

**AN INVESTIGATION OF PUBLIC SPACES
IN İZMİR
FROM A PLACE MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE**

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF PUBLIC SPACES IN İZMİR FROM A PLACE MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

In this study, the development of place management, its constituent elements and the management of various public places in the case of İzmir have been investigated. Place management incorporates the effects of place making and place governance. By conducting literature reviews, place management was divided into the sub-topics of place development, place quality and place branding. In the scope of study, three international projects were examined regarding the aforementioned sub-topics, including the Berlin's Potsdamer Platz, New York High Line and Bryant Park. Additionally, in local context, semi-structured interview were conducted with the place managers of three sites in Izmir, all having different management schemes (Balçova Telpher, The Elevator Tower in Karataş and Sasalı Natural Life Park). Suitable infrastructure, a growth-supporting legal climate and the usage of technology are three essential factors for the development of an area. However, place development is also linked directly to the development of high quality places. Besides social and environmental factors, local administrations have to give an opportunity to such development. With good design and development of an area inevitably comes the branding of such a place. To this extent, it is critical to answer the question of how a public place can be successfully managed starting from the design phase. Not only initial costs, but also running costs need to be taken into consideration during this design phase, during implementation and monitoring. Therefore, by applying good place management, it is possible to ensure both internal continuity and the sustainability of its successes.

ÖZET

İZMİR'DE KAMU ALANLARININ, ALAN YÖNETİMİ PERSPEKTİFİNDE İNCELENMESİ

Bu çalışmada; mekan yönetiminin nasıl oluştuğu ve mekan yönetiminin bileşenlerinin neler olduğu araştırılarak, Türkiyede farklı kamusal alanların nasıl yönetildiği araştırılmıştır. Mekan yönetimi, katılımcı mekan üretimi ve yönetimini kapsayan bir özeliğe sahiptir. Literatür araştırmaları sonucunda mekan yönetiminin alt başlıkları olarak; mekan gelişimi, mekan kalitesi ve mekan markalaşması kabul edilmiştir. Çalışma içerisinde farklı ölçekli 3 proje incelenmiştir. Bu projeler Berlin Postdamer Platz, New York High Line ve Bryant Park projeleridir. Bu örnekler mekan gelişimi, mekan kalitesi ve mekan markalaşması kapsamında incelenmiştir. İzmir'de farklı yönetim şemalarına sahip üç farklı alanın yöneticileriyle yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar yapılmıştır (Sasalı Doğal Yaşam Parkı, Asansör Karataş ve Balçova Teleferik). Bir alanın gelişmesi için alt-yapı sistemlerinin uygun olup yasaların gelişime izin veriyor olması ve teknoloji kullanılarak yapılması gerekmektedir. Alanların gelişimi ancak kaliteli mekanların oluşturulmasıyla gerçekleşebilir. Sosyal durum ve çevresel etmenlerin yanı sıra mekan yönetiminde buna olanak sağlamalıdır. Mekanın kaliteli bir şekilde tasarlanıp geliştirilmesiyle beraber alan ölçeği ne olursa olsun markalaşma oluşmaya başlar. Kamusal bir alanın başarılı yönetilmesi için yasal durumlara ek olarak en büyük etken maddi konulardır. Bir alanın başarılı yönetilmesi için tasarım sürecinden itibaren nasıl yönetilebileceği sorusuna cevap vermelidir. Tasarım yapılırken, tasarım alana uygulanırken ve kullanılara hizmet ederken yapım maliyetlerinin yanı sıra kullanım maliyetleri de göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Bu şekilde mekan yönetimi kendi içinde sürekliliğini sağlayabilir ve mekan yönetimi kaliteli bir şekilde sürdürülerek başarısının devamlılığını sağlayabilir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study is about further clarification place management concept and the fact that place has become the central theme starting from the Industrial Revolution through the 21st century. Place has had multiple features throughout history.

Although human geography consists of many facets, one of its core competencies is the study of “place”. To understand human geography, therefore, an understanding of the term “place” is essential. Everyone being familiar with place, however, people generally do find it difficult to actually describe the term itself. Due to its common usage in our everyday language, trying to describe it in a more coherent and correct, academic, manner, becomes additionally difficult.

When we think of “place” in everyday sense, the examples and fields of use are relatively easy. It can refer to cities, bus stops, café’s, neighborhoods and other kinds of physical location. Additionally, the term place has also found its place in a more social sense: hierarchically or socially different people have different “places” in society, with everyone taking his or her own spot within this system.

Architecture and urban design already have considerable literature on phenomenology and “place”. Especially in the field of urban design, the desire to create places rather than spaces has been an important goal and has been investigated by re-examining common modernist and postmodern theories. Kate Nesbitt even noted that the current trend in architectural theory has been “interaction with the environment through the senses” and shows the shift from the more rigid modernist understanding to a postmodern one.

Important is to define place in such a way that people from both that place and elsewhere can recognize its unique features once a change in place occurs. This change is defined by a border such as rivers, mountains, natural sources, railways, highways etc.

The definition of place management here is an organized, area-based method to develop and brand places by utilizing exists resources public and private resources, often with many stakeholders. This study will investigate how place management came to be and investigate the business model of selected places in İzmir according to found

principles. Additionally, the aim is to investigate how the life cycle of urban design processes from design to usage can be managed or what kind of guidelines can be developed for such processes.

1.1. Problem Definition

A basic assumption made is that place management is a necessity for places. It is all about creating net positive gains at that place, from being both the catalyzing element as well as an organizing and managing one so public and private organizations can improve the physical and social needs of people. Because of this, place management is inherently inter-disciplinary, including geography, management, economics, tourism, planning, law, etc. Recognition for place management is increasing with the formation of a higher level education on this topic, regulatory bodies and academic research. Just like management and marketing have overlapping properties, so does place management have overlap with place management (Kerr, Noble, & Glynn, 2007)

Different place-based approaches exist, including natural resource management; environmental management; physical infrastructure maintenance management; and urban and land management. Even though they are conceptually related to place management, not part of this research.

Starting from the idea that "Place management aims to achieve a more integrated approach to policy development, resource allocation and service delivery by focusing on the needs of a particular place" (McDougal & Groenhart, 2010). Answers are sought for the following questions:

- What is the meaning of place quality?
- What are the principles of place making?
- What are the principles of place branding/marketing?
- What are the components of Place management?
- How can place management strategies be formulated/implemented?

To sum up; place has a lot of components so place management is multidisciplinary in nature. This study had examined for finding answers to these questions.

1.2. Aim of The Study

The study aims to reveal the problems how to manage urban space and the development/ implication of place management in Turkey. The problem mentioned above refer to two points. First is to manage in Turkey urban areas and second one is private and public sector roles/responsibilities of place management in Turkey. The vital criterion here is to how to implement place management. While doing this, traditional public management approach, legal issues, laws, soft-hard factors external factors are main points. The city of İzmir is chosen for three distinctive case studies.

1.3. Method of The Study

The method followed in this study is established on two stages except the part of introduction which explains the aim, method and structure of the study and part of conclusion which declares the evaluations about the results of the study and suggestions about manner of application of place management in Turkey.

In the first stage, in order to expand the reader's insight, there is an effort to provide intellectual background. That is why the knowledge of place and management is given in this stage to introduce concepts, theoretical discussions and processes of both fields. The conceptual research had completed by using books, articles, reports from virtual platforms.

At the second stage; in addition to the literature reviews, by examining Berlin's Potsdamer Platz, High Line and Bryant Park which are different in size and processes; place development, place branding and place quality were accepted as subheadings of place management. Place development, place branding and place quality directly affect each other as seen in figure 1.1. Place branding shows that place branding of public-private sector integrated, culture / entertainment, destination and advertisement has been created directly. Place development consists of thinking of technology, infrastructure, tourism, education, government approaches, and laws as a whole. Place quality can be analyzed with 4 headings which are physical growth, social quality, environmental quality and governance.

Looking at the sub-headings of place management, it can be seen that the three accepted headings can not be clearly distinguished. Place development, place branding and place quality affect each other. These three variables can be examined as a whole under the headings place-making and governance.

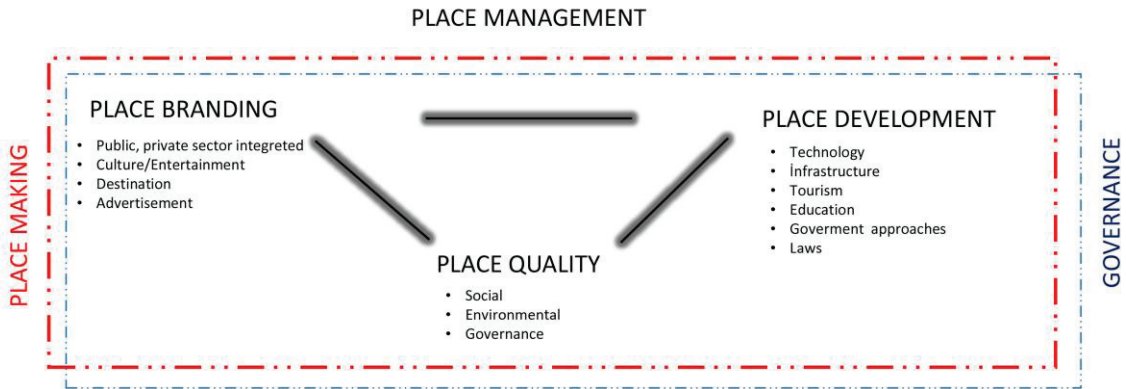


Figure 1.1 Place Management

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the managers of the three areas who have different management styles so that place management could be implemented in public spaces in Turkey. Face to face interviews will be held with three area managers in Izmir to prove/discuss how place management could be applied in Turkey.

As a result, by reviewing the different scale projects in the literature and discussing with the managers of the areas who are having different management schemes in İzmir; how the space management can be successful and how the continuity can be achieved.

1.4. Structure of The Study

This study examines how to deal with place management in Turkey management system in 6 chapters.

In the first chapter general information will be given to the reader including the aim of the research. Problems concerning place management practices will be defined and the research method will be discussed. Additionally the organization of the text will also be explained.

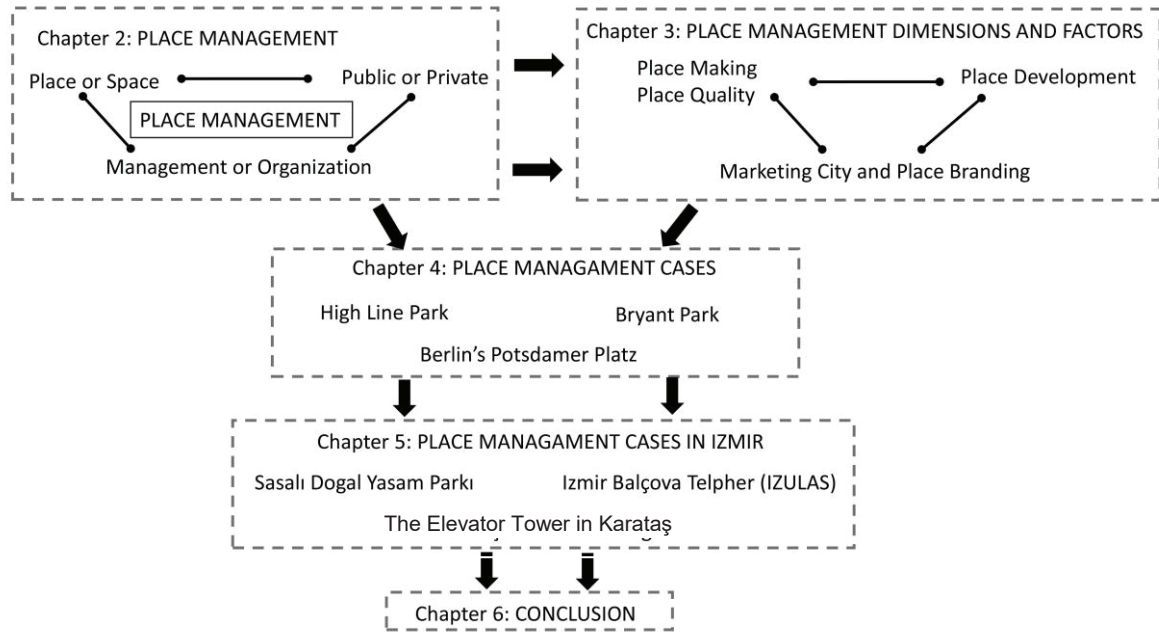


Figure 1.2 Structure of the Study

Chapter 2: By researching place and management notions, the relationship between them will be examined. It will be indicated how the result of the context between management and organization is reflected in the space. In the Literature survey, private, public and public-private cooperation models that is worldwide will be introduced.

Study of change and transformation processes in the concept of place and management. In this chapter, by explaining what the place and management concept is, their examples will be analyzed.

Chapter 3: In this chapter, the method to be implemented will be revealed. The basic principles and indicators related with this method will be revealed from the literature review. The following questions will be answered.

- What are Place Quality principles?
- What is Marketing City and Selling Place?
- What are Place Making principles?
- What are Place Branding/Marketing principles (hard/soft factors)?

Chapter 4: In the study; Berlin's Potsdamer Platz, Bryant Park and High Line Park; which have different sizes and different management schemes, were analyzed according to the components of place management. In this way, it was seen how place management was implemented and the processes were shaped.

Chapter 5: Izmir is on the way of developing and branding. In terms of place management in urban public space, three local cases area selected:

- Sasalı Natural Life Park (Municipality)
- The Elevator Tower in Karataş (Municipality Company)
- Izmir Telfer Management (Municipality Companies)

By using the results of international cases and dimensions obtained from literature review a checklist is produced. Also additional assessments are conducted through interviews with all place managers in selected case study areas.

In the direction of the results obtained by evaluation with the checklist obtained in the previous section, additional assessments will be obtained through interviews with two sample managers.

Chapter 6. In the Final Chapter, the findings of the study are presented as a summary. Some issues to be extracted are; design-processing dimension and its place in urban design, the position and the future of the place and management concept, the instrumentalization of the management processes of urban design – politics, strategy, guideline-code production relations.

CHAPTER 2

PLACE MANAGEMENT

2.1. Place or Space

The widespread usage of the term place makes it additionally more difficult to make an academic definition and study on the subject. It is a common word, non-specific; non-academic, non-defined maybe even. Working on the subject of place has historically been the field of geography. This field has taken two methods into describing “place”: as a physical location and as an entity on its own. By such, place theory has had large parts of its research devoted into the “central-place” and into unique places. Whilst central places have added much in terms of structured knowledge to the field, research into unique places had given in-depth knowledge on particular places. Such knowledge on particular places has generally been in poems, books and other works of literature describing them; not exactly academic works. This means that, in order for us to understand the (soft) aspects of unique places, we need to understand the “nature of experience” that lies at the base of literature explaining unique places.

Different people have given us examples of the importance of “place” in the field of geography. Allan Pred called them “the essence of human geographical inquiry” (Pred, 1984) and Carl Sauer argued that “facts of geography are place facts” (Saure & Leighly, 1963), whilst Richard Hartshorne stated that the analysis of geography was into “integrations which vary from place to place” (Hartshorne, 1959). Even though these three researchers agreed on the importance of place, it is also important to note that various discourses on “place” all concern different types of places and aspects of the world. Place is not something hard and easily identifiable, but rather a “way-of-being”. This can be seen from the way in which place has been both a location and a “way of looking”, namely looking at both the present world and gaining information on it and characterizing it. Adding to this the many definitions added by architects, urban planners and environmentalists, the definitions of place takes a leap towards the many.

As Sauer, Hartshorne and Pred’s analyses conclude, geography sheds light into the interest people have with various parts of earth. Before the 1960’s, the earth was divided

into “regions” sharing the same characteristics and had a more ideographic nature. Therefore, regions were more important than places. Detailed descriptions into their physical and soft properties (soil composition, climate, culture) were aimed at defining the differences between regions, sometimes referred to as “chorology”. The emphasis on various regions and their differences meant that regions were more important than places in older understandings of geography. Later on, however, the classic grouping into regions with their own cultural and physical properties slowly faded as increased globalization and homogenization diminished the cultural boundaries most often associated with different regions. It is because of this that according to Entrikin, geography started to lose particularity and had to find something else distinct and particular; he placed that solution through a distinction in “place” rather than regions which were becoming homogenous. (Entrikin, 1985)

Although Sauer, Hartshorne, Relph and others were already trying to comment on the importance of place, it was only until the 1960’s when the concept of place was first questioned and characterized. Lukerman considered places to be the convergence of “culture and nature in a particular location”, linked to other places by exchange of commodities and people (Lukerman, 1964). However, even this description remained very vague and open to interpretation, as culture and nature were terms of their own with large differences and heated debates. By the 1970’s however, place had become a term associated with personal experiences, a soft and unquantifiable entity described by geographers. Not concerned with the quantifiable aspects but neither with the classic “cultural” aspects of earlier cultural geographers, this new understanding of place rested in the understanding of places in a philosophical manner.

Such concepts were also at the base of humanist ontological understanding, in which people were always in a “place”. Edward Casey called this: “To live is to live locally and know is first of all to know the place on is in” (Casey, 1996). Such an experience-based understanding also lied at the hearth of Lukerman’s understanding in the study of place. It was not physical place itself, but the concept of place and experiences associated with places that formed them.

Place, by such, has become a pre-scientific entity in our lives. Based on experiences of people, it is also linked with debates today. For instance, according to Robert Sack, the increased globalization and mass market economy has diminished part of the realization of place. The production of goods is invisible to the consumer, whilst the abundance of connections between people, companies and much of our physical world today actually

make it nigh impossible to get a proper realization of place as the amount of input is just too much. This “hypermodernity” also means that people start to become disconnected with the effects of their actions and local relations, hereby also disconnecting from the bounding to “place”.

In literature, however, we sometimes also see the terms of “space” and “landscape” being used instead of “place”. However, more specifically, the difference between a space and place has been attenuated by examples such as adverts showing the transformation of “spaces into places”. The main message conveyed, namely that a space only becomes your place when people can relate themselves to it with their experiences, amongst others, lies at the base of humanistic geography. Spaces consist of quantifiable units like area and volume, whilst places “have spaces between them”; Yi-Fu Tuan describes this as the “stops” of a continuous movement, with the movement being spaces and places the stops (Tuan, 1991). Spaces, by such, form the basic framework on which places can exist; they are the “coordinate system” of places, like time is the basic framework of events in our lives.

Another differentiating factor between places and spaces is the people-aspect: certain spaces appeal more to people, whilst others do so less. Appreciated spaces, or spaces that have certain qualities that appeal to people, therefore tend to be regarded as a place more than a space. Spaces become places when the perception of people and their experiences there allows them to relate to the space. At the hearth of this shift from space to place, lie influences from both material and immaterial relations with the environment. The phenomenological interaction with spaces happens with the physical attributes of that space and the less physical ones as well; a phenomenological approach to understanding place is therefore a viable mean to understand it as well.

The descriptive method, as used most commonly by regional geographers, has generally focused on the hard aspects of places with quantifiable and distinct features. The social constructionist approach, on the other hand, sees place only as the base on which different social occurrences happen. Places are examined not only by their physical attributes, but also by their relations in the social construct they form part of (e.g. capitalism or communism). The third method is the phenomenological approach as mentioned earlier, which is concerned with the experiences and personal relation one has to a place. Humanistic geography, neo-humanism and phenomenological philosophy all takes this approach to place.

These three methods, however, do not mean three distinct approaches to understanding a place. They have common features and, more importantly, actually seem to represent a deeper understanding of place; the descriptive method focuses on the quantifiable, “exterior” features of place, whilst social constructivism focuses on its context and the phenomenological approach sees the personal experience aspect. All three are important and have to be considered when trying to understand place.

An important addition to understanding place also came from Kevin Lynch, who noted the ability of spaces to evoke a strong image and be experienced sharply by the senses (Lynch, 1968). This idea was furthered by David Canter, who noted that places are where “experiences of activities and physical form are amalgamated”: place is only possible when personal experience and physical structure are mixed (Canter, 1977). Edward Relph added to this by noting that the importance of place is mainly due to the interactions and feelings of people with the place (Relph, 1996). In short, place is actually an amplified, high-quality space, or a space that has been experienced and perceived by people.

For architecture and urban design place has always been an important consideration. Successful spaces that work become places, whilst the ones that do not cannot get past being a mere space. Additionally, the experience and life within buildings and cities has been an important aspect of design too. In fact, according to Christopher Alexander, “the life and soul of a place... depend on the pattern of events we experience there” (Alexander, 1977). The importance of designing places and not mere spaces has also been related to the proper balance between the relation of a space to its outside context (i.e. surrounding) and the amount of uniqueness that space can retain.

People, who make the process in a place possible, lie therefore are considered essential, both “objects and subjects”, within places, rather than only as users or people who perceive and experience places. People are shaped by their environment and their “interaction with society and its structural properties”.

Another important issue to tackle is the definition of space. Although debated upon more than often, an overly simplified answer would be the material environment in which happenings occur, a “background”. However, spaces are more than just the physical realm: they are where we experience and perform our daily activities. We know that we shape it, but that is also shapes us; we interact with others in a space, but also interact with the space itself. We can even go as far as growing emotions for particular spaces themselves.

Bourdieu is often regarded as the first to have started the topic of space in anthropology, as he transcended the boundary of the physical by also analyzing and theorizing on the more soft aspects involved with it. Space can therefore not be regarded in a merely physical way, as habits and ways of life form space and are part of it (Bourdieu, 1984). This also means that the meaning of space changes by the input of people and their interpretations.

In anthropology, narratives are often used to understand how places are experienced and perceived by societies. Geertz see this as the depiction of “local theories of dwelling” and is considered to be linked to phenomenological approaches and thick description (Geertz, 1973).

Obviously, place is not limited to narratives only. All senses, hearing, smell, touch, seeing and even tasting can be included into place (Peterson, 2010). Even more, people themselves are also educated -or do so by habit- to “signify experiences in distinctive ways” (Myers, 2002). This predefined way of perceiving space can even go so far that some have argued that space is itself a term formed socially. To this extent, space’s material aspect will even diminish to the background as space becomes “a dimension and form of agency that configures well with environmental psychology’s interest in action and advocacy” (Jiménez, 2003).

As can be understood from the aforementioned references, space is more than a simple container, a hollow place for activities to happen in. It is much more part of us and our activities, rather than just a place where they happen in.

According to Erickson, space can both order and increase the quality of human interaction. He even went further by using the Pattern theory of Alexander to design “spatially-based systems” (Erickson, 2000). Lainer and Wagner investigated the effect of integrating social use into the design of architectural and urban spaces in order to look at the relationship between spatial quality and the happenings in them. They argue that social use can be supported by careful architectural or urban design. Obviously, this idea stems from the understanding that social activities can be structured by physical design. As such, space is more than just a hollow box, but more an entity fostering social interaction and behavior.

Erickson argued in support of this that space allows for people to attach meaning. Therefore, a space becomes a place: people “invest with understandings, meanings, and memories” (Erickson, 2000).

In short, anthropology looks at the interaction between social and physical aspects that produce both “mere spaces” but also “places”, but also at the experiences and narrative of people to distill meaning from them. Of course, such an analysis is difficult and often debatable, but the knowledge that anthropology deals with this difficult topic means adding knowledge from anthropology into this research is in any way useful.

However, it is important to note that the sensitive issue of space and place is often avoided by anthropologists. A factor is namely that targeting space or place without also confining the people in it is very difficult. For instance, having noted that ethnographic aspects may be simplified to a place-based solution “imprisoning natives”. Anthropology, dealing with both how space has evolved into its current shape and how it was formed by social interaction and personal wishes, therefore requires a broader understanding. This understanding is partly summed up in the quality of anthropology to look at processes and individuals. Space is often regarded to be intertwined with place, with their materiality being both physical as well as abstract.

2.2. Management or Organization

Management has developed steadily from its beginnings in the Bronze Age to our internet age of today. When looking at literature from various historic civilizations, it is possible to determine two distinct classes: “devotional works” and “heroic tales”, with various examples constituting both. Devotional works of literature investigate the link between the environment and civilization, giving generally “divine” answers to the formation of the earth and its functioning but also theorize on questions such as the meaning of life and the creation of life. Examples of such works include the Rig Veda (India, 10th C. BC), the Book of Genesis (5th C BC) and the Egyptian Pyramid Texts. The superhuman nature of these books also create a particular ideology (or religion) to form the backbone of a civilization and give identity to its people.

Heroic tales include the myths and narrative of powerful people who, through individual merit, achieved strong positions of authority within civilizations. Famous epics, such as the one from Gilgamesh (Sumeria, 2000BC), the Iliad and Odyssey (Greece, 8th C BC), the Kojiki (Japan, 8th C BC), the Mahabharata (India, 5th C BC), the Huangdi/Yellow Emperor texts (China) and even parts of the Old Testament are all examples of such epic and heroic tales. All these tales consist of strong men that provide

order, fight enemies or bring about laws and culture to their people; they therefore make people aware of their plights and roles in the community they live.

As time passed it became apparent that strong men on their own didn't suffice in managing ever-growing communities. Personal merit and character were not enough to keep the masses loyal; instead, appointed people with particular skills and traits were selected for various functions, with a rise in archiving and written communication as well, useful in fields such as services, taxation and other forms of administration. This need for stability and order was quintessential in all civilizations, with many generations of scriptures emphasizing its importance.

This quest for stability, order and methods of organization were in fact the first scriptures on management as well. Creating stable and sustainable societies formed the base of such scriptures and led to many different writings on this topic.

After the emergence of Islam and the Islamic Empire, society saw a sudden shift as well. Trading over long distances, even intercontinental in some situations, led to traders becoming a strong and dominant entity in society once again. This led to a view that economy and society were inseparable and a rise in management theory. This knowledge of management spread to Europe in the Medieval Ages, where a rise in mechanization was underway in the 13th century. Scriptures tell us how businesses and managers responded to the change, both in their thinking, ways of accountancy and new methods of finance to increase commercial activity and reduce risk.

Rapid advances occurred during the Industrial Revolution and the age of enlightenment before it. The scientific method and culture of empirical knowledge led to changes in management and management thinking as well. Larger industries eventually led to the foundations of a system of management in the 19th century, with quests for increasing efficiency of both engines and organizations. This also led to a way of thought that would serve the community; not just profit for corporations, but also profit for the people. Communal thinking in scientific management for instance tried to reduce industrial inefficiency and waste, but also inequality and poverty on the workforce.

Scientific management sought for a rational method for optimal management making it very popular amongst managers. Its simple and quick-to-apply theory also ensured it would stand the test of time in comparison to other management theories; as other theories lost popularity over time, scientific management remained.

After the 2nd World War, the initial response to the threat of the Soviet Block by American management theoreticsts was to take an optimist and formalist management

approach. Influence from corporations and companies, such as the RAND Corp or the Ford Foundation, spread the ideas of intensive research, teaching and management styles, hereby affecting schools and managers alike. The “running plants full time” by the positivist-formalist approach nor the social sciences-based management, however, worked further than the sixties; the emergence of Germany and Japan as economic powers and the spread of ideas from flexible and human-centered thinkers like Tom Peters, Rosabeth Moss Kanter, Henry Mintzberg, Kenichi Ohmae and Philip Kotler changed management in those years. Their pledge seemed simple; a reduction in management, bureaucracy and mechanical thinking and more leadership, flexibility and innovation and such ideas were dominant throughout the 80’s and 90’s. However, changes in the world order, developments in especially the field of ICT and rising concerns on sustainability changed the known paths once more in the world of management.

Like the drastic situation of the 19th century, the 21st century contains difficulties that need to be overcome by management theorists. If such difficulties are not overcome, the world of management theory will run the risk of becoming irrelevant and put business and people at risk as well. This requires a diligent rethinking of management, its role and aims and how management thinkers can overcome these challenges; the 2008 crisis clearly showed how people distrust economy and management alike. Becoming irrelevant or not is at stake for the world of management.

Even though management thinking has had very positive impact on society, it isn’t necessarily a rule that each new theory of management is a good one; even good ones might eventually be lost in the test of time. In fact, not everyone is convinced of the fact that management is even good at all; especially many dystopian works focus on the ideas of management thinking and their effects. The famous Frankenstein or Blake’s Jerusalem were in fact manifests against the Industrial Revolution, whilst Brave New World from Aldous Huxley is a humorous interpretation of the management-driven world. In fact, The Managerial Revolution of Burnham was nothing less than critical in this respect. So was Lewis Mumford, who changed from an optimist in the 30’s to someone who did not foresee a good future in the “megatechnic wasteland” society had become. More popular was Orwell’s 1984, but also Vonnegut’s Player Piano and Toffler’s Future Shock, all part of popular culture that criticized the effects of technology and rationalization on society.

Even today, there is widespread distrust of the managerial world of people such as Naomi Klein who also has greater access to the public than the critical writers of earlier. After the 2001 dotcom bubble burst and the 2008 financial crisis, schools of economy,

management and administration were, in part, held responsible for the crisis and were heavily criticized by media and the public alike. (Klein, 2000) Within the light of this mounting criticism and discontent, the notion of brand management needs to be explained in detail and elaborated on in order to convince the public it isn't "all evil".

Initially, the achievement of a physical system like a new building or a new industrial output was described by the approach of project. That is why this phrase was produced in the Engineering literature (Battersby A. , 1967).

The inquiry of the management of organizations is nonetheless placing expanding importance on the concept of project as an essential approach to understand, to configure and to lead organizations from the early fifties.

Any association, public or private, with or without benefit points, is influenced by outer variables, (for example, market vacillations, legitimate changes, or technological advancements) and by its inward highlights, its morals and culture, its organizational structure and accessible assets (Simon, 1960).

The improvement of an association requests a continuous exertion of progress to conserve its character and mission under the turbulent condition of the molding factors. The developing rate and augmentation of these progressions require a more adaptable and foundational procedure of improvement which ought to be founded on a general cycle of advancement incorporating the stages introduced in figure 2.1, following the standards progressively exhibited and talked about since the established deals with administration by Taylor. (Taylor F. , 1947).

Defining targets and analyzing inward and external conditions enables one to set the goals to be come to within a given timeframe. The accompanying stage sets up a procedure that ought to enable the association to benefit from its upper hands, utilize any ideal outer factors, repay or outperform any negative impacts and increment the capability of the assets to be utilized.

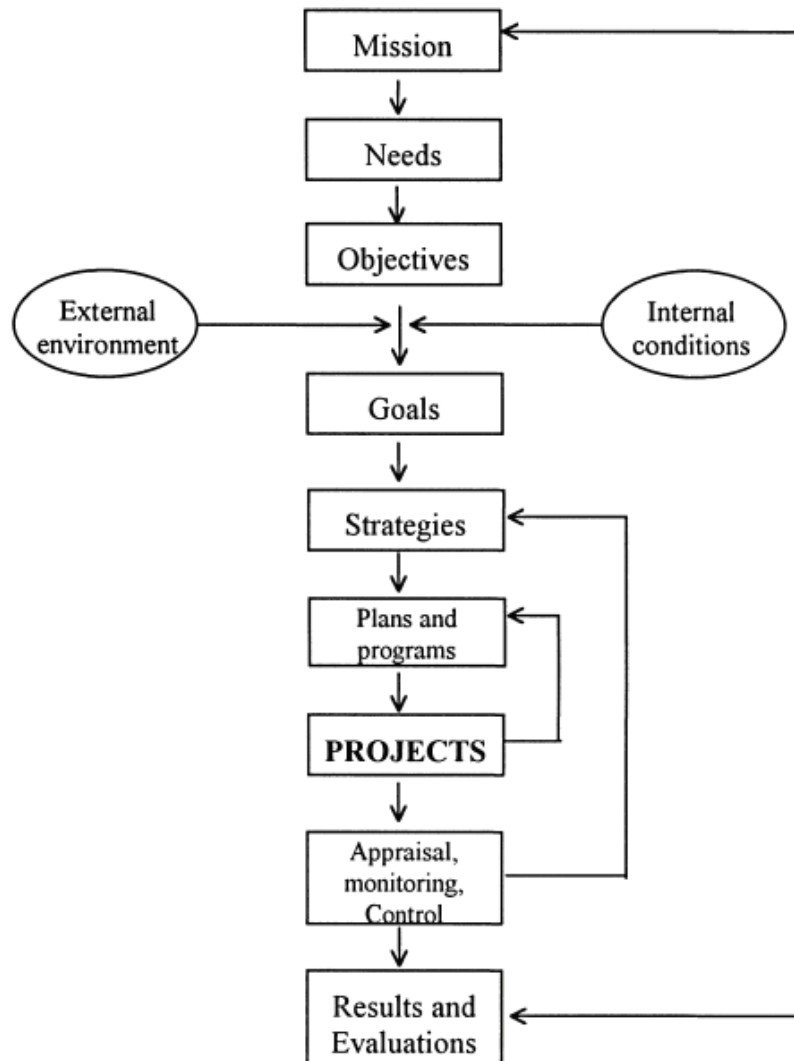


Figure 2.1. The Cycle of Development of an Organization

Any procedure must be made by arrangements, characterized as expansive rules for the improvement of the association, which must incorporate activities as their center units.

The arranging and execution of plans must be checked, assessed and controlled. This will make iterative cycles which take into account the modification of objectives, redress of systems and refreshing of destinations as indicated by genuine encounters. This implies change inside the structure of every association is basic and that the idea of task is the center unit to build up the procedure of changes required to accomplish the pre-characterized objectives (Drucker, 1970)

Along these lines, the meaning of a project implies:

- clear meaning of the destinations to be accomplished which must be converted into goals;
- choice of Technologies s and of the suitable individuals or associations to manage them;
- analysis of the progressions and exercises to be embraced;
- meaning of the assets to be gained keeping in mind the end goal to actualize the venture;
- planning, programming and administration of the task, with the goal that it will be created in the most ideal way that could be available;
- monitoring, assessment and control.

In some cases, the progressions that are procured are to a great extent outside to the association (as it the case with, say, a development organization that assembles another home); in others, the progressions to be made are at the very center of the association (for instance, making another vocation arranging plan inside the association or building up another administration bolster data framework).

Sometimes, the targets will be to position the association distinctively in the market that it serves (for example, making another item or making deals advancements), while in different cases destinations compare to inward changes, for instance, changing over a creation innovation or the conveyance framework.

The benefit of recognizing the idea of undertaking and of making every one of its Essentials expressly clear is that it takes into consideration the judicious management of progress inside the association. One subsequently reasons that the idea of venture is a major thought, both structurally and instrumentally, in association administration, which in tum ought to be composed and actualized as an element of given goals.

Objectives must be characterized altogether and as far as the expressed destinations, with the goal that questionable circumstances are evaded. In this way, if an undertaking is worried about a land advancement, it ought to be characterized beforehand (by the purported "program") regarding every one of the pointers and properties of the improvement (Areas, nature of completing, comfort levels, and so on). In the event that the reason for the undertaking is the improvement of new item, its properties must be characterized in advance so its outline, model and generation are expert in the most ideal conditions.

An unmistakable and noticeable meaning of objectives accept a time of thought and dialog inside the association; this is typically viewed as one of the first (or primary) benefits that a task induces, since it is constantly most helpful in urging an association to reconsider its course and goal.

An all the more clear concentrate on objectives, their definition, estimation and assessment has an extensive variety of points of interest for the improvement of the systems, in particular the diminishment of inside entropic legislative issues.

In this manner, inside every association, Project Management turns into the essential way to deal with actualize the general standards of MBO-Management by Objectives (Drucker, 1970).

In the wake of knowing the targets and the objectives, a task must be planned precisely, by methods for a regressive approach. Or, then again, as such, beginning from the predetermined objectives, one must envision, distinguish and describe all exercises that are basic to its satisfaction. A movement is in this way every segment of the venture. An action incorporates a subgroup of firmly connected errands that must be proficient to each of the pre-set up objectives.

Characterizing an action incorporates:

- Describing the work it envelops;
- Analyzing the assets that are required;
- Defining the gathering of different exercises that must be finished before the present errand is started (priority conditions) or different sorts of priority conditions;
- Defining the duty of the individuals who will execute, screen and control its improvement.

Indicating every action normally incorporates the meaning of a few activities, with various assets and attributes.

This implies outlining and actualizing a task will require:

- Breaking down the undertaking into its segments (exercises) and picking the most suitable advancements, since any movement can be done by elective means;
- Selecting the assets, the general population or the administrations that will be utilized for every action; they can have a place with the association (offices, groups, and so on.) or not and this last option relates to outsourcing arrangements which are winding up progressively well known and fruitful.

Therefore, the idea of undertaking causes the association to focus its vitality on the recognizable proof of requirements which will be converted into goals. These targets relate to objectives which will be sought after by an organized arrangement of exercises. The task administration approach permits the examination and control of the entire scope of operations of every association as far as (Kearney, 1993). Accordingly, this approach can bolster the advancement of benchmarking measures and any procedure of business reengineering.

2.3. Public or Private

The most important aspect in Public-Private Partnerships is the realization both public and private are defined and described differently by various authors. To various degrees an instance is called public or private is therefore more an understanding of the author than a common description. An example would be political parties, for instance, which are in essence private establishments serving the public benefit. Therefore, any definition given on terms such as public or private need to be seen in such a context and treated as such.

A good method of noting the functions of public institutions can be the “set of institutions which exercise legitimate authority over population, generally within a given geographical area”, whilst private would mean any other body outside of that definition. Businesses are institutions which have a purpose of generating profit for their owners, whilst non-profit organizations could be seen as businesses with an aim other than generating economic profit, rather focusing on (generally) an increase in welfare or other non-money related issues. By such, non-profit organizations are closer to public institutions than to businesses, but generally lack any public authority over its constituency (Mason, 1996)

The last “P” of public-private partnership is also broadly describable. In general, partnerships tend to refer to various forms of relationships for the good of both parties. According to Lyons and Hamlin, the spectrum of partnerships can extend to any level and companies and the public alike find new ways of engaging in such partnerships. However, in our case, the focus of partnerships will have to be within the scope of economic and regeneration concerns.

Partnership could therefore be seen as a cooperation, which generates a result “greater than its parts” for instance. Additionally, scope and objective definitions are done by both parties and a common goal is set forth, even though all parties might not be involved in all stages in equal manner. Finally, even in a public-private partnership construction, public authorities do not aim to get commercial benefits, but rather desire societal benefits. By such, public-private partnership naturally involves public well-being and cooperation. Holland describes this as “cooperation between people or organizations in the public or private sector for mutual benefit” (Holland, 1984). Harding, on the other hand, sees public-private partnership as “any action which relies on the agreement of actors in the public and private sectors and which also contributes in some way to improving the urban economy and the quality of life”.

As stated before, partnerships are aimed at generating a benefit for both parties, may it be economic or societal. Public-private partnership therefore involves both public and private entities that form a “cooperative venture” and become partners. In such a broad definition, different types of partnerships, such as loose relations between a government and private enterprise representatives, or a more focused legal cooperation too. Due to its applicability in a wide range of areas, public-private partnership has actually been used rather loosely, even though sometimes an important aspect of a partnership –legal liability and obligations- is missing (Kucera, 2017). If both parties do not desire to carry legal responsibilities for their actions, Kucera notes the danger of using the partnership term in a cooperative effort.

Besides legal liability, another aspect of partnerships is the expected result of the mutual struggle and its way of working. Those expectations are generally divided into the roles of “motivator, shaper, norm and change agents”. Initially, both parties motivate each other to form the partnership. Afterwards, they will shape the partnership, including its legal framework, scope, time, etc. Thirdly, norm are set up in regard to the style in which the partnership will be done, including behavioral patterns. Finally, if the initial norms are outdated or not agreed upon anymore, changes will have to be made to them to define the new shape of the partnership and its norms.

Another basic part of partnerships is the different goals that each party will have; even though they agreed upon a common goal and scope, both parties are in it for different reasons obviously. This difference in ultimate (individual) goal is however not necessarily a danger to the partnership. Those differences result in mutual understanding and the encouragement of developing new and better organizational structures to cope with

potential issues. However, if both parties are not ready to give away from some of their objectives, or not able to negotiate a deal, for instance when their ideology does not allow to do so, the partnership will fail. Research, for instance, shows that often in a partnership both parties think that they have the same goals even before entering the partnership, even though this is not always the case. Businesses, for instance, will desire to gain additional reputation benefits by working with the public sector, or try to gain a foothold in manipulating it in a later stage. The public sector on the other hand, will try to work for the benefit of the people, whilst non-profit organizations might desire the same but also try to gain a foothold in government circles. If there is also a goal of trying to sympathize the other party with the ideological goals of the non-profit organizations, one might understand that there are many ways in which underlying and differing goals of partners might lead to a failure of a public-private partnership construct.

Differences, however, are not the only risk for a public-private partnership; too many similarities might also be issues. Fischer, for instance, argues that if all parties in such a construct are of a neo-liberal economic thought, this will lead to issues as well (Fischer, 1980). The neo-liberal ideology will prefer market's own regulation and individual and free businesses. If the public sector is also of this thought, this could lead to a very high "business-like approach" to a public-private partnership which could, in turn, shadow the goals of what a public body should have, such as public benefit (Halligan & Power, 1992).

This issue finds its base in the balance of power between partners. Obviously, gaining a fifty-fifty balance is often impossible, leading to one partner being dominant. This is often the case when one partner is dependent on the other partner, for instance for funding. DiMaggio and Powell argue that this could lead to the loss of the goals, characteristics and methods of the subdued partner (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Jeavons has argued that this is particularly the case with non-profit organizations, whose main organizational structure requires financial input from a third party (Jeavons, 1992).

The effect of the expectations of both sides on the net result of a partnership is often not clear. First of all, there is a plain lack of empiric research on this topic. Although the quantifiable effects of partnerships have often been documented, the effect of expectations of partners on final partner happiness is not. Furthermore, the large scale of partnership possibilities and types mean that no real discernable data can be generalized from one particular type of mutual struggle.

However, public-private partnership constructs themselves are also subject to changes due to a change in political climate. On the eve of the new millennium, for

instance, Mulgan noted that the changing political climate in Europe had its effects on public-private partnership constructs (Mulgan, 1998). As center left parties started rising in power, such as in Germany or the United Kingdom, this was a departure from the economically liberal thinking we had seen during, for instance, the era of Thatcher. This new left's aim was to make sure that a government would have a leading role in organizing and coordinating efforts of the private sector into providing services. This was different from the complete public control of provisions we had seen in the sixties, but also different from the neoliberal free market emphasis of the eighties.

In those 1980's and 1990's, much progress was made on public-private partnerships and their applicability in the public sector. Much of such experiences have been positive and public-private partnerships are becoming more and more a standard method of working, rather than a cautiously implemented and often experimental scheme. An example of such increase in popularity of the public-private partnership construct was in the United Kingdom, where The Public-Private Partnerships Programme Ltd was established. This program was established to increase the popularity of public-private partnership constructs and to lobby for its application. This eventually led to renewed laws, in which public-private partnership was allowed in bodies such as the Private Finance Initiative and the NHS (National Health Service) (Department of the Environment, 1997). Across the Atlantic, public-private partnership were constructions were already popular, with many different programs designed to encourage it. In fact, much of British and German policies were founded upon American systems of public-private partnership.

As stated before, more and more governments are moving away from the idea that all public services need to be provided for by the government itself and have started to "outsource" such jobs to the private sector. They supplement the public services of the government and are run by the private sector.

There are many examples of the private sector being used for the supply of public services, most notably in the field of infrastructure. In the USA, toll roads were used to increase the road infrastructure (Levy, 1996). Until the 1970's however, a trend in which the government took over of all public infrastructure building can be seen. Due to budgetary issues and the complexity and scale of infrastructure projects, however, many Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development states reduced the government involvement in infrastructure drastically (Debande, 1999). Governments slowly started to desire a new system, in which public authorities and private ones would

join forces in creating infrastructure, something that was generally done by the public sector. The founding of the European Monetary Union played an important role in the development of PPP enterprises according to Birnie, who argued that the efforts undertaken in moving to a single currency contributed to that in large (Birnie, 1999). For instance, the development of the UK Private Finance Initiative program can be seen within this light. Although it was already devised in 1992, it had the goal of buying services for public interest from the private sector. Services were being bought instead of assets.

When looking at the net effects of public-private partnership, one can see that upon proper agreement, both the public and the private sector benefit. The private sector gains money from selling its services, whilst the public sector is able to provide for services without having to do it all herself. It is, however, very important for the public sector to decide where and how to use public-private partnership constructs. Proper risk management and a goal of providing “efficient, effective and innovate ways” for public services has to be an essential part of any government.

In short, public-private partnership constructs have become very popular throughout the public and private sector. On international, national and local level, they are probably going to continue as well. For instance, the EU actively endorses the creation of partnerships, whilst in many countries we can see an increase in public-private partnership constructs in order to provide for public services. On local levels, we can see that services are also sometimes outsourced to private enterprise and that non-governmental organisations and public facilities alike tend to engage in such constructs, as resources are limited and both parties benefit from it. Sometimes, ideology plays a large role as well: people sincerely believe in the mutual benefit of partnerships, an increase in local government over central government, the realization that local governments often lack the means to properly engage in complex problems and finally the idea that local communities should be engaged more in urban regeneration. In any case, these assumptions need to be backed up with more quantifiable research data. A more comprehensive analysis, consisting of not only the exchange between actors, but also their exchanges with “resources, power and information within these networks”.

Furthermore, we can see many commonalities between various partnerships in economic, social or political contexts. Changes in public-private partnership constructs reflect also on a change in government and governance policies; generally, the public-private partnership actually causes changes in governance, as their effectiveness is noted

by public institutions. However, this has led to a state in which public agencies are becoming smaller in size and larger in amount, leading to new issues in organization. Smaller government bodies, created for a particular task, generally have to engage in partnerships to tackle issues which are generally beyond their own scope, even though such partnerships can have accountability issues of their own, create scope creep and reduce total effectiveness if not done properly.

CHAPTER 3

PLACE MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS AND FACTORS

3.1 Place Making and Place Quality

Many of the policy-based modernization of the cities that come up, rely on the fact that who are able to make claims upon urban areas. More particularly, this fact has become to a dominant expression of that who possess the right to make places in cities. This expression enhances a right definition for cities; cities are to be joints of globalization. Whereas in 1960s and 1970s a rejection to modernization of functional planning has come up, in the following decades it was focused on creating urban areas where the concentration and mixed nature of developments was purposed in increasing experience and improving a kind of ‘urbanity’ related with the ‘good city’. An important element of approaches to this ‘place-making’ nowadays has been the enhanced focus given to the connection between the physical and the social dimensions. For instance, Knox realizes that ‘... among the attributes of successful places weshould expect to find plenty of opportunities for informal, casual meetings and gossip; friendly bars and pubs and a variety of settings in which to purchase and/or consume food; street markets; a variety of comfortable places to sit, wait and people-watch; a sense of ease with changing seasons; and, above all, a sense of belonging, affection, hospitality, vitality and historical and cultural continuity’ (Knox, 2005)

Creating place means comprehending the complex relation between place and everyday experiences. As place changes in definition according to who interprets it, differences can occur between what groups and individuals consider to be places. This means that, even though place-making has a great role in European urban redevelopment and to attract “creative knowledge workers”, it is important to embed such an undertaking into the historic and cultural context of a city, preventing the policy from only benefiting a particular group. Place-making policies therefore have to be consistent with the context of that place itself. In the case of urban planning, especially the topics of education, residential development and public services such as education, transport and healthcare are critical.

Place-making as is known in Europe mainly floats around the concept of “creative cities”. Such creative cities were often developed in the same period as economic growth, drawing both from it as well as contributing to. It is therefore understandable how certain policies, such as the emergence of soft, such as new consumption types in city centers, were often implemented and used during the economic growth of the 1990s onwards (Mengi et al., 2017).

However, research by the ACRE has clearly shown that there are restrictions on applying soft policies. For instance, the 2007 crisis in Europe and its effects to cities clearly demonstrated that hard techniques, also known as more classic ones, required attention in place-making as well. It was realized that soft techniques are not suitable for fostering economic recovery alone. For instance in the case of Budapest, both hard and soft techniques were combined in order to achieve the development of the creative knowledge economy. The program aims at developing creative sector companies sustainably and to increase the competitiveness of the Budapest region. Two technopolises would be created in the northern and southern part of the city with connections between education institutes, government agencies and businesses. Place-making formed a central theme in the program, with the writers assuming to increase living quality, competitiveness and social awareness. To this extent, the small ring road of the city was closed to traffic, the Budapest Transport Association was finalized, the P+R system was expanded and a common parking system was implemented. (Podmaniczky Programme 2005–2013. Budapest’s Medium-Term Development Programme, 2004). As can be seen, both hard and soft aspects were tackled in this plan to achieve the desired goals, whilst also integrating it with further urban plans.

Additionally, providing for better public services, education and spatial quality were important factors in attracting people. Spatial quality, such as nice parks, greenery and food venues were other soft factors. However, the correct upkeep of infrastructure, a hard aspect, is also critical in fostering the creative knowledge economy, as is the importance of bottom-up endeavors, which is a soft aspect. Infrastructure makes small industry stronger and small industries largely impact a place.

Place management is defined as a systematic, area based and normally multi-stakeholder approach focused on the development and branding of an area that uses the competencies and resources of individuals in the private and public sectors.

Location development is a concept involving the efforts of redesigning hard and soft factors of a place independently of brand knowledge - implying that concrete and

intangible assets are implied by a series of harmonious efforts. A bookmark is a process that consciously works to promote a place with a set of relational associations associated with the identified target.

The position as the intermediate point between the global space and the personal space of the urban space makes the city much more vulnerable to the management of the social effects resulting from the changes in the global economy while at the same time making the city very vulnerable (Keil, 2000). As urban regions grow, these elements become more difficult to manage: urban transformation of globalization urban areas are not only meaningful in terms of responsibility, but also in terms of matters that will help you determine the strength and the quality of your competitiveness and Fainstein argues that if the state reflects the claim that the inhabitants of the city can improve their lives, it must do so in context (Fainstein, 1997). The internal capitalist system of the capitalist economy and its internal and external relations, and the complex growth dynamics, present some important challenges for policy makers (Taylor P. , 2001). Taxation, labor, knowledge and technology and the spatial organization of firms and industries are the main elements of the hierarchy and advantage (competitiveness) of global cities, but competitiveness and ground quality are related to each other and management and subsequent advantage. The quality of the ground is an indispensable element in the way cities affect people and firms; for many, a successful city will be a decisive factor not only in terms of institutional profile, but also in terms of basic social and environmental well-being for all citizens (and not the elite). For this reason, four interactive and permeable elements are required to achieve.

Physical Growth; cities must have real authority against the authority to manage density, shape and design by following land use planning and progressive growth policies. This includes the capacity to develop integrated infrastructures throughout the wide urban area, particularly for water, waste, green space and transport systems. Urban areas should be able to obtain sufficient funding to strengthen and expand public transport, and to improve connectivity and coordination with other urban areas. Investing in integrated transportation in urban areas requires a proactive, strategic or long-term perspective; it requires a genuine planning perspective (strategic, proactive and forward thinking), rather than immediately reacting to urgent requests for development.

Social Quality; cities should have the authority to offer social programs tailored to the needs of the urban area. The need for societal needs is highly variable between urban realities and each must have the capacity to respond to their own reality. Social quality is

an important factor in overall floor quality. Investments from central and regional governments are important to protect and improve the integrity of social institutions and to overcome increased social costs. From a physical planning or infrastructure perspective, this element offers affordable housing, transport, education, health, green spaces, environmental quality and cultural facilities. Social qualities - cities that understand the benefits of diversity and support for strong and diversity to increase the quality of the place.

Environmental quality; cities should have the authority to protect landscapes and the environment by protecting green spaces, controlling clutter, protecting unique landscapes and protecting water, air and other natural comforts. Environmental quality also poses questions on accessibility and equality in terms of who can access the open space and who benefits from environmental qualities. It is supported by central and regional administrations but also for the urban environment in terms of environmental investments and supportive policies or regulations.

Governance; the ability and capacity to implement and guide the above elements are fundamental aspects of governance. Who should be clear about who is responsible, who is responsible and whose tax is paid and what. Income must also be accountable from a stable, diverse and local level. These are not only accountability responsibility, but also elements of pluralism, inclusion and legitimation, which define cities as collectives of citizens, not institutional assets that bear the responsibility of senior governments (Friedmann, 2002). These four elements provide a concrete framework for establishing egalitarian cities and emphasize the need for strengthened power at the level of the city. These guidelines may seem simple or even simpler than urban academics. However, it is even more important to defend simple elements that seem to show how actions at different levels of government are effectively distorting urban planning and governance.

The history of European land management, the flow and flow of dying land brands, is filled with new location brands and new, unique concepts. The rate of change of tides is accelerating. The above is an example showing the changes in priorities at the post-war period. These shifts are an important arena for space managers. A basic direction of change is obvious. The sites were managed by very low complexity presentations. However, the complexity increases over time. Another important feature of change is; in the end of intense confusion, the underlying priorities of earth development are based on difficult factors. These difficult factors are places that can be measured concrete and easily. Metrics are relatively easy; economic access to raw materials, land and labor,

buildings, transport services and basic infrastructure. When time passed hard factors led to softer factors, but not necessarily in any particular sense. Soft factors include educated opportunities such as the appearance and image of a place, the success of the workforce, the quality of schooling, public spaces and the more emotional aspects of local politics, such as the gradual overcoming of green issues.

Hard and soft factors often coexist. However, unlike hard factors, soft factors or intangible assets are more difficult to quantify. Soft factors include knowledge and management, networking, managerial capacity and hearing. In fact they are almost a sense of place - they can be defined as an abstract dimension.

At that time, the shooting factors had a very low complexity. Instead, easy-to-measure difficult factors have been given priority. This meant that successful land management was often associated with the real estate world, buildings, major or major industries, and the restructuring of transportation. In the postwar period, for this reason, the art of land management has become a malicious, practical work that focuses on the basic reconstruction of the infrastructure, the development of industrial sites and the standard settlement areas. Softer factors such as location branding, innovation, design management, cluster building, or networking are conceptualized.

Place management is in the process of making better places through programs to improve or preserve the already desired standards of a space. In other words, it is a systematic, grounded, multi-stakeholder approach focused on developing and branding the space using the competencies and resources of people in the private and public sectors.

Direct Service from the public institution on the first hand is used to see as financially inestimable and inefficient. In general, salaries and earnings are making two-thirds of an agency's budget. Employees have some administrative processes that were restricting organizations to react to altering public requests. Agency duties also limit the flexibility, and for make funding, publicly accountable some regulations are required on the other hand private companies do not have such limitations. Secondly, political thoughts should be linked. Some conservative public institutions prefer a smaller governmental organization which is costly and inefficient in operation. Liberal foundations see agencies bureaucratic, and requests for parks qualitative resources and services.

Direct service judgment of public establishment can be monopolist and the natural productivity of the stake. For example, they can not be sensitive to customers or encourage innovation.

The need for service can be considered separate from production. A public agency can supply the finances, but contract private firms for providing the service. Many American, Australian, Canadian natural resource governance agencies also offer maintenance services, institution operations, interpreters and education task and much more. The existing contract ensures a continuous review of performance and if there is need a supplemental agreement can be signed. The present discussion in the last year had a significant effect on the authority and financial management of the park through the United States. Acadia National Park is an excellent living example for this.

According to 2001 work program of Acadia (National Park Service, 2017) , financing of the park has steadily risen from 1980's, but it has not been just about sufficient to keep velocity with inflation visited, attached schedules, tasks and increased complexity of the park. The conclusion was striking and ongoing, budgetary. For example, in 2000, regularly allocated incomes calculated for 55% of the operating budget of park - the rest had to be produced alternating sources, with inclusion of user charges, donations and exclusive allowances. Unlikely, Acadia states the status of park governance agencies at all grades of management. Encountered with static or decreasing allocations and taking private sector mentality as an example, institutions have developed various coping strategies. These strategies include business plan development, marketing, pricing (user fees), customer focused ideologies, and so on. It includes more confidence in business techniques, including five management models for parks and areas.

First, at end of the public and private sector, there is a precisely public model. In this model, place management is considered to be a statutory government function that must be fully financed by taxes. Responsibility of decision maker it is subject to legislative oversight, and clearness is lawfully required. Agency finances are open to the public. Critics of the public type require paying taxes by non-parking users, and bureaucrats deficiency the motivate to manage price and are unable to answer quickly to replacing public requests. Nevertheless, the big advantages of parks, such as direct cost, containment decision or non-economic (unprofitable) goals, or the ability to make them available to the public, are the preservation of biological diversity or ecosystem unity.

Secondly, public areas can be operated in such a way that they can pay the costs of users, such as water, gas or utilities such as electricity (or all), in whole or in part (Quinn, 2002). As in the public model, public oversight and administration is required. It is a primary goal to make parks financially self-sufficient; so that the users have no control load. Some argue that wages increase productivity by making managers more responsive

to users and make agencies financially accountable while they meet their needs. Fees also have different effects. For example, they can redistribute usage over time and in other areas, and careful practices can help to overcome the volume and reduce damage to overloaded sites. However, fees are discouraging for socially vulnerable and low-income groups (More & Stevens, 2000). With the rise in prices, the remaining public money subsidies will be for those who are already in good condition. In addition, most public utilities use fees to promote the savings. The price of electricity is so high that people can turn off light when they leave the room to protect limited resources such as oil, coal or gas. Apart from certain specific places, however, the recreation outdoors is not nearly as limited as these resources, and there is also little need for conservation in the same way. Is it absolutely good for managers to react to the changing public demand, especially if the goal is far from being developed? Finally, depending on the specific case, the areas can make the parks vulnerable to fluctuations in the summer; for example, the shorter summer visit reduced the number of serious summer workers coming from the Acadia National Park, delaying further maintenance.

Outsourcing is a third management model, needs a service and its production. The public sector is financed, but private companies are competing for production rights. This contest helps to keep costs down and to create flexibility through a regular contract review. Careful outsourcing brings flexibility to the needs of public employees, a budget of the agency for salaries and wages. However, the number of people required to contract and monitor can increase. In addition, private contractors must pay profits as well as pay wages and salaries of employees. In the public system, profits can increase the total cost of reimbursement. In general, outsourcing is a "sharp pencil" problem that requires careful calculations to determine whether the public can achieve significant savings or not. Outsourcing can save agencies in the short term, but long-term results are uncertain. Private contractors often rely on poorly paid employees and benefit less from the government, which is also important.

Non-profit organizations such as nature conservation, the National Audubon Society or other state and local groups utilize a private ownership model called "the fourth management model" for parks and protected areas. Model is particularly used by like-minded people with similar interests, thus allowing them to acquire specific areas together. Non-users in this case are not taxed due to the absence of a unique role in the parent's nature (Grewell, 2004). State resources and permits are easily acquired for procurement by non-profit organizations while acquiring land in order to use in open

market. However, a problem arises in terms of feasibility since certain circumstances could lead to a price increase, in which only the richest organization would be the one to pay such high price. These circumstances could be famine and other factors. Costs must be covered by members of such organizations since those organizations should be self-financing. Since money collection is considered necessary worldwide and taxpayers are not deemed necessary, vulnerable organizations could be threatened since this makes ground for economic fraud. As a result, some close links have developed with the industry and marketing potential should be carefully monitored. Some critics argue that large US nature conservation organizations do not want to take a strong position in nature conservation because of the institutionalization of the industry itself and the fear of avoiding harmful potential donors (Frome, 2004). Some organizations could alternatively take excessive positions in order to attract membership to themselves. Instead of producing successful resolution for issues, the objective evolves into the protection organization. Frome debates the front side of today's wild conservation work should be found in rooted organizations rather than more institutional, profit-oriented organizations (Frome, 2004). Concept of "necessity" for government agencies contradicts with most of "not profit-minded" people, thus, making them unnecessary.

Buying and selling of profit-free natural districts by entirely private firms where individuals companies are the main actors are the "fifth type of management". Lack of tax loads and yield are the main advantages of this type of management. However, things get interesting when an estimation is made regarding the proportion of land to save in case of a full adoption by this system. Private markets will only be profitable due to their productivity. There are some natural districts as; they tend to be small, interesting or splendid places where entry is effortlessly managed and does not want to pay. These areas can be useful in many ways such as acting as protective areas for a natural or historical character and boost commercial activity with shops, restaurants and other places to increase profits. Occasionally larger areas can also be protected. For example, a Canadian hotel company reports "wild nature experience" in one of North America's largest and longest set up individual reserves. The facility was developed for relaxation activities every season and the entrance was expensive.

In summary; there are many variables required for the production of place, such as; infrastructure, laws, immediate surroundings, user profile, time to be used and purpose of use. Besides, the quality of the place is an event from the moment the space is being designed. There is no such thing as the construction of a place and the subsequent

qualification. This approach can not go beyond the struggle to correct only the places that are produced after the faulty or incorrect designs. As mentioned before, physical growth, social quality, environmental quality and governance are important components for quality places. The areas designed and built with these variables by taking into considerations are formed as quality place. Place quality can never be handled separately from place development and place branding. These three concepts are handle something as a whole.

3.2. Place Development

The last decades in Europe has seen a new movement trying to redefine the organizational and governmental principles of countries, metropolitan regions, cities and smaller elements. This has led to much attention to those concepts and their economic and administrative structures. Such a redefinition of the “sub-national configuration” is seen as an important tool by some to adapt to the new global economy, which is “beyond nation-states”. Here too, an “entrepreneurial” form of government is seen as the way to go instead of the more common welfare approach of the last century, allowing urban agglomerations to adapt more easily to the ever-changing world economy.

The main aim of this movement is the generation of income through new and innovative approaches to place development and the focus lies on the creation of a “knowledge economy”. According to Morgan, this is change from the older employment-focused urban approach to one which has economy and wealth at its base. Cities have to become internationally competitive and this results in small-scale and often area-specific developments that promote growth. City-regions or urban agglomerations therefore get a major role in the stimulation of this new economy on what is called a “sub-national level”. They are constant competition against other agglomerations, believing that this competition will generate more wealth and public spending is geared towards promoting this competition, rather than trying to ensure that all regions grow equally.

The main reason behind this shift is the slow dissolution of the welfare state in some areas and the increase of privatization within both public services and infrastructure, which leads to new types of private enterprise and outsourcing. This is generally referred to as the change from “government” to “governance”, showing how the governance of these private processes becomes the primary concern of the government.

Therefore, governing these processes is thought to be easier when done on an urban agglomeration scale, rather than on national scale. The distance between government and the people will drop and this will lead to a shorter route in providing services and the development of infrastructure, all the while decreasing the total efficiency losses seen with more top-down approaches on national scales. People will also become more involved in policy making than on a nation-state level and also become the main engine on which much of the “democratic renewal” in European countries will occur.

Even though this development is going on, there is no way of ensuring its continuation in its current state. Examples of the last century, for instance, show us much of the city regions or metropolitan area development plans have failed and only remained on paper. The “city region” has to become the base on which people in that place can identify themselves with as well. The further such a city region develops, the more it will start having its own place qualities, which in turn will lead to an increase in “place development” schemes. Each urban region in Europe will concur and differentiate itself, try to become economically competitive and develop its own unique set of features. Currently, cities are seen as the location of development if enough of the obstacles hampering that development are removed. However, such a general view lacks the focus on what actually generates this development, hereby resulting in a meagre place development initiative with little to no real strategy on larger scale. Such initiatives also remain more top-down in nature and are viable due to their strong base in public expenditure rather than their strong strategical qualities of their own.

Besides the top-down and often lacking nature of such methods, another issue is the level of influence economic thought has on such measures. The way of governance is being transformed from a “vertical” structure, in which different agencies are focused on different aspects of the community (e.g. social, infrastructure or environment), to one which is itself split into government levels. This means that urban regions insert themselves between the national governments and the private sector as a third actor and municipalities become the link between state and the people. This method of organization is in stark contrast to the essence of “place development” examples we have seen lately, as they have focused on the fusing of various economic, environmental and social concerns of government.

An example of environmental concerns for governments is obviously the aspect of sustainability. Not just the effect on the physical environment, but also the effect on society and their relations is a large part of such concerns. “Sustainable development” as

I know it today actually merges economic, social and environmental needs into a single, integrated whole as the urban region is by such a place where various interests and relations come together. The livability of a city and its relation with its environment are critical, with different actors being included into the development of a place strategy. The inclusion of the public is one of the reasons this movement is popular throughout (Western) Europe and will generate at least as much attention as economic development programs.

The focus on either economic or sustainable development has played a major role in Europe as can be understood from the examples. However, the notion of reducing social injustice and cultural identity, terms who are still reminiscent of the old welfare-state model, are still an important consideration as well. They have an innate connection to both economy and sustainability and include the insurance of basic living standards, an insight into various social groups and the feeling of belonging to a place within a cultural context. Essentially, however, this notion has a more national scale than the urban region models and is more reminiscent of older methods. Social innovation and well-being in the multi-ethnic and diverse cities are related to the economy and sustainability factors of those cities. In any case, the various approaches to urban regions emphasize different strengths and weaknesses of those areas and are often implemented by very different agencies without and real cohesion or cooperation between them.

One example of the unsuccessful application of place development comes from Asian countries that did achieve economic success, such as Korea, Japan or Singapore. The reliance on cheap labor power or industry did not create a “globally competitive” country like Porter et al (1984) argued. Rather, economic success was not followed by real place competitiveness in those cases, and now the same could be said of cities as well. Without proper place marketing, a city will too eventually lack behind in development. This place marketing will have to concentrate on the qualities that attract businesses and develop those in order for the whole city to develop as well. Here, the link between marketing and the development of a city is put in clear daylight, such as for promoting the industry and tourism sectors of a city. According to those marketers, a city is essentially a product that needs to be sold to the market, and therefore they treat it as such. The character and features of a place are highlighted to attract investment and the target audience can range anywhere from tourists to businessmen alike.

The effects of such “place marketers” are not just limited to economic contribution as stated before; they also have a role in developing the local education, environment and

welfare to make the place more attractive to investment. The amount of investment, such as FDI, and investor satisfaction has been an area of considerable research throughout the years. Investment not only brings economic benefits for the industry, but also attracts more people, technology, movement and money for both the urban region and the country as a whole. Place marketing on its own, however, might not have sufficient means to fully comprehend market dynamics, as for instance research by Ulaga, Shorma, Krishnan show that the interest of local businesses is often ignored by prioritizing foreign investment. This is contradicting the commonly accepted literature on place marketing, which gives a far greater role to local businesses as they are both a customer and a contributor to that place (Ulaga, Shorma, & Krishnan, 2002). They both benefit from the development of that place, but also contribute to that place on local and national level.

Recognizing this development, one could argue that place development should more importantly be concerned with the welfare of the local residents rather than pure economic success. After all, the welfare of the people will influence the economy of that region in the long run (Guhathakurta & Stimson, 2007). This stems from the belief that residents are one of the largest contributors to the social and economic development of a place. Their involvement with businesses, other citizens and tourists alike shape the character of that place greatly and also form the basis of the experience tourists have with that place. Additionally, the residents of cities themselves are maybe one of the best advertisers of it, whilst an unhappy populace will harm the branding of that place. As controlling citizens or their interactions with others is nigh impossible, ensuring citizens (“the city ambassadors”) remain happy and content is one of the best (and perhaps most difficult) way of proper place branding.

Even if managing the overall happiness of citizens is a critical step in ensuring an attractive city, research indicates that not always do unhappy citizens tend to move away from a city either (Kotler, Asplund, Rein, & Haider, 1999), for example due to family or friends who do still live there or because it is financially difficult to go in the first place. People therefore either migrate to more “successful” cities or stay there, albeit unhappy. In both cases, the city will not benefit from such an occurrence, meaning that place management has to be primarily concerned with the level of satisfaction of its people. The main issue is, however, that there is a lack of a theoretical framework which quantifies place satisfaction.

Looking at all the cases and concepts, place development seems to be connected with economic and governance factors. Governance strategies and / or approaches have a

significant impact on slowing down or speeding up of the place development process. It appears that the development is accelerated by the influence of the private sector. If there are not enough infrastructure systems and there is no development that is not in line with the plans, there can be many negative consequences. As mentioned earlier, the spaces that have shown up in order to be able to succeed in place development must be quality spaces. As a result of successful place development and place quality, place branding starts to happen spontaneously.

3.3. Marketing City and Place Branding

Arguably, the last strong urban discourse was set forth in the 1960's; the strict planning culture of its time had a well-defined goal and modus operandi. For today and future cities to become successful, Harvey argues another such clear "urban project" is required (Harvey, 1991). This new vision will have to have broad support and be actively carried by a large part of the population. One possible way of creating this new "urban project" could be by using "city marketing". By developing marketing strategies for cities, areas can be promoted and cities can be "sold" as amenities.

Market strategies rely greatly on both a good strategy and a view beyond the local site. City strategies could be a great way of implementing such an overarching vision and allow us to think on what kind of a city we want for the future, what kind of redevelopment is required. How can visions on the city be applied to a marketing strategy and how will they form our cities? Dialogue between public authorities, the public and private enterprise form a critical role in this construct and the importance of it will be explained below.

First of all, marketing a city has not been well documented and relies often on strategies imported from goods marketing, which in turn has not always been proven effective on cities. Often, marketing experiments were only kept at an ad hoc level of management maturity and stayed there. Besides this, there is a certain difficulty in applying marketing strategies to cities due to their inherently different character and context. How the eventual city marketing process will turn out is therefore still debatable and only time will tell us of its success.

The leadership role of the private sector in urbanization is also one factor which has still not materialized clearly. For instance, public involvement is always still necessary

and many private owners are often hesitant to initiate development if the gains are long-term. Even if development happens, owners and developers will often not be satisfied to the same extent. Due to the gap between acquiring short-term gains for the private sector and long-term development for the common good, the public sector often has to subsidize the private sector in some manner, as is often the case. Only in a few examples has the private sector started urban redevelopment, as often landmark developments are initiated by public instances to for instance increase the total value of an area through external stimuli. The public instances are also needed to coordinate local developments to the larger urban marketing attempt.

Unlike products, urban areas do not have an end-life; rather, city areas are deemed to be at the end of its life if the “activities within them cannot be sustained”. Different developments and investments which contributed to the development of that region all leave their traces in “urban layers” (Massey, 1984). For instance, many cities developed from “production bases” to “consumption bases” in the 80’s, with a consumption-oriented development as well. This particular layer was in contrast with many CBD’s, where a financial base was created with an emphasis on services such as media and arts. The old “trick” of generating income through attracting production-based facilities is not a feasible method anymore. As globalization increases and companies can move across borders easier than ever before, there is a great risk of large investments shifting swiftly as well, leaving urban regions at the hands of the private sector.

Due to the risks of such shifts, such as from great industries or market chains, cities have tried to engage in a dialogue with private enterprises as well to various degrees. From the perspective of cities, the more diverse an urban economy is, the more stable and secure it will be. The varied industry and commercial activities will always make a city an attractive place for investment (Worpole, 1991). This diversity in urban economics was advocated by Jacobs back in the 60’s as cities were seen as an important aspect of the total economy. By matching labor supply to expectations of the market and creating urban regeneration, a city is able to keep reinventing itself and adapt to changing market situations; in fact, diversity should be an important part of any marketing strategy for cities and its planning. If cities can create “flagship developments”, which stimulate and create innovation, they will snowball to create more jobs and eventually more wealth. As Worpole notes, innovation is required and can more easily be controlled by local governments rather than national ones (Worpole, 1991).

To lead this continuous trend of innovation, authorities need to be actively involved. Only then can the private sector engage in profitable activities, innovate, develop, sustain and contribute to the urban economy with competitive advantages. Firstly, this requires local authorities to attain a more entrepreneurial role rather than a managerial role. Secondly, the effects of local developments with the private sector will have to increase the authority of local governments over cities as well. As governance is a task-oriented body, trying to create large flagship projects is an excellent way of creating new development. It is important, however, to keep in mind that the focus on a place should not overshadow the attention to the societal effects in that area. By such, marketing will not only be used for generating economic prosperity, but also tackling other issues in that area.

As can be seen from the earlier paragraphs, the applicability of marketing strategies on urban areas was discussed. Ashworth and Voogh propose to look at marketing concepts from another perspective as well, namely the concept of “marketing position” (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). By determining a matrix, the transferability problem of a concept is overcome and any activities in an area are never denied. The matrix assumes that the scope of a concept is given whilst no new type of activity is excluded. However, the focus is on generic activities “that will be mutually reinforcing”. The writers described three scales of operation: the project, the area and the city.

The theory on market position was designed to still hold sensitivity to the urban context and its societal context, whilst acting as a guideline at the proper scale. They recall that, what makes a flagship project distinct, is its influence it will have on its surroundings, both in an economic sense but also in a societal one. If the flagship is able to generate more wealth than by economic measures alone, the flagship will have attained an “advertising role” as well, called passive promotion.

An important aspect to note is that marketing should not be reduced to simple slogan and a product that is not able to live up to it; this is often the case with “pragmatic management”. This management method means that financial situations easily affect the total decision-making, whilst its interdisciplinary character can lead to a “lack of understanding”, whilst the idea of sales is often regarded as a “dirty” business often linked to marketing. In this system, there is a great risk of “hypes”, in which the reputation of an area or product is greatly emphasized and boasted with an eventual risk of not living up to it.

An important aspect of any marketed item is to achieve customer repeatability after an initial sell, the customer satisfaction should be high enough to encourage people to buy that product once again. This falls in range with the Levitt: “the purpose of a business is to create and keep a customer” (Levitt, 1983). The success of a flagship project will therefore also have to be regarded in the light of this factor; as we know, many products –and cities too- have failed to gain this level of customer repeatability.

The two main axes, the vertical being dominant culture consisting of economic base and diversity, technological and infrastructure provision, social composition with labor market size, skills and potential and finally the use of free time and consumption patterns.

These three elements are formed by three dominant cultures. These dominant cultures can either be “ideal types” or guidelines, but additionally the market position will not place an area in its historical “position”, as the city might have a goal of diversification. However, to actually create change a city from one position to another will need much more input to successfully carry this out.

The culture is mainly an element of “service provision”. Any activity on the other hand will be designed to solve issues and use generic skills in particular situations. Change is always slow and can rock back and forth, but it will often show more stability than what might happen in reality. For instance, losing a competitive advantage will be bad, but some inertia will prevent it from happening overnight. However in the reality of today’s flexible, service-based economy, whilst in a classic “Fordist economy” this might have been the case. Furthermore, the model assumes that a greater degree of specialist skills will lead to an increased amount of adaptation, resulting in more economic stability when growing, but without a particular advantage in the case of recession; this is especially the case in situations where “white-collar jobs” are made redundant. Finally, the service culture category also encompasses the service sector, which has been promoted strongly throughout much of the western world in the last half of the last century.

Furthermore, the dominant culture model can be seen at two distinct levels; the flagship development is seen as an entity of its own, based on the building type. The second level is that of the geographic orientation -namely the scale of the area- and as it is more important, it forms the horizontal axis of the whole chart as well. Important here is what the reach of this project will be, “how far its influence will be and how far sales will occur”. If this only concerns the immediate surroundings of the development, the orientation is called “local”. However, depending on the reach desired, the orientation

can also be regional, national or international case, with the latter one containing an obvious “integration into a network of decision making and activity”.

The most compelling trend found in literature is noted in some articles discussing the usage of branding to integrate, guide and focus place management. Using concepts from especially corporate branding, the usage of central branding concepts for place branding is analyzed (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005) and either a general framework for developing and managing place brands or the usability of branding tools for city branding is examined (Trueman, Klemm, & Giroud, 2004). The usability of branding tools for city branding focuses on using corporate branding tools and specific methods and will be examined below. Place branding can also be seen in place management (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005), with three main branding types that can be distinguished. Although they are vastly different and are used for various objectives, they are often confused in literature. The first is geographical nomenclature, the second product-place co-branding and the third branding as place management. Geographic nomenclature names a product for a geographic location without the deliberate attempt to link that place and its attributes to the product. Co-branding of product and place associates a product to a location, but now by also using the image of the place to bolster the brand. Place branding can also be seen as being place management, as place management depends on changing the perception of a place by certain user groups. For instance, “...urban renewal includes the creation of an identity with its own experiential value, which is profoundly original and uncopiable. This touches upon such points as structure, programming, functions, the sort of actions and activities that characterize the image of the city, events and in the last resort the chemistry of the people who operate there” (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Thus, the aim is to create a recognizable place identity and use it for other purposes, such as getting investments, changing user behavior or for political gain. It is also a more complex and different method than plainly creating place images in place management, showing a more comprehensive view of place branding.

However, not everyone adopts the view of Bran and Zenker. Due to the complexity and large range of trends within the subject, various trends have developed throughout the years that do not agree with the definition used in this thesis (Zenker & Braun, 2010). The two most common ones are called “Place of Origin Branding” and “Nation Branding”, all with their respective literature and methodology to approach the subject in a different manner, but with an underlying base within the marketing sphere. The other

theories include “Destination Branding”, “Culture/Entertainment Branding” and “Integrated Place branding”.

The first opposing theory, Place of Origin Branding, has a very large literature base and originates in marketing goods by utilizing their place of origin. The place of origin is related to the product using various commonly known images and scenes from the place of origin and relies on a more stereotypical depiction of that location to market the product. However, on its own, this strategy focuses on product, not on places, and therefore has little to commend in the realm of place management or place branding.

The second opposing theory, Nation Branding, has a similar approach to the subject, but instead of marketing products, it advertises countries similar to a product. The marketing emphasizes qualities of the country and tries to attract tourism or investment, but has generally been developed by marketing consultants who do not possess the broader vision or means to turn this into a whole branding strategy.

Returning to the first theory of Place of Origin Branding, it is important to note that much of such branding is done without the use of “national identity literature” but rather with more stereotypical methods, even though many people generally associate places thanks to socio-cultural perceptions of that country. It is therefore even more noteworthy that research by Jaffe and Nebenzahly demonstrates that buying products associated with countries only affects the perception of that country marginally, disputing the often-recognized notion that products from a country affect the country-of-origin understanding under consumers (Jaffe & Nebensahl, 2006). Their research showed that not only the product, but more importantly experiences with that country, such as visits to it, affected people more (Gnoth, 2002). Gnoth furthers his research findings by acknowledging the importance of tourism services to generate “a tourism destination brand”, which in turn would contribute to the larger country brand. Although Gnoth’s research is an early attempt at discretizing a theory on place brands, but place brands should be considered in a larger context than tourism alone (Gnoth, 2002). Additionally, tourism and nation-branding can also bring limits to the larger branding operation of a country, such as with the example of the Royal Bank of Scotland, in which the Scottish nation-brand could not be associated with the company’s own image (Hope, 2016).

Taking such a consideration into account, other aspects of culture such as movies, books and films are also an important part of nation branding, even though they too are widely unaccounted for in country-of-origin branding or place branding.

In any case, however, the main goal of nation branding has generally been to further the tourism sector in that respective country. Some have even argued that treating the whole “foreign image” of a country should be considered a nation branding endeavor.

The third branding discussed here is “Destination Branding” and is probably the theory that has been most popular and the one scrutinized most in the realm of branding tourist destinations. The basic concept of Destination Branding lies in the realization that places are visited due to images that people have of them, and are evaluated on whether they live up to that image or not when visited. Hankinson, who realized the lack of a theoretical base for place branding independent of classic product branding, contributed to this theory in large. His research focused on the branding of cities for the purpose of tourism destinations. Research of Brent-Ritchie and Ritchie on the other hand also stress the importance of a wholesale and coordinated branding operation for places, requiring various stakeholders to develop a complete place brand (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998).

The fourth type of branding is known as “Culture/Entertainment Branding” and is widely concerned with the influence of “soft” branding types (culture, entertainment) on both the physical and social aspects of cities. The growing importance of tourism and the cultural/entertainment industry in today’s economy was the main reason for the development of this theory and has been in wide use ever since. However, this type of branding has been furthered also by its usage in city planning and urban design, such as with the effects of important “landmark structures” for the branding of a whole city.

The final type of branding is “Integrated Place Branding” and has generally been used in order to channel place management. Drawing up from a variety of branding disciplines, of which most notably corporate branding, the main aim of this type of branding is to develop central branding concepts for place branding for either place branding or city branding purposes. The implementation of corporate branding in order to develop place branding is therefore known as integrated place branding.

Due to ever-increasing globalization, place branding has been developing as well. The rise of media, global tourism, consumerism, immigration, cultural exchange and easy travel options have made place branding more than just a marketing tool, but also a necessity to stay competitive in an international market. The flexibility and adaptability of the market and the more free exchange of goods and services also means that businesses and government agencies have grown to accept branding as a natural part of their planning strategies, much like companies have been doing for their own products.

An effect of this globalization, namely the movement of capital and labor to more opportune places, results in a process in which newly popular places and the more classic destinations start to compete as there is a real risk of drain from one place to another. Because of this, place managers have realized the necessity of place brands in order to secure the economic, social and political strength of places. Most notably has this been in the field of tourism, where place branding already has a large scientific foundation to put out from. This tourism branding started back in the 1970's, when Hunt developed much on tourism development theory. This eventually culminated in the 1998 topic of the Annual Travel and Tourism Research Association Conference as "branding theories within the context of leisure tourism". There, a definition for destination branding was also developed and. The main of this destination branding was to use the gains of tourism to increase economic development in other areas as well, as tourism marketing is the place where branding is used most often. The term destination can refer to any scale in this context (country, region, city, etc.) and allows for the development and increase in tourist activity within that particular area.

As can be seen from destination branding, all effort is focused around "place". However, destination branding on its own also has the potential to be a leading concept in the societal development of an area, thereby surpassing the more basic reach of Destination Management Organization. Place branding is by such becoming an overarching term including economic, social, historical and political aspects and has the potential to become a single industry of its own (Dinnie, 2004). In fact, different definitions of place branding already hint at the multidimensional character of the subject. Furthermore, the various aspects that can be experienced within a place and the way in which "everyday texts" are experienced all affect the total place brand. This is why various sub-forms of place branding have developed, such as business tourism, culture and gastronomy, sports and finally film, literature and music.

As previously mentioned, marketing techniques formed the base of various types of branding. The usage of these techniques comes from two different areas; the first from a theoretical perspective and the second from an administrative one.

The first trend is a more theoretical one generally seen with non-profit organizations (Barke, 1999). The theoretical background was first developed by Kotler and Levy, who argued that the application of marketing theory was not just limited to goods and services in classic terms and should be regarded in a broader spectrum in their text "Broadening of Concept of Marketing" (Kotler & Levy, 1969). Additionally, three developments can

be linked to the emergence of theoretical place marketing (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990); non-profit marketing, social marketing and image marketing. These three developments not only contributed to the scope of place branding, but also more importantly channeled the minds away from the classic, far narrower scope that marketing initially had. Especially image marketing was widely adopted by urban administrators, who also lay at the foundation of the second trend in marketing.

This second trend was not a theoretical like the first one, but rather one that was created by various urban administrators to combat the negative effects of a changing urban economy. They recognized that traditional economic systems in cities were declining and that a new structure was imperative in order to keep cities adapt to both changing times and new managements. The industry and tax revenue was decreasing, which led to lower public spending and a dissolution of the “mass industrial culture”. Together with neo-liberal tendencies, this created a blend of private enterprise, low market control and marketing using visual images. This “entrepreneurial style” of urban development meant that cities, too, were treated like companies and that they started to behave like one (Harvey, 1991).

Company-like behavior eventually meant the usage of marketing as well, ranging from simple advertising to wholesale marketing strategies. However, what exactly had to be marketed remained an area of discussion as traditional marketing not always applies to places, as neither does treating everything as a marketable good. Due to this issue, some researchers proposed a “geographical marketing mix”, in which promotional measures, spatial/functional measures, organizational measures and financial measures would be combined in a manner appropriate to an area in order to get effective city marketing (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). One example by Kotler et al give us insight into what gives cities the edge in city marketing: design, infrastructure, base services and attractions.

Besides this hypothetical approach, however, investigating how urban administrators actually used city marketing was also investigated by researchers. Hubbard and Hall, for instance, claim that in order for a city to become a consumption entity, certain policies need to be adopted: advertising, arts, large events, cultural revitalization and public-private partnerships. In any case, it is clear that proper place marketing and branding does not come by implementing small advertisements or unrelated policies, but by creating a complete “strategy of communication”.

In summary, branding is a concept that when the products produced by the private sector are mass produced. It comes to exist as a result of market strategies. With the globalization and private sector investment in public spaces, public spaces and private spaces have started to become brands. This change is in the form of branding within cities or within the country. Applied across the country or city scale projects which create opportunities branding. The quality of a product and the success of the production process position oneself to do for the branding of the product. The fact that a space is produced in high quality and this process is part of a successful development process, it ensures the space is also of good quality.

CHAPTER 4

PLACE MANAGMENT CASES

4.1. Berlin's Potsdamer Platz

Berlin's Potsdamer Platz is an example for problems about architectural judgement, time, management and political issues. It was first a five-corner crossroads just near the Potsdamer Tor, one of 14 city gates of Berlin. Opening of Berlin Potsdam Railway Station in 1838 transformed it into a cargo transshipment point, making it a very busy square. Foundation of German Empire in 1871 accelerated its growth leading to many constructions of large buildings. Due to economical development of Berlin, many famous hotels were opened here in a few years, “Grand Hotel Bellevue”, “Palast Hotel”, “Fuerstenhof”, and the “Esplanade”.

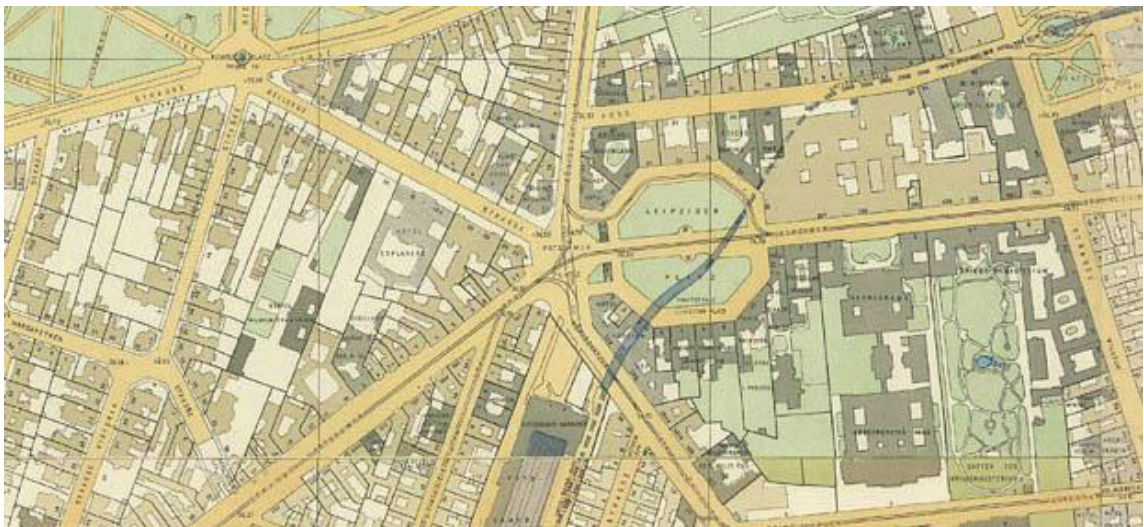


Figure 4.1. Potsdamer Platz in 1910 (Source: Stadtentwicklung, 2017)

Its contradictory monumental and provisional architecture reflects its history full of conflicts, like between official and popular urban definition, between local and world politics, between corporate architecture and local community. It has a special place in German politics and architecture. While Brandenburger Tor was the place for celebrations of achievement, Potsdamer Platz was related with risk and failure. It was like a Utopia of

desire and fear, of power and powerlessness, coming out of nowhere, not being planned. It was like negative image of formal, baroque “Leipziger Platz” which was located inside the city gate. Its boundaries were indistinct, both in time and in space. It was like a transition from one place to another, from one time to another.



Figure 4.2. Potsdamer Platz in 1945 (Source: Stadtbild-Deutschland, 2017)

After World War II, it became an abandoned place in the “death strip” of Berlin Walls. It was like frozen until the world proletarian revolution. Although it no longer existed, it became an attraction place for tourists. They viewed Potsdamer Platz over Berlin Wall from the Western side. Only after the wall was torn down, the perceived image of Potsdamer Platz changed. But still while Brandenburger Tor was the place to celebrate reunification of the states, Potsdamer Platz was place for political and architectural debates. These debates were heightened after the decision of moving capital from Bonn to Berlin.

Before First World War, Potsdamer Platz was disapproved as a “nightmare of metropolitan modernity”. But in 1920's it was praised as topline part of Berlin who was claimed to be “New York” of Europe. The first control tower in all Europe, rapid transit train, underground, many tram and bus lines, more than 20,000 cars crossing the square, and Erich Mendelsohn’s “Columbus Haus” in Potsdamer Platz supported this claim and represented the modernity of Germany.

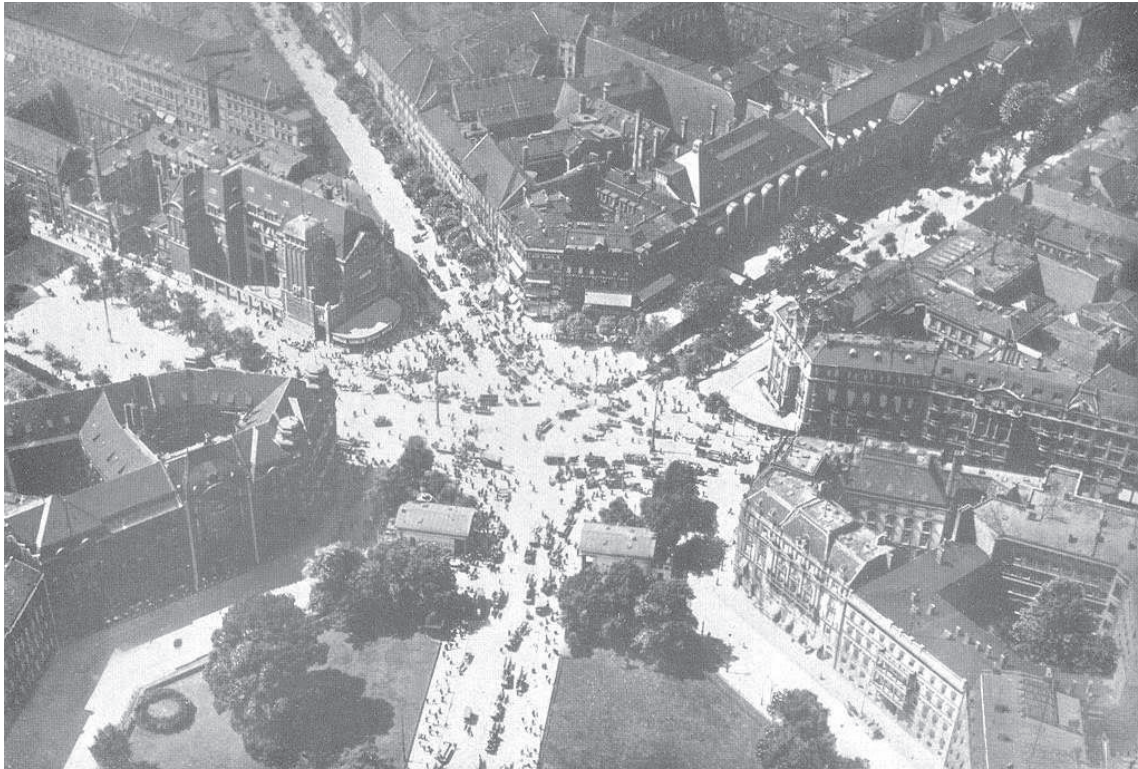


Figure 4.3. Potsdamer Platz at the end of the 19th century (Source: Skyscrapcity, 2017)

New Objectivity replaced Classicism while the city became middle class entertainment center besides being center for residency and offices. 1920s in Berlin was marked by “Haus Vaterland” or the “Ufa-Filmpalast” and the “Europa-Tanz-Pavillon”. For example in one of the restaurants in “Haus Vaterland”, namely Rheinterrassen, there were shows of artificial thunderstorms, lightnings and rain.

During WWII, the square was almost completely destroyed, with the remainings forming a triangular border between Soviet, British and American sectors. The border was simply a line on the ground until introduction of the German Mark in the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) mainly by USA and Britain and the onset of the Berlin Blockade by Soviet Union in June 1948. Uprisings in 17th June 1953 increased the tension and during those uprisings the buildings that were rebuilt after WWII were burned down again. This ravage followed by political conflicts made the region an abandoned place for many years.

With the rise of Berlin Wall in 1961, Potsdamer Platz became part of the border zone. Almost all the buildings were ruined. The remainings of the buildings including Prinz-Albrecht-Palais, the Vox-Haus, the Natural History Museum, the Haus Vaterland and the railway station “Anhalter Bahnhof” on the western side was bought and carried away by

Berlin Senate. Potsdamer Platz was the widest region in “death strip” (the area between the Berlin Walls).

When the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) government announced on 9 November 1989 that all East German citizens could visit West Germany and West Berlin, the square became focus of interest. Just a few days later, a large section of the wall was broken down at Potsdamer Platz region. Shortly after the wall opened, the area between Potsdamer and Pariser Platz hosted one of the largest rock concerts, The Wall by Roger Waters, surrounded by the remaining parts of the Berlin Wall.

Soon after the the re-occupation of Potsdamer Platz, squatters arrived the region, constructing temporary houses like homesteads. It was just like the months after WWII where the land was used to grow vegetables. But soon these unofficial dwellings were removed. *“They nevertheless represented one possible future of the place, the occupation of the border territory by alternative, anarchic communities whorefused to participate in the political structures of the Republic and who constructed for themselves a provisional anarchitectural environment”* (Scott, 1997)

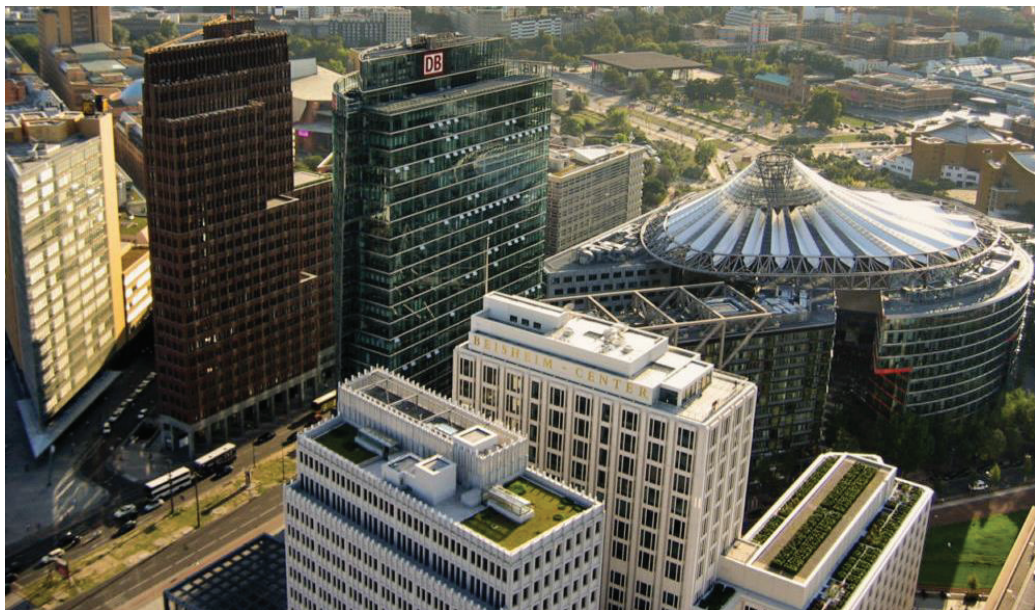


Figure 4.4. Aerial view of the area shows the Sony Center (back right) and the green roofs on nearby buildings (Source: Greenroof, 2017)

Potsdamer Platz quickly became the largest urban construction site of Europe under four subprojects, each being assigned to its individual management. “Infobox” at Leipziger Platz from where the tourists and Berliners could follow the progress itself became a tourist attraction. The tunnel segments of Federal Highway 96, Underground

Line 3, and the Intercity Railway Station were built under the square, being an example for complex building an entirely new city centre.

After the joining of East Germany to West Germany, the lands of Potsdamer Platz started to be sold and Potsdamer Platz became Europe's largest urbanization site of the 1990s. The north-western site with approximately 27,000 m² area became Sony Center including a cinema, a film museum, offices, apartments, and flats as well as Sony's European headquarters. Potsdamer Platz with approximately 70,000 m² area is limited by Deutsche Bahn (DB) station and DB's tall building in the west and buildings designed by Renzo Piano and Christoph Kohlbecker in the south.



Figure 4.5. Pieces of the Berlin Wall at Potsdamerplatz (Source: Columbia University, 2017)

After 1991, many competitions in accordance with the Masterplan of the city shaped the corporate centres of Daimler-Benz, Asea Brown (Boveri) and Sony, improving Potsdamer Platz. The buildings and their “international” architects are as follows:

- Sony Centre, building to commence; Helmut Jahn (Chicago)
- Office Block for Daimler-Benz; Arata Isozaki (Tokyo)
- Housing and Offices for Daimler-Benz; Richard Rogers Partnership (London)

- Service Centre for Daimler-Benz ; Renzo Piano (Milan)
- Offices and Housing; Hans Kollhoff (Berlin)

But all these building were adding to loss of historical memory.

Potsdamer is once again a popular place hosting high-class entertainment, shopping, restaurants and business centres supported by being transport hub for underground, rapid transit train and railway. Its varied architecture, interesting history, cultural events and close location to other touristic places attracts many tourist from Germany and the rest of the world, 100,000 visitors a day.

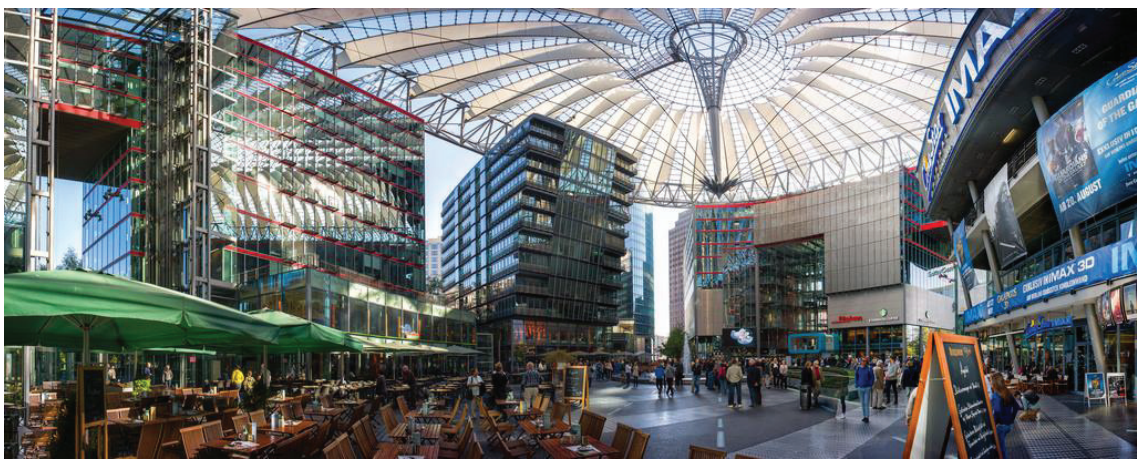


Figure 4.6. Sony Center in Potsdamer Platz (Source: Staticflickr, 2017)

4.2. High Line Project

High Line begins at Gansevoort Street in the Meatpacking District on the western side of Lower Manhattan and continues northward until Chelsea and cycles around Hudson Yards from 30 to 34th Street. Originally built at the beginning of the 1930s, trains over the streets did not like the shadows they had carried on the adjacent streets; As a result, the High Line was built in the middle of a block of large industrial buildings. (Lopate, 2011)

Improved and built in three parts between 2006 and 2014, the High Line has become one of New York's main attractions, attracting more than six million visitors a year. The park is also a magnet and a viewing platform for interesting architecture and design solutions, including a hotel that bridges the High Line, an unusually styled series of housing transformations, an unforgettable design for the relocated Whitney Museum. A wonderful variety of unusual residential and commercial facades that are seldom very close to each other.



Figure 4.7. High Line in 1940's (Source: New York City Travel, 2017)

The idea that two neighbors was not the development of the park, not a curious developer or a far-sighted urban planner, wanted to get rid of the road viaduct. In 1999, two people planned for demolition set up "Friends of the High Line", a non-profit organization to save history and turn it into a greener green. The success of the park created a 'High Line Effect' with the city administrations in the US and many countries trying to duplicate this model. The article follows the history of the High Line and explores the materials needed for success to the pre-existing conditions of design and development, financing and governance.

The combination of citizens' participation, city planning and famous support saved the High Line. High Line's colleagues organized an excellent marketing campaign with a highly competing idea competition, including an exhibition that serves to raise awareness at Grand Central Station. Later, the design contest teams' preliminary design work was exhibited at the Museum of Modern Art.



Figure 4.8. Aerial View, from West 30th Street, looking South toward the Statue of Liberty and the World Trade Center site. (Source: Baan, 2017)

The High Line members succeeded in turning these campaigns into reality because they staged, attracted special funds from fellow and other well-intentioned New Yorkers, supported the City Council, and eventually convinced the Bloomberg administration. The proposed High Line provides greater benefits through a study of how increased tax revenues are increasing the costs created by the high real estate values surrounding the park will exceed the cost.

Federal railbanking legislation was an essential part in the conversion of the High Line into a park, besides political support. In the 1980 Rail to Trail program, unused rail

tracks are preserved by putting them in a “rail bank” so they can be reused later, allowing it to be a park as long as its unused. The High Line is the first example of such a project in a dense urban setting and its conversion was supported from the start by its owner company. In 99’ the Regional Plan Association investigated possible usage scenarios for the High Line, including the implementation of the aforementioned Rail to Trail program. The owner of the railway donated it to the city as it was keen on getting rid of it, making it the first repurposed rail viaduct in the USA. It follows the example of the Promenade Plantée in Paris, which was the first in the world of its kind and built in 1993, but has become more renown than the Paris example due to its unique characteristics and success. The city was preparing for the demolition of the demolished high freight line of the railroad that ran through Chelsea and West Village neighborhoods from Gansevoort Avenue to 34th Avenue, in 1999. The residents of the area had another idea. Local residents Joshua David and Robert Hammond were quickening that they were determined to rescue the huge part of the urban infrastructure and later belonged to the railway giant CSX Transportation Inc. Policy-related and media-sensitive safeguard specialists have established Friends of the High Line (David & Hammond, 2011).

Worked on the high railway and eventually took it to the struggle to turn it into a linear park. This involves converting the trail of a federal program to "railroad banking" that allows the demolition to stop, transfer property to the CSX, change the direction of the railways and switch to using the primary mixed use. In many respects the duo was ideal for the task. West Village residents Hammond, Texas native Indians San Antonio, Elizabeth Barlow Rogers as family-friendly.

Central Park Conservancy managers have advised both to plan for future operations and maintenance, not just for building a new park. John Alschuler, head of real estate consulting HR & A Consultants, reiterated this recommendation when David and Hammond asked the city authorities in 2002 how best to conduct the case. Alschuler, former manager and manager of Santa Monica, California, specializes in urban development and public / private partnerships. The analysis of HR and A showed that income from property, sales and income taxes resulting from the transformation would exceed the cost of the city to protect the viaduct. He says that the company behind the railway line argued to the government that investing in a park and open spaces would eventually bring more financial benefits due to increased property tax revenue, increased sales tax revenue and increased income tax revenue (David & Hammond, 2011). This could amount to three or four times of what the park cost initially.

Alschuler maintained the chairmanship of the High Line of Friends group for five years, and the group gave seven years of advice. It could express a greater civilian purpose for enterprise and public / private sector partnerships in general. According to Alschuler; a governing principle in the USA has always been the concept of public-private partnerships, in which private investment works with the government. The New York subway is an example, as it was built by private capital. The same is true for railroads around the region. In fact, the USA and its urbanism has always been founded on the cooperation between private and public.

When Mayor Bloomberg began his referendum in 2002, his hopes for the High Line increased, Bloomberg support. In contrast to Salafi Mayor Giuliani, Bloomberg viewed the project as an integral part of Manhattan's September 2001 terrorist attacks and considered it as a complement to the economic development plans of the former World Trade Center. The mayor's office decided to pursue the idea of an overhead park.

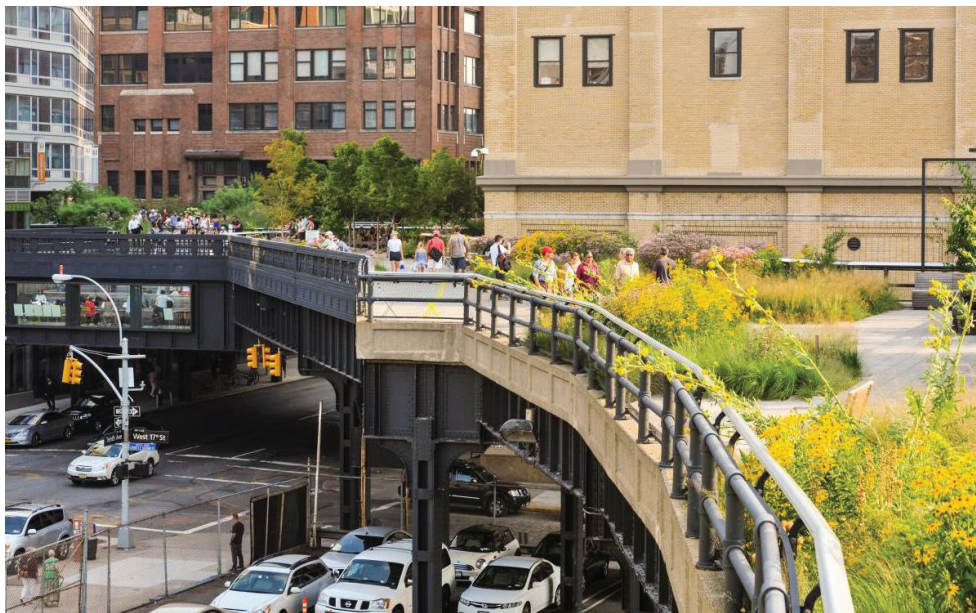


Figure 4.9. High Line and Traffic road (Source: The Official Guide, 2017)

Friends of the High Line attracted the attention of the viaduct potency community as a sponsor of a contest for wild design ideas, in 2003. The winning application was a 1.7 km lap pool, the runner roller coaster. In 2004 a serious design competition followed. The winners were landscape architects and urban designers James Corner Field Operations and Diller Scofidio + Renfro architects. James Corner, project manager and landscape architect. The design competition held on ideas for the High Line were a great example

to challenge people to think on the issue according to James Corner. The main aim was to get ideas rolling and try and get the most out of the possibilities of the project.

A few precedents for a hill park were there. The design team, Promenade Plantee in Paris, visited one of the 1980's for a high railway line to become a park. True, the Paris railway line was a vaulted wall structure, as opposed to the lighter steel construction of the High Line.

In addition, a neighborhood / urban development company realized the French operation. Less private ownership was involved. But as the director of James Corner, Lisa Switkin, recalled, the French project showed what was possible.

In 2005, Special West re-booked the region to create the Chelsea region. From the 16th Street on the West Side to the 30th Street between 10th Street and 11th Street, this area was mostly constructed for light industrial and commercial use. Western Chelsea's reunification allowed for a mix of housing, commerce and some manufacturing (for art galleries). The contract was awarded for the subdivision of the development rights of property located in or near the High Line easement on 10th and 11th. Transshipment means that proprietors of private property, where they could build their private property under the viaduct before the destruction, could benefit by selling their development rights in the 10th and 11th years to developers who want to build on top of what was originally allowed.

Reorganization included a bonus: A large number of property owners at the end of the High Line between the West 16th and West 19th streets could build more than the allowed zoning area for a fee. Additional money would go to a High Line Development Fund for facilities such as elevators, stairs and public toilets. The \$ 50 fee per square meter was well below the market rate in the neighborhood, which could reach hundreds of dollars per square meter. Developers have the advantage to expand. Chelsea Market, for example, convinced the authorities to persuade the boundaries of the south and east of the division to include their properties; so the bonus incentive could be increased. The Town Planning Commission approved the expansion of Chelsea Market in favor of affordable housing in nearby public housing and a roughly one-third of \$ 19 million in bonus spending on educational programs.

These measures have opened up the possibility that the whole of the hope will generate enough additional tax revenue to offset the cost of the city for the renewal of the rising shipping line all together.

In short, the creation of the High Line is described as a successful public-partnership between Friends of the High Line and the City government. The founders of the Friends group were residents of the area wanting to save the rail structure, not professionals. They wanted to make the rail accessible to the public, allowing them to think beyond the developers, as they generally do not think beyond the confinements of their own properties or legal issues in the case of city agencies. Even so, the park would not have been realized without the city government as the city council was one its first supporters. The council prevented the destruction of the railway and was influential enough to overturn this decision instead towards reusing it. Finally, the city allowed the Friends of the High Line group to create the plans they desired for the High Line and was supportive of its endeavor.

4.3. Bryant Park Project

In the center of Manhattan and besides the New York Public Library, Bryant Park was constructed in 1911 as a place where office workers of high-rise buildings could relax. By the 1970's however, Bryant Park had lost its former glory and had become a place for drugs and other criminal activity due to bad maintenance by the City Parks Department (Garvin & Berens, 1997). Because of this, the park was overhauled in 1980 to become one of the most bustling and beloved spaces of New York today.

The “renewed Bryant Park” came into its current state in the last twenty years in conjunction with the development of the Bryant Park Business Improvement District. Initially, the development and first works of the Bryant Park Restoration Corporation (BPRC), often funded by donations, can be explained with the refined model. As the BPRC took more of both final and fiscal responsibilities from the government, the costs of Bryant Park also reduced. By doing so, management quality costs and donation efficacy monitoring could be reduced, stimulating the remaining demand to be forwarded to the BPRC.

Created in 1980, the BPRC was a non-profit organization (NPO) that centralized both the park's management and financial tasks. The renovation of the library was rejected by the Rockefeller Brothers Fund unless the park itself would be renovated as well. Therefore, the BPRC was created by the Library Chairman in order to organize this effort,

putting at the head a recently graduated business school student. Partial funding of the BPRC was then done by using a BID.

After agreeing with New York City, the BPRC took the role of renovating Bryant Park. Funded by public, private and charity sources the restoration took over seventeen million dollars, with the City and private sector contributing equally to its restoration. However, the BID itself did not generate enough to commence restoration on its own; it had to rely on external sources in order to do that.



Figure 4.10. Bryant Park Plan (Source: Contillo, 2017)

The way the BPRC was structured and went to work complies with the refined model's focus on responsibility and made it possible to both reduce financial burdens and work better than government control. This is firstly because the BPRC had the ability to control both the finances and the management of the park fully and secondly because the BPRC received guarantees from New York City regarding its contributions to the park's renovation. However, as the BPRC was a BID, the donations to it were often more of tax nature than actual, willingly-given donations.

The transfer of all control of the park to the BPRC was completed in 1985, allowing the BPRC "*the exclusive license and privilege to operate and manage the Park*" and "*maintaining the Park in good, clean and orderly condition*". However, this right was given after having seen the financial success of the BPRC and allowed the BPRC to also

employ its park workers independently from New York City. This, however, also meant the park's maintenance such as sanitation, landscaping and security.

After attaining the financial responsibility of the park, the BPRC was able to successfully implement much flexibility. For instance, labor unions and their additional costs were avoided by allowing temporary kiosks that would not fall into such a category. The BPRC was also able to get rid of kiosks that were operating below expectation easily and also created special areas where children and mothers could more easily come to.

The BPMC furthermore also allowed for its supporters to decide on where funds would be allocated to. The venue was split into four classes that had a saying on the allocation, including the owners, commercial businesses, residents and BPMC officers. The Board of Directors always has a majority of property owners, as they have a financial interest in the whole ordeal. Of course, the Board itself meets only twice a year for very short periods, making the whole endeavor rather short, but by having the final saying in funds allocation the Board still has the ability to ensure that the interests of the supporting parties are fulfilled.

Eventually, the Bryant Park transformed itself from an NPO based on donations to one based on commerce. The currently examined theory does not allow for such a shift, but this does not make the model less relevant. As with both donative and commercial NPO's, both are watched on their effective management and expenditure of funds.

This change from donations to commercial can be seen in the funding of the BID. In 1987, the funding was nearly completely by the government. In 1992, this was reduced to forty percent and even reduced to ten percent by 2007. On the contrary, the market share contribution was around ten percent when the park opened and had risen to over seventy percent in 2007.

This shift from a donation-based body to a commercial one has added more tasks to the BPRC as well. The management has become accountable and revenues are of critical importance. Until now, the BPRC has had growth in profits though, showing that its management has been effective. Another indicator, the amount of events in the park, also increased greatly from five requests annually to over ten per day.

Besides these factors, other indicators also show the success of the park's commercialized management. Usage rate during lunchtime, for instance, has increased over four times between the 70's and the 00's. In fact, the usage is so high that during peak usage, over 900 persons/acre use the park, becoming the "most densely used public space on the planet". Consistently with these figures, the crime rate in Bryant Park has

also decreased. Crime rates reduced from 150 annual robberies in the 70's to less than one in the 90's. The crime rate eventually even decreased so much that New York police reduced its officer amount there.



Figure 4.11. Bryant Park (Source: Courtesy Bryant Park, 2017)

As can be seen from the aforementioned figures, the “commercialization” of Bryant Park was successful. The additional input from market and responsibility to its owners, who have financial interest in the park, has made the BPRC more successful.

An important aspect in the management of the park was to assure that the amount of public funds would not decrease when contributions from the market increased. The BPRC’s construct allowed for it to generate more income through private funding, as it was able to have lower monitoring costs being a centralized NPO. The BPRC was able to prevent public funds from decreasing over time by agreeing with the government that no funds would be reduced from its pool and was able to do so as it acted as the representative of the management of the park.

This made it possible to reduce costs in performance assessment of the park’s management, as government bureaucracy was left out of the management all together. The sole responsible, the BPRC, was lean and attractive enough to form a BID, as monitoring costs were low. The park then turned to a commercial NPO all together, but remained successful. Therefore, having responsibility to the market has been proven as a successful method in the case of Bryant Park for management, monitoring and generating income.

In general, how the public spaces are managed in the three cases examined as well as the design of areas and differences in these processes. The private sector can manage different sized public spaces. The Highline project serves the public use of the old railway design for public use. The refurbishment work for Highline Project started with a public desire and work. While Bryant Park is managed by the public, it has turned into a public space that has not been used over time so this area has turned into one where crime rates had increased. With the private sector management, there is a public return serving the area and different activities in the year.

Agreements or projects between the public and private sectors are transforming public spaces into areas that serve higher quality safe and diverse uses. Turkey in general although there are not similar areas to these examples, there are some similarities.

CHAPTER 5

PLACE MANAGAMENT CASES IN IZMIR

5.1. The Elevator Tower in Karataş

Fair Zoo was The Elevator Tower in Karataş, 55 meters in length, connecting the Mithatpaşa and Halil Rifat Pasha streets, separated by cliffs in İzmir, was built by Jewish businessman Nesim Levi Bayraklı in 1907. The structure, which was built by steam in the first years of construction, was then turned into electricity. In Turkey, the hydraulic elevator system is the first elevator. Since the day it was built, it has served various uses. It was used as cinema, casino, tobacco store, and city viewing terrace. Nowadays, it is operated as two different places by Izmir Metropolitan Municipality Grand Plaza Food-Tourism Inc.



Figure 5.1. The Elevator Tower and Karataş (Source: Static Rota Senin, 2017)

After 1926 The Elevator Tower was taken by different people and therefore it was used for different purposes. The different uses of The Elevator Tower was finished in 1942, after it was taken by Şerif Remzi Reyent was abolished. It was used intermittently until 1983 in İzmir Metropolitan Municipality. After restoration in 1985, it was started to be used continuously. It was restored together with the Historical Elevator and Dario Moreno Street in 1992 and opened as a tourism area. It was decided to design the junction of The Elevator Tower below Dario Moreno Street as a "painters square". In addition, it

is planned to be an outdoor coffee shop. Although this is not fully implemented today, Dario Moreno Street contains similar features to these functions. In the upper elevation of The Elevator Tower, it was planned a tea terrace with a view of Izmir Gulf.



Figure 5.2. The Elevator Tower (Source: Apikam, 2017)

After the transfer of The Elevator Tower to İzmir Metropolitan Municipality, it continues to function as transportation within the day. There is also a cafe and a restaurant run by the grand plaza. This building, which was built by a private investor, and which was restored after being transferred to the municipality differs from the other two examples. It has a public-owned structure.

5.2. Sasalı Natural Life Park

Fair Zoo was established in 1937 as the first zoo of Turkey in Kùltürpark and it was transformed into Turkey's first Natural Life Park in Çiğli Sasalı in 2008.

The project, which started in 2006, was completed with public capital in 2 years. İzmir Natural Life Park is designed within an area of 425 thousand square meters. It contains within itself more than 125 species, close to 1,500 animals, and more than 250 species of plants.



Figure 5.3. Sasalı Natural Life Park (Source: Vizyonkent, 2017)

Izmir Metropolitan Municipality Council on January 11, 2010 in accordance with the unanimous decision in the direction of the Izmir Natural Life Park European Zoo and Aquariums (EAZA) was on the application for candidacy. After reviewing the review, it became a full member of EAZA on 3 April 2011, with more than 345 members from 41 countries, EAZA is campaigning for biodiversity to be endangered and the protection of animal species that draw attention to the depletion of living species every passing day. EAZA members are actively involved in ecosystem and habitat protection.



Figure 5.4. Plan of Sasalı Natural Life Park (Source: Izmir Doğal Yaşam Parkı, 2017)

In addition to shelters in the park, there are also a children's garden, ponds, clinics, workshops, educational units and social facilities. Thanks to this clinic, preventive medicine studies are carried out to treat the diseased and injured wild animals in order to maintain the healthy life of the animals. They also take care of injured or sick wild animals that are brought to our park by the Directorate of Environment and Forestry, which is located in the nature, or by their knowledge, and they leave them to their natural environment again. At the workshops we are preparing shelters, wild animals and the tools, materials and materials needed to crawl.

In their training unit, personal training is carried out in order to improve the development of the personnel of the park. In addition to this, in the Education Hall, they carry out educational studies about the animals, natural life preservation, zoo gardens and duties and the Natural Life Park for the schools and groups who book appointments by filling out the appointment form on website. In addition, special activities are organized for both tours and wild animals to have a good time in the park. Behavior enrichment studies are regularly conducted for animals. Details of training and events can be accessed on website.

In the Training Hall, they created an exhibition space where skeletons belonging to our animals, skin, hides, horns, feathers, eggs and other materials such as carapace can be seen in time. The exhibition prepared for the clinic team forms the basis of the Zoological and Skeletal Museum Project which is planned to be formed in the future. Panels and orientation signs placed all around the area make it easy to visit the area easily, to get information about the Wildlife Park, wild animals and wildlife easily.

The management of the social facilities in the park is managed by a private company. Business Grand Plaza A.Ş. and the Bahadır Souvenir Shop has a souvenir shop for souvenirs related to park. Children can also have fun in a clean and healthy environment at children's playgrounds at 4 different locations.

When we look at the way of management of natural life park, İzmir Natural Life Park Branch Directorate, Park and Gardens Department is under the office. The Directorate of Parks and Horticulture Department is serving as a Deputy Secretary General. In addition to this, it appears that public administration and the private sector have taken part in the field, since some areas of the public arena are private sector enterprises.

5.3. İzmir Balçova Telpher

Ercüment Uysal, who is mayor of Balçova (1963-1977), he found out what kind of project that would take to the top of Dede Mountain thanks to the example after his trip to Romania in 1973. After this trip, he decided to build a second telpher of Turkey after Uludağ. The project was created with the contribution of German engineers and the telpher was completed in Izmir and Balçova in 1974.

İzmir Metropolitan Municipality has made a technical examination to Balçova Telpher Facilities, which establish in 1974, by İzmir Branch of the Chamber of Mechanical Engineers because the telpher was thought to have been worn out for serving for many years . Prepared report as a result of this examination stated that the use of this facility was 'objectionable' and should be improved.



Figure 5.5. Balçova Telpher in 1990s (Source: Kultur Portalı, 2017)

The facility is planned to be closed for 5-6 months after allocating the necessary allowances and planned to carry out improvement works within this period, has been taken “waiting” on the receipt of information on the implementation of the new regulations in EU norms. The European Union Council and the Ministry of Industry and Trade have also been actively involved in the implementation of the "Regulations on Wired Transportation Systems Designed for Human Transport", and the tender process

had been initiated. As a result of the tender made 3 times, the projecting and construction process of the work was officially started by signing the contract in March 2013. The necessary approval has been obtained for the operation of the telpher system from the international independent certification body for Balçova Telpher Facilities where the construction work is completed.

The countdown for a new term has begun in the İzmir Balçova Telpher Facilities, which is an important resting and entertainment area of the city with its spectacular nature and gulf - dam lake view. İzmir Metropolitan Municipality, which has completed the last processes for the opening of the facility after a difficult period, has also received the approval for the operation of the telpher system from the international independent certification establishment after long-term security tests. After the arrival of the international certification document, the facilities are planned to be serviced next month with renewed, modern and safer conditions. The facility, which is designed in compliance with EU standards, can carry up maximum 1200 passengers per hour. The construction cost of this facility is 12 million TL.

Binoculars are placed at the area where the field is first reached so that the view is seen more clearly. View terrace with gulf view in the eastern part of the facility, a pancake and Turkish ravioli house was built. A section was made where the sale of snack foods was made on the western landscape overlooking the dam lake. Controlled barbecue service is offered at 'Meat House' which is established at the top of the facility. Established facility there are seating groups with fixtures, tables, benches and brick barbecues. In addition to these, there is a market where different needs can be met.

The telpher facility is managed by İzmir Transportation Services Machinery Industry Incorporated Company (İZULAŞ). The company started operating in April 1990. The company provides also public transport services, fuel station management, gas service, car-parking services. Workshops and garages were established in various districts.

The operation of the telpher facility has 5 sub-units. These 5 units depend on Telpher Business Responsibility. This person depends on the Workshop Manager who is attached to the general manager of İZULAŞ. This municipal company, established to serve the public through public investment, is a public and private enterprise that manages telpher operation. There are cafes and restaurants in different parts of the area.



Figure 5.6. New Telpher in İzmir (Source: Habereksper, 2017)

These places are managed by Izmir Metropolitan Municipality Grand Plaza Food-Tourism Inc. While İZULAŞ working as a trainer for transport to the area, the responsibility of the restaurant and cafes in the area is Grand Plaza. In addition, maintenance of green spaces, cleaning works, infrastructure works in the area depends on different directors in the municipalities.

5.4. Discussion

The director of the Sasalı Natural Life Park and the Izmir Metropolitan Municipality Grand Plaza Food-Tourism Inc. director were answered the questions in Appendix-1. The semi-structured interview questions are generated, arranged according to Place Management framework (see Figure 1.1). The concept place branding place quality and place development are formed place management. Therefore questions were created to include those concepts.

In Balçova Telpher, each title is managed by different departments as maintenance and advice of field infrastructure systems, management of cafes, area cleaning, transportation to the area and security of the area. The involvement of many administrations in decision making prevents the making of necessary decisions for the area. On the other hand, the operation scheme of Sasalı Natural Life Park and The Elevator Tower are different. Although the place management is connected to the

municipality, it has different sub-units for solid service and support within the area. In this regard, problems that occur in the field can be intervened quickly and solution-focused.

Negotiations with the managers of the Sasalı Natural Life Park, The Elevator Tower in Karataş and the Balçova Telpher areas can be viewed under the headings place branding, place development and place quality. There is a special logo in both area and advertising works are done in the municipality. The Balçova Telpher has seasonal demand in some processes. On the other hand, the number of visitors to the Sasalı Natural Life Park is change more homogeneously. The main reason for this difference is the climatic conditions. When the wind speed reaches 50 km/h, Telpher is stopped and the number of users decreases in winter. Booklets were printed that giving information about the Sasalı Natural Life Park. These books are distributed to the visitors and to the schools in the province. In this way, while the information is given to the students throughout the province, the field is introduced. The event program is shared on the internet site. In this way, different and effective use of area is ensured. These places are branded because there are no similar areas in the surroundings and according to their usage features.

When you look at the fields it is seen that there are many components in terms of the development of the place. Laws are an important influence because they are public spaces. For example, Balçova Telpher has been rented by the municipality to General Directorate of Forestry Therefore, the units in the area can not be rented by the tenant according to law for this reason these areas can not be operated or rented by anyone other than municipality. Permission must be obtained from the governor and General Directorate of Forestry to renew the spaces in the area, to build new buildings or to enlarge the area. Since the municipality is a tenant in the area, it is not possible for the management to develop the area. The area where Sasalı Natural Life Park is located belongs to Izmir Metropolitan Municipality. In accordance with the relevant legislation, the process of making the renovation of the area or the development of the area can be faster and more practical. Work on renovation of the infrastructure projects in the area as well as work on the expansion of the area are continues. Targets regarding the futuristic structure and area are separated in a certain process and continue to be programmed.

As a final main title, when you look at the areas according to place quality, the area is a field that has strong links with natural life from both sides. Work within the area is done without harming the natural character. There is no specific state study for the areas but it is controlled at certain intervals.

Place management of these areas by the private sector is not possible according to the law, but this can be done by renting. In summary, the law has definitions such as public services being used for public service and public use. The Sasalı Natural Life Park and The Elevator Tower can be rented as a whole to a company but Balçova Telpher can not rented through the municipality. General Directorate of Forestry can rent to another company instead of the municipality. There are examples in two areas that are run by private sector in the world or in Turkey. Compared to these examples, the entrance fees of the natural life park with much less than the examples in the world. In the world examples, there are restaurants, entertainment places and cafes in natural life parks. In other cases, the difference between income and expense is significant for the private sector to profit. So the prices are determined by the business. Profitability of two sample areas examined in public services is not important. While it is considered a success if the profits are above certain rates for private sector, for the studied areas not to lose money is success.

As a matter of law, it is possible to develop a model as public private partnership in turkey, but only with the owner of the field. The private sector may be included in the Sasalı Natural Life Park according to the law, but if this happens, there are some reservations about price and quality. With the law, there is no restriction on the selling prices. İZFAŞ responsible for restaurants, cafes or buffets in the Izmir fair, which is a different place than the samples that are examined. While İZFAŞ gives a great majority of these places to the operation of the Grand Plaza, it gives operation of 2 or 3 places to the private enterprise in some fair processes in Fuarizmir. In this way, there are both private and public enterprises in the area. Since public enterprises are not targeting a high profit return, private sector businesses in the area keep their prices low to compete.

In summary, in addition to the sub-titles resulting from the literature review, it has been understood that having the right to property in the public place is an important factor for place management. If the area can be leased for a long time as a whole, or if it is ownership, the management charts may change. In the private sector, if the municipality is building a specific unit for an area, it is to ensure that it is accelerate the decision-making and implementation process for the area. The development of the area and the quality of the area can be done with a special group of people who are focused on the user-oriented management. There is no private sector in the Sasalı Natural Life Park but there are 4 units depending on the director in the area. These units are support services, maintenance and repair, health and writing services.

In this way, necessary interventions can be done quickly. In Turkey, there is a special unit and processing scheme for public spaces in general, so some problems are experienced. The law include a special inspection or examination on public area if the area devolved entirely into private sector. The inspection is only checked if the area used is hygienic or in compliance with the terms of the contract. According to this law, the examinations can not be different from the examinations under normal conditions. Special examples in the management of the public sphere of the private sector are available throughout Turkey. The use of these public spaces can be discussed through public and semi-private. The use of public spaces belongs to the public so the targets of financial gain of the private sector must be limited by laws. New laws need to be drawn up for the management of public areas by the private sector or by the both private and public sector together.

	place branding				place development						place quality		
	public private sector integrated	culture/entertainment	destination	advertisement	technology	infrastructure	tourism	education	government approaches	laws	social	environmental	governance
How to access different places within the area?							•					•	
How to clean the area and clean the spaces in this area?							•					•	
How to transportation occurs in the area?						•							
Can it be integrated into different transport networks?						•							
How is the general administration? How is the management of employees in the area?										•			
How are the infrastructure conditions, renewal done? Are future improvements planned?			•		•	•							

Figure 1.3 Interview Questions and Place Management Components (part-1)

	place branding				place development						place quality			
	public private sector	integrated	culture/entertainment	destination	advertisement	technology	infrastructure	tourism	education	government approaches	laws	social	environmental	governance
How is the user profile? Is it aimed to diversify and develop these profiles?			•	•				•				•		
What is the effect on the immediate vicinity and the effect of immediate vicinity to area?			•									•		
Are there activity programs for different age groups? If so, who is organizing it?				•								•		
Are there educational activities?								•						
How is the influence of the municipality or central government in management of the area?										•				•
How are the objectives of the municipality or central government for the future area?									•					
How can the private sector and the municipality come together for the management of the area?	•								•	•				•
Can entrance fees and all other revenues cover the expenses of the area?							•							
What is being done to make the area more recognizable?					•			•						
Since the design process, is the area considered to be operated? What are the mistakes according to you? What can you do to make it better?				•		•	•							
Is there any aim for branding the area?				•	•									
How would the business model be if the public and private sectors managed the area separately? What would be the development and going wrong aspects of the two management schemes?				•		•	•	•		•				
How can the public and private sectors manage the field together?	•									•				
Are there different management systems similar to this area? What are / Where?	•								•	•				•

Figure 1.4 Interview Questions and Place Management Components (part-2)

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

People are doing their social and personal activities in a space. The concept of space starts to become a concept of place when the memories and experiences begin to enter into the concept of space. Concepts of space and place are intertwined concepts. They are not clearly identifiable definitions.

With the industrial revolution, "management" has gained new importance. According to historians, although the existence of the administration has been accepted since the Bronze age, it shows a great development and change in the 18th century. In addition to mass production, administration concept have been trying to find answer to question that how the process from the system, to the exit of the product can be made faster and more qualified. The concept of management has begun to take place in different forms in every aspect of life with the development of technology. Management diversity is seen in hundreds of different sectors such as factory management, economy management, site management, production systems management, site or building management, water management, infrastructure systems management, brand management, economy management and transportation systems management

The private sector, along with the idea of location management, has made many attempts in this area. Private companies gave management of the places like residential areas and private parking areas. As a result of globalization, large capitals began to invest in public spaces or in state owned enterprises. As a result, many public institutions and public areas have been customized. There are many reasons for customization such as economic, security, political reasons. As mentioned in chapter 4, Berlin Potsdamer Platz, Bryant Park and High Line are seen as a public domain and a development within the private sector. Public private partnership is a model used in many different sectors around the world.

The concept of place management is develops with the management of private areas by the private sectors. According to literature review results, place management determined as a feature that included concepts of place making and governance. Looking at the lower details, it seems that there is an interaction of place branding, place

development and place quality. When look at the Berlin Potsdamer Platz, Bryant Park and High Line that can be seen we need suitable laws besides infrastructure and technology. While spatial development is targeted, the quality of spaces is also important. Place quality is directly linked to social and environmental factors. As a result of the design, implementation and management processes that take all of these interactions into consideration, they begin to brand the field. Branding continues with the display of quality space for branding and the display of different groups. Place branding, place quality and place development can not be separated clearly. It is necessary to have quality spaces for the branding of a space. For quality places; social, environmental and managerial factors contributing to the development of the area need to be contributed in the future.

Place management include all sub-factors of governance and place making and many variables influenced by the public and private sector. In order to location management to be successful, the management area must respond at every step in the question of how to manage it from the moment it starts to be designed. Processes that fail to answer this question are subject to managerial failure of material and corporate. In order for place management to be shaped in public spaces, the continuity of this model must be ensured.

The Balçova Telpher, The Elevator Tower and Sasalı Natural Life Park managed by İzmir Metropolitan Municipality were examined and discussed with the site managers. As a result of this study, although the place development, place quality and place branding issues were not considered as a whole, it was seen that subheadings were tried to be made. Organizations that do not include the private sector are not allowed against advertising and logo work on the areas under the title of place branding. Future plans and preparations are made for the field development in the Sasalı Natural Life Park. Improvement of the buildings and the growth of the area are provided. Again, in this area also tutorial workshops are done. On the other hand, because the telpher land is rented area, the new development areas or new buildings can not be built in this area. Since the area possess of the forest zone directorate, it is necessary to obtain permission from the area owner as required by the law from the renewal period of the area. This situation can prevent the implementation of some decisions as well as extend the process. As the place quality, the sensitivity is still maintained in the usage process, taking into account the design process that has been examined.

It is foreseen that after the examination of the three areas which are considered to be successful on the world, necessary changes to the legislation are required for the fields which are examined in the management of the urban public areas in İzmir. In addition, it

appears that the private sector has not enough invested for public area in İzmir. The municipality needs to establish a system of supervision and control for future investors by keeping the private sector and the public interest in the forefront. It is a deep and different debate on the concept of public space to enter public spaces with a payment. Today, maintenance and repair costs are not considered in the design or use processes for public spaces. As a result, there are many public regulations in place throughout the country. This should always be taken into account in the operation of public-private, private-public areas without material damage from public administration. Areas are living, serve different user profiles, need to be renovated and maintained. In addition to the continuation of the development, branding or quality of the areas, the place management should be considered from the design process to post-implementation. If this can not be considered in the design process, it is necessary to find another material resource for the area expenses in order to meet high costs. Two possible solution paths can not provide space continuity. For successful place management, it should be included in the design area from the beginning of the design process.

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APPENDIX-A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How to reach different places within the area?
2. How to clean the area and clean the spaces in this area?
3. How to transportation occurs in the area?
4. Can it be integrated into different transport networks?
5. How is the general administration? How is the management of employees in the area?
6. How are the infrastructure conditions, renewal done? Are future improvements planned?
7. How is the user profile? Is it aimed to diversify and develop these profiles?
8. What is the effect on the immediate vicinity and the effect of immediate vicinity to area?
9. Are there activity programs for different age groups? If so, who is organizing it?
10. Are there educational activities?
11. How is the influence of the municipality or central government in management of the area?
12. How are the objectives of the municipality or central government for the future area?
13. How can the private sector and the municipality come together for the management of the area?
14. Can entrance fees and all other revenues cover the expenses of the area?
15. What is being done to make the area more recognizable?
16. Since the design process, is the area considered to be operated? What are the mistakes according to you? What can you do to make it better?
17. Is there any aim for branding the area?
18. How would the business model be if the public and private sectors managed the area separately? What would be the development and going wrong aspects of the two management schemes?
19. How can the public and private sectors manage the field together?
20. Are there different management systems similar to this area? What are / Where?