# SUBVERSION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIERARCHY IN HIGH-RISE BUILDINGS: BAYRAKLI CASE IN IZMIR

SIBEL DOSTOL

SEPTEMBER, 2019

## SUBVERSION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIERARCHY IN HIGH-RISE BUILDINGS: BAYRAKLI CASE IN IZMIR

#### A THESIS SUBMITTED TO

## THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF

### IZMIR UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN ARCHITECTURE

BY

SIBEL DOSTOL

SEPTEMBER, 2019

İZMİR

Approval of the Graduate School

Prof. Dr. M. Efe BİRESSELİOĞLU

Director

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

Master of Architecture.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslı Ceylan ÖNER

Head of Department of Architecture

This is to certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of

Architecture.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslı Ceylan ÖNER

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Burkay PASÍN

Co- advisor

Supervisor

**Examining Committee Members** 

Assist. Prof. Dr. Emre GÖNLÜGÜR

Assist. Prof. Dr. Altuğ KASALI

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslı Ceylan ÖNER

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Burkay PASIN

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Koray VELİBEYOĞLU

#### **ABSTRACT**

## SUBVERSION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIERARCHY IN HIGH-RISE BUILDINGS: BAYRAKLI CASE IN IZMIR

Dostol, Sibel

Master of Science in Architecture

**Graduate School** 

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Burkay Pasin

Co-advisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslı Ceylan Öner

September 2019, 109 pages

In 2001, Bayraklı district was decided to be the new city center by Izmir Metropolitan Municipality. In order to develop the city and to compete at international standards, the local authorities organized an international urban project competition. The outcomes of the new city center project and the new master plan have started to transform the district. Bayraklı has begun to show the characteristics of a polycentric urban region based on more than one economic center in a region. One of the biggest outcomes of the decision of the master plan is that the high-rise construction in the district was allowed. After the permission was given, many examples of these structures have come to be seen in the district.

As a result of this process, the impacts of these buildings on the environment and the urban users of this new center have been subject to debate. This thesis analyzes the manipulations of and interactions between public and private spaces in highrise buildings, which were completed between 2010 and 2016, Bayraklı district in Izmir. The thesis focuses on the functions of high-rise buildings, their floor areas and the percentage of these in the overall structures, and also discusses the role of public spaces of the district in the transformations of these functions. The thesis examines the effects of high-rise buildings upon the environment in this polycentric urban region and the private and public spaces in the entrance floors through the medium of sketches, photographs, and building schemes. The obtained results point to the activities of the privatized semi-public spaces in the district. In addition, the results show that the security organizations on the ground floor define the transitions from public areas to lobbies, which create private spaces and invisible boundaries within the buildings and their surroundings. Controlling public spaces on the ground floor of these buildings causes the built environment not to be used consistently and not to integrate with their surroundings. The thesis demonstrates that the high-rise buildings in the district have begun to have significant impact upon the district as they have been typically operating as gated communities.

Keywords: Public space, private space, polycentric urban region, central business district, high-rises.

#### ÖZET

## YÜKSEK KATLI BİNALARDA ÖZEL VE KAMUSAL ALAN HİYERARŞİSİNİN TERS YÜZ EDİLMESİ: İZMİR, BAYRAKLI ÖRNEĞİ

Dostol, Sibel

Mimarlık Yüksek Lisans Programı Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Burkay Pasin

Ortak Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Aslı Ceylan Öner

Eylül 2019,109 sayfa

2001 yılında, Bayraklı İlçesi'nin, İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi tarafından yeni kent merkezi olmasına karar verilmiştir. Kenti geliştirmek ve uluslararası standartlarda rekabet etmek için, şehir yönetimi uluslararası bir kentsel proje yarışması düzenlemiştir. Kent merkezi kararının ve yeni nazım planın sonuçları bölgeyi dönüştürmeye başlamıştır. Bayraklı, bir bölgedeki birden fazla ekonomik merkeze dayanan, çok merkezli (*polycentric*) kentsel bölge özelliği göstermeye başlamıştır.

Tüm bunların etkisiyle ortaya çıkan bu kentsel örüntü bölgenin ekonomik, yönetim ve ticaret merkezi olma konumundadır. Kent merkezi kararının en büyük sonuçlarından biri olan bölgedeki yüksek katlı yapılaşmaya izin verilmesinin ardından ilçede bu yapıların çok sayıda örneği görülmeye başlamıştır. Sonuç olarak, bu yeni kentsel merkezde yapıların çevreye ve kullanıcılara etkileri dikkat çekmektedir. Bu tez, yapımı 2010-2016 yılları arasında tamamlanan İzmir, Bayraklı bölgesindeki beş yüksek katlı binanın giriş katları ve yapılı çevresinde gözlemlenen kamusal ve özel alanların manipulasyonlarını ve birbirleriyle etkileşimlerini incelemektedir. Araştırma, ele aldığı yüksek katlı binaların fonksiyonlarını ve toplam yapı içerisindeki oranlarını tespit etmiştir ve bölgedeki kamusal alanların bu fonksiyonlar üzerindeki dönüşümlerini tartışmaktadır. Tezde, bu çok merkezli kentsel bölgede bulunan yüksek katlı yapıların çevreye etkisi ve giriş katlarındaki özel ve kamusal alanlar; yapılan eskizler, çekilen fotoğraflar ve çizilen bina şemalarıyla incelenmektedir. Elde edilen sonuçlarla, özelleştirilmiş yarı kamusal alanların bölgedeki etkinlikleri tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, giriş katlarındaki güvenlik, halka açık alanlardan lobilere ve özel alanlara geçişi ve binaların özel alanlarında görünmez özel sınırları tanımlamaktadır. Binaların zemin katlarında kamusal alanların kontrol altında tutulması, yapılı çevrenin tutarlı bir şekilde kullanılmamasına ve çevreyle bütünlesememesine neden olmaktadır. Bölgenin, yüksek katlı yapıların etkili olmaya başladığı, kapalı site (gated communities) özelliklerini taşımaya başladığı tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özel Alan, kamusal alan, çok merkezli kentsel bölge, merkezi iş bölgesi, yüksek katlı binalar

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Burkay Pasin and my cosupervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslı Ceylan Öner for all their support and criticism on my thesis. Their deep academic knowledge always opens my mind and shapes my architectural career.

I would like to thank the jury committee members Assist. Prof. Dr. Emre Gönlügür, Assist. Prof. Dr. Altuğ Kasalı and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Koray Velibeyoğlu for their criticisms on my thesis.

I would like to thank my family; Serpil Dostol, Ali Rıza Dostol and Ahmet Dostol for all their emotional support. Especially I thank my mother Serpil Dostol. She always supported me in the process of writing this thesis. She was also with me during my several site visits to Bayraklı. She has always been there to help me recover my worst moments. I feel very lucky to be her daughter. Finally, I would like to thank my grandmother Saniye Ucagök. While I was writing this thesis, she passed away. She was the strongest woman I had met. Thank you grandmother for all your support and good memories.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZET	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	
LIST OF TABLES	
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiv
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	
1.1. Problem Statement	1
1.2. Research Questions	3
1.3. Significance of Research	3
1.4. Methodology	5
CHAPTER 2: CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT AS APOI URBAN REGION DEVELOPMENT	
2.1. Typology of Polycentric Urban Region Development	7
2.2. Central Business District	10
2.3. Examples of Polycentric Urban Regions with New Business D	oistricts 11
2.3.1. Canary Wharf in London	11
2.3.2. La Defense in Paris	13
2.3.3. Zuidas in Amsterdam	14
2.3.4. Maslak-Büyükdere in İstanbul	16

2.4. The Effect of High-Rises on PUR Territories	18
CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIERARCHY	20
3.1. Public Space	20
3.2. Major Characteristics of Public Space	21
3.2.1. Permeability, Accesibility and Visibility	22
3.2.2. Inclusivity vs. Exclusivity	24
3.3. Privatization of Public Space	
3.4. Gated Communities as Privatized Public Spaces	30
3.5. Loose Space	32
3.6. Territorial Depth-Public and Private Hierarchy	34
CHAPTER 4: HIGH-RISES IN CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICTS	37
4.1. High-Rise Design	37
4.2. The Effect of High-Rises on Urban Growth	39
4.3. Commercial Managements of High-Rise Buildings	41
4.4. Privately Owned Public Space	42
CHAPTER 5: CASE STUDY	44
5.1. Information on Study Area	44
5.1.1. Bayraklı District	44
5.1.2. Izmir New City Center Development Plan	46
5.2. Case Analyses	50
5.2.1. Preliminary Functional Analysis	51
5.2.2. Territorial Depth- Public and Private Analyses	59
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION	64
REFERENCES	67

APPENDICES	. 7:	5
------------	------	---

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Types of Polycentric Urban Region Developments	9
Figure 2: Canary Wharf	. 12
Figure 3: La Defense	. 14
Figure 4: Zuidas	. 16
Figure 5: Maslak-Büyükdere	. 18
Figure 6: The Territorial Principle of Inclusion	. 34
Figure 7: Territorial Inclusion in Increasing Depth	
Figure 8: Territorial Depth	
Figure 9: Maine-Montparnasse Tower	. 40
Figure 10: Bayraklı District Map	. 44
Figure 11: The main transportation axes of the Bayraklı District	. 46
Figure 12: Master Plan of the Winning Project designed by Jochen Brandi	. 48
Figure 13: Izmir New City Center Master Plan	. 49
Figure 14: Bayraklı Tower	. 52
Figure 15: Folkart Towers	. 53
Figure 16: Megapol Tower	. 54
Figure 17: Mistral Towers	. 55
Figure 18: Ege Perla Towers	. 56

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Basic Informations About the Case Buildings	51
Table 2: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Bayraklı Tower	52
Table 3: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Folkart Towers	53
Table 4: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Megapol Tower	55
Table 5: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Mistral Towers	56
Table 6: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Ege Perla	57
Table 7: Comparison of Functional Distribution for the Selected Cases	58

## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Bayraklı Tower Site Plan	. 76
Appendix 2. Folkart Towers Site Plan	. 77
Appendix 3. Megapol Tower Site Plan	. 78
Appendix 4. Mistral Towers Site Plan	. 79
Appendix 5. Ege Perla Towers Site Plan	. 80
Appendix 6. Bayraklı Tower Entrance Floor Plan	. 81
Appendix 7. Folkart Towers A Entrance Floor Plan	. 82
Appendix 8. Folkart Towers B Entrance Floor Plan	. 83
Appendix 9. Megapol Tower Entrance Floor Plan	. 84
Appendix 10. Mistral Tower Office Entrance Floor Plan	. 85
Appendix 11. Mistral Tower Residence Entrance Floor Plan	. 86
Appendix 12. Ege Perla Towers Office Entrance Floor Plan	. 87
Appendix 13. Ege Perla Towers Residence Entrance Floor Plan	. 88
Appendix 14. Bayraklı Site Plan	. 89
Appendix 15. Bayraklı Tower DD' Section Drawing	. 90
Appendix 16. Folkart Towers FF' Section Drawing	. 91
Appendix 17. Folkart Towers AA' Section Drawing	. 92
Appendix 18. Megapol Tower EE' Section Drawing	. 93
Appendix 19. Mistral Towers CC' Section Drawing	. 94
Appendix 20. Ege Perla Towers BB' Section Drawing	. 95

#### **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1. Problem Statement

Public spaces are urban forms that positively affect urban life with the welfare city environment they provide the users. In today's cities, architectural structures are designed according with increasing privatizations and as a result they create controlled and inaccessible or hardly accessible spaces for users. Many actors, such as local authorities, private investors, and architects have their roles in this type of development.

It is observed that many transformations take place in urban public spaces, which are fundamental to urban life. It is also seen that the definition of public and private spaces has been changing and their qualities and definitions have been transforming. In this thesis, the subversion of public and private hierarchy in the built environment as a result of the high-rise construction in Bayraklı district and consequently the increase or limitations of the permeability of public and private areas in the region are examined. This process began with the planning of the district to become the new city center in 2003 and it still continues today with the increase of high-rise constructions. This thesis focuses on the high-rise developments in Izmir, Bayraklı district, which exemplifies a centrifugal mode of polycentric development (Champion, 2001, p: 664). As a result of these developments, along with Konak, the old city center, Bayraklı district has begun to host economic activities, commercial, governmental, and service sectors, and the place has turned out to be a central business district.

Central business districts are the main components of polycentric urban regions. In these zones, economic activities of the city are moderated in buildings supported by private sectors, including offices, residential, retail and communication services. High-rises are designed in small-sized base and they have enormous heights, which affects the surrounding environment in various aspects. As symbols of economic power, they affect not only the city silhouette visually but also the surrounding public space functionally and socially.

Local authorities should prioritize spatial management policies that allow public spaces to be easily accessible to residents, prevent the exclusion and allocation of space to private groups, and promote social diversity to involve other segments of society (Mierzejewska, 2011, p: 45). The most important features that define public space are permeability and inclusivity for all potential users. In urban developments of today's cities, particularly in central business districts, there is a sharp distinction between public space and private space. Contrary to these developments, the so-called "hybrid" areas emerge within the urban fabric where public and private spaces are interconnected. For example, public spaces, such as railway stations, parks or pedestrian areas are becoming hybridized in the city. In addition, semi-private areas such as shopping centers and plazas are becoming dominant in the urban environment (Nissen, 2008, p: 1134).

In this thesis, the privitazed semi-public and private spaces of high-rise buildings in Bayraklı district shape the public space. Furthermore, the concept of publicness is discussed in relation to various functions of structures. High-rise buildings, which are becoming effective in the district, have controlled areas that affect users' activities in the structure and where publicness is not flexible. As a result, although the area is open to development, high-rise buildings with their controlled spaces have begun to transform the district into gated communities that limit the activities of users at certain times of the day.

#### 1.2. Research Questions

In order to analyze the changing publicity and privacy degrees as well as the subversion of public and private hierarchy in high-rise buildings in Bayraklı district, the following research questions have been asked:

- 1- How is the public/private hierarchy manipulated and subverted in high-rise buildings in the Bayraklı district?
- 2- How do functional patterns ranging from residential to commercial affect this hierarchy?
- 3- How do the users interact with the surrounding public spaces of high-rises in the Bayraklı district?

#### 1.3. Significance of Research

Polycentric urban development is connected with the globalization of economic activity, for which service sector has become increasingly important to command and control functions. In parallel, the developments in Information Technology sector have also had an impact on the changing needs of the offices. These dynamics have accordingly given away to the new sub-centers, sometimes with retrofitting the existing built environment and other times creating high-rise districts that exert some sort of economic power (Öner, 2008).

Definition of Polycentric Urban Region is based on the emergence of sub-centers with certain urban characteristics based on occupancy and building density, multifunctionality, and mix-use. Hence, in the sub-centers of Polycentric Urban

Region's, we see a level of complexity that shows a subversion of public/private space hierarchy. In contemporary sub-centers, high-rises have a powerful and dominating image on the urban landscape. Thus, the relationship of high-rises and polycentric development offers a concrete relation in the contemporary Polycentric Urban Region Development. However, as a significant focus of this thesis, how these two large urban and architectural scales touch the ground and how they affect the private and public space hierarchy remain rather untouched.

For the last ten years, the construction of high-rise buildings has also increased in Bayraklı district, which has been developing as the new city center of İzmir. These buildings have started to manipulate the definitions of public and private space by creating new hierarchies. Moreover, these high-rise developments are constructed by private sector and they have negative effects on built environment. These effects are considered as the gentrification of the district as they disturb the city silhouette.

This thesis argues that the public and private spaces created by high-rise buildings are relative (Habraken, 1998). It asserts that the distinctions between these spaces are reversible. It also reconsiders the built environment and public spaces of the high-rise buildings as recent examples of modern high-rise architecture in Bayraklı district as the new city center. Moreover, it identifies the role of high-rise buildings in Bayraklı district in manipulating the public/private hierarchy.

There are several studies on the high-rise developments in Bayraklı district, most of which focus on their effects on the city, such as urban regeneration (Çelebi, 2018) and sustainability (Öner and Pasin, 2015). Çelebi (2018) investigates the urban transformations and their effects on urban life and on the citizens of Bayraklı in İzmir. The aim of this study is to consider and criticise the urban transformation activities in the context of the housing question, neoliberal urban policies and urban actors of construction sector. Moreover, Öner and Pasin (2015) examine the emerging towers of Bayraklı in İzmir, which is defined as a high-rise development area by local authorities. The study focuses on high-rise structures in relation to the

perception of sustainability and with the question whether or not sustainability is used as a greenwash branding strategy or a contextual element that is fitted in architectural design procedure and urban planning practices. In comparison to these studies, this thesis targets to fill a gap by focusing on the spatiality of high-rises and analyzing the manipulation of public-private hierarchy and thus providing a better understanding of public space.

#### 1.4. Methodology

The methodology of this thesis is a case study research. According to Creswell (2007), a case study is experimental investigations on a contemporary fact within its real-life case, particularly when the borders between fact and context are not obviously prominent. Case study research includes the study of a subject explored through one or more cases within an enclosed system. The case offers an extraordinary or unique condition (Creswell, 2007, p: 92).

The case study of this thesis aims to examine the manipulation of public and private spaces of high-rise buildings and built environment in Izmir, Bayraklı district. Initially, it provides a literature review on polycentrism, high-rise developments, and public/private hierarchy and provides related examples in a global and local scale. Then, the existing five high-rise developments in Bayraklı district are examined in detail by using various data collection methods. The graphical and written resources were obtained from the Department of Izmir Metropolitan Municipality and during a series of site visits, the building exteriors and interiors were photographed with special permission. The ground floor plans of the buildings were drawn schematically, based on a large number of photographs taken at the lobbies of each high-rise building. In addition, the site plans of structures were drawn in approximate scale, according to Google Maps visuals. The relations of the ground floor of these buildings with the surrounding built environment are

examined using the diagrams, schemes and section drawings obtained from these drawings. Then, the findings were classified according to public and private hierarchies as defined by Habraken (1998). Also, the functions of the high-rises and their distribution of the floor areas (foot prints of structures) were calculated. The outcomes are shown on the pie charts and a table is prepared. The purpose of this table is to determine how public and private hierarchy definitions are related to functions. The purpose of these analyses is to discuss whether public or private spaces are based on user experiences.

## CHAPTER 2: CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT AS APOLYCENTRIC URBAN REGION DEVELOPMENT

Polycentrism, which essentially indicates the presence of plural hubs in one region, tends to have become one of the portraying elements of the urban field in major economies. According to Kloosterman and Musterd, one of the most important features of modern urban era is the trend of economic mobility to be grouped in several centers (Kloosterman and Musterd, 2001, p: 623). This differentiation in the city has been required by the globalization of economic activity and the increased importance of the service sector and made possible by transport, information and communication technology, globalization and flexible expertise in production, and the changes most of the Western economies go through (Oort, et al., 2010, p: 727). In order to understand the dynamics of a newly developing part of an urban region, we need to focus on polycentric urban region development.

#### 2.1. Typology of Polycentric Urban Region Development

According to contemporary urban theories, the concept of polycentric region is both morphological and functional polycentricism (Burger and Meijers, 2012, p: 1132). The polycentric concept may take different names such as "city", "urban region",

"mega city region", "metropolitan area" and "global city region". Morphological polycentrism in general is concerned with the size of urban centers and regional circulation throughout the region. This concept defines a more balanced distribution in polycentric clusters. On the other hand, urban theorists believe that several adjacent hubs in the same region emphasize the importance of functional connections between the cores of an urban network (Vasanen, 2012, p: 3627). Burger and Meijers (2012) argue that the functional geographical elements, the demands in the housing market and the model of activity of the households correspond to these concepts (Burger and Meijers, 2012, p: 1133).

Vasanen (2012) considers functional polycentric urban regions as heavily built city and surroundings. The center is connected to the city's business flows. The concept of urban network defines the complex and strong connections between cities. These networks are related to the city economy, important structures and interactions with each other (Meijers, 2005, p: 766). Polycentric systems are based on the density of the center and the network as significant components because the high network density of the hierarchically organized urban relations and the regions with low network density is likely to be encountered. As a result, it is important that the centers are relatively uniform with other cores (Burger and Meijers, 2012, p:1129).

According to Champion, there are three types of polycentric urban region developments. The first one is centrifugal mode. In polycentric city, increasing land prices and accessibility problems may affect the creation of new sub-centers in the cities besides old central business district. These new sub-centers are interacting between inhabitants and business activities. As a result, in the centrifugal mode formation, new secondary sub-centers, which continue to be part of the center may appear in the polycentric urban format. The second formation mode is incorporation, in which the expanded city center may acquire small sub-centers in its surrounding as part of the urbanized area. The third mode is fusion. In this format, there are many single centers with connections and joins. The

important element of these structures is strong economic activities between settlements (Champion, 2001, p: 664).

As will be discussed in the later chapters, Bayraklı is a newly developing area with high-rise clusters and service sector. The new city center is shifting from Konak to this district. Moreover, Bayraklı is starting to be a dominant business hub. There are many high-rise buildings constructed and planned in Bayraklı as well as other urban transformation efforts. As functional polycentricism dwells on concentration of specific activity, whereas morphological polycentrism reveals changes in the built environment (Öner, 2008), Bayraklı case entails both. Also, Bayraklı district exemplifies centrifugal mode of development as housing some of the Central Business District functions of the Konak district.

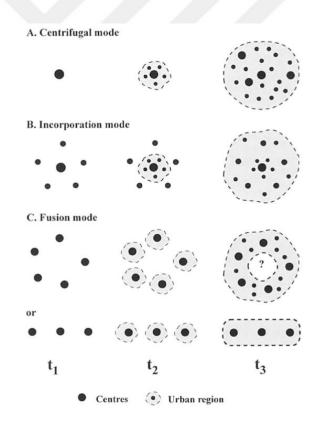


Figure 1: Types of Polycentric Urban Region Developments (Source: Champion)

#### 2.2. Central Business District

As a contemporary urban form, polycentric urban region defines "center" of cities. The concept of the center refers to the complex activities of the city instead of traditional mono functional expression. The center is defined as a multifunctional node with commercial, social, financial and entertainment activities unlike pre-industrial European cities (Köken, 2008, p. 11).

Central business districts have basic characteristics such as concentration, accessibility, economic decisions and dense population. Many cultural, economic, social and spatial features affect urban form of city. Differences between these qualities are defined as urban pattern of regions, however there are some similarities between the world's central business district examples (Köken, 2008, p: 12).

The central business districts do not only host large-scale global actors. They also play a role in the infrastructures and increasing recognition of cities in the international arena. Construction of iconic high-rise buildings or skyscrapers designed by star architects continues in central business districts. These structures become symbols of cities as well as housing important business office functions. Therefore, the architectural structures designed in central business districts increase the functions and importance of the districts. Remarkable skyscraper designs add to the competition between the major cities in the international business arena (Köken, 2008, p: 12).

#### 2.3. Examples of Polycentric Urban Regions with New Business Districts

In the beginning of the 1960s, in Europe, there used to be an open urban pattern, in which population and business services were connected with an important hinterland to function. With the pressure of spatial increase, many urban functions, such as housing, manufacturing, office-based sectors, retail, storage and entertainment services have expanded the development zone into new suburban centers or important urban areas (Meijers and Romein, 2003, p. 174). On the other hand, the central functions of the major cities were re-questioned. In the meantime, American cities had well-designed offices, shopping centers, cultural facilities and residential areas, and a new urbanism emerged in the suburbs. One trend in the polycentric urban region development that is comparable to the Bayraklı case has been the intentional creation of new high-rise districts as new sub-centers or rivaling Central Business District's. Canary Wharf or London, La Defense of Paris, Zuidas of Amsterdam and Maslak-Büyükdere axis of İstanbul are all examples of such development. Although all of these cities are in the upper echelons of the global city hierarchy and all of these developments are all much larger in scale than Bayraklı, the underlying idea is the same: to create a contemporary hub that is suitable for the service economy and the consumer habits of the global elite. Skyscrapers and high-rise buildings are the signature architectural elements of these areas that are mentioned.

#### 2.3.1. Canary Wharf in London

In European Polycentric Urban Region's developments, the Canary Wharf in the UK is a classic example. In the case of London, for instance, the situation of effective and highly extended and advanced public transport systems have been apriority. According to the London mayor's proposal of spatial planning, in the new high-rise building clusters of public transport, nodes could supply the demands of the government-appointed urban task force to produce sustainable land-use tactics.

In this sense, the London redevelopment city proposal provided government funds for Cross Rail, in order to link the city with Canary Wharf (Mcneill, 2002, p: 329). Being the core of the Docklands, Canary Wharf has high-rise office buildings, shopping centers, and entertainment venues. Approximately 100,000 people work and thousands live in the area. This is also the place where the three tallest buildings in Britain are located. Beginning with the enactment of post-war policies that aimed to prevent the unification of adjacent urban centers in the UK, the region has become a polycentric metropolitan region (Parr, 2004, p: 234).



Figure 2: Canary Wharf (Source: som.com)

High-rise buildings in the city are characterized with advertisement and luxury concepts in architecture. Therefore, their existence in the city's skyline is supported (Sklair, 2016, p. 128). Sklair (2013) argues that the city design prompts the crowded arteries to urbanize and thus emphasizes the urban experience. The capital accumulation planned for consumers and export-based manufacture needs to go through public space and transportation (Sklair, 2013, p. 160). From this perspective, high-rise buildings in Canary Wharf have a strategic location as well (McNeill, 2002, p. 326).

#### 2.3.2. La Defense in Paris

La Defense is one of the most important international business districts in Europe. La Defense is located in the west of Boulevard Peripherique, which is the main ring road. Moreover, the district defines the city center of Paris and its suburbs (Scicolone, 2012, p: 18). After the post-war economic expansion (1958), an area adapted to historical city center was designed in Paris region. This new urban space already had infrastructure facilities, dynamic and well-established developments and many factories (Scicolone, 2012, p: 18). Today, in the district, there are 2,600 hotel rooms, 3.35 million square meters of office space and 10,120 residential units which are 36% of low cost-construction. 80.000 people work and 20.000 people live in the district. La Defense hosts the 14 largest French and 15 global companies. 19 of the tallest buildings in France are located in La Defense (Scicolone, 2012, p: 20).

The development of the new central business district in Paris continued many years. The district is reflecting the economic evolution of the city. Moreover, the district has an organized structure that potentially change the urban spaces according to the city's needs (Köken, 2008, p: 22). Central and local authorities built the main plans of the central business district according to the needs of the financial sector, global developments and public needs (Köken, 2008, p: 22).

In the early 1990s, after an agreement between local and central authorities was signed, the transformation of the La Defense region began. The agreement focuses on

- 1. Renovations of out-dated towers.
- 2. Supporting to build iconic and contemporary structures.
- 3. Creating a balance between office, residential and cultural facilities.
- 4. Increasing the transportation axis between Paris and other regions (Scicolone, 2012, p. 22).



Figure 3: La Defense (Source: wikipedia.com)

#### 2.3.3. Zuidas in Amsterdam

The project area of the newly developed city center, Zuidas in Amsterdam, is approximately 2.5 million square meters. The ending of the project is expected to be in 25 years. When the project is completed, 25.000 housing capacity will be reached. In addition, the project area is expected to become the center of many large companies' headquarters. The area will include major and minor industries, as well as numerous shopping centers, new cultural institutions and nightlife venues. The aim of the project is to have 42% office, 42% housing and 16% services. Since the beginning of the project, mainly office buildings have been built. The project needs to be restructured with the development of present infrastructure (Jantzen and Vetner, 2008, p: 49). The construction of the new city center by famous architects began in 1920 to provide housing for the working class. Plan Zuid is an urban plan where aesthetic principles are deeply considered, and boulevards, green areas and environments are created for residents (Jantzen and Vetner, 2008, p: 149).

Today, Zuidas has a grid plan of relatively small blocks separated by narrow streets that provide diversity to the district. The plan, inspired by the Manhattan grid, was

developed after 1998. Despite the changing goals of the project, the city of Amsterdam still has an effective grid plan (Trip, 2007, p: 284).

Zuidas, which is planned as an alternative to Amsterdam's old city center, has the qualities to host a global tourism center and information industry. However, there are some problems in the world's smallest metropolis. For example, access to the inner city is weak, so the old city center is still attractive to the population. The project lacks a certain number of large-scale structures. Therefore, it is difficult to attract users to the district. Zuidas should be able to compete with global trade centers by compensating for such shortcomings. Compared to other European projects, Zuidas has original city life. It offers not only office and shopping areas but also a comfort urban environment. The significant large percentage of housing increases this effect (Jantzen and Vetner, 2008, p. 149).

When the Zuidas project is completed, its size will be close to the Canary Wharf District in London and La Defense in Paris. In contrast to these prestigious urban regeneration projects, the number of residence buildings in Zuidas will transform the district into a liveable urban form after the working hours. In addition, it is planned to build on the axes of highways and railways (Jantzen and Vetner, 2008, p: 150).

In addition, the diversity of functions of the district and their location also affects the development of the district. Whether public and semi-public spaces such as shops, restaurants and bars are located on the streets or inside the building has been under discussion. Public facilities, such as, shops, restaurants, cafes and buildings are planned to be linked to the entrance of buildings in the Zuidas project (Trip, 2007, p: 286). The aim of the Zuidas project is to construct a secondary city center with a characteristic metropolitan aura. For this reason, the project should be internationally competitive for the region's service industry. Moreover, entrepreneurs emphasize that in order to be successful, Zuidas should also be an attractive district (Trip, 2008, p: 387).



Figure 4: Zuidas (Source: keeskrick.com)

### 2.3.4. Maslak-Büyükdere in İstanbul

Globalized cities have changed the urban pattern from single center to polycentric form. Since the beginning of 1970s, the change of the urban form of Istanbul has started. The formation of the central business district that emerges from the transportation axis is based on three factors. 1) Increased construction economies in the city affect land ownership and rental opportunities. 2) Companies increase their activities in this business area by using accessibility benefits. 3) Companies need larger land plots for production and administrative facilities and want to be close to transportation sites. Since the 1980s, liberalization of the markets has affected the form of a new central business district (Geçer, et al., 2008, p: 266).

The traditional city center of İstanbul is located in the north of the historical peninsula (between Beşiktaş and Maslak), which spreads along the boulevards of Barbaros and Büyükdere. Since 1930, central business district axis of İstanbul has located in district. The sub-centers, which began to form around the traditional city center, joined a central business district. As a result, Maslak became a new business hub (Geçer, et al., 2008, p: 266).

After increasing the intensity of the central business district and the investment demands of the private sector, many construction activities have been seen in the region. The contemporary architectural examples defined by globalization have become remarkable forms of the city.

Büyükdere Avenue, which included major companies in 1970, began to be effective in the western part of the city after the extension of the central business district in the north axis in 1980. Construction of large offices, car parks, entertainment and shopping centers began to appear in the district alongside the headquarters of the enterprises. When these developments took place, retail stores began to cluster in sub-centers. Shopping centers and retail facilities have increasingly transformed into accessible main roads and sub-centers. Büyükdere axis, which consists of high-rise office buildings, squares, shopping centers and residential areas, shows a linear development (Geçer, et al., 2008, p: 275).

The new urban form had many effects on the district. For example, after the Maslak-Büyükdere axis was decided to be an administration center and construction of high-rises was permitted, there was a great land demand in the district. As a result, the interest of many investors shifted to the district, and consequently land speculations increased. In the end, the Maslak-Büyükdere axis has become a district that contains high-rise office blocks and an old industrial area (Göksu and Pilehvarian, 2019, p: 131). Moreover, the use of high-rise office buildings in Büyükdere area during only working hours led to the desertion of the area at night. In order to prevent this situation, many mixed-use developments are being built in the region. These mixed-use projects include shopping centers, offices, trade, housing, hotels, entertainment and cultural activities, all of which affected the transformation process of the district. On the other hand, due to the control of these structures by private security and hence the restriction for the users, they have become gated communities. In the area, positive factors such as comfort, easy access and parking, which are provided by these buildings, are the examples of new public spaces specifically defined by today's city developments (Köken, 2008, p: 76).



Figure 5: Maslak-Büyükdere (Source: projekspert.com)

### 2.4. The Effect of High-Rises on PUR Territories

The mono-centric urban structure has evolved into polycentric urban regions where economic factors of advanced production services mainly operate as a result of globalization. The impact of the economic activities led to the clustering of service sectors in different sub-centers and the construction of high-rise office buildings in these areas. Development of office buildings have also continued in these centers. Here, the general aim of investor firms is to attract businesses and capital for associated groups for profit (Öner, 2008).

High-rise office and residential clusters have economic and symbolic importance in the city. In today's cities shaped by the global economy, high-rise buildings have become remarkable nodes of the cities (Öner, 2008). Construction of high-rise buildings is often associated with a lack of land, high rents and an increasing population. However, in cities like London, Paris and New York, it is common that the city government supports the construction of these buildings to gentrify some regions. Such structures are generally developed by private or semi-private sectors (Öner, 2008).

As mentioned in "Significance of Research Section", the very definition of Polycentric Urban Region is based on emergence of sub-centers with certain urban characteristics based on occupancy and building density, multi-functionality, mixuse, landscaping, accessibility, and the availability of left-over spaces whose function is yet to be determined. The new developments, especially high-rises bring a new socio-spatial reality, which may easily turn into a divide in the newly developing areas (Graham and Marvin, 2001). Thus, in the sub-centers of Polycentric Urban Region's we see a level of complexity that shows a subversion of public/private space hierarchy. Since high-rises have a powerful and dominating image on the urban landscape, in contemporary sub-centers we see the dominance of high-rises like mentioned example of Canary Wharf in Europe as well as La Defense in Paris, Zuidas in Amsterdam, and Maslak-Levent axis in İstanbul. Thus, the relationship of high-rises and polycentric development offers concrete relation in the contemporary Polycentric Urban Region development.

#### **CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIERARCHY**

#### 3.1. Public Space

Public spaces can be defined as spaces that are accessible to everyone, that have nodes of activity and gathering points where common or different beliefs are shared and where people meet each other. Public space facilitates co-presence and regulates interpersonal relationships (Can, 2012, p: 38).

Public spaces, which are important for spatial arrangements, include many urban elements such as streets and parks. They are places where people get relaxed and users walk throughout the day between unexpected encounters and public discourse. It also has a practical function to promote the entrances of buildings, connecting different districts and support the identity of a city. Public space is inevitable for a well-designed city (Lawton and Melik, 2011, p: 514).

Public space affects the recognition of a space in the city, visits by users and visibility of buildings. Public space defines a square and consequently create new spaces with buildings for users. The quality of public spaces is determined with their usage and their relationship with outdoor spaces. The front and back facades of buildings should be clearly identified and differentiated. In addition, the urban volumes they surround should be legible. Moreover, defining the public and private spaces of the city facilitates the relationship between urban forms. Penetration, permeability and visibility levels are the means of this relationship (Can, 2012, p: 44).

The impact of public space on urban morphology, permeability, visibility and spatial distribution of buildings has led to considerable debates on public spaces. The public space, which was one of the most important elements of cities for many years, has increasingly become a focus of interest in the last two decades. Especially under the influence of globalization and privatization, attractive public spaces are placed in the centers of great world capitals and old industrial cities, which are competing to find new gaps in global markets (Akkar, 2005a, p: 95).

#### 3.2. Major Characteristics of Public Space

The definition of public space refers to the streets, pavements, squares, parks and plazas that citizens can use without restriction; in other words, that are accessible to all types of users in a district. Therefore, social and cultural rules arranging public activities shape public spaces. Restrictions and security on users in public spaces are transforming the publicity level of spaces and changing their degree of publicity. Spaces with their restrictions lose their publicness (Paasche, 2012, p: 50). "Semi-private" or "semi-public" spaces, which are common today, are defined as "public" as well; however, these spaces have contradictions in terms of their publicness.

The semi-public spaces that emerge with the privatization of public spaces threaten civil liberties in the city with their security restrictions, and they reduce the diversity in public spaces. These redefined areas in cities lose their public characteristics and turn into consumption spaces (Nemeth, 2012, p. 813).

Access limitations and teritorial separation in high-rise buildings create semiprivate and semi- public spaces, which are commonly used to control practices, to attract or restrict specific users. Control constraints in the building are planned by investors to restrict the space to limited or conditional use, such as in the case of cafes and restaurants in the buildings, (Nemeth and Schmidt, 2007, p. 286). Public spaces of the post-industrial city have economic, symbolic and aesthetic roles. The shifting of design, management and control of public spaces from the public to the private sector leads to the manipulation and privatization of public spaces, which no more welcome all the potential citizens. Rather, they become privatized public areas where the concept of privacy is associated with (in) accessibility and security.

#### 3.2.1. Permeability, Accesibility and Visibility

Permeability is defined as the plurality of route selections between any two points as well as the ease of movement in an urban area. Permeability is described by user permissions in public spaces in a given urban morphology. Therefore, permeability is related to the capacity to move and the potential to interact in urban areas. There are two approaches to measuring permeability. The first one is to measure the barriers to the transport of publicly accessible parts of the city, and the other is to measure the degree of public roads that provide such access. Although these concepts have similarities, they do not represent the same features. The first concept measures urban morphology; the second measures network connections in the city (Dovey and Pafka, 2017, p: 151).

The morphology of the city and the permeability of the architectural structures determine the routes of their users in the city. The functions of public spaces and the frequency of users' visits to buildings cause a successful permeability. The permeable voids in the city hold infrastructure together and the spaces of the buildings at these points are integrated with the external environment. Therefore, public space becomes more preferable by all users.

A successfully designed space should have legible permeability. Permeable spaces or places can be defined as preferred spaces and used by population. Considering that many features of environments result in being preferred or rejected, and that preferred locations contain elements that provide satisfaction for people, it can be said that permeability is of great importance for urban form. Permeability is an

option where people have access to and between places. It is also argued that choices can be increased with alternative routes by making areas more accessible (Kuloğlu and Yavuz, 2012).

The permeability experienced by urban users in the built environment and architectural spaces is physical. Physical permeability can be associated with the ability to move freely in public space and the lack of sharp public and private distinction between spaces. Physical permeability consists of two parameters: accessibility and visibility (Ephes, 2005). Accessibility is often defined as the capacity of human flow. The permeable layer acts as a barrier to human flow. It is easy to penetrate an empty space. Also, permeability is the maximum level in terms of accessibility. Any architectural elements added to define the space may reduce the accessibility of the space (Ephes, 2005). Visibility is defined as the ability of the architectural structure to be seen from certain locations of the city, to be distinguished by the users and to be defined within the city. It is important that the building be easily found by the users in city. Moreover, integrating the building with the city and the functioning of its spaces is significant. Accessibility, which is defined as complementary to visibility, is associated with the public space through various approaches within the city.

Accessibility is generally related to regulation. Exclusion is not good as it directly reduces definition of the public space. The idea of accessibility is fundamentally the interpretation of the user who has the right to access a space. A physically open space may still be socially exclusive. Therefore, if accessibility is not clear, the identity of an accessible area is still uncertain according to different beliefs. Determining the basic characteristics of public space is not clearer than using political ideology (He and Zhang, 2019).

There are many parameters of permeability in terms of the distinction between public space and spatial arrangement. Space is socially structured. Moreover, the way social actors use the public space outside a building is different from the private or semi-public space inside a building. Social actors individually react and interact in these different spaces. In addition, spaces may be blocked by social actors from outside spaces (Jenkins, 2002).

Spatial permeability can be explained as physical, functional and perceptual. The effects of these components on space increase the permeability. Higher permeability levels are more preferred by users. Physical and visual permeability in the space is effective in creating a sense of secure (Kuloğlu and Yavuz, 2012).

### 3.2.2. Inclusivity vs. Exclusivity

The urban environment consists of both inclusive and exlusive public and private spaces. There is a constant relationship between inclusive public space and exclusive private space. This relationship refers to a public space with varying degrees of inclusivity. "Accessibility of space" refers to the degree of inclusivity of public space and affects the physical and social accessibility of public space to everyone (Akkar, 2004).

"Inclusive public space" is a public sphere where citizens express their attitudes and use them for their purposes. Inclusive public space allows changing the meaning and function of a public sphere in accordance with the needs and interests of citizens (Akkar, 2005b, p: 2).

The inclusivity, also defined as publicness, of the public space can change with both local and global factors. Throughout history, public space is the place where the norms, cultural traditions, political tendencies and lifestyles of society are shared. Therefore, various historical and cultural trends, forms of government, economic, social, and political forces affect the inclusivity of public sphere. In addition, location, accessibility and infrastructure are significant components of the public space (Ercan and Memlük, 2015, p: 195).

In today's cities, public spaces began to be privatized, commodified and transformed and commercialized with the effect of loose of "inclusivity" and "publicness." This is also called "the end of the public space." After the transformations of public spaces, private sector has gained an important role in the definitions of public sphere (Ercan and Memlük, 2015, p: 196).

## 3.3. Privatization of Public Space

The most important feature of social and political organizations in all cities throughout history is the distinction between public and private spaces. Some architectural organizations identify spaces in the way that individuals cannot directly enter. This feature defines the main patterns of spatial behavior and social life in city. One of the main ways of organizing space is to define some spaces as private and others as public. Some spaces are protected and separated from others by means of a complex system of interpretation, such as signs, borders, fences, walls and doors. This complex code system, expressed through physical objects and social arrangements, refers to special spaces where strangers cannot enter without permission. On the other hand, public space is expected to be accessible to everyone (Madanipour, 1999, p: 880).

Public space has great importance for the surveillance of urban life. Like public space, private space also supports the urban arrangement. Private spaces are controlled areas that allow specific users to enter at certain times. The private spaces in buildings can be identified with the users and these users affect the spatial distribution. Actually, the social structure of a city is related to both public and private spaces.

The distinction between public and private spaces had an important role in Western political thought since the seventeenth century. The concepts of public and private space are basically divided into two: the space of the state / the space of society, and the space of the home / out of the home. The state is accepted as a public space. Family, home and private life are within the boundaries of the private space. The main difference between public and private spaces emerges in the socio-economic sphere in urban life. The state / society distinction refers to the private space. The distinction between home and outside is included in public space (Güdücü, 2015, p: 60). There is a close relationship between privacy and social interaction that determines the private space. Privacy is defined as the ability to control social interaction and to select the desired rate of social interaction. Therefore, the

concepts of privacy and isolation are different from each other (Hamidi and Ramezani, 2010, p: 502).

In addition, there are many unclear corners in the city that can be obviously unspecified as public or private. However, urban space has led to the apparently clear division of public and private spaces, as well as the streets that are accessible to all and living spaces where access is restricted as well. Therefore, looking at the public and private spaces of a city is one of the ways of solving and interpreting the social and spatial organization of the city (Madanipour, 1999, p: 880).

The construction of large shopping centers, gated communites and plazas, which are claimed to include many public spaces, have changed the meaning of public space. The formation of these new controlled spaces in cities causes the loss of public space and consequently the pressure on urban form. The loss of public spaces lead to a reduction in individuals' ability to freely meet and interact with others. Increasing of poverty and cluster concentrations break political empathy in the city. Communities that differ in gender, age, ethnicity or religion are restricted or prevented from accessing public spaces in city. The concept of the right to the city needs to be emphasized in order for public spaces to function correctly in the city (Kirby, 2008, p: 75).

Akkar (2005a) emphasizes the diminishing "publicness" of contemporary public spaces. Privatization policies operate on behalf of increasingly developed and managed private corporations and to generate profits for the private sector. In addition, privatization serves for the interests of certain segments of population. The change of publicness created by private sector had many consequences for urban form. The gradual change in the morphologies of cities is defined as the "splinters" of urban space into more complex entities (Graham and Marvin, 2001). This is one of the purposes of the firms that produce big shopping malls, private entertainment venues, residences and offices. These spaces can only be entered or used via invitation. Public spaces turn into parks or streets or controlled areas adjacent to individual shops and businesses (Kirby, 2008). In addition, many

practice have been put into effect to increase the security of public spaces, such as placing cameras, controlling entrances and restricting visitors. As a result, the use of public spaces with security cameras and other authoritarian control precautions aimed at increasing their security cause the contemporary public spaces to serve for an increasingly homogeneous population and to promote "social filtering". Unlike traditional public spaces, which bring together diverse groups of people, new privatized public spaces increase gentrification, social stratification and fragmentation (Akkar, 2005a, p. 3).

The construction of privatized public spaces is associated with numerous urban renewal projects in central business districts. Public spaces are becoming the cornerstone of these projects. They are trying to renew the focus of interest with their historical and cultural heritage (Akkar, 2005a, p: 3). Most urban renewal projects such as new residential, office and retail constructions aim to improve the public space because of the importance of public spaces for the city and the combination of urban life that is remarkable. In practice, however, the traditional public space often plays a secondary or supporting role in urban renewal projects (Lawton and Melik, 2011, p: 514).

The distinction between public and private space is also based on property relations. However, this situation is not sufficient to determine the limits of the concept. For example, although a shopping mall belongs to a private enterprise, it may be described as a public space. Accessibility of the space to every urban inhabitant and to public in general can be considered as sufficient for being a public space. In non-capitalist economies, the public relation is a set of spontaneous activities with which the political, social and religious subjects of daily life are related. However, the specific logic of the capitalist system also influences the production of public spaces. After the development of capitalism, public space has lost its features and has been reconsidered with a similar understanding of production and consumption in city (Çetin, 2011, p: 63).

The privatization of administrative activities in cities also lead to the privatization of public spaces. This privatization is not only seen in residential areas, but also in commercial areas and urban spaces. Planned open spaces reflecting the ideals of contemporary cities to form a democratic society are gradually transforming into dead public spaces (Çetin, 2011, p: 63).

One of the significant elements affecting the change of public spaces is transformations in social life. In today's cities, economic structures has also accelerated the change in social structure. New distinctions in cities have also affected lifestyles. Different groups in society started to prefer different private and public spaces (Tekel, 2009, p: 143). For the citizens, public activities in the city are the entertainment places such as cafes, cinemas, hotels and lounges. The increase in entertainment spaces has created a new definition of citizen who has free time to travel, watch and dinner. This new type of publicness takes place especially in cafes, restaurants, department stores and hotels. These spaces are "commodified spaces" where everything is bought and sold (Çetin, 2011, p: 162).

Permeability between public and private spaces, the transformations between the two spaces, and their effects on each other are frequently seen in both urban scale and architectural structures. The fact that these two concepts reflect opposing ideas leads to visible hierarcies in buildings. In today's cities, public spaces are restricted or reshaped in architectural structures created by the capitalist system.

Social significance of privatized public spaces has been under discussion, despite the transformation of derelict industrial zones or former military areas into parks, residential areas, and office spaces to reduce the negative impacts of privatized public spaces and limitations to the urban pattern, these transformed spaces within the city do not satisfy the functions of a typical public space. It is claimed that privatizing public spaces and increasing the number of shopping centers and urban entertainment areas rearrange the public spaces of the districts (Siebel and Wehrheim, 2006, p: 22).

The privatization of public spaces and their functions within the city are worth being discussed. Shopping malls, plazas and office blocks, which can also be defined as today's public spaces, are the architectural types that contain semi-public spaces belonging to private property (Paasche, 2012, p: 50).

Since the beginning of the phenemonon of privatizating public spaces in urban districts, there has been big controversy about this new type of controlled public spaces in cities. The importance of the public space for the city and the restricted spaces created by privatization are primary subjects of today's urban criticism. Moreover, the concepts of public space and privatization are ambiguous. It is not clear which space within the city is privatized and what problems cause them in the city. Studies on the privatization of the public spaces focus on material changes in public and private spaces, which refer to the socio-political changes in the region (Durington, et al., 2008, p: 137). Design and management of public space is in the process of increasing privatization by investors and owners. Local authorities encourage private sector for the expansion and management of public spaces in the city. These controlled public spaces include shopping centers, gated communities and central business districts (Nemeth and Schmidt, 2010, p: 454).

The consequences of urban spatial transformations, such as privatization, semiprivate development or private ownership, which have become widespread in the business districts of today's metropolitan cities, are worthy of consideration. It is claimed that these new urban spaces that restrict users cause diminishing of the public spaces. The exclusive groups occupying these spaces define the borders of environment but also those who cannot use these spaces are the control factors in district (Paasche, 2012, p: 51).

Office and residence blocks, which are the most common examples of privately-owned structures, are called as semi-public and semi- private spaces with their built environment. However, the presence of security controls that allow users to circulate in the district at certain times shapes the facilities of space. These semi-public spaces have spatial organizations that are open to the public but mostly inward. These buildings attract elite customers with their facades and interior designs (Nissen, 2008, p: 1134).

Privitazed public space is differentiated from the traditional public space, which is identified with it's having open access to all-user. In this case of the death of the public space, public space no more offers justice, innovation and democracy (Nemeth, 2012, p. 812).

### 3.4. Gated Communities as Privatized Public Spaces

Gated communities are defined as settlements. These buildings are surrounded by walls, fences, or landscapes that create a physical barrier to the entrance. There are two elements of gated communities. Firstly, physical barriers to the entry, and secondly, limited access to streets and similar places. Limitation of housing or access to streets and other public facilities increases the privatization of the site (Vesselinov, 2008).

Gated communities and shopping centers, which operate as controlled areas in the city, evacuate the city centers. The most important criticism of this new urban form is the decrease in civilian life. As a result, transformation of public spaces into private consumption areas emerges. (Kirby, 2008, p: 75).

These urban forms affect the city life tremendously. With the changing of the urban fabric, the concept of public space in the city has begun to change as well. Public spaces that are open to the users have become the controlled areas of the streets that are adjacent to shops and business quarters. There are many negative consequences of this situation. Undifferentiated public spaces decrease individuals' ability to freely meet and interact with others. Because of increasing poverty in the city, settlement clusters divide the city in accordance with many space relations (Kirby, 2008, p: 75).

Gated communities, as well as shopping malls and plazas, have similar characteristics due to their secure spaces and classifications as special areas. These private spaces are provided by capital and planned by civil law; they are necessarily different from traditional areas like parks that are directly managed by local governments. In the case of shopping malls, entrance costs such as parking might

exist. Private security firms, which have limited power than traditional policemen, are responsible for control (Kirby, 2008, p: 77).

Gated communities are defined as residential areas with restricted access in privatized public spaces. These urban patterns support both new suburban developments in urban areas and places where security control is intense (Blakely and Snyder, 1997). Moreover, gated communities are more dominant in today's cities. Gated communities create physical barriers to public access and privatize community areas. Most of these settlements also privatize social services such as security, education, and entertainment. Gated communities as important part of urban life create a special living environment for citizens. This fragmentation adversely affects the concept of social life and the organized structure of society (Blakely and Snyder, 1997).

Gated communities are the result of increasing privatization activities in contemporary cities. These models generally encompass privatization of public spaces, service delivery and local city administration (Durington, et al., 2008).

The formation of closed cities and the construction of residential communities still continue from past to present. In many cities around the world, traditional concepts of controlled access, community ownership and private space are examples of the modern gated enclave (Ilesanmi, 2012).

The high-rise residencescan be considered today's new gated communities in cities. They have effective security controls and isolated built environments. These gated communities represent vertical architecture in urban life. In other words, these buildings are important examples of prestige towers with their remarkable heights. Residences reflect the ideologies of the new middle class and their prestige. As a result, they become a part of social status for citizens (Çınar, et al., 2006).

### 3.5. Loose Space

In today's cities, there are many activities in public spaces that were not originally intended for these places. Some of these take place with primary purposes, such as on the sidewalk, on the street or in squares. On the other hand, in various parts of the city, there are spaces in fixed situations that have never been used, such as an abandoned factory or a railway. In all these cases, the activities of the urban user make the areas "loose". Accessibility, freedom of choice and the activities of users contribute to the emergence of a loose space. In order for an area to have "loose" characteristics, users should recognize the possibilities within cities and use these possibilities for their own purposes (Franck and Stevens, 2007). Loose spaces that start to emerge in cities give life and vitality to cities. In loose spaces, people relax, observe, buy or sell, protest, mourn and celebrate. Loose spaces allow encounters and spontaneous situations in city.

Increasing privatization in urban and semi-public spaces is noteworthy as well. The forces influencing privatizations determine urban activities and identities that put people in the role of passive consumers rather than active creators or participants. They pose serious threats to the existence of a loose space. However, loose spaces continue emerge in cities (Franck and Stevens, 2007).

Traditionally, there are certain social and physical conditions in the city that promote looseness. Free access to public spaces and the urban diversity of users are the conditions of city supporting looseness. For this reason, the city is "the place of desire", the place of permanent imbalance and the resolution of restrictions. The variety of open spaces in cities serves specific uses, but also adapts to other activities, both legally and physically. These urban gaps include unwanted and unexpected activities and they do not have specific functions. Most of these areas have specific physical characteristics that encourage people to make them suitable for their own use (Franck and Stevens, 2007).

Looseness is related to the general structure of the urban environment. In some spatial settlements, more complex spatial connections and relations produce more options than others. A wide variety of street and land uses encourage the creation of open space in cities. Mixed-use developments with different size of buildings are long-lasting. This is because they do not have a strict relationship with functionality. These areas are loose and adaptable. Street blocks with a large number, and separate building facades and entrances enable the city users to interact more and diversify the use of street areas and squares. Loose space occurs in residual and abandoned areas and various urban areas that have lost their function within the city. Spaces defined within the city as a daily urban area include vacant spaces, pavements, gardens, parks and parking spaces that are new and often suitable for temporary use (Franck and Stevens, 2007).

In recent years, different types of public spaces have emerged, such as corporate plazas, corporate atria, and festival venues. Although these structures are privately owned and have restrictions of accessibility and freedom of movement, they provide opportunities for unexpected user activity. The looseness potential of a space depends on its relationship with other spaces. Around a plaza, users' activities can easily remove the barriers between users and visibility of building. These thresholds are often identified as loose areas that have gaps between spaces. These thresholds are seen when users define a specific area. However, thresholds generally indicate the transition to public spaces. Looseness and tightness of space is related to the physical and social characteristics of space. It is possible to identify different and similar relationships between loose and tight, and the ways in which users can create and experience looseness (Franck and Stevens, 2007).

It is desirable to define looseness and tightness as opposing conditions and to design urban areas accordingly. Spatial forms such as strict borders, controlled entrances, and spaces between tight and loose spaces are created, covering the rules of private passageways, shopping centers and gated communities (Franck and Stevens, 2007).

## 3.6. Territorial Depth-Public and Private Hierarchy

According to Habraken (1998), territory is defined as spatial control. Public and private are associated with space but not to territory. Like gated communities, territory can include private, public or both. The territory has asymmetric hierarchy. Moreover, it is easy to transform from private to public, but not conversely. This hierarchy is based on inclusion. For example, housing units may be an included territory in a neighbourhood territory, and empty spaces could be public spaces.

According to Habraken (1998), the built environment is defined by territorial organization and is based on the principle of inclusion of other regions. The scheme represents relations between this inclusion principle and transitions between private and public spaces. In order to analyze these theoretical framework, Habraken (1998) describes notion of territorial depth.

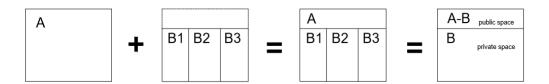


Figure 6: The Territorial Principle of Inclusion (Source: Habraken)

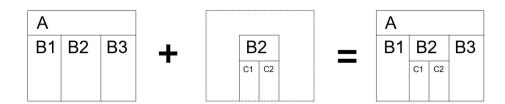


Figure 7: Territorial Inclusion in Increasing Depth (Source: Habraken)

The territorial depth is defined by the boundary transitions required to shift from the external space to the innermost space. On the other hand, the territorial depth is not a constant factor: in a given time frame, after the intervention of various urban representatives, the depth may rise or reduce according to the specific feature and dynamics of the built environment (Scheerlinck, 2012). Increased territorial depth may be seen in several smaller and larger urban projects in distinct cultural case. In some examples, projects are designed or regulated to raise or reduce the depth (Scheerlinck, 2012).

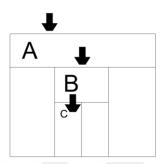


Figure 8: Territorial Depth (Source: Habraken)

Habraken (1998) defines the depth as spatial organization with changing aggregated, covered, or overlapping zones. Therefore, controlling access supplies the territorial control. Territorial organization depends on building asymmetric relationships: territorial control establishes accessibility between different space users of all urban and architectural scales. This territorial framework creates the desire for privacy and security. In other words, depth is the result of physical, visual and territorial spatial arrangement (Scheerlinck, 2012, p. 4).

The concept of territorial depth of Habraken is often applied in public and private spaces. According to Habraken (2001), the relationship between public and private space is an expression of force that can separate the space into two. It describes the gradual change from public to private, which is defined as the continuity of the depth of the territory defined by the public and the boundary between public and private (Hausleitner, 2012, p: 3).

In urban format, transitions between public and private spaces are the result of space organization. According to Habraken (1998), spaces as control units define a territorial order. Because of the ambiguity of the territorial depth, the urban space becomes illegible. In other words, the territory is also referred to as the area controlled by a particular force (Hausleitner, 2012, p: 3).

This terminology of Habraken significantly affected the urban form and the built environment. He reinterpreted the public and private distinction of spaces and revealed the relationship of buildings with visitors. For example, the location of businesses is indicated in two ways to describe the different types of territorial depth. The first is the location of the businesses on the ground floor or the upper floors, and the second is the distance of the building to the street. The depth of the zone describes the number of limits for replacement of public to private. The first possible step described is the direct entrance from public spaces of the street to the building, including the distance to one meter street. The second step defines the distance of the building to a street. The third step is the door leading from the common staircase housing to the individual user unit. Such territorial depth interprets how infiltration with new uses changes and the uncertainty or legibility of these urban areas (Hausleitner, 2012, p:3).

There is a tension between planners' tendency to expand the public space and the wishes of citizens. Similarly, in order to achieve a balanced hierarchy from the public to the private in the urban form, architectural solutions must clearly state the boundaries of the territory. As Habraken (1998) points out, "the smaller territorial units" were completely removed from the public space. In other words, the need for semi-private spaces increased (Balula, 2004).

#### **CHAPTER 4: HIGH-RISES IN CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICTS**

### 4.1. High-Rise Design

Today, while economic activities are transforming cities, the spatial reflections in cities are changing with the increase of capitalist discourses. One of the most important results of these spatial reflections is the construction of skyscrapers. The offices managed in cities within a certain global hierarchy began to be designed as high-rise buildings. The central business districts where skyscrapers are concentrated in cities are referred to as global financial control centers or nodes. As a result, high-rise buildings were associated with the economic activities of cities (Aliağaoğlu and Uğur, 2018).

The ongoing trend to build skyscrapers around the world is increasing, and the impact of global competition is changing the world's major cities. These cities are struggling to have the highest building clusters in the global arena, stating the decisive and global appearance of their expanding economies. The iconic high-rise buildings promote the global image of the city of Polycentric Urban Region (Ali and Al-Kodmany, 2012, p: 391). The iconic architecture is defined as buildings that are made by well-known architects, with special symbolic and aesthetic importance for the city and their built environment (Sklair, 2005, p: 485).

Capitalist globalization is one of the important factors in today's architecture. The global economy affects the urban areas identified with the mixed infrastructure, retail, industry, entertainment and residential facilities. According to Sklair (2013), cultural and iconic structures as part of global development strategies are used to sustain global human and economic impacts; these buildings create exciting cities in the global city order (Sklair, 2013, p. 165).

Sklair (2005) believes that skyscraper construction is often the subject of global architects and iconic architecture, which has gained importance in recent years. Real estate companies have confirmed the aura supporting global architects' development; similarly, political leaders admire these influences as an impressive tool for urban regeneration (Charney, 2007, p: 195).

Iconic high-rise buildings are constructed with the contributions of globalization and high-technologies. Therefore, large-scale projects that symbolize prestige in cities reflect governments' urban policies and visions. The impact of globalization to central and local authorities increased the competition of the creating new iconic cities (Akdağ and Bostancı, 2013).

In recent years, skyscrapers have been used as a way to use dense urban areas more efficiently and to illustrate the progress and modernization of major cities (Zahiri, Dezhdar and Foroutan, 2017). Although there are many negative criticisms about high-rise buildings, these structures have important meanings, especially in global economies. Private sector investors define the skyscraper as an expression of economic power for a commercial environment. Moreover, entrepreneurs claim that skyscrapers are the definition of unique civilian modern architecture. These entrepreneurs, because of the superior heights of their buildings, represent a significant turning point in the skyscraper clusters in city, and these skyscrapers have an impact on the transformation of public space due to their physical and visual positions (Chen and Shih, 2009, p. 319).

The construction of high-rise buildings in Bayraklı district is also affected by global economic competition. These high-rises with their remarkable architectural style are designed for residential and office uses. Shopping centers, cafés and entertainment facilities are designed to connect buildings to their surroundings and attract users to these structures. In Bayraklı district, recently designed central

business district, skyscrapers are the focus of interest of economic activities that revitalize service and production economies.

## 4.2. The Effect of High-Rises on Urban Growth

Metropolises in global cities are called nodes, where people, production, services, ideas and the image of the city are systematized by global mobility. These cities generally share common city manufacture and are more than an alternative city compared to the urban boundaries in their region (Rahman, 2010, p: 20). The skyscrapers in the metropolises are usually built by the private sector, which are the architectural results of globalization (Yuen, et al., 2006, p: 584).

According to the Beauregard, spatial competition in the city supports property owners and government based urban regeneration projects (Beauregard, 2005). It is a remarkable approach by banks to emphasize the importance of architecture in terms of capital and engineering, rather than evaluating the city as topography. The construction of high-rise buildings made of iconic glass and steel is not only a result of technological development. This architectural approach also reflects the increasing processes of international capital flows (Bargenda, 2018). Skyscrapers are the best alternative to the spread of suburbs. In the past decade, lifestyle differences and globalization have encouraged many western cities to build skyscrapers (Yuen, et al., 2006, p. 585). According to architectural theorists, skyscrapers exemplify the ways various disciplines such as engineering, real estate, culture, history and urban politics can be combined (Sklair, 2013, p. 165). High-rise buildings are significant examples of modern architecture. They can play an important role in the city developments. High-rise structure is a generally accepted feature of modernity and metropolises and is seen by many citizens as a feature of prestige and economic progress.

On the other hand, the idea of preserving the familiar and harmonizing the historic city with human-scale structure has been the subject of a great controversy in resisting skyscrapers. For example, the construction of a skyscraper in the 1970s in

Paris (Maine-Montparnasse, 210 meters tall) caused harsh criticism of the tall buildings. However, because of its location that is close to the historic center, this structure has become an important element in the city's skyline and has been the effect on many historical Parisian landmarks (Charney, 2007, p: 197).



Figure 9: Maine-Montparnasse Tower (Source: lonelyplanet.com)

From this perspective, Sönmez (2007) emphasizes the importance of environment and community-oriented lifestyles advancing in historically important areas of the city. She believes that skyscrapers cause gentrification in the inner parts of the city and the removal of low-income groups from their neighborhoods (Sönmez, 2007, p: 321).

## 4.3. Commercial Managements of High-Rise Buildings

A high-rise commercial residential complex is a common shape for a complex building. The shape of the high-rise commercial building is a preliminary preparation for business services and residential function. It has three-dimensional spaces. Functional organization created a high-rise and high-capacity structure. A multi-storey interlocking structure comes as a complex spatial structure, and living function is the main function of high-rise commercial residential complex building (Zuo, 2015, p. 380).

The commercial office sector has often been a small aspect of architectural practice. However, it is obvious that changing corporate practices currently restructure the production of Central Business District office areas and give rise to interesting trends in cities around the world (Mcneill, 2005, p: 487).

Choosing a location for high-rise buildings is based on the potential for a healthy socio-economic relationship with the city. High-rise buildings and nearby spaces are potential socio-economic nodes that augment place-making. In that sense, site selection is closely related to place making. A careful spatial organization of socioeconomic activities entails the creation of a critical mass or spatial nodes and magnets. Clustering creates socio-economic synergies that promote social activities and increase the presence of pedestrian environments. Public transportation and preventing car ridership should be planned for socioeconomics clusters. On the other hand, if high-rise buildings, for instance, are located in an isolated building scattered in the middle of a low suburb, they are likely to be "target" buildings, even if they are residential or commercial office buildings (Al-Kodmany, 2011, p. 252). Commercial management of high-rises and their location have important relation. Functions of buildings such as shopping mall, cafes and entertainment facilities affect user's habits. Frequently visited commercial buildings provide enough income for their managements. Therefore; high-rises become significant element of urban design

# 4.4. Privately Owned Public Space

Privately Owned Public Spaces are designed by the investments of private developers and management firms. Urban voids in the city have been introduced to investors with attractive proposals by urban planners to achieve publicness. Nowadays, these areas, which are quite common in large cities, are most frequently constructed in exchange for floor area ratio bonuses (Németh, 2008, p. 2463). Privately Owned Public Spaces are important examples of the transformation and control of public spaces. This application was first applied to Privately Owned Public Spaces in New York in 1961 with the zoning resolution, giving Privately Owned Public Space to private developers with a floor space bonus. A well-known example is the IBM Plaza, which has a dramatic glass-covered pedestrian space. However, property-related design issues, developer standards and lack of spatial quality are the negative consequences of bonus plazas (Acker and Vos, 2016, p: 45).

Privately Owned Public Spaces are often criticized because of their role in restricting social interaction and individual freedoms, excluding users accessibility in public spaces (Németh and Schmidt, 2011, p: 7). There is an increasing belief that public space is restricted because of "privatized" public spaces. These privatized areas define business areas, open spaces and shopping malls. These areas are frequently visited and used by the population. Moreover, privately owned and managed areas are quite different from traditional public spaces, even if they create incentive zoning programs for the developer and owner in exchange for additional Floor Area Ratio. There is an assumption of "publicness" in these privately owned public spaces. But, they are private spaces (Banerjee, 2001, p: 12). The term "publicly accessible space" refers to any physical environment, from pavements to outdoor cafes and urban plazas. Every one of these spaces is classified in terms of ownership, management, accessibility and relative publicness (Németh, 2008, p: 2464).

In recent years, the distinction between public and private spaces in cities has been radically changing. Today, the vast majority of public spaces within buildings have become part of the internal and external pedestrian networks. Meetings in contemporary cities are limited to traditional streets and squares. In addition, more buildings have been characterize as a public space in accordance with population demands (Acker and Vos, 2016, p: 47).

## **CHAPTER 5: CASE STUDY**

# 5.1. Information on Study Area

## 5.1.1. Bayraklı District

Bayraklı district is located in the northeastern part of the Izmir Gulf. It is surrounded by Karşıyaka district in the north-west, Bornova district in the east and Konak district in the south. The distance of Bayraklı district to the old city center is approximately 7.5 km.



Figure 10: Bayraklı District Map (Source: yandex.com.tr/harita)

In the Republican period, Bayraklı district was defined as a suburban area, more like a small village. Due to increasing housing demand in center of the city, Bayraklı district has become a new settlement zone in last ten years. As a result of this, Bornova, Manavkuyu, Salhane and Turan, which are partly within Bayraklı boundaries, have become the expanding areas of the city. This process ends with the transformation of district into a combination of industry and shanty houses, similar to the other industrial axes in the city. The district is especially covered with slums due to increasing migration and urbanization in the last 15 years. Most of the citizens in this area also work in industries and live nearby (Gökdemir, 2013).

Bayraklı district has 35 km² coastal areas nearby the Izmir Gulf and it has historical settlements. In 2008, the population of the district was 303,497 and it is expected to increase in the following years (Öner and Pasin, 2015, p: 840). Pedestrian accessibility to the seaside is one of the transportation issues in Bayraklı district. Altınyol Highway and the subway transportation line called Izban are the physical barriers between Turan and Alsancak districts. Pedestrians are generally using a bridge by the Bayraklı Ferry Port (Öner and Pasin, 2015, p: 842). Therefore, Bayraklı district disconnect from the sea.



Figure 11: The main transportation axes of the Bayraklı District (Source: Design Strategy Plan Report for the Izmirdeniz Project)

## 5.1.2. Izmir New City Center Development Plan

Salhane area is located in the middle of the two parts of the city, the north and south of the Gulf of Izmir. In the area, there are ruins of Bayraklı Höyük, thought to be first settlement of the city in 5000 years ago. Salhane is planned to be the new center of the city, with the purpose of contributing to the city economy. The area is considered to be an urban space that brings together the city, which is socioeconomically divided into northern and southern parts of the city. However, there is a contradiction between the coastal location of Salhane and its industrial functions. Moreover, the area has become worn and unable to renew itself.

Therefore, Salhane area divide the city into two separate spaces according to functional and urban design issue (Kaya, 2012, p:93). However, the lack of necessary investments and underestimating the renewal of existing facilities devastated the area. Apart from a few buildings in good condition, Today, Salhane area contains many industrial facilities which have lost their functions coastal line, and the area does not have a good connection. Pedestrian access is very difficult and it has lost its function (Kaya, 2012, p: 93).

For the planning of the district to be the new city center, Izmir Metropolitan Municipality arranged an international urban design project competition for the harbor area and the new city centre in 2001. As a result, German architect Jochen Brandi's proposal won the first prize. The winning proposal planned to increase the density of high-rise buildings in the district, design large urban openings for public use and attract building activities to the district. The aim of the project is to reduce the intensity of the old city center. In the project, historical Bayraklı area is emphasized. Ancient city center was decided to be the starting point of the urban development Project (Kaya, 2012, p. 93). There are some differences between the old city center in Konak District and the new city center in Bayraklı District in terms of urban pattern. Proposal are trying to create social, economic and cultural harmony between Konak District and Bayraklı District. Furthermore, the new city center is planned to be a bridge between ancient city center and the Konak District (Kaya, 2012, p. 94).



Figure 12: Master Plan of the Winning Project designed by Jochen Brandi (Source: İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi İzmir Liman Bölgesi İçin Kentsel Tasarım Uluslararası Fikir Yarışması)

By 2003, the New City Centre Master Development Plan was designed by the İzmir Metropolitan Municipality, based on the proposals of the competition. According to this master plan, Bayraklı central business district consists of Turan in the north, Salhane in the east and Alsancak in the south. According to the decision of the metropolitan municipality, Turan and Alsancak were to be designated as tourism and commercial districts, Salhane as the central business district, and Bayraklı as the area for commercial buildings, business, hotels and shopping centers.

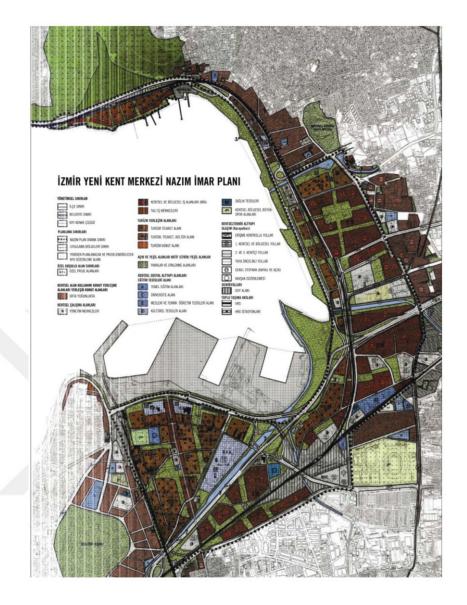


Figure 13: Izmir New City Center Master Plan (Source: Erdik and Kaplan, 2009)

The main objectives of the new city center master plan are to promote the city in the international platform and to compete with European cities, to increase the appeal of the new city center and to renew its public usage, to improve the undeveloped zones and to revitalize the shoreline. A new transportation model is also part of the plan to design the physical structure of the city. There is also the idea to support the identity of the city and to keep the history of the city visually intact (Çelebi, 2018).

There are some arguments that the new city center master plan focuses on the increase of the floor-space ratio in order to encourage the construction of large-scale projects. The Master Plan tries to turn the district into a center of economic investments. The definition of the area as "district of skyscrapers" is the result of this approach (Erdik and Kaplan, 2009).

There are also some problems about the applicability of the new urban plan. For example, ownership and development plan do not match in some points. The municipality proposes an expropriation, but it is difficult for the public sector to provide costs. Also, there are differences between street, property layout, and proposed road system. Scales of the project (1/5000 and 1/1000) do not invastigate the area in detail, which causes some registered buildings to be ignored. Development plans should be planned through architectural and urban design projects with a scale of at least 1/500, with a focus on building masses and their relations, street layout, public spaces and in between spaces (Can, 2011). Moreover, This project should be examined in accordance with geographical and ecological cycles as well as socio-economic concerns. As a result, a new understanding of planning and design subjects should be discussed for the district (Erdik and Kaplan, 2009, p: 57).

### 5.2. Case Analyses

The analyses were conducted in two stages. In the first stage the functions of the ground floor area of the high-rises are comparatively analyzed in order to understand users' experiences and their daily routines in structures. The second stage is the public-private hierarchy. The ground floor of high-rises and their vertical arrangements are analyzed by means of plan and section drawings and how public and private hierarchies are subverted in high-rises and in their public and semi-public spaces.

## **5.2.1. Preliminary Functional Analysis**

High-rise buildings in Bayraklı, as the subject of this thesis, Bayraklı Tower, Folkart Towers, Megapol Tower, Mistral Tower and Ege Perla Tower have begun to form a center for the district via their locations. The private and semi-private spaces of these buildings affect the spatial arrangements in the environment. The shopping malls and cafes on the ground floors are the best examples of controlled and privatized semi-public spaces in the district. Due to the location of these buildings, there is an interaction among themselves. Because of the security control of the buildings, the open access to certain users at certain times of the day causes the spaces to get isolated, but there is still an interaction between each other due to the similarity of architectural design approaches.

The high-rise buildings, as the focus of the case study research are of significance not only in Bayraklı district but also in İzmir due to their heights. In other words, the location of these buildings in Bayraklı district creates attention with their vertically arranged formal structures. They also shape structural character of the district with their expressionist designs and effects on the city skyline. These buildings have become economic and social symbols for both Bayraklı district and city of İzmir.

	Total		Number							
Name of The	Floor	Building	of	Existing	Period of					
Building	Area	Height	Stories	Functions	Construction					
				office,						
Bayraklı				residential,						
Tower	45,000	100	23	retail	2010-2013					
Folkart				office,						
Towers	150,000	200	46	residential	2011-2014					
Megapol				office,						
Tower	31,250	112	26	residential	2010-2012					
Mistral				office,						
Towers	122,000	154	48-38	residential	2014-2016					
Ege Perla				office,						
Towers	55,000	186	46-29	residential	2013-2016					

Table 1: Basic Informations About the Case Buildings (Source: Öner and Pasin)

## Bayraklı Tower



Figure 14: Bayraklı Tower (Source: arkitera.com)

The construction of Bayraklı Tower started in 2010 and finished in 2013. The structure has 23 storeys including single offices, residential blocks with retail facilities. The building was designed by Kreatif Architecture, in an area of approximately 45,000 m2.

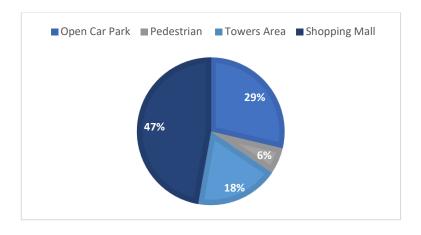


Table 2: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Bayraklı Tower

According to Table 2, the horizontally arranged shopping mall has an effective position in Bayraklı Tower's ground floor area. The building consists of a single

block with office and residence functions. The structure does not interact with its surroundings and it is isolated from the environment. Therefore, the percentage of pedestrian area is very low. The horizontal circulation of the building is not connected to the surrounding built environment.

### **Folkart Towers**



Figure 15: Folkart Towers (Source: reserve.best)

The construction of the high-rises by Folkart Design Office started in 2011 and finished in 2014. The structures have 46-storey of offices and residential single blocks in an area of 150,000 m2. The buildings have residential, retail, sport and entertainment facilities.

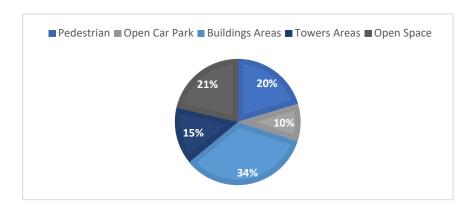


Table 3: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Folkart Towers

According to Table 3, the ground floor areas of the two towers have the highest percentage in Folkart Towers. There are cafes, restaurants and shopping areas in these buildings. Unlike the other structures of case analysis, there is an open space in Folkart Towers, which creates urban interaction. Therefore, pedestrian areas also have a significant percentage in the spatial layout. The percentage of office and residential blocks functions is equal.

# **Megapol Tower**



Figure 16: Megapol Tower (Source: epsilonproje.com)

Construction of the high-rise by Megapol Group started in 2010 and finished in 2012. Total floor area of the structure is 31,250 m2. It is a 26-storey office and residential block.

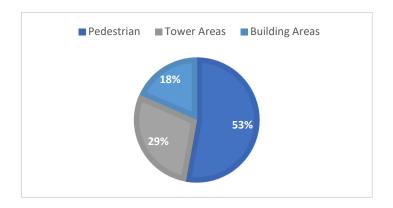


Table 4: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Megapol Tower

According to Table 4, Megapol Tower has one block that contains office and residence functions. Entrance of the structure has the biggest percentage of floor area in a total. In ground floor of structure, there are restaurants and cafes. The structure, which has its own pedestrian areas, is distant from the other case analysis structures. Building and its environment are the isolated part of the district.

## **Mistral Towers**



Figure 17: Mistral Towers (Source: mirayinsaat.com)

The construction of the high-rises by DNA Architecture started in 2014 and finished in 2016. There are two single blocks, having 48 and 38-storeys, including offices

and residential functions, retail and sport facilities. The construction area of the buildings is 122,000 m2.

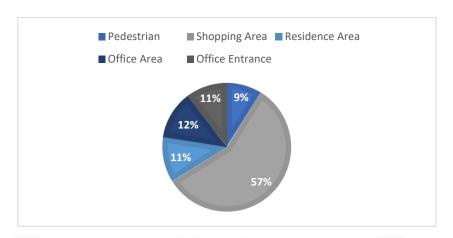


Table 5: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Mistral Towers

According to Table 5, the shopping area of Mistral Towers has the highest percentage of floor area, with a shopping area, cafes and restaurants. The percentage of pedestrian area is significant in the structure. Total percentages of residence and office floor area are equally designed. During the day, due to the user density of the office tower, there is an entrance affecting the circulation of the block.

# **Ege Perla Towers**



Figure 18: Ege Perla Towers (Source: emrearolat.com)

The construction of Ege Perla Towers started in 2013 and finished in 2016. The structures were designed by Emre Arolat Architecture. There are 46 and 29-storey office and residential blocks. The buildings have residential, retail and sport facilities, and a shopping mall. The construction area is approximately 55,000 m2.



Table 6: Functional Distribution of Floor Area in Ege Perla

According to the Table 6, the shopping area of Ege Perla has the highest percentage of floor area. Office and residence towers were built as two separate blocks. The floor areas of these blocks have the same percentage. Major entrances of Ege Perla are connected to the shopping mall. These entrances have major percentage of total floor area.

96		Total Base Area (m2)	Open Space Area (m2)	Lot Coverage Ratio (%)	Ratios of Interior Functions		Ratios of Exterior Functions	
Name of the High-Rise								
High	(m2	rea	Vrea	Rati	Office	Commercial	Pedestrian	Car
he F	rea	se A	ce A	age	&Residen	Management	Path	Park
of t	SiteArea (m2)	Ba	Spa	ver	ce	(shopping		
ame	S.	otal	pen	t C		mall, café,		
Z		L	0	$\Gamma_0$		etc)		
Bayraklı								
Tower	9,000	4,045	-	60%	18%	47%	6%	29%
Folkart								
Towers	26,265	9,962	6.235	59%	25%	34%	15%	10%
Megapol								
Tower	4,395	832	2.386	48%	29%		53%	
							(Included	
							Car Park)	
Mistral								
Towers	16,252	9,526	-	63%	23%	57%	9%	-
Ege								
Perla	18,730	11,705	- /	74%	35%	56%	-	-
Towers				4				

Table 7: Comparison of Functional Distribution for the Selected Cases

While investigating the spatial distributions and their properties in the selected high-rises, the floor area percentages are calculated and their functional distributions are examined in Table 7. According to the table, in terms of interior functions, the shopping centers and cafes, the commercial managements, which may be defined as privatized public spaces, are located on the ground floor in order to attract users and enable interaction. These functions have the largest floor area percentages among the others. In terms of exterior functions, open spaces are insufficient compared to the close spaces. In addition, nearly in all the cases, pedestrian paths have the lowest ratio compared to the other functions.

## 5.2.2. Territorial Depth- Public and Private Analyses

Control of space refers to the ability to protect a specific area against unwanted entrees. The space under control is territorial control, which is essentially the ability to close an area and to restrict access to it. Perhaps this is the most instinctive way to have an understanding of the built environment (and also the building's landscape) (Habraken, 1998). The five high-rise buildings located in Bayraklı region of Izmir are important in terms of both their effect on the urban built environment and their privatized public territories. There are some essential impacts of public and private space distinctions that operate within and around these five high-rises.

In this research, buildings, their built environments, and their territories are regarded as private and public spaces. Dynamics of protection included in the design of these high-rise buildings, the attempt to relate to the environment, and the new perceptual private space draw attention to the emergence of semi private and semi-public spaces. The settlements of these buildings, in particular, occupy an area and control the building envelope. In general, the concept of the territory does not represent a physical boundary but it implies a perceptual one. It does not specifically correspond to a space that is allocated for the physicality of the structure. Spatial control mechanism is also required for these buildings. This mechanism functions at the entrance halls as well as the territories of these high-rise buildings with their particular sites (Habraken, 1998).

The occupation of sidewalks around these buildings is common due to their commercial use. This occupation occasionally occurs through hidden signs that indicate restaurant entrances and in some cases with sidewalk cafes. The presence of a gate in these building types (as an element controlling the accesses) provides the control between the opposite sides with an asymmetrical link, which points to a hierarchy. The territory of the buildings is in larger areas, and they may also contain other (controlled) areas. These controlled areas are generally referred to as public or private areas and these terms are relative (Habraken, 1998). For example, if a residence guest leaves his room and joins a colleague in the foyer, he is clearly in

the public sphere. When he arrives at the hotel, he enters the public space again at the end of the day. As he leaves the cab, he leaves the city streets and returns to the foyer through the hotel's entrance door, in which case, the guest is in the private space of the foyer, compared to the street. In fact, whether a particular area is private or public is entirely dependent on the person's point of view: the same area is open to those who have not been there yet, and also to those who are always free to enter (Habraken, 1998). This approach applies to all the high-rise buildings analyzed in this thesis.

## Bayraklı Tower

According to the site plan of Bayraklı Tower (Appendix 1.), public, semi-public and semi-private spaces can be defined around the building. The entrances of the building (4) can be defined as public spaces. The building has an open parking area (3). Parking is can be defined as a semi-public space. The building consists of a single office block and a shopping center on the ground floor. The commercial function, which affects the user diversity and density of the structure during the day, can be defined as semi-public. The office block can be defined as semi-public depending on the user diversity. In the structure, there is a transition from public to semi-public space. The office block, which is a semi-public space, is a controlled area. The building block is relatively distant from the other high-rise buildings in the research field.

According to the entrance hall plan of Bayraklı Tower (Appendix 6.), there are semi-public (cafes) and semi-private spaces (lobby). The entrance hall has typical features like waiting areas, information desk and security control. Circulation parts of the space, which provides inter-connection between the towers and the upper floors, are designated as private spaces as they are under security control. The commercial functions of the ground floor of the building enable the user diversity and change the semi-private feature of the entrance hall, which affects the publicness of spaces.

According to the section drawing of Bayraklı Tower (Appendix 15), the building can be defined as semi-public (entrance hall and commercial function), semi-private (lobby) and private (circulation area) spaces. The building has office tower. The building, which is visited by various users during the day, has a less dominant security control than the other high-rise buildings in the research area. Spatial distributions of the ground floor may be defined as semi-public, semi private, and private.

#### **Mistral Towers**

According to the site plan of the Mistral Tower (Appendix 4), there are public, semi-public, private and semi-private areas in the building and its built environment. Pedestrian spaces (4) can be defined as public. Commercial facilities (3) such as shopping center, cafes and restaurants can be defined as semi-public spaces. In the structure, there is a transition from public to semi-public spaces. The office and residential blocks of the building are isolated from this commercial functions. The office block (2) can be defined as semi-private space because it is used by various visitors during the day. The residential block (1) can be defined as private space because it has private property features and is visited by limited users. The building is visited by many users throughout the day with its semi-public and semi-private spaces in the Bayraklı District.

According to the entrance hall plans of Mistral Towers (Appendix 10 and 11), office and residential entrance halls have similar spatial features. These entrance halls, which have dominant security control and are open to limited users, have transition from the public space to the semi-public space. Entrance halls have typical characteristics such as waiting areas, information desk and security control in these spaces. Circulation parts of the space, which provides interconnection between the towers and the upper floors, are designated as private spaces because they are under security control. In the entrance halls of Mistral Towers, there is transition between semi-public and private spaces.

According to the section drawing of the Mistral Towers (Appendix 19), there are semi-private, private, and semi-public spaces in the office entrance hall and commercial functions in the ground floor of the Mistral Tower. The semi-public spaces of the entrance floor of the Mistral Tower attract visitors to a built environment where public space is insufficient. The office function is separete from the other parts of the structure and can be defined as semi-private space. The publicness or spatial feature of the spaces in the building is formed according to the functions of the building. There is no flexibility between spaces. However, there is a transition from the public space to a semi-public space, and there is a sequence in the spatial arrangement of the building.

## **Ege Perla Towers**

According to site plan of Ege Perla (Appendix 5), semi-public, public, semi-private and private spaces can be defined in the surrounding of the building and its built environment. The entrances of buildings (4) can be defined as public because they are accessible to all users. Commercial functions of the building (3), such as the shopping mall can be defined as semi-public. On the ground floor of the building, there is a transition from public to semi-public spaces. The office and residential towers of the building have been isolated from this commercial structure both formally and functionally. The office block (2) may be defined as semi-private because it is used by many visitors during the day. The residential part (1) can be defined as private space cause this block is an example of the definition of private property and is visited by limited users. The high-rise, which has semi-public and semi-private spaces, is visited by many users throughout the day in the Bayraklı District. During the day, visitor density of the courthouse in the district are moving towards Ege Perla.

According to the entrance hall plans of Ege Perla (Appendix 12 and 13), office and residential entrance plans have similar spatial features. In these entrance halls,

which have security control and are open to limited users, there is a transition between public space to semi-public space. Entrance halls have typical characteristics such as waiting areas, information desk, and security control. Circulation parts of the space, which provide interconnection between the towers and the upper floors, are designated as private space because they are under security control. In the entrance halls of Ege Perla, there is a transition from semi-public to private space. This shows the effect of the private management of high-rise buildings, which are used as offices and residences, on the spatial arrangement of building. This security control affects user activities and enables users to access the buildings at certain times.

According to the section drawing of Ege Perla (Appendix 20), semi-public (shopping mall), semi-private (office), and private (residential) areas do not interact with each other and there is no direct transition between these spaces. The publicness or spatial feature of these spaces in the building is formed according to the functions of the building. Users move in controlled spaces within the structure. There is no flexibility between spaces. Ege Perla can be defined as an example of a gated structure designed with built environment, protected by security, and accessible by certain visitors. There is no public space around the building. The only public use in the building environment is the pavements.

#### **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION**

Polycentrism emerges when the mono-centric city begins to create its own workforce, with the distribution of sub-centers. The city becomes multi-core with the presence of central business districts in various regions. This thesis focuses on the polycentric structure of Izmir, Bayraklı district. The old city center of Izmir is a mono-centric structure including Konak Square, around which official and commercial facilities are located. Since the increasing land prices gave rise to the need for a new city center, Izmir Metropolitan Municipality decided to move the old city center in Konak and Alsancak to the historical Bayraklı district. In recent years, the district has been marked with urban transformations reflected on new mixed-use developments.

High-rise buildings have many effects in the regions that surround the built environments. In general, these structures shape the city skyline and they occasionally become the symbol of the city. The high-rise clusters in the central business district supply the need of the office and housing density. High-rise buildings, which make their zone a significant center, have a positive impact on the economy. They attract users to the district for their public spaces, sports centers, and shopping malls they have. Since high-rises have a powerful and dominating image on the urban landscape, we see the dominance of high-rises in contemporary sub-centers. Thus, the relationship of high-rises and polycentric development offers concrete relation in the contemporary Polycentric Urban Region development. However, how these two large urban and architectural scales touch the ground and how they affect the private and public space hierarchy remains rather untouched.

This thesis has examined the built environment and entrances of Mistral Towers, Folkart Towers, Ege Perla Towers, Megapol Tower, and Bayraklı Tower in Bayraklı. It has defined the urban features of this new developing zone and discusses the effect of high-rise buildings on public spaces and their environments.

The case analyses have been conducted in two stages. In the first stage, the entrance floors of five high-rise buildings, their functions and floor areas, and their built environments have been analyzed as a case. It is concluded that the public and private distinctions are relative. This perception is related to the security control applied to the buildings' ground floors. The security at the entrances causes direct transition from public to private spaces in the lobbies without a transition space (semi- public, semi private). Moreover, the private spaces of buildings define further invisible private boundaries. In other words, while the ground floors are expected to be public, they both function and are perceived as private. These structures change the perception of public spaces in contemporary urban space. The presence of controlled areas gives the users the feeling that they are in semi-public or private spaces. However, controlled spaces emerge where user accessibility is limited.

In the second stage, according to the distribution of functions, another subversion of public/private distinctions has been observed. In this case, the semi-public and semi-private spaces in the ground floors of the buildings directly connect to the private blocks that are either residential or offices. They do not reflect a gradual transition from public to private. So, we can assert that while the public and private hierarchy itself is subverted in a single building, it also shows a variety of subversions in some buildings horizontally and vertically.

This thesis has contributed to the literature through examining user experiences and the effects of public and private manipulations in the entrance halls of the five high-rise buildings located in Izmir, Bayraklı district. This case analysis may be a pioneer study about Bayraklı district as it focuses on the transformations of public and private spaces in high-rise design. The architectural structure and urban pattern are two important aspects in the city due to the spaces and user behaviors they create.

The polycentric city, which differs from the traditional mono-centric structure, leads to the change and redefinition of public spaces in order to gather business activities in the city. The use of public spaces in the ground floors of the building leads to the lack of a coherent use of the built environment. The analyses have supported that the subversion of public and private hierarchy extends beyond the site boundaries of a particular block and leads to the lack of free and flexible use of ground floors in human scale. Consequently, while polycentric Bayraklı District is considered a gated quarted, there seems to be various gated communities in this quarter.

In addition to the particular research questions, this thesis has further responded the question of "How to create a public space?" and explored the use of privately-owned public spaces in high-rise buildings and how they shape the public spaces of the Bayraklı district. In future research, how the decisions and applications of the new city center master plan affected the formation of public spaces in the district, the transformation of existing public spaces and the relations of users with high-rise buildings may be discussed. The effects of high-rise buildings in the region and the architectural and sociological results they create in the district may be examined.

#### REFERENCES

Acker, M. V., & Vos, E. D. (2016). The Public Interiors: The Meeting Place for The Urban and The Interior. IDEA, 44-55.

Akdağ, S. G., & Bostancı, S. H. (2013). *The Impacts of Prestige Projects on The Skyline of Istanbul*. International Journal of Architectural Research, Vol.7: 269-281.

Akkar, Z. M. (2004). New-Generation Public Space- How 'Inclusive' are They?

Akkar, Z. M. (2005a). The Changing 'Publicness' of Contemporary Public Spaces: A Case Study of The Grey's Monument Area, Newcastle Upon Tyne. Urban Design International: 95-113.

Akkar, Z. M. (2005b). Questioning 'Inclusivity' of Public Spaces in Post-Industrial Cities: The Case of Haymarket Bus Station, Newcastle Upon Tyne. METU JFA.

Ali, M. M., & Al-Kodmany, K. (2012). *Tall Buildings and Urban Habitat of the 21st Century: A Global Perspective*. Buildings Vol.2: 384-423.

Al-Kodmany, K. (2011). *Placemaking with tall buildings*. Urban Design International: 252-269.

Arkitera. (2015) [online] Available at http://www.arkitera.com/proje/2182/bayrakli-tower [Accessed 23. April.2019].

Balula, L. D. (2004). Formal and Ethical Aspects of Security in Public Spaces. IEEE Technology And Society Magazine: 15-16.

Banerjee, T. (2001). *The Future of Public Space: Beyond Invented Streets and Reinvented Places*. Journal of The American Planning Association: 9-24.

Bargenda, A. (2018). *Building Meaning: Architectural Dialectic in Spatial Marketing Systems*. Journal of Macromarketing Vol. 38(3): 262-277.

Blakely, E. J., & Synder, M. G. (1997). *Divided We Fall: Gated and Walled Communities in The United States*. N. Ellin (ed.), *Architecture of Fear*. New York: Princeton Architectural Press.

Burger, M., & Meijers, E. (2012). Form Follows Function? Linking Morphological and Functional Polycentricity. Urban Studies, Vol.49: 1127-1149.

Can, I. (2011). *Urban Design and The Planning System in Izmir*. Journal of Landscape Studies: 181-189.

Can, I. (2012). "In-Between Space And Social Interaction: A Case Study of Three Neighbourhoods in Izmir." PhD Thesis. The Nottingham University

Champion, A. G. (2001). A Changing Demographic Regime and Evolving Polycentric Urban Regions: Consequences for the Size, Composition and Distribution of City Populations. Urban Studies, Vol. 38: 657-677.

Charney, I. (2007). The Politics of Design: Architecture, Tall Buildings and The Skyline of Central London. Area Vol.39: 195-205.

Chen, L.W., & Shih, C.M. (2009). *The Public Nature of High-Rise Buildings in Taiwan*. Environment and Planning D: Society and Space Vol. 27: 317-330.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design*. California: Saga Publications.

Çelebi, B. (2018). Urban Transformation in Izmir/Bayraklı District. Izmir Institute of Technology

Çetin, E. (2011). Kentsel Yaşamda Tüketim Mekanlarının Dönüşümü: Alışveriş Merkezleri.Sosyoloji Dergisi, Vol.23: 59-68.

Çınar, C., Çizmeci, F., & Köksal, A. (2006). *The New Address of Social Polarization in Istanbul: Gated Communities*. 42. Isocarp Congress.

Design Strategy Plan Report for the Izmirdeniz Project 2012, Izmir Metropolitan Municipality; M+D Mimarlık: Izmir, Turkey

Durington, M., Landman, K. & Lemanski, C. (2008). *Divergent and Similar Experiences of 'Gating' in South Africa: Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town*. Urban Forum: 133-158

Emrearolat. (2017). [online] Available at: http://emrearolat.com/gallery/ege-perla/ [Accessed 23.April.2019]

Ephes, L. M. (2005). Architecture of Permeability- Urban Redevelopment of FA Yuen Street.

Epsilonproje. [online] Available at: http://www.epsilonproje.com/proje/megapol-tower [Accessed 23. April.2019]

Ercan, M. A., & Memlük, N. O. (2015). *More Inclusive Than Before?: The Tale of a Historic Urban Park in Ankara, Turkey*. Urban Design International, Vol.20: 195-221.

Erdik, A., & Kaplan, A. (2009). İzmir Liman Bölgesinde Proje Yarışmasından Nazım İmar Planına Dönüşüm Sorunu. Ege Coğrafya Dergisi: 49-58.

Franck, K. A., & Stevens, Q. (2007). Loose Space: Possibility and Diversity in Urban Life.

Geçer, F., Avar, A. A., Velibeyoğlu, K., & Saygın, Ö. (2008). Spatial Transformations in Istanbul CBD: The Role of ICT? IGI Global.

Gökdemir, O. (2013). *İzmir Kent Ansiklopedisi*. İzmir: İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi.

Göksu, T., & Pilehvarian, N. K. (2019). *19. Yüzyıla Beşiktaş-Maslak-Büyükdere Aksı*. Yakın Mimarlık Dergisi : 118-139.

Graham, S., & Marvin, S. (2001). Splintering Urbanism: Networked Infrastructures, technological Mobilities, and the Urban Condition. London: Routledge.

Güdücü, B. (2015). Özel Alan, Kamusal Alan, Kent ve İnsan. Aydın Toplum ve İnsan: 59-67.

Habraken, N. J. (1998). *The Structure of the Ordinary*. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

Hausleitner, B. (2012). Redefining The Border Between Public And Private in Ambiguous Modernist Areas: The Case of Amsterdam Nieuw West. Public Spaces-Urban Cultures Conferance. Lisbon.

Ilesanmi, A. (2012). *The Roots and Fruits of Gated Communities in Lagos, Nigeria:* Social Sustainability or Segregation?. Sustainable Futures: 105-112

İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi Izmir Liman Bölgesi Için Kentsel Tasarim Uluslararasi Fikir Yarişmasi, 2001.

Jenkins, L. (2002). *Rue Du Conservatoire and The Permeability of Buildings*. Space and Culture, Vol. 5: 222-236

Jantzen, C., & Vetner, M. (2008). Designing Urban Experiences: The Case of Zuidas, Amsterdam. Know Tech Pol.: 149-162.

Kaya, M. (2012). İzmir- Salhane Bölgesinin Kentsel Hizmet Merkezine Dönüştürülmesi Deneyiminde Gayrimenkul Geliştirme Sürecinin Değerlendirilmesi. Istanbul Technical University

Keeskrick. (2019) [online] Available at: https://keeskrick.com/amsterdam-zuidas-tijdens-het-blauwe-uur/ [Accessed 23.August.2019]

Kirby, A. (2008). *The Production of Private Space and Its Implications For Urban Social Relations*. Political Geography: 75-95.

Kloosterman, R. C., & Musterd, S. (2001). *The Polycentric Urban Region: Towards a Research Agenda*. Urban Studies, Vol.38: 623-633.

Köken, E. (2008). "Processes and Strategies of New Central Business District Development and Public Space Patterns: Levent-Büyükdere Avenue". METU

Lonelyplanet. (2017). [online] Available at: https://www.lonelyplanet.com/news/2017/09/22/skyscraper-paris-makeover/
[Accessed 7.May.2019]

Madanipour, A. (1999). Why are the design and development of public spaces significant for cities? Environment and Planning Vol. 26: 879-891.

Maslak.[online] Available at: https://www.projekspert.com/maslak/ [Accessed 23. August.2019]

Mcneill, D. (2002). *The Mayor and the World City Skyline: London's Tall Buildings Debate*. International Planning Studies, Vol.7: 325-334.

Meijers, E., & Romein, A. (2003). *Realizing Potential: Building Regional Organizing Capacity in Polycentric Urban Regions*. European Urban and Regional Studies, Vol.10: 173-186.

Meijers, E. (2005). *Polycentric Urban Regions and the Quest for Synergy: Is a Network of Cities More than the Sum of the Parts*. Urban Studies, Vol.42: 765-781.

Melik, R. V., & Lawton, P. (2011). *The Role of Public Space in Urban Renewal Strategies in Rotterdam ad Dublin*. Planning Practice and Research: 513-530.

Mierzejewska, L. (2011). Appropriation of Public Urban Space as An Effect of Privatisation and Globalization. Quaestiones Geographicae: 39-46.

Mirayinsaat. (2018). [online] Available at: http://www.mirayinsaat.com/portfolio/mistral-izmir/ [Accesses 23. April.2019]

Nemeth, J., & Schmidt, S. (2007). Toward a Methodology of Measuring the Security of Publicly Accessible Spaces. Journal of the American Planning Association: 283-297.

Nemeth, J. (2008). *Defining a Public: The Management of Privately Owned Public Space*. Urban Studies: 2463-2490.

Nemeth, J., & Schmidt, S. (2011). *The Privatization of Public Space: Modelling and Measuring Publicness*. Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design, Vol. 38: 5-23.

Nemeth, J. (2012). *Controlling The Commons: How Public Is Public Space?* Urban Affairs Review: 811-835.

Nissen, S. (2008). *Urban Transformation From Public and Private Space To Spaces of Hybrid Character*. Sociologicky Casapis, Vol.44, No.6: 1129-1149.

Oort, F. V., Burger, M., & Raspe, O. (2010). On the Economic Foundation of the Urban Network Paradigm: Spatial Integration, Functional Integration and Economic Complementarities within the Dutch Randstad. Urban Studies, Vol. 47.

Öner, A. C. (2008)." Locational Distribution of Global Advanced Producer Service Firms in The Polycentric US Metropolis." PhD Thesis. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Öner, A. C., & Pasin, B. (2015). Emerging Towers in Bayraklı: Sustainability as a Branding Strategy or a Tool for Local Development. Buildings: 834-859.

Paasche, T. F. (2012). Creating Parallel Public Spaces Through Private Governments: A South African Case Study. South African Geographical Journal: 46-59.

Pafka, E., & Dovey, K. (2017). *Permeability and Interface Catchment: Measuring and Mapping Walkable Access*. Journal of Urbanism: International Research on Placemaking and Urban Sustainability: 150-162.

Parr, J. (2004). *The Polycentric Urban Region: A Closer Inspection*. Regional Studies, Vol.38: 231-240.

Rahman, M. (2010). *Economy, Environment, Culture: Global Dreams by Two Asian Cities*. International Journal of Architectural Research Vol.4:20-41.

Ramezani, S., & Hamidi, S. (2010). *Privacy and Social Interaction in Traditional Towns to Contemporary Urban Design in Iran*. American Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences: 501-508.

Rezerve.best. (2018). [online] Available at: https://rezerve.best/bayrakli-folkart-towers-da-prestijli-ofis [Accessed 23. April.2019]

Scheerlinck, K. W. (2012). Deep Configurations: Proximity, Permeability and Territorial Boundaries in Urban Projects.

Schmidt, S., & Nemeth, J. (2010). *Space, Place and the City: Emerging Research on Public Space Design and Planning*. Journal of Urban Design: 453-457.

Scicolone, M. (2012). *Developing Skyscraper District: La Defense*. CBTH Journal: 18-23.

Siebel, W., & Wehrheim, J. (2006). *Security and The Urban Public Sphere*. German Policy Studies, Vol.3: 19-46.

Sklair, L. (2005). *The Transnational Capitalist Class and Contemporary Architecture in Globalizing Cities*. International Journal of Urban and Regional Research Vol. 29: 485-500.

Sklair, L. (2013). The Role of Iconic Architecture in Globalizing Urban Megaprojects. *Urban Megaprojects: A Worldwide View Research in Urban Sociology, Vol.13*, 159-181.

Sklair, L. (2016). *Iconic Architecture and The Rise of Globalizing Cities*. Brown Journal of World Affairs.

Som. (2012). [online] Available at: https://www.som.com/projects/canary\_wharf\_master\_plan [Accessed 23. April.2019]

Sönmez, I. Ö. (2007). *Concentrated Urban Poverty: The Case of Izmir Inner Area, Turkey*. European Planning Studies Vol. 15: 319-338.

Tekel, A. (2009). Alışveriş Merkezlerinin 'Kamusal Mekan' Nitelikleri Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme: Ankara Panora Alışveriş Merkezi Örneği. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Türkiyat Araştırmaları: 141-154.

Trip, J. J. (2007). The Role of Urban Quality in The Planning of International Business Locations: The Case of Amsterdam Zuidas. Journal of Urban Design: 275-293.

Trip, J. J. (2008). *Urban Quality in High-Speed Train Station Area Redevelopment:* The Cases of Amsterdam Zuidas and Rotterdam Central. Planning, Practice and Research: 383-401.

Uğur, A., & Aliağaoğlu, A. (2018). *Şehirsel Alanda Yok-Yerler: Türkiye'de Gökdelenler*. Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi: 2775-2791.

Vasanen, A. (2012). Functional Polycentricity: Examining Metropolitan Spatial Structure through the Connectivity of Urban Sub-centres. Urban Studies, Vol.49.

Vesselinov, E. (2008). *Members Only: Gated Communities and Residential Segregation in The Metropolitan United States*. Social Forum, Vol.23, No.3:536-555.

Wikipedia. (2019). [online] Available at: https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/La\_D%C3%A9fense [Accessed 23. August.2019]

Yandex. (2019). [online] Available at: https://yandex.com.tr/harita/bayraklı [Accessed 20. August.2019]

Yavuz, A., & Kuloğlu, N. (2012). A Research on Permeability Concept at an Urban Pedesterian Shopping Street: A Case of Trabzon Kunduracılar Street. Artvin Çoruh Üniversitesi Orman Fakültesi Dergisi, 25-39.

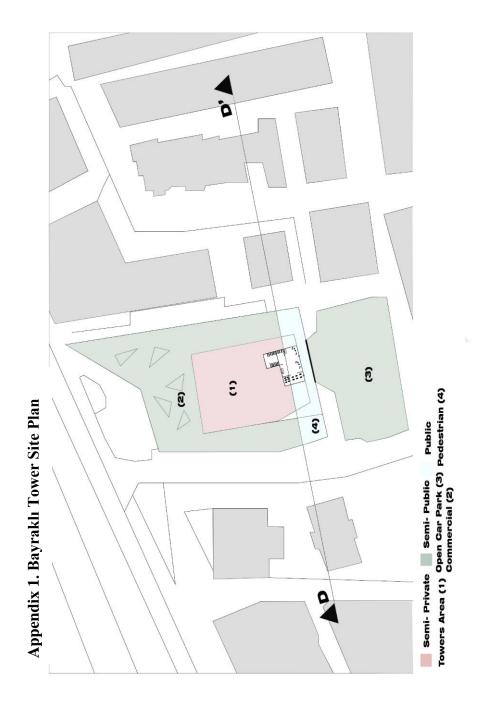
Yuen, B., Yeh, Appold, Earl, & Kwee, T. v. (2006). *High-Rise Living in Singapore Public Housing*. Urban Studies, Vol.43: 583-600.

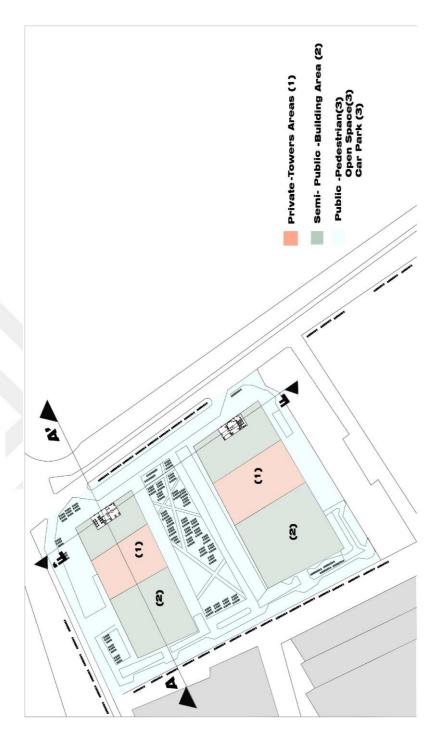
Zahiri, N., Dezhdar, O., & Foroutan, M. (2017). *Rethinking of Critical Regionalism in High-Rise Buildings*. Buildings, Vol.7.

Zhang, X., & He, Y. (2019). What Makes Public Space Public? The Chaos of Public Space Definitions and A New Epistemological Approach. Administration and Society.

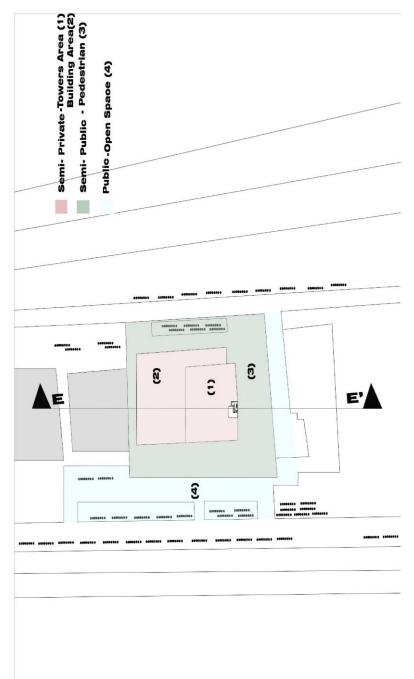
Zuo, Y. (2015). Study on Design of High-Rise Commercial Residential Complex. International Conference on Applied Science and Engineering Innovation (ASEI 2015). Atlantis Press.

# **APPENDICES**

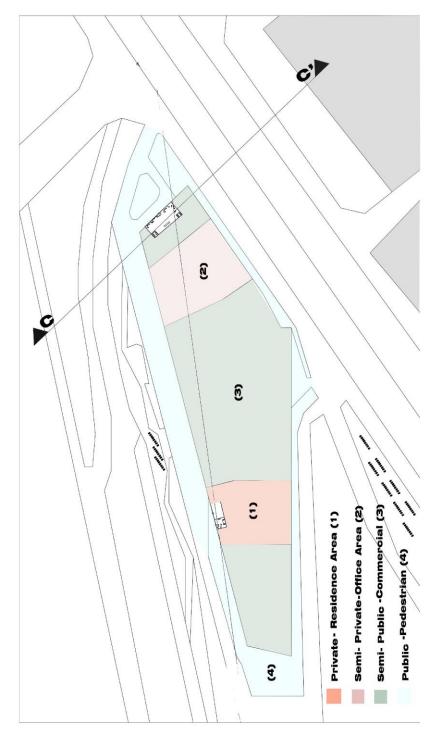




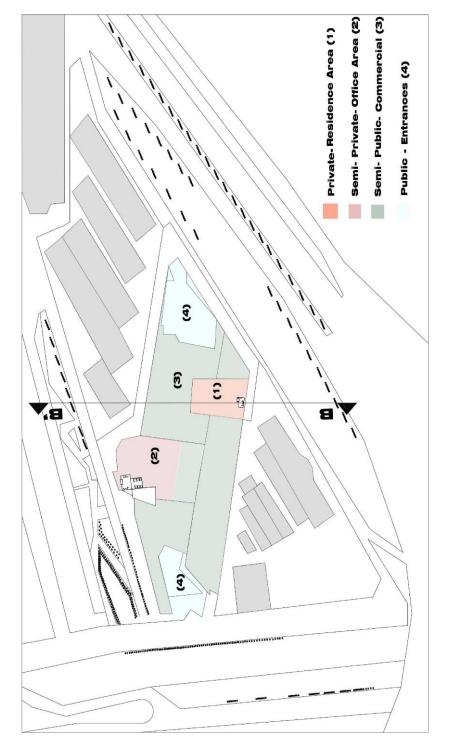
Appendix 2. Folkart Towers Site Plan



Appendix 3. Megapol Tower Site Plan



Appendix 4. Mistral Towers Site Plan



Appendix 5. Ege Perla Towers Site Plan

Appendix 6. Bayraklı Tower Entrance Floor Plan

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

1000

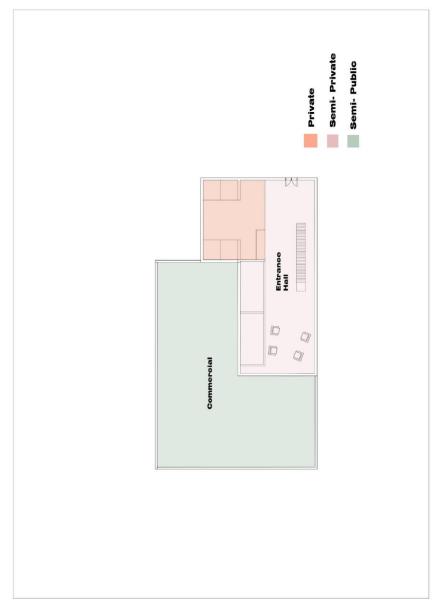
81

Semi- Private Semi- Publio Private Office Entrance Hall

Appendix 7. Folkart Towers A Entrance Floor Plan

Semi- Private Semi- Publio Private Office Entrance Hall Residence Entrance Hall

Appendix 8. Folkart Towers B Entrance Floor Plan



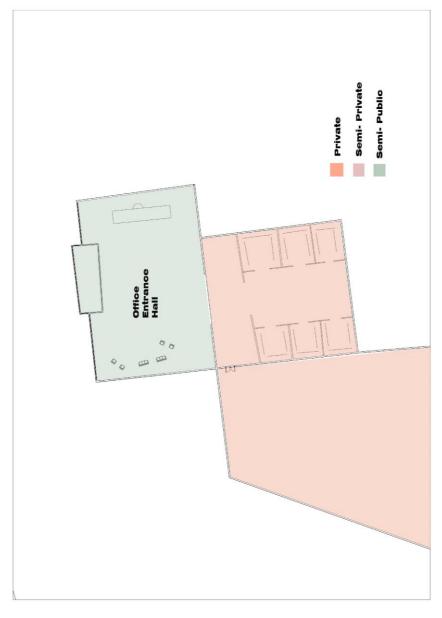
Appendix 9. Megapol Tower Entrance Floor Plan

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private 00 Entrance Hall

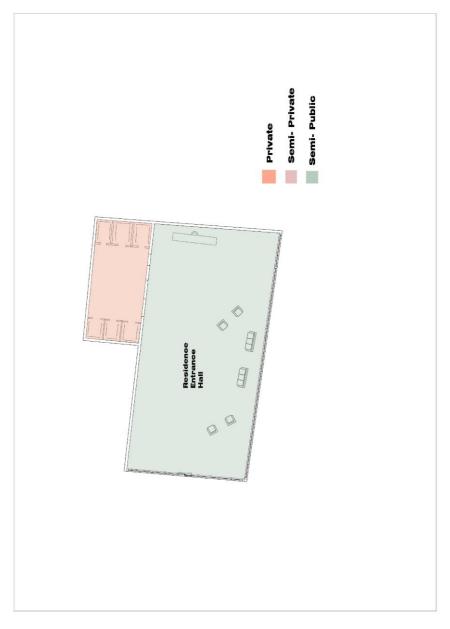
Appendix 10. Mistral Tower Office Entrance Floor Plan

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Hotel Entranoe Hall

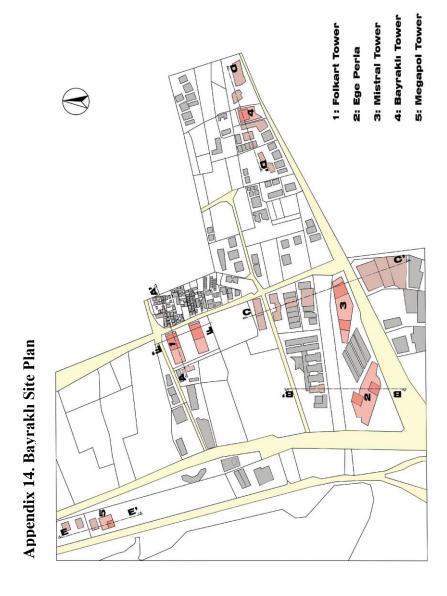
Appendix 11. Mistral Tower Residence Entrance Floor Plan



Appendix 12. Ege Perla Towers Office Entrance Floor Plan



Appendix 13. Ege Perla Towers Residence Entrance Floor Plan



Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Bayraklı Tower 

Appendix 15. Bavraklı Tower DD' Section

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Public Folkart Tower A Folkart Tower B

Appendix 16. Folkart Towers FF' Section Drawing

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Appendix 17. Folkart Towers AA' Section Drawing **Folkart Tower** 

**Megapol Tower** Semi- Private Semi- Public Private

Appendix 18. Megapol Tower EE' Section Drawing

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Mistral Tower

Appendix 19. Mistral Towers CC' Section Drawing

Semi- Private Semi- Public Private Appendix 20. Ege Perla Towers BB' Section Drawing **E**ge Perla