

## THE E-SQUATTER: AN OUTLOOK ON THE DIGITAL DIVIDE

(E- Gecekondu: Dijital Bir Bakış)

İrem Ece Akpınar<sup>1</sup> M. Kemal Öktem<sup>2</sup>,

Mehmet Tuncer<sup>3</sup> Buket Karpata<sup>4</sup>

*Araştırma Makalesi*

*Makale Geliş Tarihi: 14.09.2021*

*Makale Kabul Tarihi: 02.11.2021*

*DOI: 10.53507/akademikdusunce.994096*

### ABSTRACT

Today, "Information and Communication Technologies" is developing rapidly. The development, adaptation and application of technology is important for the efficiency of the administrative competitiveness between countries. These rapidly developing technologies have affected every segment of the society and brought about a problem about accessibility, and they have different reflections in different layers of society. This study first draws a general picture of urban development and squatter houses. In terms of socio-economic conditions, access level, equity, relatively low education, and income levels do not benefit from technology in terms of access to information. Since resources are not distributed equally, qualitative analysis is developed with a sample residing in two squatter houses areas, and significant differences are found that the rate of computer and internet use is high in the 16-39 age groups. How to be an information society and how to overcome digital divide has been discussed.

**Keywords:** *Squatter houses, Urban Transformation, Social Sustainability, Digital Divide, e- Squatter people*

### ÖZ

Günümüzde "Bilgi ve İletişim Teknolojileri" hızla gelişmektedir. Ülkeler arasındaki idari rekabet gücünün etkinliği için teknolojinin geliştirilmesi, uyarlanması ve uygulanması önemlidir. Hızla gelişen bu teknolojiler toplumun her kesimini etkilemiş ve erişilebilirlikle ilgili bir sorunu beraberinde getirmiş ve toplumun farklı katmanlarında farklı yansımaları olmuştur. Bu çalışma öncelikle kentsel gelişim ve gecekonduların genel bir resmini çizmektedir. Sosyo-ekonomik koşullar açısından erişim düzeyi, eşitlik, görece düşük eğitim ve gelir düzeyleri bilgiye erişim açısından teknolojiden yararlanmamaktadır. Kaynaklar eşit olarak dağıtılmadığından, iki gecekondu bölgesinde ikamet eden bir örneklem ile nitel analiz geliştirilmiş ve 16-39 yaş grubunda bilgisayar ve internet kullanım oranının yüksek olduğu yönünde anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Nasıl bilgi toplumu olunacağı ve dijital uçurumun nasıl aşılacağı tartışılmıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** *Gecekondu, Kentsel Dönüşüm, Sosyal Sürdürülebilirlik, Dijital Bölünme, e- Gecekondu*

<sup>1</sup> Technology Transfer and Project Management Office, Support Programs and Projects Coordinator, İstanbul Aydın University, i.ece.akpinar@gmail.com, ORCID: 0000-0001-5302-2893

<sup>2</sup> Prof. Dr. Hacettepe University, Department of Public Administration, kemalok@hacettepe.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-2040-426X

<sup>3</sup> Prof. Dr. Çankaya University Department of City and Regional Planning, mtuncer@cankaya.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-6625-5589

<sup>4</sup> Hacettepe University Public Administration Graduate, Science Specialist, karpatabuket@hotmail.com, ORCID: 0000-0001-5269-222X

## Introduction

In a well-balanced perspective, solving the problems of urbanization and migration, which are as old as the history of human being, requires a combination of people's consciousness and decisive management (Es and Ateş 2004). An overall priority for public benefit would necessitate a better combination of organizations for those (e-)services including internet provided to squatter houses, as by the definition, relatively limited opportunities causing exclusion of these people living in those areas, and as a response to needs of urbanization (in Es and Ateş 2004: 216, Kartal 1992: 51). Thus, squatter house, functions as "the social order of a community, its establishment, the functioning of the organization and the way in which certain duties are carried out" (in Es and Ateş 2004: 209, Yasa 1970:1). The concept of urban reproduction is used together with or instead of the concepts of urban renewal, urban redevelopment, rehabilitation, and revitalization. Deteriorated structures and social fabrics are developed by various methods within the scope of urban reproduction (Sadioğlu vb, 2020 :245-246).

In Turkish metropolitan areas a huge percent of urban population resides in squatter houses (gecekondu) that are products of fast urbanization process since 1950s, as social mobilization initiated by modernization process. The very same process destroys traditional ties and creates alienation among people as well. People reproduce traditional ties in new forms as hemşerilik ties and associations in which a particular type of social capital is produced. Ergönül and Sadioğlu's (2020: 161) point out that the failure to renew the old urban areas in urban areas, spaces are defined as depression, generally located in urban centers. It continues as an administrative center, it actually eliminates the rural-urban distinction (Sadioğlu et al., 2017:105). Especially through local cooperation between governments and central governments and market actors socio-spatial transformation with adequate supervision (Sadioğlu et al., 2016; Sadioğlu and Eseroğlu, 2017) can be realized. Urban poverty could make up one of the big problem areas, with disadvantages in terms of housing, employment, social insurance, health, and education in addition to income adequacy (Ergun and Koçancı 2017).

This article draws upon the literature on the above-mentioned problems and variables such as social sustainability, digital divide, squatter house, and urban transformation, including firstly, a historic bird-eye views on urbanization and its conclusions in the society. Each building in the city is a part of the social, political and economic process of a certain period. It is the spokesperson and witness of life, formation and reality. in the making from the main materials and workmanship used, from its aesthetic appearance to its economic value. Each

building that constitutes the building bears significant traces of the life of the period it belongs to (Aslantürk Yılmaz, 2021: 460). Then, in the field research section, it endeavors to study the squatter house people's internet and e-government use in daily life with reference to two specific cases based on several interviews to be able to reflect on a focused understanding of real-life situations. Altındağ-Ankara and Kağıthane-İstanbul have been presented to broadly describe the background for the study. Then, case-study interviews are interpreted and discussed on the next titles.

### **1. Social Sustainability**

The urban structures, which are the symbols of economic and social development, and new technologies, have become a center of attraction due to the opportunities provided. Five basic principles can be mentioned to create a socially sustainable society. These principles (McKenzie, 2004: 18-19):

- Equality; equal opportunities should be provided for all members of the community, for those who are financially inadequate and most vulnerable,
- Diversity; promote community diversity,
- Commitment; systems and structures that enable interconnection at the official, informal, and institutional level within and outside the community should be encouraged and provided,
- Life quality; guarantee that basic needs are met for all members at the individual, group and community level and a good quality of life should be developed,
- Democracy and governance; democratic processes, transparent and accountable governance structures should be provided for the community.

The concept of sustainability, which has become a necessity for livable cities, aims for a better environment. It is as important as the corners of the triangle (Munasinghe 2009): Concepts such as poverty, equality, sustainability, and climate change; must be addressed in three dimensions: economic, social, and environmental. Environmental and natural resource economics, environmental-scientific economics, conservation ecology, energy economics, sociology economics, environmental sociology, environmental ethics, etc. these approaches include bridging the three areas (Markandya et al., 2002: 17).

For the steps to achieve sustainable development, there is a need for a consensus on sustainability in communities (Klauer 1999: 120), as a process in which continuous new targets

should be determined and intensive studies should be carried out (Röth et al., 2016). Improving sustainability; to provide basic needs such as social capital, justice, and equality; changes in behavior to achieve environmental objectives, maintaining sustainability; refers to the protection of socio-cultural features in the face of change (Vallance et al., 2011: 342). It has been observed that traditional societies try to tackle more superficial problems, whereas social sustainable societies try to tackle deeper problems (Colantonio 2009: 871), to achieve a better quality of life. Social sustainability emphasizes that the basic needs of individuals must be met. As a result, social sustainability is the society in which today's generations are transferred to future generations.

During the UN Conference on Human and Environment held in Stockholm on 16 June 1972, many principles were adopted. Some of these principles are (Sohn, 1973: 451-506);

Principle 1; Human beings have the fundamental right to freedom, equality and adequate living conditions that allow them to lead a dignified life and have a serious responsibility for the protection and development of the environment for the present and future generations.

Principle 2; The world's natural resources, including air, water, soil, flora, fauna and naturally representative examples of ecosystems, must be protected for the benefit of current and future generations through careful planning or management.

Principle 3; The Earth's capacity to produce vital renewable resources should be maintained and, where practicable, restored or improved.

## **2. Digital Divide**

Digital Divide is defined as the inequality experienced by individuals, firms, or countries at different socio-economic levels in accessing and using ICT (OECD, 2001: 5). The digital divide has created two different groups that are deprived of information and access to information (James, 2001: 160). Although the developments in ICT seem to create new opportunities, there are warnings that may deepen the existing gap between North and South (KoracKakabadse et al, 2000: 172). Because, today's world is no longer divided by ideology, but by technology (Sachs, 2000: 99).

The digital divide, which was previously used to define inequality between individuals in access to ICTs, is now used to highlight inequality between countries. What distinguishes the digital gap from other inequalities is its ability to deepen existing inequalities. The United Nations conclusion provides a clue (ACC, 1997): The gap between ICT and its associated widening between the developed and developing countries are growing and information

poverty is emerging. On the one hand, high-speed, low costs and access to the latest information, education, income, and business connections; on the other hand, low speed and high cost in uncertainty, obsolete information in the time limit dependent on the lack of communication remains blocked (UNDP, 1999: 63).

According to some authors, due to the developer nature of ICT, it will be possible for less-developed countries to catch developed ones after a while (Negroponte, 1998). However, in many LDCs the cost of a personal computer is equal to some years of total wage of a worker, so similar views are quite optimistic (Wolff and MacKinnon, 2002: 8). For example, in Cameroon, an officer needs to pay 1.5% of his salary for connection to the Internet per hour (Demmers and O'Neil, 2001: 50); ICT education constitutes a separate topic of discussion (Dasgupta et al, 2001: 2).

Although the contribution of ICT to the development is controversial (Steinmueller, 2001), how much can governments prioritize ICTs in a country where child diseases are a survival problem, as in many other countries in Africa, because of not receiving the necessary health care? The LDCs have more important problems such as epidemics, environmental problems, and political stability (Menou, 2001: 112). There are three main reasons why the international digital divide has been on the agenda in recent years (Lanvin, 2001). Using ICTs, while have made significant gains in economic efficiency and financial fields, the lack of LDCs has begun to pose a threat to global development; finally, the digital divide increases rapidly.

There is a strong correlation between the per capita income of countries and the level of ICT use (Rodriguez and Wilson, 2000: 13). In this context, the income elasticity of the use of ICT is generally estimated to be greater than one (Quibria et al, 2003: 815). In other words, ICT ownership and use remain a luxury commodity in terms of income elasticity in many countries.

The information society and economy associated with many rankings, the developing countries are generally located in between, for example, according to Rodriguez and Wilson's ICT index values calculated for 108 countries as Turkey, Hungary, Greece, Poland, followed by countries such as Chile and Bulgaria it is situated next 62. US index value of 100.00 in the ranking that Turkey's index value was 9.57 (Rodriguez and Wilson, 2000: 12). Similarly, Harvard University affiliated Center for International Development (CID: Center for 6th International Development) countries to prepare for the world of networking (e-readiness) said

in a report measure based on various indicators, Chile between Turkey and 75 countries, such as Poland, Brazil and South Africa countries in the 41st place (CID, 2002: 297).

Information, computer, internet, and considering factors such as social infrastructure areas, Information Society of International Data Company Index (IDC, 2001), Turkey, according to low- and middle-income countries has good situation in terms of ICT. However, it lags far behind high-income countries. The global digital divide is also increasing (ITU, 2002: 25). Because approximately 90% of Internet users and 85% of Internet hosts are in developed countries (Conhaim, 2001: 1), 95% of secure servers belong to other OECD countries, especially the USA (OECD, 2001: 23). More than half of the households in the United States have their own computers, while in the African continent it is around 1%. Likewise, while around 77 million computers in the US are connected to the Internet, in Bangladesh, and Syria, this number is only 10 (Wolff and MacKinnon, 2002: 1). Finally, at least half of the world's population has never had any phone calls during their lifetime. ICT inequalities are a small part of a major global inequality problem (Shea, 2002: 88).

From the industrial society to the information society, the speed and scope of information is changing. However, there are some difficulties in accessing information that some disadvantaged groups face defining injustice in individuals' access. In measuring digital divide, the indicators used in addition to communication (Sadioğlu, 2020: 900), are infrastructures - the number of computers (alternative access methods available through mobile phones and other technologies) and the amount of internet access. For the home users, the two most important criteria in the digital divide are income and education levels, and other criteria include basic elements such as household size, age, language, and location. Computer ownership and access to the Internet vary considerably depending on household income, but there is an increase in access to low-income groups (OECD, 2001). Some recent national studies confirm this judgment (Demirci, 2021). Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI) published Research-Technology Usage of household; Internet usage rate is 53.8% in citizens between 16-74 years of age by 2014; on the other hand, in April 2013 the percentage of households with Internet access across 49.1% in 2014, while it is stated that this ratio rises to 60.2%.

### **3. Squatter Houses**

Turkey's metropolitan cities are influenced by population growth, migration, etc. The reasons of this situation are the rapid and distorted urbanization. This phenomenon, which is unplanned and deprived of a certain discipline, becomes increasingly capable of destroying natural and cultural values when combined with land speculation (Ömürgönülşen ve Sadioğlu:

20). In addition, some neighborhoods lack of infrastructure and equipment. For this reason, it is necessary to realize fast, effective, economical, and applicable plans and projects and designs in Turkish cities (Sadioğlu vd. 2016; Özgül, 2020)

Especially since the 1950s, there has been a rapid urbanization process. The cities in the western and south-western parts of the country have been subjected to intense migration and distorted urbanization. The cities were first tried to be guided by plans that also had a design dimension (for example, the Jansen Plan in the capital city Ankara), and then, with the overgrowth of the cities, the process of making a zoning plan, which is still valid today, started to be implemented. Although urban textures (zoned areas) that start to form with these plans seem to be more organized than squatter house areas, high density, social reinforcement areas (open and green areas, education, culture, health, etc.) and quality of urban environment are facing problems. Squatter houses of the cities that have become indispensable along with the increasing internal migration in Turkey was considered as temporary. With the conceptualization of buffer-institutions by Kıray, these places, which are seen as temporary regions in cities, have become the main elements of cities. “They thought that when their financial situation is corrected, they would move on to the other districts of the city. The fact that they were seen as a ‘temporary situation’ by the official authorities resulted in the governments' tolerance of the squatter houses, but the squatter house numbers increased rapidly (Şenyapılı, 2004). According to Şenyapılı (2004), there is no concept of squatter house between 1945-1950 yet; with the increase in mechanization in agriculture after World War II, cities became a center of attraction because of the unemployment experienced in rural areas. Compared to rural areas, large cities offer more jobs and living opportunities, triggering migration and migration from rural to urban areas has begun. Ankara, which is at the beginning of industrialization, does not have the infrastructure to handle the housing and employment problems of the increasing population with migration. According to the information provided by Karpaz (1976), 60% of Ankara, 45% of Istanbul and 31% of İzmir consisted of squatter house populations in 1960, it is now found in many cities of Turkey.

Flat Ownership Law (Law no 634) or improvement plans defined in amnesty law no 2981 also gave way to transformation of squatter houses to apartment, including the transformation of the land, have not been able to fully meet the needs of people who are accustomed to live in squatter houses (Heper, 1978; 56). The better these regions where poor people live are analyzed, the more successful the projects and the more sustainable the approach will be.

### 3.1 Urban Transformation

The objectives of TOKI's urban regeneration projects have been stated as improving the quality of life, balancing increasing economic imbalances and global pressures, eliminating social inequality, and housing shortage and establishing neighborhoods that prioritize values (TOKI, 2015). Under the name of urban transformation, these settlements are being demolished and replaced by multi-store high-rise buildings. These socially marginalized, poor groups living in the squatter house district have a tendency for mutual solidarity and mutual assistance that emerge from living together in the same environment (Manzo, Kleit & Couch, 2008). As Familiarity with the environment, the years spent in that environment, the memories accumulated by the events and the strong social relations established are effective in creating deep emotional ties with the house and neighborhood. Sharing relationships with neighbors reinforce emotional relationships with that environment (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck and Watson, 1992).

Having the garden of the houses increases the satisfaction, the gardens opening to the streets help to develop the neighborhood relations (Wilcox, 1998). As can be seen, 'The solidarity and cooperation among the poor and the role of the housing environment in the lives of the poor emerges much stronger in the outer neighborhoods (Erman, 1997). Mass-housing has brought with it many criticisms (Keleş 2014). People living in the squatter houses, mass housing; complained that they could not interact with the nature they could live in the squatter houses. Bektaş and Yücel (2013) stated that 'public housing is limited to physical renovation only and social, economic and cultural characteristics of people living in the region are not taken into consideration'. Özdemirli (2014) stated that mass-housing projects provide demographic change and physical improvement instead of improving the conditions of the people living in their areas; therefore, it disrupted the social fabric of the city. Davis (2007) 'considers the incompatibility of high-rise mass housing projects with the economic conditions and social structures of the poor as a mistake that has been going on since ancient times and states that urban planners have repeated this error for many years'. It has been thought that the squatter house population cannot live due to financial problems and adaptation to apartment life

As some authors would defend a hypothesis that "globalization claims to be inevitable, progressive, and new, and the big metropolises of the countries entered the race to become a global city, regulate their cities and economies for realization of urban transformation projects. The neoliberal program that started to be implemented after 1980 in Turkey and this program's

global city developed as part of projects and applications make Istanbul a global city (Öktem 2006: 53-54). It has put it into an inter-city competition to take part in the league. Although not included in most of the hierarchies of the city, these projects implemented and major transformations on its spatial structure has led to these transformations to the city of global city projects, the global city benefit from the benefits of the global economy will benefit and the benefits from top to bottom showed that they were not very successful in realizing their promises that they would spread to all classes. On the contrary, the restructuring of the city in the last twenty years, structuring and transformation have shown that these projects have caused income inequality in the city, social polarization, increased spatial segregation, urban tension and channels the limited resources of the city for the interests of certain classes: unemployment, social polarization, poverty, and problems such as spatial segregation have been due to the fact that it falls behind in the race to become a city, or is it because of being a world city? Although international firms' concentration of their centers here, having transportation and communication networks, with high-level specialized services, media, ideological permeation through culture and defined as the main features of cities, we would not easily assume that a wide range of socio-economic segments – especially squatter houses - of cities are able to access those projected privileges of metropolitan cities. For example, the gap between income groups has dramatically increased, the richest 20% receives 64.13% of the total income in 2000 as a rate above the country average (in Öktem 2006: 61 Sönmez, 2001).

After 1980s and economic crisis, it has been argued that there has been a shift from soft-integrative urbanization to tense-exclusionary urbanization, the balance has been lost and first the deterioration of squatter houses has been raised with segregation dynamics within the cities in Turkey (Işık and Pınarcıoğlu 2015). Cities reflect inequalities in modern times, exposed to intense pressure and invasion of the capital. The city, which is considered as a new and profitable investment area with neo-liberal policies, is designed for the market needs. The urban poor are those who are negatively affected by these transformation processes, urban poverty could be examined through the transformation of neoliberal policies. Thus, after the urban transformation, details of the new social exclusion and decomposition processes of the urban poor, low income entirely from ownership or income subject to deprivation and calories needed to survive type of poverty associated with the "absoluteness" of poverty; same status and income level people depending on space and living units changing poverty "relativity", such as "chronicity/permanence", "subjectivity", and "inability to consume" poverty types (in Koçancı and Ergun 2018: 52, Bauman's 1999). When squatter houses have become functionally obsolete

for the industry, such as providing workforce, they have been sacrificed. In this process, their population has started leaving their residential areas (in Koçancı and Ergun 2018: 58, Aslan, 2006: 105-106).

The representation of the *gecekondu* people varies in different time periods, namely, the “rural Other” in the 1950s and 1960s; the “exploited/disadvantaged Other” in the 1970s; the “diversified Others” and the “undeserving rich Other” versus the “urban poor Other” in the 1980s and 1990s; and finally, the “threatening Other/*varoşlu*” vs. the “*gecekondu* people as agents” in the late 1990s and 2000s (Erman 2004). It has been emphasized that there is a need to find a new terminology and perspectives in studying *gecekondu* people that would not imply inferiority, and not lead to defining them as the Other(s).

One would examine urban transformation with the crisis of capitalism and the relation of this transformation between poverty. From Fordist production model to post Fordist production model has been argued to show its impact also on cities and social relations. The problematic-squatter areas of city have been forced to adapt urban generation projects. But such projects would also cause poverty and othering by contribution to capitalist transformation of cities (Özkan and Sidal 2008). Decreased permanent/secure jobs have characterized the gradual permanence of the (unstable and fragmented post Fordist) labor market economy and employment regime. The poverty trap for the vocationally uneducated large segment of the population would prevail. The financial investors of the city center are the headquarters of the companies, bureaucracies, and new service activities, reduce the likelihood of settling and housing for low-income groups (Özkan and Sidal 2008: 39).

#### **4. A Brief Outlook On Background For Research**

After the World War II, the acceleration of migration from villages to the city brought some problems. Unhealthy settlements have been formed and it is very difficult to plan in these places. Uncontrolled migration led to rapid population growth, and when it was added to problems of planning, infrastructure and lack of resources, the situation became inextricable. Ankara is a city formed because of thousands of years of accumulation.

Phrygian, Galati, Roman, Byzantine, Seljuk and Ottoman and the Republic periods in Ankara today is the accumulation of overlap. After the proclamation of the Republic and the Capital, the international planning contest opened in 1928, famous German urbanist / architect Prof. Hermann Jansen wins. An international reputation of Ankara was that it was one of the first planned capitals. It was always compared with Canberra and Brasilia with its beauty and

splendor of the new capital ... A new town established “Yenişehir” right next to it, not on the old one. This plan was to develop Ankara as a garden city “Bahçeşehir”, and to create a pedestrian-weighted, low-density capital “Başşehir”.

As a matter of fact, after the 1960s, houses with gardens district “Bahçelievler”, which was demolished one by one and renewed in many stores and whose gardens remained only in its name, was formed in this way. In the 1950s, Saraçoğlu, Yenimahalle, Mebusevleri, Aydınlikevler, Güvenevler et al. housing units also maintained this “Bahçeşehir” ideal. However, a new plan was needed, in the face of rapid growth and blessing (Squatter!). The 1957 Plan is known as the Yücel - Uybadin Plan and targets a population of 750 000.

The metropolitan Ankara has been around its historical core since its establishment in the capital, 40-50 km. spread to the wall, the impact of the surrounding roads has reached a macro form in the form of oil stains. The squatter houses, which started on the ridges of Altındağ, were reflected around the Castle. The squatter houses formed the housing stock of the city up to 60-70%. The rural heritage / natural area located around the old urban fabric, which is in harmony with the historical cultural area, was negatively affected by this development and swallowed in the generations of growth. The vacant social fabric of the abandoned historical environment has been replaced by cheap labor needed by new sectors in the growing city. In fact, this phenomenon is also the beginning of a vicious circle: the richer historical environment becomes impoverished, and the poor social segments may also be deprived of all kinds of urban services in this environment that cannot reproduce itself.

With the squatter house improvement plans, these regions were not opened for improvement, but were opened to demolition and reconstruction with land arrangements. The squatter house problem was perceived not as a part of the zoning law, but as a building and urban land problem. With the legal framework, the squatter house areas were transformed into urban zoning parcels and opened to the process of demolishing and reconstruction with the Reclamation Zoning Plan. It has been pointed out that in 1950 that the population of Kâğıthane increased due to the mass migration of Istanbul . This flat-faced subsistence difficulty and new industrial facilities established in the cities have accelerated the migration towards the countryside. In 1957, with the closure of the Gas Factory in Dolmabahçe and the takeover of the Kağıthane, or the workers in the vicinity, they started to form the Talatpaşa District by making squatter houses. The acceleration of the immigration of the 1950s to the Balkan immigration caused the increase of Immigrant Houses built into Kâğıthane. It has also led to a cultural and economic separation within the same neighborhood. With the migration wave in

Yugoslavia on the road in the 1980s, the rapid industrialization in the region has accelerated, where new factories rapidly take squatter houses. The acceleration of industrialization in the district of Kâğthane and the increase in the number of these settlements, which were established on uninhabited lands and have city plans, caused “unplanned urbanization.

#### A Qualitative Study on the City and the e-Squatter Houses: The Digital Divide?

The aim of this study; is to consider the digital environment and living in the squatter houses with the difficulties encountered in access to information and communication technologies, and the investigation of the digital divide. In this qualitative research designed to solve these problems; the demographic characteristics of the sample of 30 participants living in the squatter house area, which constitute the sample size of the study, were investigated. In this study, to obtain data, the participants were asked semi-structured and open-ended questions in the squatter house area as selected as a pilot region. The variables used to determine demographic characteristics were age, gender, marital status, place of birth and growth, place of residence, education status and profession of his / her mother, father (if any), income, computer and internet access, household size and place of residence. A total of 30 men and women aged 16-70 years voluntarily participated in the study. According to this research, the rate of computer and internet use of the average participants is almost negligible. The rate of computer and internet use is high in the 16-39 age groups.

The primary assumption of this study is that the socio-economically disadvantaged, low educated, and low-income groups living in the squatter house district cannot sufficiently access information communication technologies due to financial impossibilities, some do not know how to use these technologies, and most of them do not even know the benefits of this technology. And therefore, to investigate the problems these people have in accessing technologies and to examine the demographic characteristics of households and explain correlation and cause-effect relations of the variables to bring some solutions. Based on this, preliminary determinations have been made regarding the differences in relatively less-developed squatter house areas.

#### 5. Findings

As referred before, 18 (60%) of the participants were female and 12 (40%) were male. The age range of the participants is 16-71. In this survey, thirty structured questions and then open-ended questions were asked. As a result of the questionnaire conducted with thirty participants, some cases were tried to be revealed. It can also be argued that the inequality is too deep to be limited to the digital divide. As a result, there were many gaps (digital, socio-

economic, standards of living, and so on) in the region where the survey was conducted. It was concluded that the size of the digital divide investigated was very deep.

Although most households in the region wish to do so, they cannot access information and communication technologies due to financial difficulties, and some of the owners of computers do not know how to use it. Many of them are not aware of the benefits of this technology and this is one of the main problems that can be listed as the cause of this gap. It can be said that the difficulties faced by these low-income and less-educated citizens in accessing information have marginalized them digitally. As a result of the answers given by the people of the region, they do not trust the virtual environment and they want to see their interlocutors in their transactions. In this region, which is within the scope of urban transformation zone, it is concluded that the households who do not have internet and computers in the household use the internet from their mobile phones and that the public uses the internet mainly with social media.

Civil status of participants is married 25 (%83.3), single 4 (%13.3), and divorced 1 (%3.3). As shown in the table 1, most of the participants were born in cities other than Ankara.

**Table 1.** *Provincial Place of Birth of Participants %*

<i>ADİYAMAN</i>	1	3,3
<i>AĞRI</i>	1	3,3
<i>ANKARA</i>	12	40,0
<i>BARTIN</i>	1	3,3
<i>BATMAN</i>	1	3,3
<i>ÇANKIRI</i>	1	3,3
<i>ÇORUM</i>	9	30,0
<i>KAZAKİSTAN</i>	1	3,3
<i>NİĞDE</i>	1	3,3
<i>SİNOP</i>	1	3,3
<i>SİVAS</i>	1	3,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Sub-provincial place of birth of participants is also diverse (from seven regions of the country), however after Mamak / Ankara, second focused grouped of sub-provinces is within Sungurlu / Çorum (see Table 2).

**Table 2. Sub-provincial Place of Birth of Participants %**

<i>AKÇAKENT</i>	1	3,3
<i>ALTINDAĞ</i>	1	3,3
<i>BAHÇELİEVLER</i>	1	3,3
<i>BOYABAT</i>	1	3,3
<i>ÇANKAYA</i>	1	3,3
<i>ÇAYIRKÖY</i>	1	3,3
<i>KALECİK</i>	2	6,7
<i>KANGAL</i>	1	3,3
<i>KOYUNLU</i>	1	3,3
<i>MAMAK</i>	8	26,7
<i>MERKEZ</i>	2	6,7
<i>PATNOS</i>	1	3,3
<i>SUNGURLU</i>	8	26,7
<i>ŞABANÖZÜ</i>	1	3,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Education level of the sample is low; generally speaking, majority is at the average (primary + secondary) or intermediate level (Table 3).

**Table 3. Education %**

<i>Did Not Go to School</i>	4	13,3
<i>Primary School</i>	14	46,7
<i>Secondary</i>	4	13,3
<i>High-School</i>	6	20,0
<i>College/University</i>	2	6,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Samples ‘spouses’ education level in general is also far from high school nor university (table 4).

**Table 4. Spouse’s Education %**

<i>Did Not Go to School</i>	8	26,7
<i>Primary School</i>	12	40,0
<i>Secondary</i>	5	16,7
<i>High-School</i>	3	10,0
<i>College/University</i>	2	6,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Occupation of the sample is usually donating irregular, lower income, or no income (table 5).

**Table 5. Occupation %**

<b>Worker</b>	5	16,7
<b>Self-Employment</b>	5	16,7
<b>Retired</b>	2	6,7
<b>Not Working</b>	18	60,0
<b>Total</b>	30	100,0

Father’s occupation is another indicator of low potential for living-standards (Table 6).

**Table 6. Father’s occupation %**

<i>Worker</i>	5	16,7
<i>Self-Employment</i>	8	26,7
<i>Retired</i>	17	56,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Mother’s occupation is not indicated, as a matter of fact, no expertise and not-working is reflection of life-style in those neighborhoods; this situation (being a house-wife) would not necessarily be a negative factor in terms of child-upbringing. However, in terms of income, this would mean limited financial resources (Table 7).

**Table 7. Mother's Occupation %**

<i>Not-Working (Housewife)</i>	30	100
--------------------------------	----	-----

Mother & father living together percentage is very low, as another indicator of relatively limited financial and emotional capacity of families to take care of its members' well-being and education (table 8).

**Table 8. Mother & Father Living Together %**

<i>Yes</i>	4	13,3
<i>No</i>	26	86,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Home ownership is less than a half of the sample as another indicator of less financial strength of the households (table 9).

**Table 9. Home Ownership %**

<i>Own</i>	14	46,7
<i>Rent</i>	16	53,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Monthly income is at most at a level of minimum wage (table 10).

**Table 10. Monthly Income %**

<i>No Income</i>	2	6,7
<i>Less Than Minimum Wage</i>	1	3,3
<i>Minimum Wage</i>	27	90,0
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Additional income opportunities of the sample are very limited (table 11).

**Table 11. Additional Income %**

<i>Yes</i>	5	16,7
<i>No</i>	25	83,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Monthly family-expenses mainly are made for minimum living-standards (electricity and rent, food), education expenses are limited as a vicious-cycle of lower income potential (table 12).

**Table 12. Monthly Family-Expenses %**

<i>Electricity-rent</i>	13	43,3
<i>Food</i>	16	53,3
<i>Education</i>	1	3,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Internet access is around 66% of the sample, corresponding to level of general statistics in Turkey (table 13).

**Table 13. Internet Access %**

<i>Yes</i>	20	66,7
<i>No</i>	10	33,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Internet-usage level is at a fifty-fifty balance (table 14).

**Table 14. Internet-usage %**

<i>No</i>	13	43,3
<i>Very Often</i>	10	33,3
<i>Sometimes</i>	5	16,7
<i>Only if an Official Requirement</i>	2	6,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Usage of new ICT is a bit more 50% (table 15).

**Table 15. Usage of New ICT %**

<i>Yes</i>	17	56,7
<i>No</i>	13	43,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Home-based computer and internet access looks very limited even if there is a computer (table 16).

**Table 16. Home-based Computer and Internet Access %**

<i>None</i>	10	33,3
<i>Computer</i>	17	56,7
<i>İnternet</i>	3	10,0
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Computer-skills of half of the sample is at moderate level (table 17).

**Table 17. Computer-skills %**

<i>None</i>	13	43,3
<i>Medium Level</i>	17	56,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Internet-usage level is at most at medium level for half of the sample (table 18).

**Table 18. Internet-usage Level %**

<i>None</i>	13	43,3
<i>Medium level</i>	17	56,7
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Computer-skills learning method is based on self-learning for up to 50% of the participants (table 19).

**Table 19.** *Computer-skills Learning Method %*

<i>None</i>	13	43,3
<i>School</i>	2	6,7
<i>Self-learning</i>	15	50,0
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Facing technical difficulties has been reflected less as a problem of a 1/3 of the sample, this would be an indicator of not necessarily being good at it, but not even touching technology, or using it very seldom (table 20).

**Table 20.** *Facing Technical Difficulties %*

<i>Yes</i>	11	36,7
<i>No</i>	19	63,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

Reason for internet-use is basically for social media (table 21).

**Table 21.** *Reason for Internet-use %*

<i>None</i>	13	43,3
<i>School Homework</i>	1	3,3
<i>Social Media</i>	16	53,3
<i>Total</i>	30	100,0

**Table 22.** *Descriptive Statistics*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
<i>Age</i>	30	16	71	45,60	15,837
<i>Number of Children</i>	30	0	5	2,27	1,337
<i>Number of Households</i>	30	1	7	3,80	1,690
<i>Number of Rooms</i>	30	1	3	2,20	,551
<i>Years- at the Same House</i>	30	2	45	17,17	15,079
<i>Years - Computer Owning</i>	30	0	20	5,50	6,084

<i>Years - Internet Access</i>	30	0	18	4,97	5,391
<i>Computer Use a Day</i>	30	0	12	3,07	3,832
<i>Valid N (Listwise)</i>	30				

*Meaningful statistical differences according to descriptive statistics*

1. According to statistical analysis, there is a difference between the average age of those who do not know how to use computers and those who know at intermediate level. That means while the mean age of those who did not know how to use computers was 60.31, the mean age of those who knew moderate was 34.35. This difference was statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ). (Analyzed by Mann Whitney U test). Negative evaluations on this issue are increasingly seen in the society.

2. This result also affects e-government services use and has very same conclusion. The mean age of the non-users of e-government services was 60.31, while the average age of the users was 34.35. This difference was statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ). (Analyzed by Mann Whitney U test).

3. While not all e-government services users knew how to use computers, all of them used computers at a moderate level. This difference was also statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ) (Analyzed by Pearson Chi-Square test).

Yahya Kemal District is one of the oldest quarters of Kağıthane. During the Ottoman-Russian War between 1877 and 1878, a large part of the population that came to Istanbul from both the Balkan geography and the Caucasian geography settled in Kağıthane district. The acceleration of Balkan migrations in the 1950s caused an increase in the number of residences in Yahya Kemal District. The wave of immigration from Yugoslavia in the 1980s also caused the population of Kağıthane to increase. According to the 2018 data of TURKSTAT; The population of Kağıthane is 437,026. This population consists of 220,089 men and 216,937 women. 50.36% of the district is male and 49.64% is female (6) (TÜİK, 2019). In this respect, it is Yahya Kemal Mahallesi, which is one of the old settlements in Kağıthane, one of the most populous cities of Istanbul and has an important population density of 17.758 (7). Between 04.02.2019 - 09.02.2019, 100 people were interviewed in Yahya Kemal District. This group, which consists of people between the ages of 25-40, is 90 women and 80 men. The responses of the interviewed individuals are summarized in the sample table below:

**Table 23:** Rates of Answers Given to Questions Asked to Neighborhood Residents

<i>Is your internet access speed good</i>	Yes %23,53	No %76,47
<i>Is Using Internet active during the day?</i>	Yes %61,76	No %38,24
<i>Is there a home-based computer and internet access</i>	Yes %69,41	No %30,59
<i>Do you benefit from computer skills learning method online training?</i>	Yes %30,59	No %69,41

As seen in the table, 23.53% answered yes to the question of whether your internet access speed is good or not. When asked why, they stated that there were difficulties in shooting due to infrastructure. Is internet usage active during the day? 61.76% of the participants answered yes to the question. They stated that they access the Internet most of the day to study, watch movies, and even watch recipes. Most of those who say no are working people.

Is there a home-based computer and internet access problem? Participation rate is high. There are desktop computers and tablets, especially laptop, in the homes of the interviewees.

Do you benefit from computer skills learning method online training? We can say that the rate of 69.41% who answered "No" to the related question is mostly those who emphasized that the access in the first question was bad. Benefiting from digitalization, clean energy, and technologies as well as innovative transportation technologies to adopt a city approach, thus offering more environmentally friendly options to residents, and a city is committed to increasing sustainable economic growth and improving service delivery. Urban transformation projects, in fact, aims to improve and transform economic, social, physical, and environmental structure of the areas. However, these projects, local governments and different interest groups began to turn into a source of income, hence a deviation from the original goal. In addition, the long-term implementation results of urban transformation projects, it is said to cause different problems in the city. In addition to digital governance tools, e-government strategies, national information, and communication. Urban management needs to support the development of policies regarding technologies. Including geospatial information systems use of digital platforms and tools, long-term integrated urban and regional planning and design, incentives to improve land administration and management and to ensure access to urban and metropolitan services.

### Significant statistical differences according to descriptive statistics

1. According to statistical analysis, there is a difference between the average age of those who do not know how to use computers and those who know at intermediate level. That means while the mean age of those who did not know how to use computers was 60.31, the mean age of those who knew moderate was 34.35. This difference was statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ). (Analyzed by Mann Whitney U test).

2. This result also affects e-government services use and has very same conclusion. The mean age of the non-users of e-government services was 60.31, while the average age of the users was 34.35. This difference was statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ). (Analyzed by Mann Whitney U test).

3. While not all e-government services users knew how to use computers, all of them used computers at a moderate level. This difference was also statistically significant ( $p = 0.000$ ) (Analyzed by Pearson Chi-Square test).

### Conclusion

This sample from a shanty-town neighborhood uses computer and internet in general for social media. Among the participants, there are people who do not use the e-Government and who are not aware of such a system, providing service independent of working time, facilitating the life of the citizen, and providing with fast, secure, and one-stop access to public services with a single password without any time, space problems. A few of those who are aware of the e-Government have conclude that they do not know how to use this system. A few of the participants stated that they knew how to use the e-Government and that they used the system to check whether their social security insurance was paid. Some participants stated that they did not find the e-Government reliable, and that the transactions performed without a civil servant created dissatisfaction among them.

Based on the findings of the research and surveys conducted in the literature, the necessity of providing resource priority in these areas where cultural adaptation is not easy for the sustainable city and the successful implementation of buffer mechanisms that ensure the integrity of the social structure can be presented as an option that can prevent the deepening of this digital gap.

In conclusion, two main results can be brought to the agenda in this study. First, although Turkey has made significant progress in information and communication technologies, it is still behind OECD countries in comparative performance. The second result is that the digital divide

is deepening day by day. Information and communication technologies continue to develop rapidly. It has succeeded in influencing all segments of society and has brought about a major problem with accessibility. The digital divide, which can be defined as the gap between individuals and communities with and without access to these technologies, is one of the main indicators that determine the level of development of today and countries. One of the main problems that can be listed is the fact that people cannot access these technologies due to financial difficulties; some do not know how to use these technologies even if they have access to them, and most of them do not even know the benefits of this technology. In short, even a few of these reasons cause people to be digitally marginalized, less interacting. However, accessing to these basic technologies, which we cannot work without, should be a right for everyone.

In general, the results of this study, indicates that there is a need for developing projects for disadvantaged groups, and it is important for closing the existing digital gap. Countries should set such policies that households have computers and although these individuals with low income have computers, a few more items such as electricity bill and internet fee are added to their expense-items. Therefore, the burden of these citizens, who suffer from a shortage of living standards, is getting heavier every day. Public policies should support these disadvantaged families through policies tailored to the needs and available to everyone. Fortunately, Turkish public administration has recently regulated this issue by financially supporting lower income households' electricity bill for a basic amount of standard living. Internet access fees should also be reduced, mobilization of computers and internet usage should be initiated in the country and free computer-literacy courses would be provided for everyone. Information and communication technologies by the development index in Turkey also in all regions, especially the digital divide between the eastern and western parts. To increase computer literacy, more investments should be made in education, effective and efficient use of the internet should be ensured without disregarding the determination of policies.

### **Bibliography**

- ACC, (1997). Statement on universal access to basic communication and information services. <http://www.itu.int/acc/rtc/acc-rep.htm>. (Erişim: 23.12.2002).
- Aslantürk Yılmaz A. (2021 ). “Ontolojik Yaklaşımda Mahallenin Fragmanına Sultan Filmi Üzerinden Bakmak”, *SineFilozofi Dergisi*, Cilt, Sayı, 455 – 471.
- Bektaş, Y., Yücel, C. (2013). Ankara-Altındağ tepesi gecekondu bölgesi'nde mekânsal ayrışmanın gözlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma, *Megaron*, 8(2), 115-129.

- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2007). Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı: istatistik, araştırma deseni, SPSS uygulamaları ve yorum (8. Baskı). Ankara: Pegem.
- CID (2002). The global information technology report 2001-2002: readiness for the networked world, Center for International Development at Harvard University.
- Colantonio, A. (2009). Social sustainability: a review and critique of traditional versus emerging themes and assessment methods. In Horner, M., Bebbington, J., Emmanuel, R. (Ed.), SUE-Mot Conference 2009: Second International Conference on Whole Life Urban Sustainability and Its Assessment: Conference Proceedings, (865-885). Loughborough: Loughborough University.
- Conhaim, W. W. (2001). The global digital divide, *Information Today*, 18(7), 2001, 1-3.
- Davis, M. (2007). *Planet of slums*. New York: Verso.
- Dasgupta, S. et. al. (2001). Policy reform, economic growth, and the digital divide: an econometric analysis. World Bank, Development Research Group Working Paper. (Erişim: 13.01.2003).
- Demirci, K. (2021). E - belediye uygulamasını kullanan kent yerleşiklerinin görüşlerinin değerlendirilmesi: Buca belediyesi örneği. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (70), 25-44.
- Demmers, J., O'neil, D. (2001). Leavers and takers: alternative perspectives on universal access to telecommunications technologies. *Techné: Journal of the Society for Philosophy and Technology*, 5(3), 41-61.
- Erbaş, H. and Soydemir, P. (2011) "Sermaye Hareketleri ve "Küresel Kent" olma yolunda İstanbullar", Şahinkaya ve Ertuğrul (ed.) *Bilsay Kuruç'a Armağan*: 635-676.
- Ergun, C. and Koçancı, M. 2017, "Yoksulluk ve Kentsel Mekan Üzerine Birkaç Not...", *Toplum ve Demokrasi*, 11, 24, Temmuz-Aralık: 201-228.
- Ergönül, E , Sadioğlu, U . (2020). "Kentsel Çöküntü Alanları Üzerine Teorik Bir Tartışma", *Kafkas Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi* , Cilt 11 Ek Sayı-1 , 155-180
- Erman, T. (1997). Squatter (gecekondu) housing versus apartment housing: Turkish rural-to-urban migrant residents' perspectives, *Habitat International*, 21 Mart 1997, 91–105.
- Erman, T. (2004) 'Gecekondu Çalışmalarında 'Öteki' Olarak Gecekondu Kurguları' *European Journal of Turkish Studies*, Thematic Issue N°1 - Gecekondu, URL: <http://www.ejts.org/document85.html>.
- Es, M. and Ateş, H. (2010) "Kent Yönetimi, Kentleşme ve Göç: Sorunlar ve Çözüm Önerileri", *Journal of Social Policy Conferences*, 48: 205-248. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/iusskd/issue/890/9892>.
- Heper, M. (1978). *Gecekondu Policy In Turkey*. İstanbul: Boğaziçi University Publications.
- IDC (2002). *World timesinformation society index: measuring the global impact of information technology and internet adoption*. International Data Corporation.
- Işık, O. and Pınarcıoğlu, M. M. (2015) *Nöbetleşe Yoksulluk: Gecekondulaşma ve Kent Yoksulları: Sultanbeyli Örneği*, (10. B.).
- ITU (2002). *World telecommunication development report*, international telecommunication union, Geneva: ITU Publications.

- James, J. (2001). Information technology, cumulative causation, and patterns of globalization in the third world. *Review of International Political Economy*, 8(1), 147-162.
- Kartal, S. K. (1992) *Kentlileşme*, Adım Yayıncılık, Ankara.
- Kılınç, A. Z. & Bezci, B. (2014) “Kentleşme, Gecekondu ve Hemşerilik”, *Akademik İncelemeler Dergisi*, 6, 2: 323-344. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/akademikincelemeler/issue/1548/19024>.
- Koçancı, M and Ergun, C. (2018) “Kent Yoksulluğunun Kentsel Dönüşüm Üzerinden Okunması Urban Poverty Reading Through Urban Transformation”, *Suleyman Demirel University The Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 23, 1: 51-68.
- Korac-Kakabadse, N.et. al. (2000). Information technology and development: 10 creating it harems fostering new colonialism or solving wicked policy problems. *Public Administration and Development*, 20, 171-184.
- Lanvin, B. (2001). Bridging the digital divide: is it too late? *Communications & Strategies*, 41(1). (Access: 20.10.2002).
- Manzo, L. C., Kleit, R. G. and Couch, D. (2008). Moving three times is like having your house on fire once: the experience of place and impending displacement among public housing residents. *Urban Studies*, 45 (9): 1855-1878. .
- McKenzie, S. (2004). *Social sustainability: towards some definitions*, Hawke Research Institute Working Paper Series, No 27, Hawke Research Institute University of South Australia Magill, South Australia.
- Mclean, G.N. (2005). *Organization development: principles, processes, performance*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Menou, M. J. (2001). The global digital divide: beyond ICT era. *Aslib Proceedings*, 53(4), 112-114.
- Munasinghe, M. (2009). *Sustainable development in practice: sustainomics methodology and applications*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Negroponte, N. (1998). The third shall be first the net leverages latecomers in the developing world. *Wired Magazine*, January.
- Neuman, W.L. (2003). *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches* (5. Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2001). *Understanding the digital divide*. [www.oecd.org/pdf/M00002000/M00002444](http://www.oecd.org/pdf/M00002000/M00002444).
- OECD (2001). *Understanding digital divide*. Paris: OECD Publications. Access: 12.10.2010.
- Oruç, E., Arslan, S. (2002). *Sayısal uçurumun önlenmesi: stratejik plan*, Telekomünikasyon Kurumu. Sektörel Araştırma ve Stratejiler Daire Başkanlığı.
- Öktem, B. (2006) “Neoliberal Küreselleşmenin Kentlerde İnşası: AKP’nin Küresel Kent Söylemi ve İstanbul’un Kentsel Dönüşüm Projeleri “, *Planlama*, 2: 53-63.
- Ömürgönülşen, U., Sadioğlu, U. (2009). “Türkiye’de Yakın Dönemde Yapılan Yerel Yönetim Reform Çalışmalarının İl Özel İdarelerine Yansımaları”. *Çağdaş Yerel Yönetimler*, 18/1, 1-22.
- Özdemirli, Y. K. (2014) *Alternative strategies for urban redevelopment: a case study in a squatter housing neighborhood of Ankara*, *Cities* (38), 37-46.

- Özkan, Y. E. and Sidal, S. (2008) “Kentın Dönüşümü ve Yoksulluk / The Urban’s Transformation and Poverty”, Education Science Society Journal, 6, 24, Autumn: 22-49.
- Rodriguez, F., Ernest J. W. (2000). Are poor countries losing the information revolution? World Bank, The Information for Development Program Working Paper, May 2000. (Access: 20.08.2002).
- Röth, L., A. Kaiser, Cß. Varol and U. Sadioğlu (2016). Centre-Periphery Conflict and Ideological Distance in Turkey. Swiss Political Science Review 22(4): 585–607.
- Quibria, M.G. et. al. (2003). Digital divide: determinants and policies with special reference to Asia. Journal of Asian Economics, 13, 811- 825.
- Sadioğlu U, Ömürgönülşen U , Ergönül E, ve Erkul A. K. (2020), “Kentsel Dönüşüm Projelerinin Hazırlık Ve Uygulama Aşamalarında Sosyal Boyutun Analizi: İzmir Örneği”, Memleket Siyaset Yönetim, Cilt: 15 Sayı: 34 Sayfa Aralığı: 243 - 281
- Sadioğlu, Uğur, Tiryaki Veysel ve Abdullah Korkmaz (2016), “Altındağ Belediyesi Örneği Üzerinden Türkiye’de Kentsel Dönüşüm Politikasının Değerlendirilmesi”, A.Ü. Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Dergisi, 71 (3), s. 757-796.
- Sadioğlu, U.(2020).Türkiye’de Kentsel Dönüşümün Anlamı, Aktörleri ve Amaçları, İdealkent, Cilt 11, Sayı: 30, ss.878-908.
- Sadioğlu, U., Dede, K. ve Yüceyılmaz, A. (2017). Yeni Büyükşehir Belediyesi Modelinde Belde Belediyelerinin Sonu: Değirmendere Örneği. Hacettepe Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 35(2), 95-119.
- Sadioğlu, U. ve Eseroğlu, İ. (2017). Kentsel Dönüşümde Kültürel Birikimin Sürekliliği, Kimliğin Muhafazası Ve Aidiyetin Geliştirilmesi: Konya-Bedesten Örneği. U. Ömürgönülşen, M. K. Öktem ve U. Sadioğlu (Ed.), Sürdürülebilir kent ve çevre yönetimi üzerine yazılar I (ss. 223-247). Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Sachs, J. (2000). Today’s world is divided not by ideology but by technology. The Economist, 26 July 2000, 99.
- Shea, W. R. (2002). Global dialogue. Canadian Journal of Sociology, 27(1), 83-89.
- Sohn, L. B. (1973). The Stockholm declaration on the human environment. The Harvard International Law Journal, 14(3), 451-506.
- Steinmueller, W. E. (2001). ICTs and the possibilities for leapfrogging by developing countries. International Labour Review, 140 (2), 193-210.
- Şenyapılı, T. (2004). Baraka’dan gecekonduya-Ankara’da kentsel mekânın dönüşümü: 1923- 1960. İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
- TOKİ. (2015). Kuruluş ve tarihçe, <http://www.toki.gov.tr/kurulus-ve-tarihce>. Son erişim tarihi: 10 Temmuz 2015.
- Uçar, G. (2007). Sağlık kurumlarında örgüt geliştirme çalışmaları: mersin il örneği. (Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Mersin Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Mersin.
- UNDP (1999). Human development report 1999.12 July 1999, New York.
- Vallance, S. (2011). What is social sustainability? A clarification of concepts. Geoforum, 42, 342-348.
- Wilcox, F.R (1998). Home, neighborhood, and renewal: resident perceptions of forced relocation (Unpublished M. Sc. Thesis). Kansas State University, Kansas.

Williams, D.R., Patterson, M.E., Roggenbuck J. W.ve Watson A. E. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. *Leisure Sciences*, 14(1), 29-46.

Wolff, L., Soledad M. (2002). What is the digital divide? *TechKnowLogia*, July – September, 2002, 7-9.