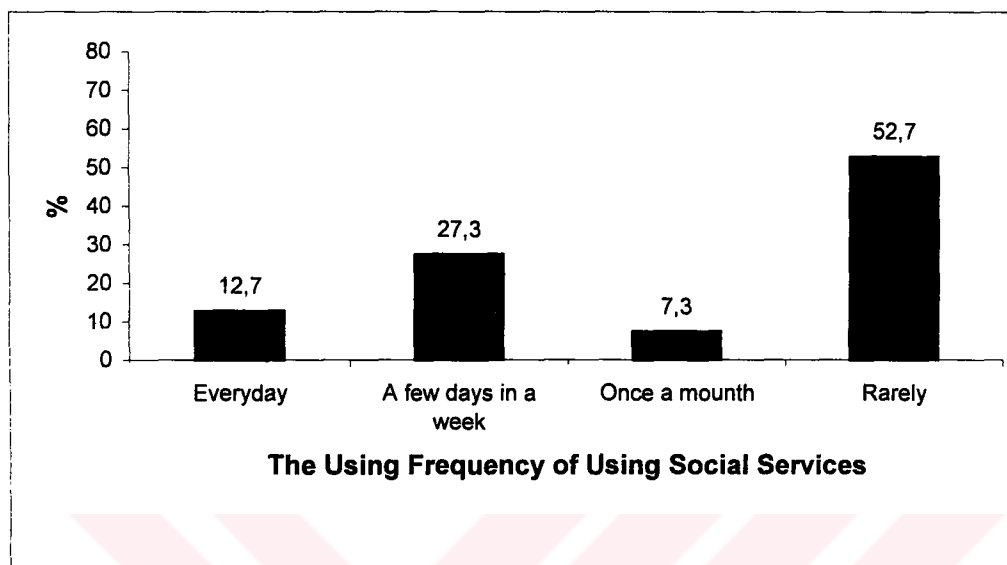


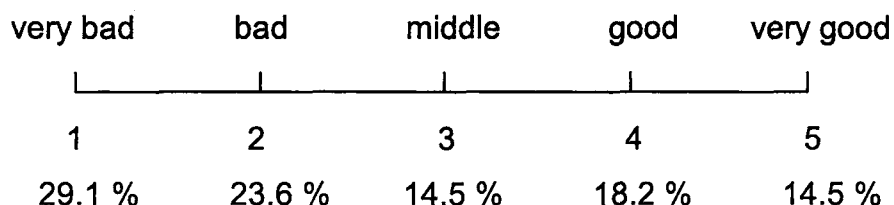
Figure 14: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population according to the Using Frequency of Using Social Services

52,7 % of the sample population use social services rarely, 27,3 % use a few days in a week, 12,7 % use everyday and 7,3 % use once a month. As seen in the figure 14, residents use social services above mentioned rarely (See, Appendix B, Question 22).

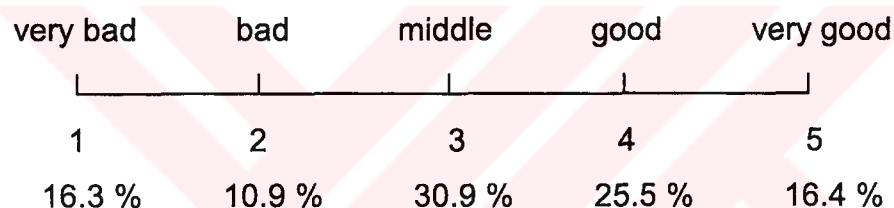
Subjective Evaluation of Social Interaction: Social services are evaluated under these headings:

- Social activities
- Appropriate environmental condition available for youth.

The degree of **liveliness of social activities**: It concentrates around the 2,6 point in the scale. 29,1 % is very bad, 23,6 % is bad, 18,2 % is good, 14,5 % is middle and finally 14,5 % very good (See, Appendix B, Question 30).



The degree of being an **appropriate environment for young people**: It concentrates around the 3,1 point in the scale. 30,9 % is middle, 25,5 % is good, 16,4 % is very good, 16,3 % is very bad and finally 10,9 % is bad (See, Appendix B, Question 31).

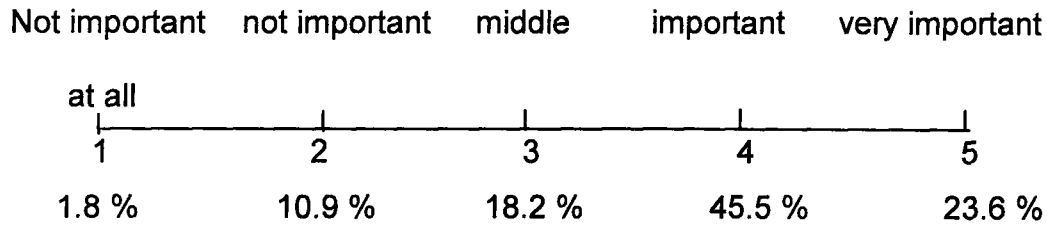


5.3.3.2. Privacy

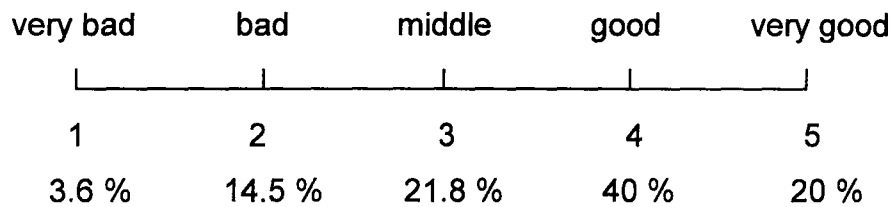
In this study, privacy is considered as housing privacy and evaluated by subjective domain of social quality of life.

Privacy is evaluated by subjective domain of social quality of life.

The degree of **importance of privacy**: It concentrates around the 3,78 point in the scale. 45,5 % is important, 23,6 % is very important, 18,2 % is middle, 10,9 % is unnecessary and finally 1,8 % is unimportant (See, Appendix B, Question 32).



The **degree of sufficiency as regards to housing privacy**: It concentrates around the 3,58 point in the scale. 40 % is good, 21,8 % is middle, 20 % is very good, 14,5 % is bad and 3,6 % is very bad (See, Appendix B, Question 33).



5.3.3.3. Neighborhood Relations

Under the evaluation of neighborhood interaction the following points are analyzed:

- The frequency of neighborhood relations
- Neighbors' location of residents
- The meeting place with neighbors
- The importance of neighborhood relations by residents

Also, all points above mentioned are evaluated by objective and subjective domains.

Objective Evaluation of Neighborhood Relations: It is evaluated under three variables:

- The frequency of neighborhood relations
- Neighbors' location of residents
- The meeting place with neighbors

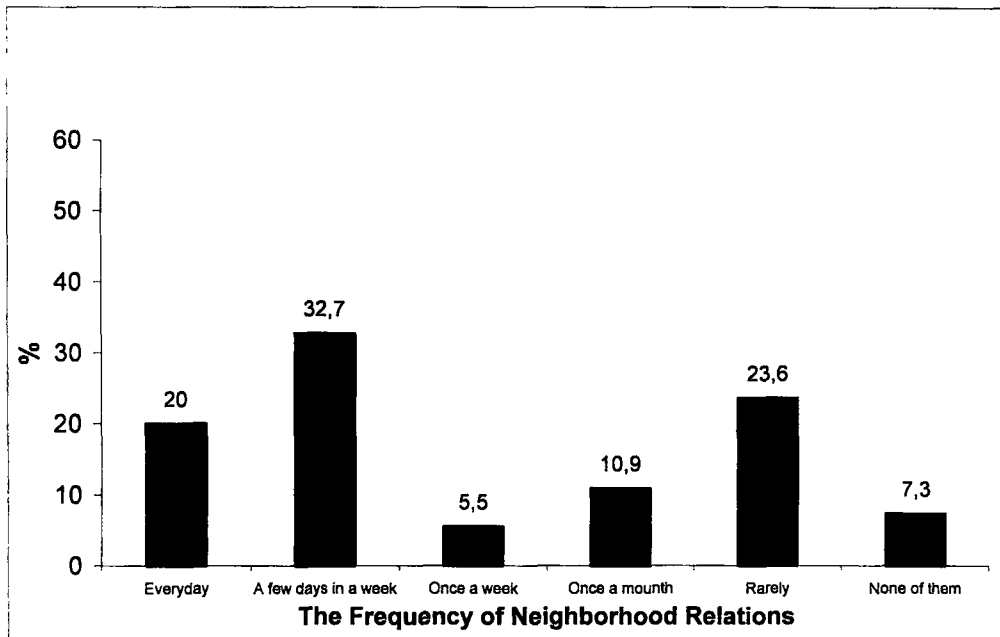


Figure 15: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Frequency of Neighborhood Relations

As seen in the figure 15, 32,7 % of the people interviewed see their neighbors a few days in a week, 23,6 % see rarely, 20 % see everyday, 10,9 % see once a month and finally 5,5 % see once a week. It is evident that in the sample population 52,7 % have strong neighborhood interaction. They see their neighbors everyday and a few days in a week (See, Appendix B, Question 38).

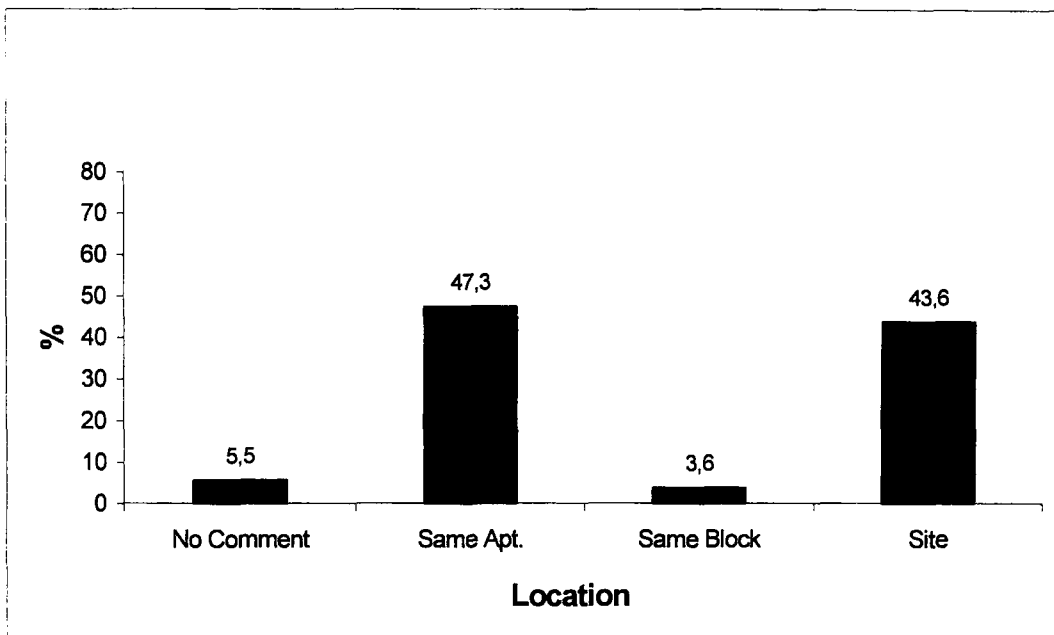


Figure 16: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location

47,3 % of the sample population have neighbors in same apartment, 43,6 % in site and 3,6 % in same block. The ratio of people who do not have any idea is 5,5. As seen in the figure 16, residents have generally neighbors in the same apartment or site (See, Appendix B, Question 37).

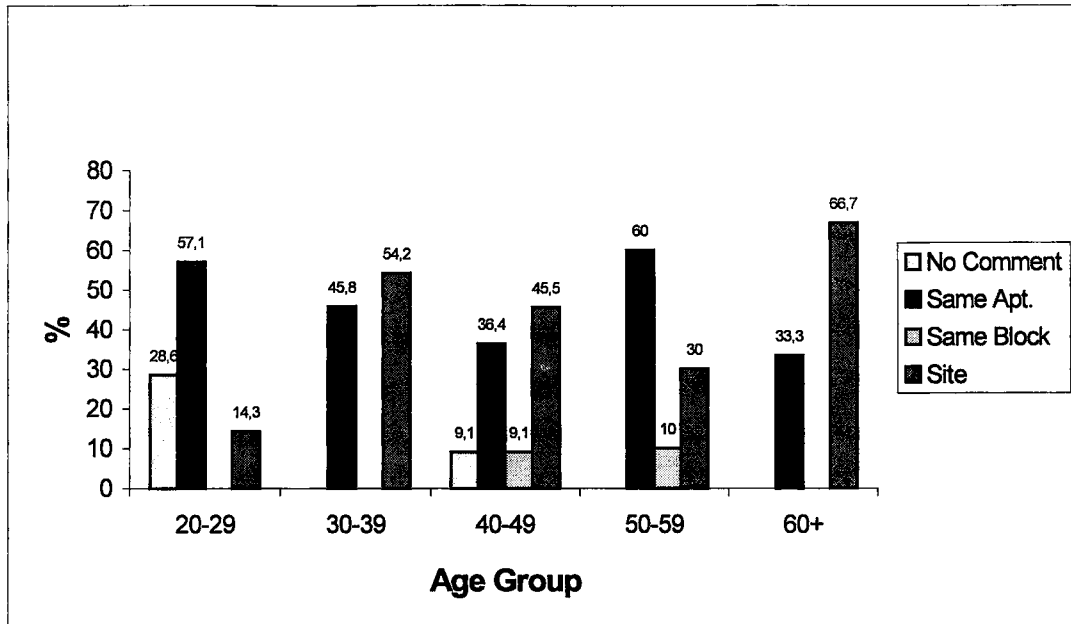


Figure 17: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location by Age Group

57,1 % of the young people interviewed have neighbors in the same apartment and 14,3 % have in site. The ratio of young people interviewed who do not have any idea is 28,6. Of the sample population 30 – 39 age group, 54,2 % have neighbors in site and 45,8 % have in the same apartment. 45,5 % of the people interviewed 40 – 49 age group, have neighbors in site, 36,4 % have in same apartment and 9,1 % have in the same block. Also, of them 9,1 % do not have any idea. 60 % of the people interviewed 50 – 59 age group, have neighbors in same apartment, 30 % have in site and 10 % have in same block. Finally, 66,7 % of the old people interviewed have neighbors in site and 33,3 % have in the same apartment. While young people have generally neighbors in the same apartment, middle age group and old people have it in the site (See, figure 17).

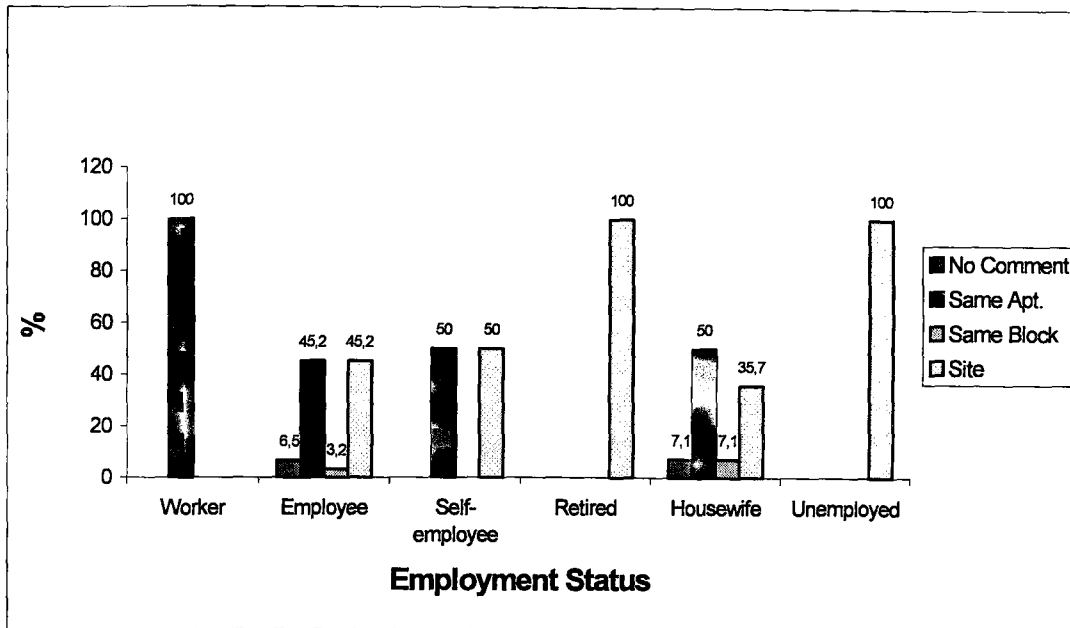


Figure 18: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location by Employment Status

45,2 % of the employees interviewed have neighbors in site, 45,2 % have in the same apartment and 3,2 % have in the same block. 6,5 % employee do not have any idea. 50 % of the self – employees have neighbors in site and 50 % have in the same apartment. 50 % of the housewives have neighbors in the same apartment, 35,7 % have in site and 7,1 % have in same block. Also, 7,1 % of them do not have any idea. All workers have neighbors in the same apartment while all unemployed people have neighbors in site. Also, all retired people interact with their neighbors in site (See, figure 18).

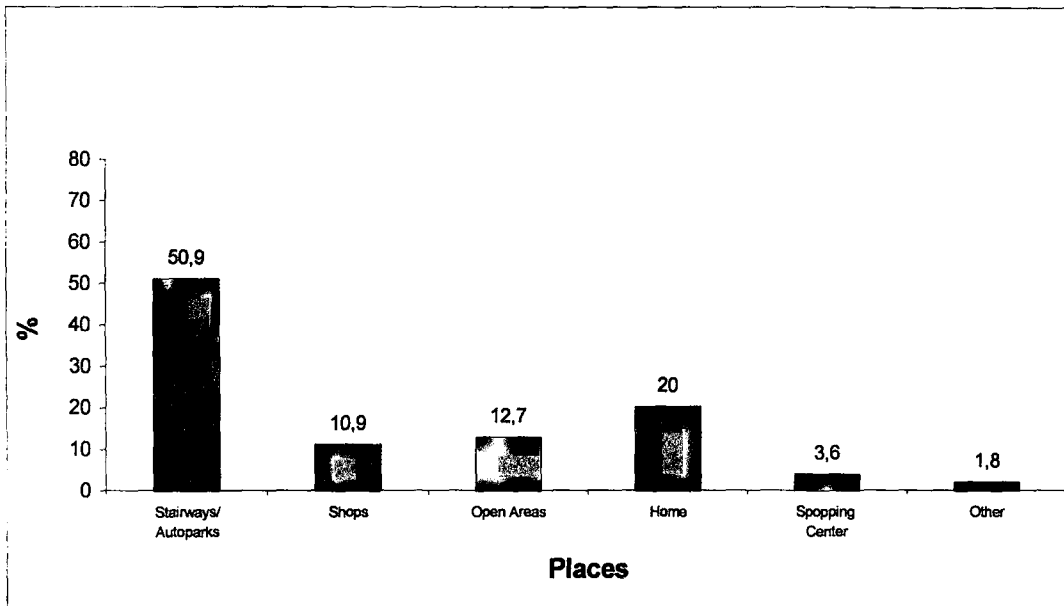


Figure 19: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Meeting Place With Neighbors

50,9 % of the sample population meet their neighbors at stairways and autoparks, 20 % meet at home, 12,7 % meet in open areas, 10,9 % meet at shops and 3,6 % meet at shopping center. 1,8 % of people interviewed answered this question as other places such as streets. Thus, stairways and autoparks are the dominant meeting place of residents with their neighbors (See, Figure 19, Appendix B, Question 39).

Subjective Evaluation of Neighborhood Relations: The importance of neighborhood relations by residents is evaluated.

While the dominant meeting place of residents is stairways and autoparks, they prefer to meet their neighbors at home or open areas (49,1 % home; 29,1 % open areas), (See, Appendix B, Question 40).

87,3 % of the residents consider neighborhood relations important (See, Appendix B, Question 35).

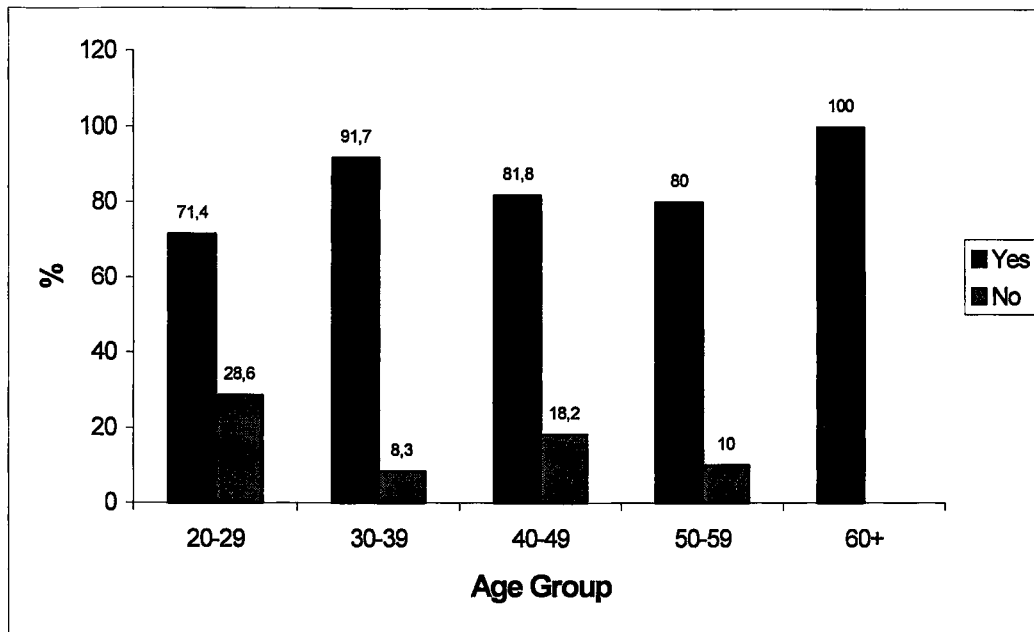


Figure 20: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Importance of Neighborhood Relations by Age Group

As seen in the figure 20, 71,4 % of the people interviewed 20 – 29 age group, 91,7 % are in 30 – 39 age group, 81,8 % are in 40 – 49 age group and 80 % are in 50 – 59 age group consider neighborhood relations important. All old people want to relate to their neighbors.

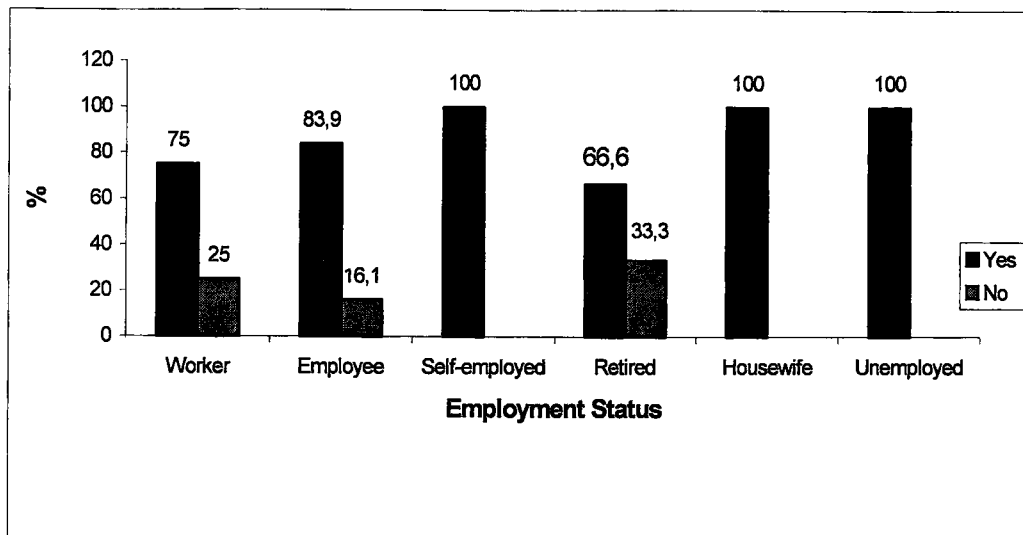


Figure 21: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Importance of Neighborhood Relations by Employment Status

75 % of the workers interviewed consider neighborhood relations important others not. 83,9 % of the employees consider neighborhood relations important others not. 66,6 % of the retired people want to relate to their neighbors others not. All self – employed, housewives and unemployed people consider neighborhood relations important (See, figure 21).

5.3.3.4. Safety

Under the evaluation of safety the following points are analyzed:

- Experienced of vandalism, crime and burglary
- Going out freely at nights
- The sufficiency of street lighting
- The safety evaluation of site by residents

Objective Evaluation of Safety: It is evaluated under two variables:

- Experienced of vandalism, crime and burglary
- Going out freely at nights

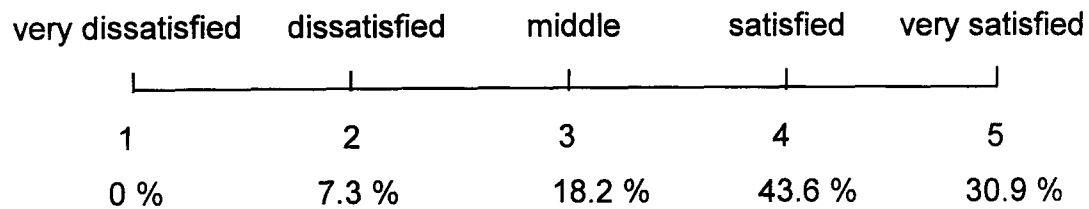
In the sample population, 81,8 have not experienced vandalism, crime or burglary. Also, 96,4 % of them go out freely at nights (See, Appendix B, Question 41,42, 43).

Subjective Evaluation of Safety: It is analyzed under two variables:

- The sufficiency of street lighting
- The safety evaluation of site by residents

Of the sample population 85,6 % pointed out that street lighting is sufficient.

The degree of **safety**: It concentrates around the 3,98 point in the scale. 43,6 % is satisfied, 30,9 % is very satisfied, 18,2 % is middle and 7,3 % is dissatisfied (See, Appendix B, Question 44).



Thus, it is seen that the research area is evaluated as a highly safe place by the residents.

5.4. EVALUATION OF THE DATA

In this part, data obtained from questionnaires is evaluated under three headings:

1. Personal and socio-economical characteristics of sample population
2. Physical indicators
3. Social indicators

5.4.1. Personal and Socio – economic Characteristics of Sample Population

Personal and socio – economic characteristics of sample population are below mentioned:

- In the sample population, 29,1 % were born in Ankara, Istanbul and Izmir, others were born in out of the city.
- Of the residents, 56,4 % are female and 43,6 % are male.
- About 44 % were up to 30 – 39, 20 % were 40 – 49, 18,2 % were 50 – 59, 12,7 % were 20 – 29 and 5,5 % were older than 60. While the highest ratio is the middle age group, the lowest ratio is constituted by the old age group.
- About 43,2 % of the households in this study are owneroccupied and 65,2 % of households own private car.
- Middle income group is the dominant group residing in the research area. Also, the residents are employees in terms of employment status.

In summary, the average age group of households is middle age group. Although the dominant group of income level is middle income group, the average level of education is high in the research area.

5.4.2. Physical Indicators

Physical indicators are evaluated by housing and housing environment satisfaction.

5.4.2.1. Housing Satisfaction

Most of the residents of apartment dwellings (57,6 %) prefer to live in a detached house and all residents of detached house prefer to live in a detached house in this research.

About 63 % of the households of apartment dwellings are not satisfied with their housing. Also, they want to live in a bigger house and detached house with gardens.

Most of the residents of detached house (89 %) are satisfied with their housing. Thus, it can be said that there is a relationship between housing satisfaction and housing types and size.

5.4.2.2. Housing Environment Satisfaction

About three – quarters of the people in this study are generally use their gardens. Also, 61 % of the residents have children use the playground in the research area. In the sample population 65,5 % do not think to move from the site to anyplace. Most of the people who desire to move from this area, pointed out their reasons as to following:

- They need a bigger house
- They want to be close to their office and relatives

Also, 52 % of the residents want to live in a central area of the city in order to be close to their office and to cultural facilities.

Residents stated that they were highly satisfied with their housing environment.

According to them, the accessibility of their housing to open and green areas and shopping center is good. In contrast, the accessibility of their housing to office, school and cultural facilities are not sufficient.

Open and green areas are highly used by residents. According to objective data results and observations open and green areas are planned sufficiently (See, 5.3.2.2.). Also, subjective data results show that the ratio of the usage of open and green areas are high.

Thus, objective and subjective data results have parallel pattern about the usage of open and green areas.

Educational buildings, commercial centers and socio – cultural facilities are designed sufficiently in Eryaman First Stage settlement area. According to objective data results, these services are highly enough for residents. However, according to subjective data, residents pointed out that socio – cultural facilities are not enough. Also, they complain about accessibility to cultural services and schools. According to observations in the research area there are not sufficient cultural services such as cinema and theatre.

Thus, residents in this research area are satisfied with their environmental conditions generally. However, accessibility to office, relatives, schools and socio – cultural facilities are important problems for residents. Also, socio – cultural services are not enough for them.

According to İmamoğlu & İmamoğlu (1996), about 89 % of residents in Eryaman are generally satisfied with their environment.

A summary of their findings:

- About 83 % of the people pointed out that they do not have autopark problem
- Of the people 93 % are satisfied with their care of site environment
- About 61 % said that there is enough green area in their settlement

Taylor (1982) concludes from his survey research that physical deterioration and lack of nearby green space are strongly related to the dissatisfaction with the living environment. Widgery (1982) and Nasar (1983) also confirms that satisfaction with a residential area depends largely on the aesthetic quality of the housing area.

In Turkey, the absence of recreational areas like playgrounds for children, parks, sports areas and pollution are the two factors most of the residents complain about their region (Aydemir, 1991). Being in a distance to the city center and not having good neighborhood relations are the other factors affecting the dissatisfaction. According to Aydemir (1991), in addition to the quality of social and physical environment, centrality and accessibility are the factors affecting the residents' environment satisfaction.

5.4.3. Social Indicators

In the evaluation of social interaction, privacy, neighborhood relations and safety constitute the social indicators.

5.4.3.1. Social Interaction and Satisfaction

According to objective data results, social infrastructure in Eryaman First Stage settlement area include in general the services to meet the

daily or weekly needs (See, 5.3.3.1.). Also, shopping centers and open areas are used very often by residents.

According to subjective data results, the degree of liveliness of social activities concentrates around the 2,6 point in the scale.

Both objective and subjective data results show that residents are satisfied with social services of the research area. However, they point out that social services are not very active.

5.4.3.2. Privacy

Under the evaluation of privacy the following points are analyzed:

- Importance of privacy
- Sufficiency as regards to housing privacy

Privacy is evaluated by only subjective data results. Because, this indicator show different pattern according to perceptions of people.

Privacy is important for about three – quarters of the people in this research. Also, the sufficiency degree of housing privacy is 3,58 point. 40 % of the people interviewed evaluated their housing privacy as good. About one–quarters of the people are highly satisfied with their housing privacy.

Thus, it can be said that privacy is not a problem in the research area.

5.4.3.3. Neighborhood Relations

According to objective data results, most of the residents meet their neighbors everyday and a few days in a week. Also, half of the residents have neighbors in the same apartment or site. Moreover, about 51,7 % of the people interviewed meet their neighbors at stairways and autoparks. Stairways and autoparks are the dominant meeting place of residents with their neighbors.

If neighborhood relations are analyzed by age group, the following picture is seen. While young people have generally neighbors in the same apartment, middle age group and old people have it in the site. It can be said that, neighborhood relations increase related with age. Old people consider neighborhood relations more important than young people. Also, all retired people have neighbors from site. This pattern can be explained as old and retired people have got more time than young people.

According to subjective data results, about 88 % of the people interviewed consider neighborhood relations important. Similarly with objective data results, middle age group and old people want to relate to their neighbors.

All housewives and unemployed people consider neighborhood relations important. Probably, they have got more time than other people.

If neighborhood relations are summarized, these results can be found:

- About all residents in this research want to have relations with their neighbors.

- About 53 % of the residents meet their neighbors everyday or a few days in a week.
- People interviewed have generally neighbors in the same apartment or site.
- About 60 % of the people interviewed meet their neighbors at stairways and autoparks.
- While the dominant meeting place of residents is stairways and autoparks, they want to meet their neighbors at home or open areas.

In depth interviews, neighborhood relations are measured similarly by asking them, "Why do not you meet your neighbors at home or open areas?" Responses concentrates around following points:

- I do not have any time for neighbor relations
- I must take care of my children
- I do not want to relate with my neighbors because of cultural differences.

These responses may be explained as employed women and women with children do not have enough time for neighborhood relations.

A retired woman point out that she could not get along with other women in their living environment. Because, these women are housewives and she do not enjoy with them due to cultural differences. However, this figure could not be generalized because this woman was graduated from university while housewives were not.

5.4.3.4. Safety

The first composite scale was designed to measure perceived neighborhood safety. People in the research area can walk around at night without fear of being attacked or bothered by strangers. People in

this area can leave their personal property outside and unattended without fearing that it will be damaged or stolen.

A second composite scale was used to measure satisfaction with the environmental characteristics of a neighborhood. This scale was composed of five items that pertained to the quality of the physical environment and two that pertained to the quality of the people who lived in the neighborhood. For those, pertaining to the physical environment, respondents were asked to indicate on a five point scale ranging from very dissatisfied to very satisfied. These items collectively represent characteristics of neighborhoods that influence perceptions of neighborhoods as nice places to live.

Experiences of property victimization were measured similarly by asking them, "Have you or anyone you know in the site ever had their home broken into and had something stolen from it?" The responses to both questions were dichotomized into "yes" and "no" categories.

Thus, both objective and subjective data results show that this settlement is highly safe place for residents. This is consistent with conclusions reached by İmamoğlu and İmamoğlu (1996). They conclude from their survey research that 85 % of the people do not experience vandalism in their apartment or living environment.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to understand social environmental satisfaction in mass housing settlements in suburban areas. Although, quite a number of surveys on physical planning process of mass housing areas in Turkey exist, research on the social way of life in mass housing areas in suburbs are very few. In this study, the characteristics of social environment in mass housing areas is analyzed in terms of some physical and social indicators. The spatial dimension of mass-housing design is not considered in this study. These indicators relate to personal and socio-economic characteristics of residents such as income level and age. Physical and social way of life in Eryaman First Stage in this sense, constituted the content of the case study. The main focus was to obtain first hand information from the residents and their subjective evaluation of their living environment in order to understand how they judge the quality of their social environment.

A secondary objective of the study was to define the process of suburbanisation in Turkey and find out if it follows a similar pattern in Turkey as in developed countries.

The comparison of the suburban movement in developed countries and in Turkey is summarized under following points :

* In developed countries, residential areas at the periphery of urban areas have risen in 19 yy. and especially after the First World War decentralisation of population have accelerated. However, in Turkey, this process is observed with industrialization in 1950s.

* In developed countries, suburban areas have appeared as a reaction to the industrial city. Suburbanisation has been viewed as the solution to and at other times the cause of urban ills. Similarly, in Turkey, difficulty in living conditions of metropolitan cities can be considered as a reason for suburban growth. However, the main reason of suburbanisation is housing shortage in Turkey.

* Suburban developments after the World War, accelerated by making use of the cheap land outside the city and of the programmes of loans in developed countries. In Turkey, with population growth and migration from rural areas in metropolitan cities, relative to the urban area, land prices on the peripheral rural area offered cheaper land.

* In developed countries, suburbs within the cities are generally independent communities. Also, they are simply getting to be cities. That is, they have both advantages and disadvantages of cities. In contrast, suburbs are not independent communities and residents of the suburbs depended upon the city for work and cultural facilities in Turkey.

* In developed countries, the isolation from public and city life is the main problem of suburbs. Similarly, accessibility to city center is most important problem to suburbanites in Turkey.

As for the detailed case study, Ankara Eryaman First Stage mass housing settlement was analyzed in order to understand social environment satisfaction of residents.

The results of the case study is evaluated under three headings :

1. Personal and socio-economic characteristics.

Personal and socio-economic characteristics of the residents is influenced by their expectations from their environment. The population survey in this sample showed in terms of socio-economic characteristics a great homogeneity interms of income and educational level. They were all middle income group and 80 % had higher education. Therefore, expectations from the environment did not show great variety. However, in terms of personal characteristics, age and employment status presented a variation.

2. Physical Indicators

* There exists a relationship between housing satisfaction and housing type. Most of the residents want to live in single family detached house. Also, single family detached houses residents' have a higher degree of satisfaction with their housing than do apartment dwelling residents.

* Eryaman First Stage mass housing area residents are satisfied with their living environment. Low density land use, sufficient open and green areas new buildings may be an explanation of this satisfaction. Also, the research area are planned regarding all social infrastructure and green areas.

* There exists an opposite relationship between the desire of moving to another settlement and environmental satisfaction. By the way, most of the residents do not want to move any place from their site. Of the residents who want to move from Eryaman, complain about accessibility to office, cultural facilities and relatives in the city center. Accessibility to the center of the city and other services is one of the most important factor affecting the residents' environmental satisfaction. However, the distance from the city center is widely known characteristic of the suburbs or new settlements in the periphery of city. Thus, residents venture the distance from the city when they move to the suburbs.

3. Social Indicators

* Suburbs do not have sufficient cultural facilities. Actually, residents pointed out there is not any cultural facility like cinema or theatre. Also, social activities so weak so that people must go to the city center in order to participate in cultural and social activities of the city.

* Suburban residents are interested in their neighborhoods and involved with their neighbors. However, neighbors are not closely involved with each other. The data results proves this hypothesis. Neighborhood relations are important for most of the residents but, neighbors do not meet each other sufficiently. The residents point out they do not have any time for neighborhood relations. However, they also add that they want to have more interaction with their neighbors.

Age is the most important characteristics in neighborhood relations. Older people have more interaction than younger people. Because, older

people (especially retired people) have more time than younger. Whereas, the young generation does not consider neighborhood relations important.

* Suburbs have more privacy than cities. This privacy is created at the design stage by the planners who tried to create a balance between openness and closedness and it corresponded to the occupants' needs.

* Safety is one of the most important predictor of the social environmental satisfaction in developed countries. Eryaman First Stage mass housing area is considered a highly safe place for residents. Because, they do not experience vandalism, burglary or crime and they also do not have fear of crime and burglary. Moreover, they go out at night freely. Also, safety is not a problem in Turkey as in developed countries.

In the light of these results, following conclusions can be drawn:

* Housing and living environment are the most important concepts in human life and they should be considered both from physical and from social aspects. The social life of suburbs can be enriched with new design principles and planning. The creation of social interaction spaces reviving community life can be realized with mass housing regulations.

* Residents' preferences can be considered in the design process of mass-housing areas. According to survey results, residents prefer to live in detached house with garden in suburbs, but, they live in apartment flats. Residents' preferences and behaviours can be an input to mass housing design since housing image is effected by it to a great extent. However, high-rise apartments are inevitable pattern of mass-housing design in Turkey and developed countries.

* According to survey results, social and cultural services and facilities are not sufficient. A mass housing planning process in suburbs should provide the socio-physiological requirements of residents. These social and cultural services can be constructed at the same time as the dwellings.

* It is important that sport centers for and cultural facilities are designed in the scale of settlement especially for young people and children.

* It is seen in this research that socio-cultural components of environment such as house, street and open areas, provide residents visual satisfaction. Thus, social interaction can be increased if these areas are planned sufficient and good.

* Streets, open areas, sport complex and public social services can be considered and supported in the mass housing design process. Because they support to social interaction.

* Neighborhood relations are basic factor of social interaction. Also, it is an important determinant quality of social environmental well-being surveys. According to this research neighborhood relations are necessary and important for residents. It can be said that this result is observed in Turkey and especially in middle income group settlements. Social relationships are influenced and explained by peoples' homogeneity with respect to a variety of characteristics. This may be a reason for strong neighborhood relations in the research area. Also, relatives are important for the residents. Housewives and retired people have more neighbors and they want to close to their relatives. Their relatives live in city so that people want to live in center of the city. Because, people live in a mass housing in suburb, they do not access to city facilities and services easily. Thus, they

need each other in order to solve problems and requirements of their settlements. This may be another reason for their strong neighborhood relationships. Social services and open areas designed in housing areas affect neighborhood relationships positively or negatively. Thus, mass housing design can be done regarding to support neighborhood relations.

Thus, Eryaman First Stage mass housing area both have positive and negative dimensions in terms of quality of physical and social environment. That is, housing and housing environment components of physical environment can be evaluated positively. Housing privacy is sufficient in the research area. Moreover, Eryaman First Stage settlement area is considered a highly safe place for residents. These characteristics of settlement area can be supported. However, socio-cultural activities and neighborhood relations are insufficient according to survey results. In order to develop socio-cultural activities and neighborhood relations, mass housing design and regulations can be enriched.

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APPENDIX A

PHOTOS FROM ERYAMAN-I

ANKARA Eryaman Toplu Konut Alanı

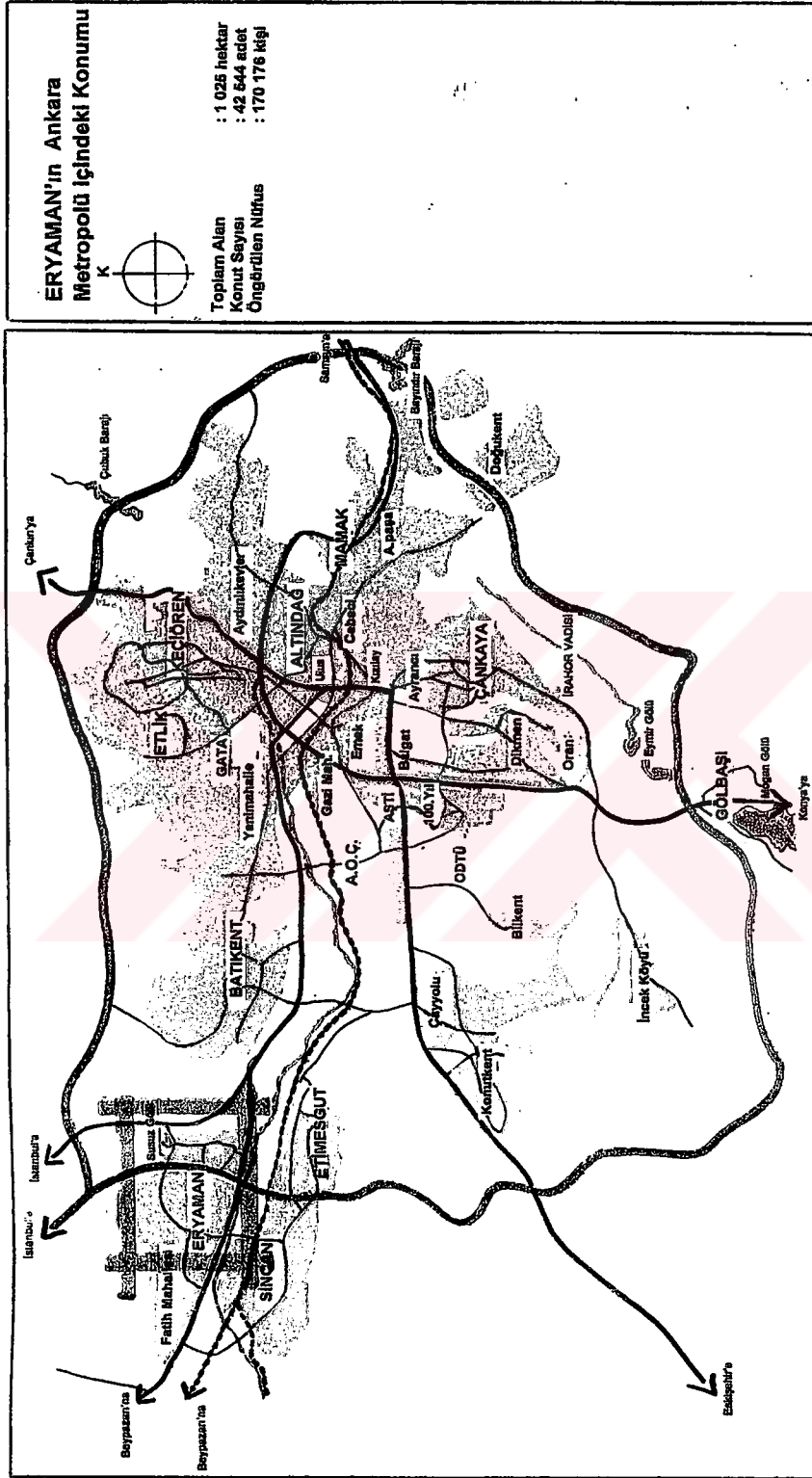


Figure 22 : The Site of Eryaman in Ankara Metropolitan Area
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.

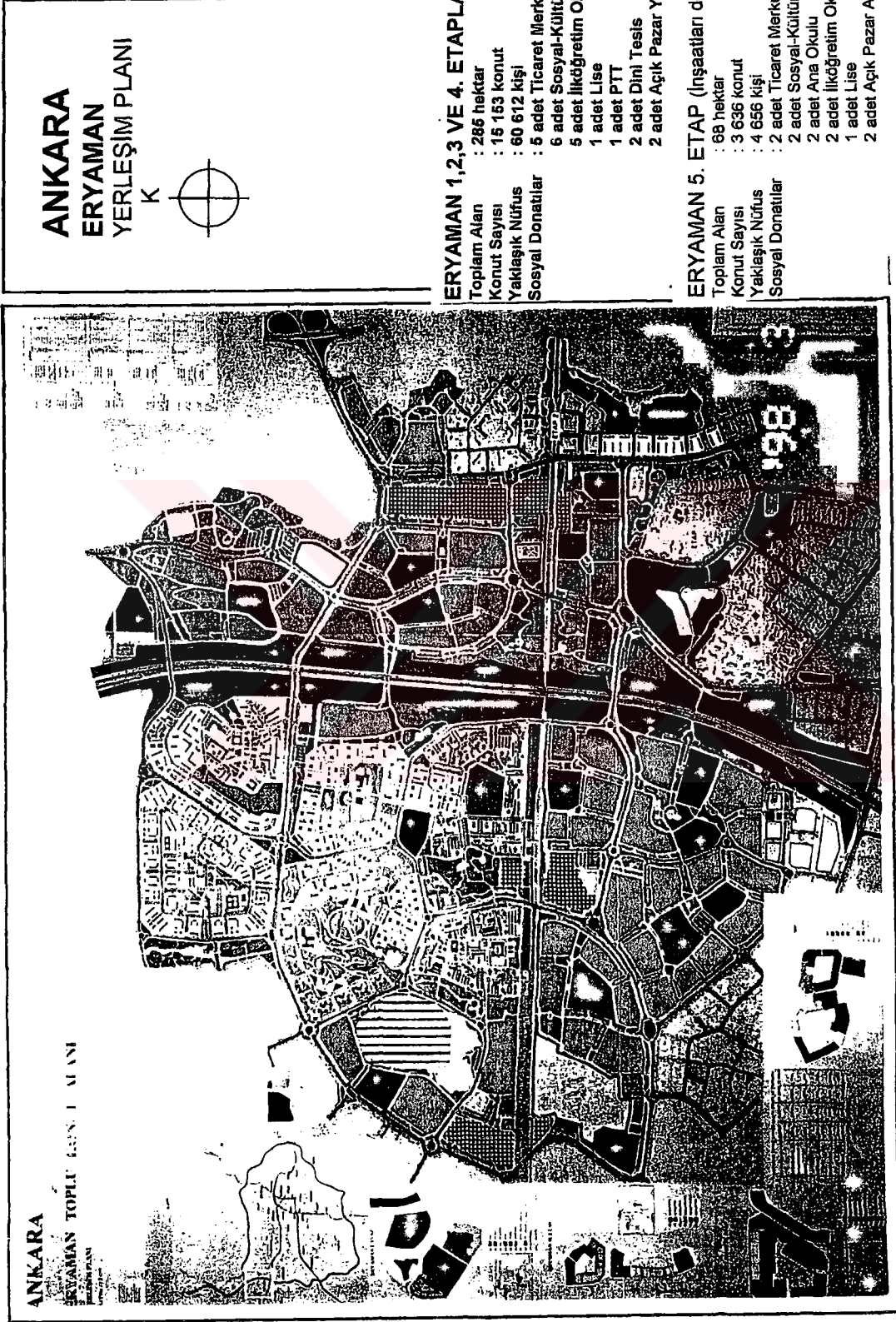


Figure 23 : Ankara Eryaman Settlement Area.
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKİ), 1994.

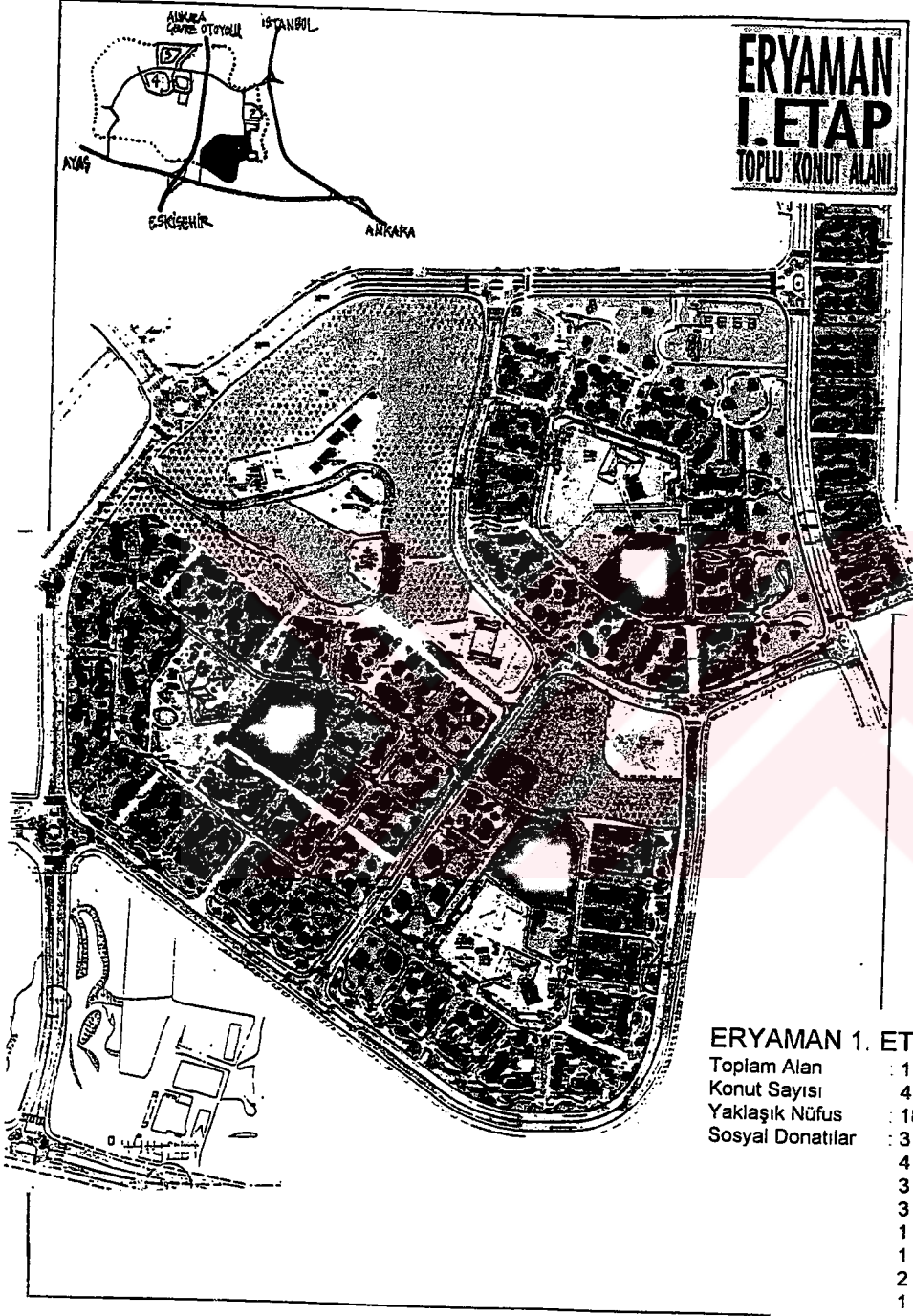


Figure 24 : Eryaman First Stage Implementation
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKİ), 1994.

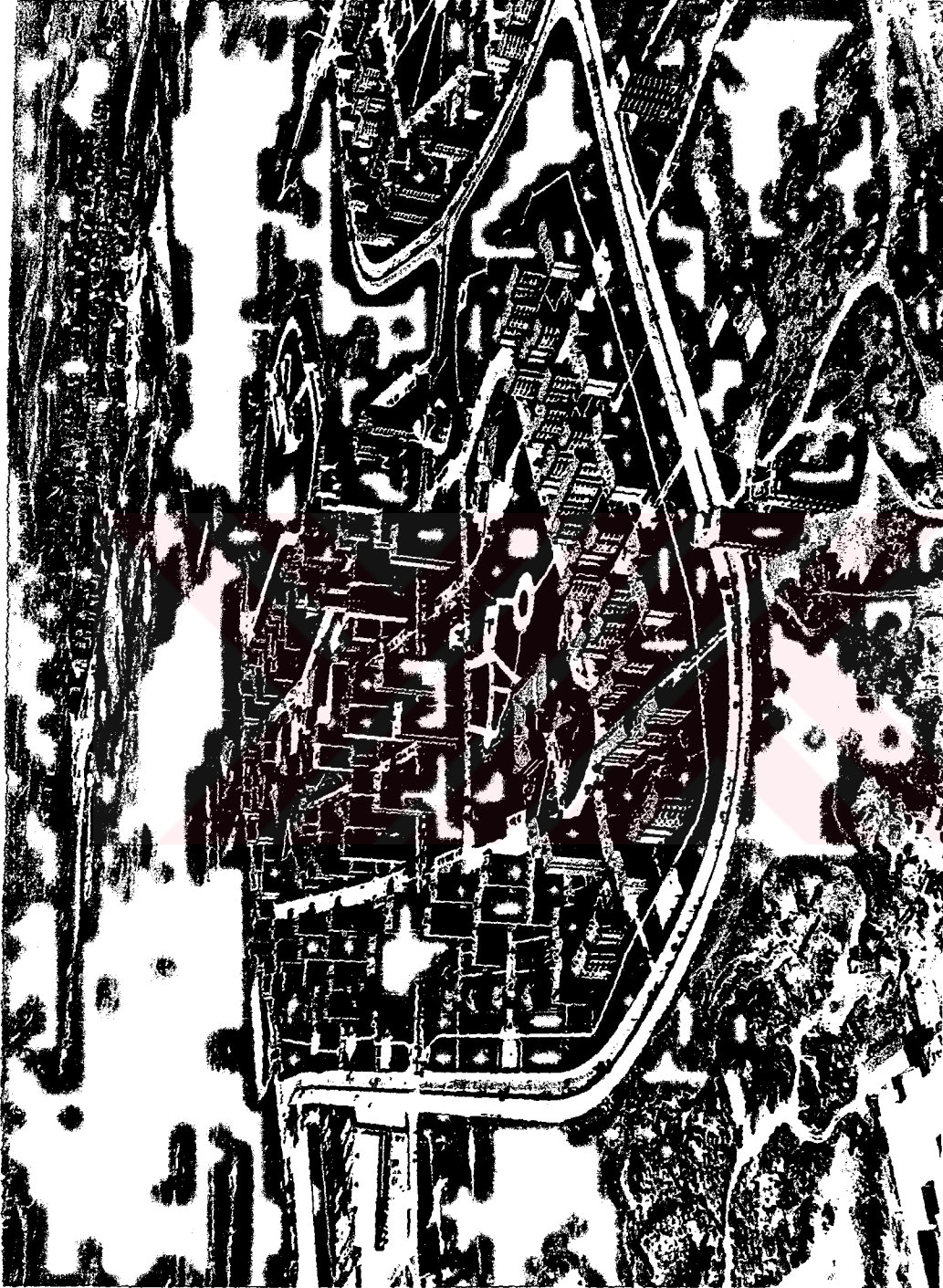


Figure 25 : The General View of Eryaman-I
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.



Figure 26 : The General View of Eryaman-I
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.



Figure 27 : The General View of Eryaman-1
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.

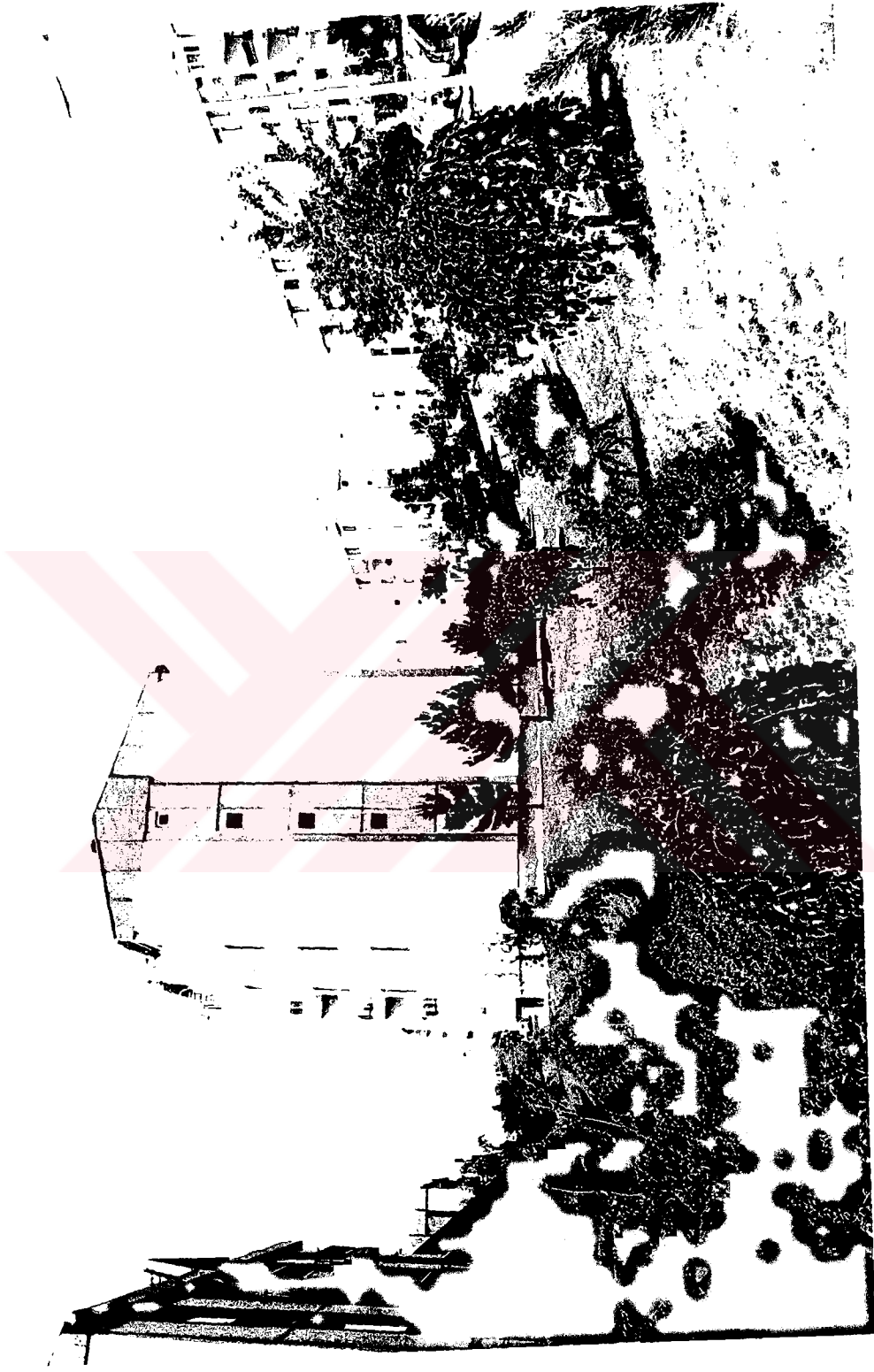


Figure 28 : Housing Types (4-5 Storey Apartments)
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.

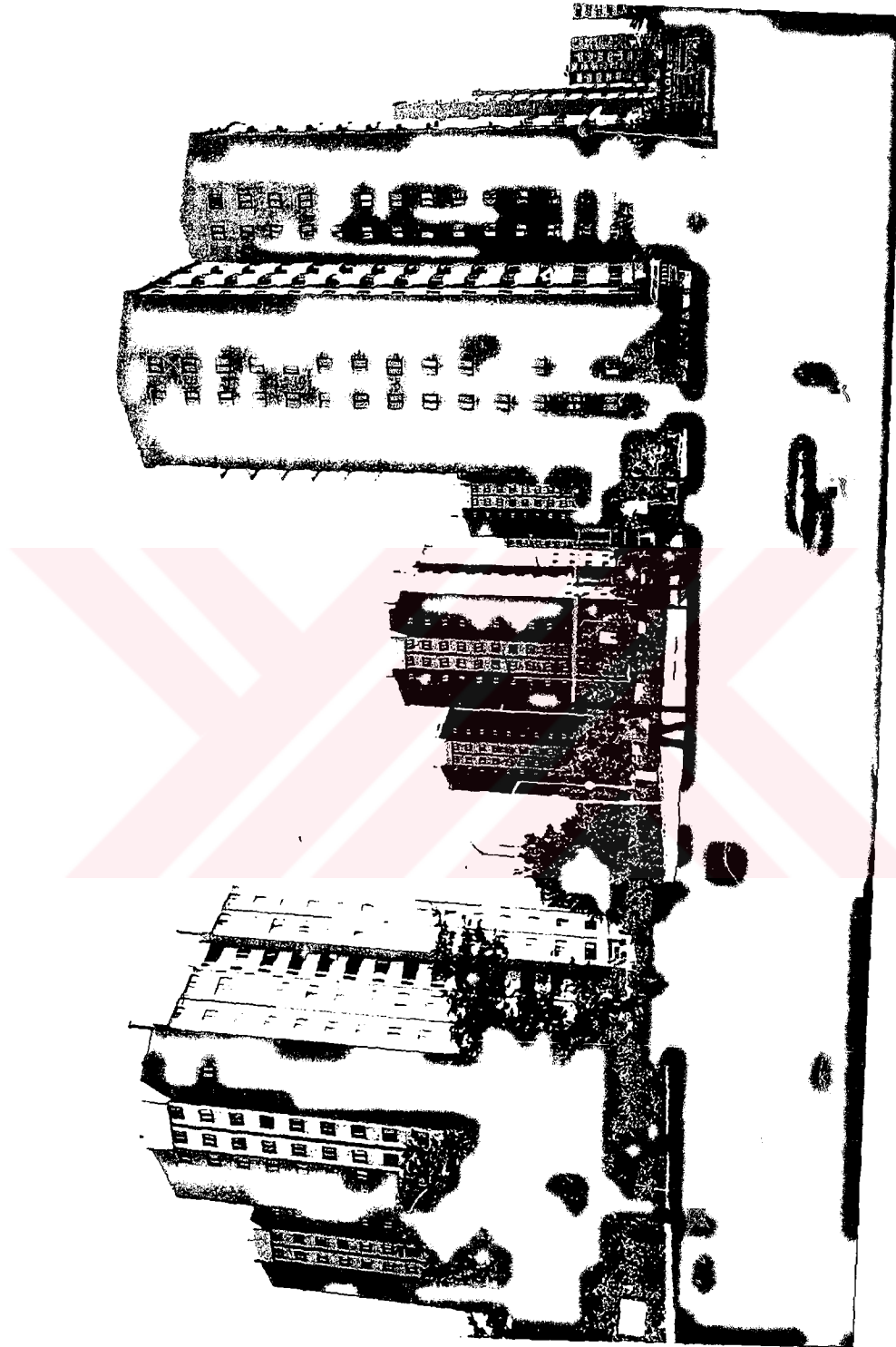


Figure 29 : Housing Types (10-15 Storey Apartments)
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.



Figure 30 : Housing Types (14 Storey Apartments)
Source : Mass Housing Association (TOKI), 1994.

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

ERYAMAN'DA SOSYAL ÇEVRE KALİTESİ
ARAŞTIRMASI
SORU FORMU

İyi günler. Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Mimarlık Fakültesi Şehir ve Bölge Planlama Bölümünde yüksek lisans öğrencisiyim. Tezimle ilgili olarak çevre kalitesine yönelik bu çalışmaya sorularımı yanıtlayarak yardımcı olmanızı rica ediyorum. Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

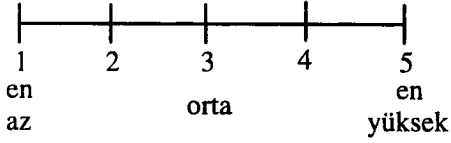
1. Doğum yeriniz
2. Cinsiyetiniz
3. Yaşınız
4. Bu evde siz dahil toplam kaç kişi oturmaktasınız?.....
5. Mesleğiniz nedir?
6. Konutunuzdaki oda sayısı.....
7. Çalıştığınız yerdeki konumunuz nedir?
(1) İşçi (2) Memur (3) Serbest
(4) Diğer (a) Emekli (b) Ev hanımı (c) Öğrenci (d) İşsiz
8. Oturduğunuz evde ev sahibi misiniz ?
(1) Ev sahibi başka evi var. (4) Kiracı başka evi yok.
(2) Ev sahibi başka evi yok. (5) Ev bir yakınına ait
(3) Kiracı başka evi var. (6) Lojman
9. Gelir seviyesi bakımından kendinizi nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?
(1) Düşük (2) Orta (3) Varlıklı
10. Eğitiminiz nedir?
(1) Hiç okula gitmedim (4) Ortaokul mezunu
(2) Okur-yazar (5) Lise mezunu
(3) İlkokul mezunu (6) Üniversite mezunu
11. Çevrenizdeki insanları gelir ve eğitim statüsü bakımından değerlendirecek olursanız,
(1) Düşük (2) Orta (3) Yüksek

12. Hangi konut tipinde oturmayı tercih edersiniz?

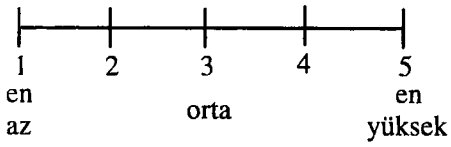
- (1) Kent dışında, bahçeli müstakil bir evde
- (2) Kent merkezine yakın bir apartman dairesinde
- (3) Kent dışındaki toplu konut alanlarında

13, 14 ve 15. sorulara 1'den 5'e kadar olan ölçüm cetveline kaç puan verdiğinizi sayı üzerine işaretleyiniz.

13. Konutunuzdan memnuniyetiniz değerlendirecek olursanız;



14. Konutunuzun bulunduğu yakın çevreden memnuniyetinizi değerlendirecek olursanız;



15. Konutunuzun bulunduğu yakın çevrenin manzarasını değerlendirecek olursanız;



16. Binanızın bahçesindeki açık oturma yerini kullanıyor musunuz?

- (1) Evet
- (2) Hayır

17. Çocuklarınız varsa genellikle nerelerde oynar?

- (1) Evin içinde
- (2) Balkonda
- (3) Bahçede
- (4) Sokakta
- (5) Çocuk bahçesinde
- (6) Çocuğum yok
- (7) Diğer

18. Eryaman'dan başka bir yere taşınmayı düşünürmüydünüz?

- (1) Evet
- (2) Hayır

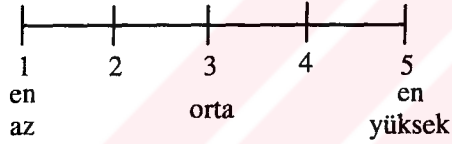
19. 18. soruya cevabınız evet ise neden?

- (1) Daha geniş bir eve ihtiyaç duyduğu için
- (2) İşe yakın bir yer istediği için
- (3) Çocukların okuluna yakın olmak için
- (4) Akrabalara yakın olmak için
- (5) Semti beğenmediği için
- (6) Gürültü ve trafik gibi nedenlerle
- (7) Altyapı ve tesisat zayıf olduğu için
- (8) Komşularla anlaşamadığı için
- (9) Diğer

20. Kent merkezine daha yakın bir yerde yaşamayı istermiydiniz? Neden ?
 (1) Alışveriş alanlarına yakın olmak için
 (2) İşyerine yakın olmak için
 (3) Kültürel faaliyetlere yakın olmak için
 (4) Kent merkezine yakın bir yerde oturmak istemiyorum
 (5) Diğer
21. Aşağıdaki tesislerden en çok hangisini kullanıyorsunuz? Önem sırasına göre ilk üçünü boş kutulara yazınız.
 (1) Pastane (6) Sinema
 (2) Kafe (7) Anaokulu
 (3) Açık oturma yerleri (8) Çocuk bahçesi
 (4) Çarşı (9) Lokanta
 (5) Spor salonu /sahaları (10) Site yönetim lokali
 () () ()
22. Sosyal tesisleri kullanma sıklığınız nedir?
 (1) Her gün (2) Haftada bir kaç kez (3) Ayda bir (4) Nadiren
23. Otomobiliniz var mı?
 (1) Evet (2) Hayır
24. Kente ulaşımınızı nasıl yapıyorsunuz?
 (1) Özel otomobilinizle (2) Servisle (3) Toplu taşıma araçlarıyla

25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 ve 33. sorulara 1'den 5'e kadar olan ölçüm cetveline kaç puan verdiğinizi sayı üzerine işaretleyiniz.

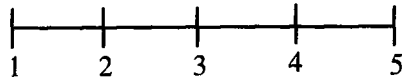
25. Konutunuzun açık yeşil ve oyun alanlarına ulaşılabilirliği ve kullanımınız açısından,



26. Konutunuzun alışveriş merkezine yakınlığı açısından;



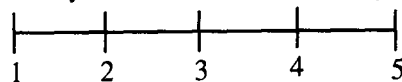
27. İşinize yakınlığı açısından;



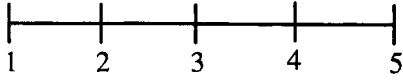
28. Varsa çocuğunuzun okuluna yakınlığı açısından;



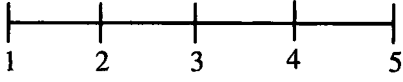
29. Sosyal ve kültürel tesislere yakınlığı açısından;



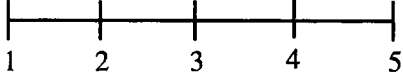
30. Yaşadığınız çevredeki sosyal tesislerin canlılığı açısından;



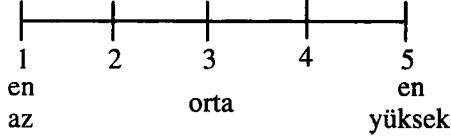
31. Alanınızın gençler için uygun bir çevre olması açısından;



32. Konutunuzun mahremiyetine önem vermeniz açısından;



33. Konutunuzun bu mahremiyeti sağlama derecesi açısından;



34. Alanda oturmanızın komşularınızla bir ilgisi var mı?

- (1) Evet (2) Hayır

35. Komşuluk kurmak sizin için önemli mi?

- (1) Evet (2) Hayır

36. 35. soruya cevabınız evet ise, hangi açılardan önemli?

- (1) Yardımlaşma açısından
(2) Beraber vakit geçirme açısından (Alışveriş, eğlence, vb.)
(3) Sıkıntı ve sevinçleri paylaşma açısından
(4) Hepsi

37. Yaşadığınız çevrede komşuluk kurabildiğiniz insanlar neredendir?

- (1) Aynı apartmanda (2) Aynı blokta (3) Bitişik blokta (4) Site içinde

38. Komşularınızla hangi sıklıkta görüşürsünüz?

- (1) Her gün (4) Ayda bir
(2) Haftada bir kaç kez (5) Nadiren
(3) Haftada bir gün (6) Hiç görüşmüyorum.

39. Komşularınızla en sık nerede biraraya gelirsiniz?

- (1) Merdiven /Asansör/Otopark
(2) Site/Mahalle çarşısında
(3) Açık mekanlarda
(4) Evlerde
(5) Alışveriş merkezlerindeki kafe ve restoranlarda
(6) Diğer.....

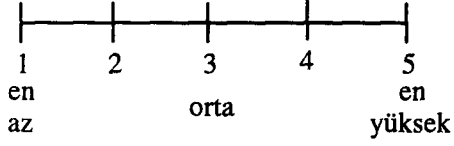
40. Komşularınızla en çok nerelerde birarada olmayı istersiniz?

.....

41. Yaşadığınız çevrede hırsızlık, saldırı, tahribat vb. suçlara tanık oldunuz mu?

- (1) Evet (2) Hayır

42. Sizce gece sokak lambalarının aydınlatması yeterli mi?
(1) Evet (2) Hayır
43. Yaşadığınız sitede geceleri rahatlıkla sokağa çıkabiliyor musunuz?
(1) Evet (2) Hayır
44. Güvenlik açısından yaşadığınız çevreyi değerlendirecek olursanız 1'den 5'e kadardan ölçüm cetveline kaç verirsiniz?



Hazırlamakta olduğum araştırmaya yardımlarınızdan dolayı çok teşekkür ederim.

APPENDIX C
TABLES FROM DATA RESULTS

3: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Age Group

Age Group	%
20-29	12,7
30-39	43,6
40-49	20
50-59	18,2
60+	5,5

4: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Income

Income Level	%
Low	5,5
Middle	89,1
High	5,5

5: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Employment Status

Employment Status	%
Worker	7,3
Employee	56,4
Self-employed	3,6
Retired	5,5
Housewife	25,5
Unemployed	1,8

6: Percentage Distribution of the Education of Level of the Sample Population

Education Level	%
Literate	5,5
Primary school	5,5
Junior-high school	9,1
High school	20
University	60

7 : Percentage Distribution of Sample by Housing Type Preferred

Housing Type Preferred	%
Detached House	60
Apartment	5,5
Mass-Housing	34,5

8: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Desire to Move From Eryaman by Age Group

Age Group	No Comment	Yes	No
20-29	28,6	14,3	57,1
30-39	8,3	29,2	62,5
40-49		45,5	54,5
50-59	10.0	10.0	80.0
60+			100.0

9 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by desire to Move From Eryaman by Employment Status

Age	No Comment	Yes	No
Worker		25	75
Employee	9,7	25,8	64,5
Self-employed		50	50
Retired	33,3		66,7
Housewife		28,6	71,4
Unemployed	100		

10 : Percentage Distribution of Sample by Reasons for a Desire to Move From Eryaman

Reasons	%
First Reason	32,1
Second Reason	28,5
Third Reason	14,3
Fourth Reason	3,5
Fifth Reason	21,4

11 : Distribution of Sample Population by the Reasons Given Central Area For Preference by Age Group

Age Group	First Reason	Second Reason	Third Reason	Fourth Reason
20-29		42,9		14,3
30-39	4,2	12,5	29,2	
40-49		54,5	9,1	
50-59		20	40	
60+			66,6	33,3

12 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Reasons Given Central Preference by Employment Status

Employment Status	First Reason	Second Reason	Third Reason	Fourth Reason
Worker				
Employee	3,2	29	19,4	3,2
Self-employed		50	50	
Retired			66,7	
Housewife		28,6	28,6	7,1
Unemployed				

13: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Using Social Facilities

Facilities	%
Restaurant	9,1
Cafe	1,8
Open Areas	38
Shopping Center	40
Spor Complex	3,6
Childcare	1,8
Playground	5,6

14: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Using Frequency of Social Facilities

The Using Frequency of Social Facilities	%
Everyday	12,7
A few days in a week	27,3
Once a mount	7,3
Rarely	52,7

15 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Frequency of Neighborhood Relations

The Frequency of Nighborhood Relations	%
Everyday	20
A few days in a week	32,7
Once a week	5,5
Once a mounth	10,9
Rarely	23,6
None of them	7,3

16: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location

Location	%
No comment	5,5
Same apt.	47,3
Same block	3,6
Site	43,6

17 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location by Age Group

Age Group	No Comment	Same Apt.	Same Block	Site
20-29	28,6	57,1		14,3
30-39		45,8		54,2
40-49	9,1	36,4	9,1	45,5
50-59		60	10	30

18 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by Neighbors' Location by employment Status

Employment Status	No Comment	Same Apt.	Same Block	Site
Worker		100		
Employee	6,5	45,2	3,2	45,2
Self-employed		50		50
Retired				100
Housewife	7,1	50	7,1	35,7
Unemployed				100

19: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Meeting Place With Neighbors

Places	%
Steps/Autoparks	50,9
Shops	10,9
Open Areas	12,7
Home	20
Shopping Center	3,6
Other	1,8

20: Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Importance of Neighborhood Relations by Age Group

Age Group	Yes	No
20-29	71,4	28,6
30-39	91,7	8,3
40-49	81,8	18,2
50-59	80	10
60+	100	

21 : Percentage Distribution of Sample Population by the Importance of Neighborhood Relations by Employment Status

Employment Status	Yes	No
Worker	75	26
Employee	83,9	16,1
Self-employed	100	
Retired	33,3	33,3
Housewife	100	
Unemployed	100	

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