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The Graduate School

IN THE CHANGING SOCIAL STRUCTURE

PROBLEMS OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

WHO ARE IN NEED OF PROTECTION

RELATED WITH URBAN PHYSICAL STRUCTURE

&

PROPOSAL FOR SOLUTION OF THIS PROBLEM

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this thesis is to find solutions to the problems of children who are in need of protection, especially to the problems involving their physical and social environment. In order these children to be integrated into the urban environment, their problems are needed to be solved by new planning regulations, new planning policies and the children's village being a new type of urban land use should be proposed in our city plans.

In this context, also the location criteria, area requirements and design guidelines are developed and a prototype plan of a children's village; which is an alternative living environment, is proposed.

ÖZ

Bu tezin ana amacı korunmaya korunmaya muhtaç çocukların, özellikle fiziksel ve sosyal çevre ile olan sorunlarına çözüm aramaktır. Korunmaya muhtaç çocukların kentsel çevreyle bütünleşebilmesi için yeni yönetmelikler, yeni planlama politikaları, yaklaşımları gerekmekte ve çocuk köyleri yeni tip bir kentsel alan kullanımı olarak kent planlarında önerilmelidir. Bu bağlamda, tezin içeriğine uygun olarak, çocuklar için alternatif bir yaşam çevresi olabilecek bir çocuk köyünün yerseçim ilkeleri, mekan gereksinimi ve tasarım ilkeleri geliştirilmiş ve örnek bir tasarım gerçekleştirilmiştir.

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INTRODUCTION

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socialization are some concepts that are beginning to b

world, and they all interact with each other to create new physica

On this basis, it is true to say that, with these changes and progress

will exist, and new physical structures and forms will be essential to meet their den

(requirements) in the future.

In today's urban life the effects of these changes have begun to be seen. When the social structure of the cities in the past is compared with present conditions, it is clear that, new kinds of social groups have emerged. These groups include elderly, children, women and disabled people, who live in and share the same atmosphere of the urban life that we do, and who need special designs in order to integrate with the society and in order to not to feel marginalized.

These special groups have not simply taken into consideration and/or we, as planners and designers, are just unaware of them. They have their own requirements that can be physical, social and psychological.

First of all, since each person lives in a society of some kind, he/she should feel that he/she belongs to that society in all terms. This is a right that should and could not be taken away by restrictions or arrangements of any kind. The roles in the society are defined according to the present and/or past system of the society. However, there is future ahead of us with its new problems and new solutions.

In social life, parallel with the industrialization and urbanization, family structure was affected, also. The traditional family that consists of parents, children and the extended family members transformed into the nuclear family. It forced the physical structure of the city to change at every level.

Now we are on the threshold of another transformation age. The basic change in this age will be in social life and new family patterns will start to be seen; bringing with them new physical structuring in the cities.

The content of this thesis is about the children who are in need of protection and who are or will be most affected by these social changes and transformations.

The main goal of this research is to understand their problems related with their living urban environment and try to develop some solutions both at social, administrative and physical levels. The selection of place, the place requirements and design guidelines and the criteria about these subjects are determined as the goals of this research.

The changes seen in social life are studied first to determine the new emerging social structure. The groups which have formed due to these new structuring are classified. The next step is to study the problems and the solutions for these new groups. After giving a general view on the sub-groups that formed in the urban environment, this study is focused on children.

Within this content a comprehensive literature and Internet survey is done. A further survey in the children's villages (Barbaros and Bolluca Children's Villages) is done in order to see the samples of children's villages.

In the first chapter a general view on the subject is given. The second chapter consists of the new structuring in the social life, the family concept and transformations and new patterns that are seen through out world.

In the third chapter the special groups in the society are examined. Elderlies, handicapped people, homeless people, and women are studied.

The fourth chapter is about the children in need of protection. In this chapter first the meaning and sociology of childhood is studied. Then, the rapid urbanization and its influences on children, how it caused new terms like street children and children in need of protection came into being.

In the fifth chapter the children's villages are discussed. The history of the establishment of the villages is briefly studied. This chapter also involves the information about the children's villages in Turkey; Bolluca and Barbaros. Another important point is the evaluation site selection criteria, the facilities and space requirements and design principles of the children's villages.

Sixth chapter is about the children's village project proposal. The first part is about the general characteristics of Urla where the project is developed. The second part includes the site analysis of the project area and the last part is the report of the project.

The last chapter is the conclusion of this thesis.

Chapter 2

FAMILY - A SOCIAL INSTITUTION AND THE CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURE

Family has seen as the main social institution for centuries. It had and still has the power to shape and reshape the social formation. Recently a transformation began to occur in the concept of family.

This chapter is about the meaning of the family, the changes that occurred before and recently, the alternatives to family. It is important to understand these changes, because this social phenomenon is influential on many other social changes.

2. 1. The Meaning of Family

One of the most important branches of sociology is the study of family and marriage. In all of the societies, throughout the world, marriage and family exist as a social institution with varying patterns. Also, it is true to say that patterns of marriage and family life changed through time and is still changing in the current era.

The definition of basic concepts of family, kinship and marriage are essential before they will be analyzed in detail. "A family is a group of persons directly linked by kin connections, the adult members of which assume responsibility for caring for children." (Giddens, 1993, p.390)

"Kinship ties are connections between individuals, established either through marriage or through the lines of descent that connect blood relatives. Marriage can be defined as a socially acknowledged and approved sexual union between two adult individuals." (Giddens, 1993, p.390)

In most societies kinship connections include only the close relatives. However, in small-scale cultures individuals believe that they have relations with every person in that society.

In traditional societies there is another grouping called as clan. "A clan is a group in which all members believe themselves to be descended, either through men or through women, from a common ancestor several generations back." (Giddens, 1993, p.390)

Members of the same clan usually have similar religious believes and they share the same locality. Number of individuals in clan groups vary from very small numbers to thousands of people.

Family types also show some differences like kinship groups. Nuclear family that consists of parents and children, extended family that includes also the grandparents, uncles, aunts, cousins, etc. are two general family types.

In all societies the family has the same basic functions regardless from the changes that can be seen from one society to the other. These functions can be listed as: "sexual regulations, reproduction, socialization, economic cooperation and emotional security" (Thio, 1993, p.221)

So, according to these definitions it is quite true to say that especially in western societies where traditional communities and/or societies are less seen, marriage, family ties, nuclear family are concepts that are closely related with each other.

Every society has some kind of sexual regulation to reinforce the social order. In Western societies the sexual norms are relatively restrictive than more traditional societies.

Reproduction is a term used for the production of children to replace the older people who die. Since the societies need children as a survival element they give special importance to the family life and to marriage where child bearing is legal and approved (Thio, 1991)

In societies children are not only seen as members who are essential to survive but also as members with which the social norms are transmitted through. And the family is the most important subject of socialization.

Economic cooperation and emotional security are the other aspects to family life. Economic cooperation that includes physical care for the children and also for the whole family.

Each family member cooperates as an economic unit. Children are emotionally affected by the relationships within the family and later in the social life, as they take their place as adults, form their own values according to these relations. (Thio, 1991)

Trough the years family was seen as the center for educational, religious, political, economic and recreational activities and training. Today, in traditional families this situation still exists, however it is not a typical condition in industrialized societies. Instead, specialized institutions like schools, religious affiliations and similar

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governmental organizations have replaced some of the families' functions. The only family function that cannot be replaced by institutional functions is the emotional security which is the main reason for the family and the marriage to survive still, even in industrialized societies. (Thio, 1991)

There is another perspective to the family life which can be called as the dark side of the family. "The dark side of family life is extensive and belies the rosy images of harmony that is quite often emphasized in TV commercials and elsewhere in the popular media." (Giddens, 1993, p.413)

This conflict perspective involves the domestic violence, that leads to separation, divorce or even to mental illnesses and also the exploitation of women.

In every society there are some restrictions to prevent members to act violently to each other. If anyone is to break this law or restriction he/she is to be punished by organizations that have the power to put these rules. The only group in the society that is empowered by law and tradition to act violently to its members is the family. So, domestic violence is a very serious problem in most societies.

Domestic violence within the family is usually done by males; fathers or husbands towards children and wives. "In statistical terms, a person of any age or of either sex is far more likely to be subject to physical attack in the home than on the street at night." (Giddens, 1993, p.417)

Many factors are involved in domestic violence. According to sociologists the most important factor is "the combination of emotional intensity and personal intimacy characteristic of family life." (Giddens, 1993, p.417) The second factor is violence within the family is tolerated and approved of the society. Being the husband of a woman or the father of a child seems as a 'license for hitting.' (Giddens, 1993). It is the cultural acceptability of domestic violence.

This toleration, approval or cultural acceptability can be seen in many research studies. In these studies it is a common idea that "no one can hit anyone else, no matter how objectionable or irritating they may be." (Giddens, 1993, p.418).

However, it is also a fact that most of the couples, in these studies, "believe that in some circumstances it is legitimate for a spouse to strike the other." (Giddens, 1993, p.418)

Another point of view to the family and marriage can be summarized as an organization where women usually are exploited by men. "Housewives and mothers have

greatly contributed to the rise and maintenance of capitalism with such forms of labor as reproduction and care of children, food preparation, daily health care and emotional support." (Thio, 1991, p.223). This household production able men to go out working. However women get no wage for this domestic work while men are paid for their job outside the home. As a traditional point of view the men are the breadwinner in the family life while women deal only with the household production.

"A century ago, Karl Marx's collaborator Friedrich Engels (1884) observed that the family is an arena of class conflict where the well-being and development of one group are attained by the misery and repression of the other." (Thio, 1991, p.223)

2. 2. Changes in Family Patterns and Life

The new social structuring in urban life is reflected on family and marriage patterns, too. The new groups, women and children in the society formed by this new structuring. Before studying these two new groups, it is essential to examine the family patterns, and how and why they are formed and how they affect the women and children.

2. 2. 1. The Traditional Family

"Before industrialization, most families were also units of production, working the land or engaged in crafts." (Giddens, 1993, p.393)

The socio-economic structure of the pre-industrial societies was dependent mostly on the family work. Therefore, every person in the family, including the children, had to work either for his family or, for other families in order to earn wage. This family work needed a large group of family members, causing an extended family model where parents, children, grandparents living together in a house. It was usual for the children at early age to leave their house to do domestic work in the houses of others, to earn their own life. The production of work, the economic level of the family were closely related with the number of people who work either for their own families or in other families' houses. (Giddens, 1993)

In medieval Europe, at the western countries the nuclear family was the usual form, while at the eastern parts extended family groups existed mostly. (Giddens, 1993)

With the industrialization a new family form occurred. Industrialization was the main reason for the contraction of the extended family. In an industrialized society workers go out of the home for a wage. "That requires geographic mobility, which reduces interaction among relatives and makes it impossible to share routinely in the mutual obligations that mark the extended family." (Thio, 1991, p.223)

Due to the changing socio-economic conditions of the era, nuclear family substituted the extended family. As mentioned above many "other institutions evolved to provide education, health care and entertainment, so that they further reduce despondence on the kin network." (Thio, 1991, p.223)

This transformation started earlier in developed countries as a result of early industrialization; whereas in the third world countries it began later in time and is still continuing. The reasons of these changes are rather complex but there are some basic ones including rapid industrialization, urbanization and globalization. In developing countries the effects of these concepts on family patterns started to be seen more generally recently. (Giddens, 1993)

The most important changes that take place in today's world can be listed as below:

1. Clans and other kin groups' influences on the society is declining.
2. Couples are free to choose their spouse so the arranged marriages that occur in extended family systems are declining.
3. Women are becoming more aware of their rights within the family both in choices and also in decision-making processes.
4. In traditional cultures, most marriages are kin marriages where people are expected to marry a partner chosen from a specific group or clan.
5. In developing countries the restriction on sexual freedom is decreasing.
6. Many countries began to give special attention to the children's rights to protect children. (Giddens, 1993)

According to these trends there is a tendency toward the nuclear family. However, in some societies the extended and traditional family form still exists. Dominant family form varies from one culture to another, and from one economic structure to another. The determining factor is the rate of rapid industrialization and urbanization.

Industrialization and urbanization have different effects on the developed and developing countries. While on the developed and developing it forces nuclear family patterns to form in the second group of countries it may be effective on the formation of traditional family types. Also, in developing countries higher proportion of extended families can be found in urban areas rather than rural areas. The reason for this incident is the migration from rural to urban areas.

This may be a subject to a more detailed studies, but in short it is related with the socio-economic conditions of the country. Another type of migration began to occur in some countries where regional wars are seen. People and families, because of the above mentioned reasons, migrate from cities or regions to other cities or regions, where they think they will be safe or where they hope to be in better socio-economic conditions.

In large cities however, there are larger problems for the emigrants to overcome. The most important problem is to find a place, house to stay. In this point, the housing conditions in the cities are seen as additional problems. So, most of the emigrants have to stay with their relatives that come to the city, before. This explains how and why industrialization and urbanization in some of the developing countries forces traditional extended families to form in urban areas.

Another extreme sample can be given from Poland where the industrialization and urbanization are completed at the beginning of the twentieth century. In Poland extended family pattern began to exist again in the last ten years. In some regions of the country, while young generation work in industrial businesses, elderlies run the household and bring up the children. This a sample of how economic conditions can affect the family patterns. (Giddens, 1993)

2. 2. 2. Changes in the Family Form

The traditional and nuclear family types are changing constantly, forcing new kinds of patterns to develop. In America, the traditional family had a 40 percent proportion in 1970, while it declined to 26 percent in 1990. This change can be seen in many other countries, as well. (Thio, 1991)

This trend shows us that the social groups are on the threshold of great social changes and transformations. The changing concept of the family and marriage is to be

considered the main reasons for this new structuring. It can be accepted as important as the change from traditional family patterns to nuclear family types.

"According to Rappoport families, today, are in a transition from coping in a society in which there was a single overriding norm of what family life should be like to a society in which a plurality of norms are recognized as legitimate, and indeed desirable." (Giddens, 1993, p.400)

Rappoport in his research (Rappoport, 1982) identifies five types of diversity: organizational, cultural, class, life course and cohort. (Giddens, 1993)

Today, the organization of the families domestic duties and the relation with their social environment varies. This organization differs from traditional families to dual-career or one-parent families. Family beliefs and values are beginning to be influenced by the movements like feminism or by the presence of ethnic minorities in the society. Class divisions between the poor working class and other groupings within the middle and upper classes cause variations in family forms. Life course, mentioned here, describes the family conditions in which one is brought up. Cohort is the term that refers to generations within families. Relations and connection between the generations are becoming weaker. (Giddens 1993)

The symptoms of this change is more thoroughly seen in the developed countries rather than in the third world countries or in traditional social groups. The reasons can be both socio-economical and sociological. The traditional groups resist the new ways of social life for a longer period of time. However, as in the traditional-nuclear family transformation even if it takes some time this change will occur in the future, in every country and social group.

Even trough the nuclear family concept is protected by laws, restrictions or by religious organizations, the new pattern of family life continues to spread out very rapidly. The conditions of social life depends on people that form the community. This dependency causes a very strong relation and interaction between the people of a certain social group and the norms of that society. The norms should change according to the new conditions and the community should change according to these new norms. Sometimes the social life changes more rapidly than the norms and then there occurs a conflict between the people and the present values and norms.

The laws or any kind of restrictions or rules that were once put into application should be updated for the behalf of the community. If these arrangements are not made, the present laws or norms will be well behind the social life.

In some countries the arrangements that are essential for new family patterns are considered seriously or just started to be taken into consideration. Therefore, the problems that can take place in daily life are solved by governmental acts. However in some countries where traditional values are stronger it is for sure, that it will take some period of the time to adapt the laws and rules.

2. 2. 3. The Alternatives to Marriage and the Family

In the countries where new family structures, patterns are seen there is not only one pattern. Change from traditional family pattern to nuclear family pattern, resulted one type of family. On the other hand the change from nuclear family type to new forms will and started to exist in different forms.

These new forms can be accepted as the alternatives to the marriage and the family patterns that were widely known bout till the last decade. The most common new types are listed below:

-Communes:

"In the nineteenth century, numerous thinkers proposed that family life should be replaced by more communal forms of living" (Giddens, 1993, p.418)

One of the most important sample is the Oneida Community in USA that was based on the religious beliefs. In this communal society, marriages had to be done within the same commune and all of them were parents of every child living in the commune. Oneida, Community, the first commune in the world's history, endured for about thirty years. From then on there, established many communes based on the rules of Oneida act many communes were founded, most and collective responsibility for the children. (Giddens, 1993)

At present there exists a new way of communes in Israel. It is called kibbutz and is a community in which all people are involved in established most of children. When they were first enterprises, but today there is also industrial production. In Israel there are about 240 kibbutz with about 100.000 members. The rage of members varies from 50 members to 2000 members.

"Each kibbutz operates as though it were a single household, childcare being treated as the responsibility of the whole community rather than the family. In some, children live in special children's houses rather than with their parents, although they usually spend weekends with their families." (Giddens, 1993, p.418)

In the case of kibbutzim, the ownership of the properties are communal and the basic idea is to escape from the competitive modern societies. The basic idea still exists but there are some arrangements that were done through the years. For example, children can stay with their parents, using the children's houses for other activities and facilities. (Giddens, 1993)

-Cohabitation:

The meaning of cohabitation is living together in a house without being married.

In the past it was very rare for the couples to live together, because of strict religious beliefs and strict social rules. However, today in many western countries like USA, Britain and Nordic countries cohabitation is spreading and is not regarded badly, as it was in the past. (Giddens, 1993)

In the United States the number of unmarried couples living together was about 2 million in 1988. Social disapprovement declined and their rights are protected legally. (Thio, 1991)

"In Nordic countries there is also an increase in the rate of cohabitation. In Sweden in 1960 for example only 1 percent of couples cohabited; today that figure has risen to an estimated 25 percent." (Giddens, 1993, p.419). Like in the United States unmarried couples have a legal status in the Nordic countries. (Giddens, 1993)

-Two Carrier Marriages:

In the last 50 years, especially due to the socio-economic and population changes and new conditions after World War II married women started to work outside home.

The rate of working wives increased through time from 14 percent in 1940 to 50 percent in the 1980's. In dual-earning families the ratio of income increased too; causing these families not to fall below the poverty line. (Thio, 1991). Two-carrier marriages and how women are affected by this will be studied in the next chapter, in detail.

-Single- parent families:

Single parent family is the newest alternative family pattern mostly seen in developed western countries. Increase in divorce rates and out-of-wedlock birth rates are the main reasons for this situation. (Thio, 1991)

In most of the traditional countries or communities it is still very rare to find single-parent families, because of the laws, social norms and economic conditions of women. Therefore, it is not a common family pattern in the developing countries, but especially nongovernmental organizations like women's organizations that are active on women's rights are effective for the society and the government to give a special attendance to this subject.

Single-parent households usually consist of mother and children, since after the divorce usually the wife takes the custody of the children. In contrast with the traditional and nuclear family patterns, the women are both the breadwinner and the head of the family.

In the United States the proportion of single-parent families show an increase from 11 percent in 1970 to 27 percent in 1987, (Giddens, 1993)

"Compared with two-parent families, female headed families are more likely to experience social and psychological stress, such as unemployment, job change, lack of social support, negative self-image and pessimism about the future." (Thio, 1991, p. 231)

One of the most important problem is the economic insecurity and the living conditions related to their economic situation. Low income causes poor living conditions that can have severe effects, especially on children. Even with child support payments it is quite impossible for these families to have an ordinary living. (Thio, 1991)

Today most of the single-parent families are seen after divorces or deaths of the spouses. Recent studies show that there exists a minor group of women who wish to have a child without any marriage, too. This group is called as single mothers by choice. (Giddens, 1993)

> "Single-mothers by choice is an apt description of some lone parents, normally these who possess sufficient resources to manage satisfactorily as a single-parent household. For the majority of unmarried or never-married mothers, however, the realty is different: there is a high correlation between the rates of births outside marriage and indicators of poverty and social deprivation." (Giddens, 1993, p.410)

-Staying Single:

One of the alternatives to marriage and family is staying single and it is seen most commonly in the modern Western societies.

According to Giddens (1993) there are three main reasons for the increase in the rate of single people: trend towards later marriages, the rising rate of divorce and the death of a spouse.

The number of women and men who choose this kind of life style is increasing as well as the other family patterns. There are some reasons for this new change. First of all, when sociologically examined there is lesser social pressure or people to marry, than it was in the past. Secondly, from the women's point of view marriage is not considered as the only opportunity to gain the economic security and social respectability as it used to be.

With new education and career opportunities many women choose a life with well education and a work outside home. This is especially true for the younger generation. They see the marriage and the family as a handicap for their career. The ratio of woman who choose to stay single is higher in large cities than it is in small towns or communities. (Thio, 1991). This situation is closely related with the dominant power of social norms over people. In small communities this power is stronger, whereas in larger ones it weakens.

Our world is changing, developing and producing constantly. Each step is taken more rapidly ,causing sharp pains ,to overcome. The next era will be based on women and maybe on children, later. Symptoms are unresistable and very clear; new social structuring, new family patterns, women's and children's acts are some of the indicators of the new era. Sometimes, to accept is better and easier than to resist.

In the next chapter, the groups that began to emerge in the society due to the sudden changes and transformations in the family patterns are examined.

Chapter 3

SPECIAL GROUPS IN THE SOCIETY

Urban life of today's world is not as simple as it was before the rapid urbanization and industrialization began to occur. With this phenomena simple social structure entered into a transformation age, also causing changes in the physical structure. As a result physical structuring in the cities, involving both urban forms and architectural forms, was adapted to new social forms.

Urban pattern and architectural forms of pre-industrial city were available for every person living in the city. It can be concluded that the forms and scales were rather at human scale. So, the users were less affected by the forms.

However with industrialization, starting with the building types, forms and construction progresses, first the architectural forms, then related with this, urban forms began to change. The users began to be affected by these changes and transformations.

Cities, that were functional for all people, till this period of time, began to be used only by some group of people. Some other group of people like elderlies, disabled people, children and recently mentally ill, mentally handicapped, terminally ill and later women began to use cities, lesser and lesser, in their daily lives. In other words, they were forced to become strangers to the cities they were living in. Almost all of the activities and/or facilities were planned only for the usage of the first group of people.

Although they were supposed to share the same atmosphere in the city, they could not. They were omitted from urban plans, urban designs and in architectural designs. Solutions at any design scale were made as though every person in the society has the same physical characteristics, but they did not.

Recently, planners, designers and architectures became aware of the existence of these special groups and started to put some solutions for their integration into the society and into the city.

Among these special groups, that were listed above, especially elderlies, handicapped, homeless people, children and women are studied in this thesis. There are two main reasons for this choice: one is that these groups quantitatively form a very large group in the society and the second is that for all of these groups both social and

design policies can be developed. In the next two chapters children will be studied in detail.

3. 1. Elderly

Every country has or at least should have the aim producing sufficient housing for everybody in the society. It should be sufficient in quality and also in quantity. This aim can be hard to reach, since there is increase in the number of population and increase in the heterogeneity of the population.

Elderly like other subgroups were disregarded for a long period of time. Now, the effects of this disregardness is seen mostly in the developed countries, where the social structure, and family life has changed related with the other socio-economic and social changes and transformations. In third world countries, where traditional and nuclear family patterns are still the main family forms, it is essential to make some adaptations and provisions for the future.

3. 1. 1. Housing Policies and Elderly

The population increase ratio and the ratio of elderly people among the whole population vary from country to country. However, it is true that generally in the developing countries increase in population is higher than the industrialized countries. Another important condition is there is an increase in young population ratio in developing countries and an increase in elderly population ratio in industrialized countries. This means that the population of developing countries mostly consists of young generation and the population of industrialized countries mostly consist of elderly people.

With the help of several factors, that include the improvement in living and health conditions, people have more chance to live longer and also have more chance to recover from the illnesses. As the rate of economic conditions increase the elderly population's proportion increase, too (Brink, 1996)

"For a number of reasons some elderly people have become identified as a group needing specialized housing help. People are living longer and the number of elderly

people has been growing quickly as a proportion of the population. Secondly, the health of elderly people although improving, is not as secure as that of younger people. Thirdly, the fragmentation of family life through the shrinking of household size means that an increasing proportion of old people are either living alone or living with a frail and elderly partner" (Ineicher,1993, p.73)

The housing conditions, according to the reasons defined above are important, but there is another perspective that is closely related with the housing policies of the countries; and this is to provide the elderlies with sufficient number of houses.

Today, when the general housing projects, either done by private or public sector, the main idea is the nuclear family and its requirements. If the society has involved only one social group or pattern it would have been right to produce houses only for this group. However the reality is not so. Society involves many different groups needing different types of houses. Elderlies are one of them.

As a result of this occasion elderlies, especially those who have lower wages or incomes have to shelter in houses and buildings in worse conditions. The housing supply for the elderlies in the settlements and in neighborhood areas has fallen behind the demand. Estimations that were done recently show that only a very small proportion of the elderlies can live in special houses that fit their requirements, larger proportion in nursing homes, but largest proportion in the houses that can be found in the market. (Brink, 1996)

Culture has some effects on the conditions of elderlies and their housing problems, too. In the societies where traditional and nuclear family patterns are mostly seen elderlies continue to live with their families. On the other hand, "in contemporary societies, the changing social and cultural patterns lead to the residual groups of elderly extracted from the families." (Kaya, 1991, p.2) Thus, elderlies are forming a new group that needs special importance, due to this change and formation.

The housing problem of elderlies should be considered in relation with the above mentioned subjects. The solution is to create new housing systems to supply their demand. This subject needs special studies in urban planning, urban design and architectural scales. It has both the sociological and planning perspectives to create an environment both in and outside the houses which elderlies will live comfort.
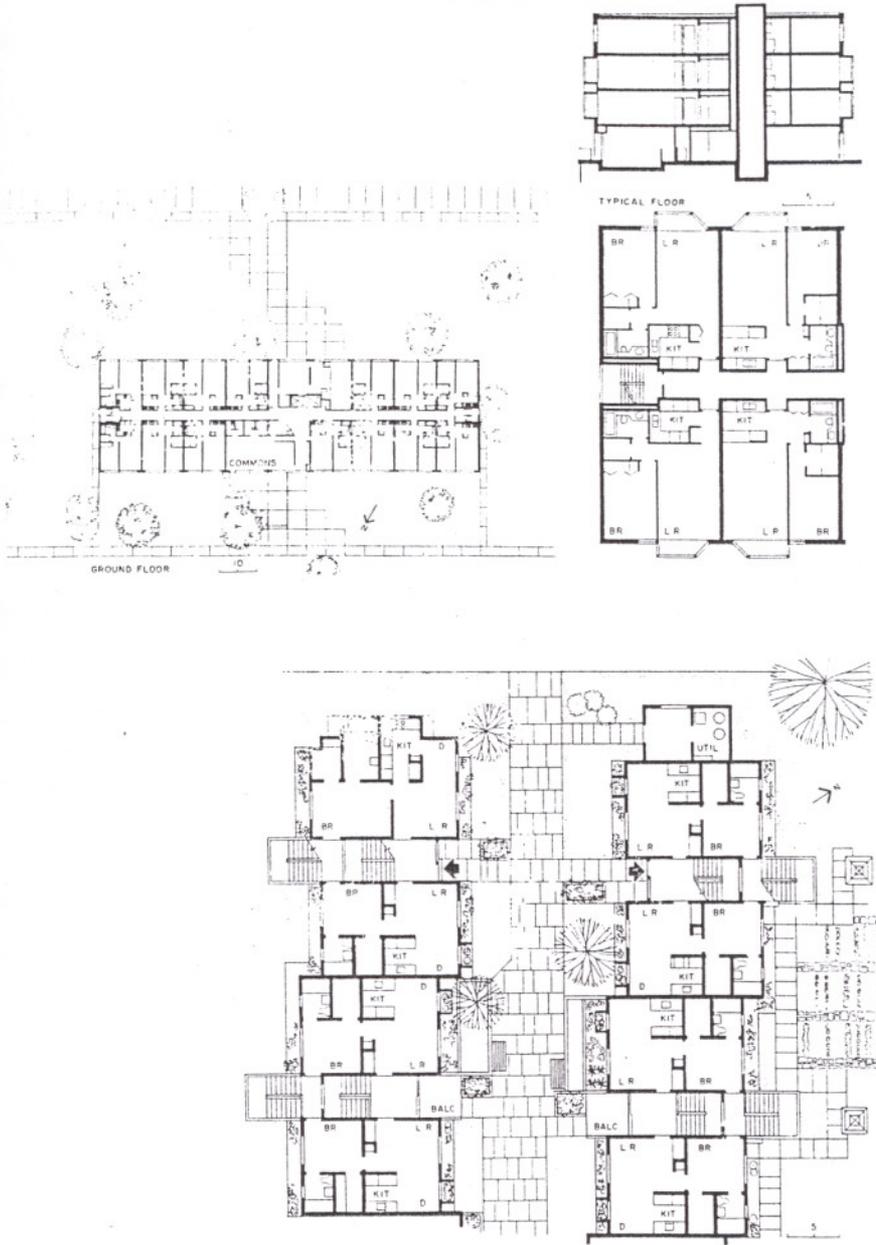
Fig. 3. 1. Typical plan of apartments for elderlies (De Chiara, 1995, p.924)

3. 1. 2. Criteria For Locating Housing For the Elderly

"In the coming years, a greater proportion of houses, apartments and institutional accommodations will be built for elderly persons than at any previous time in our history." (De Chiara et. al., 1995, p.126). Increase in the number of elderly people in the population, the passing of the three-generation household, decrease in the income of elderly people are the main reasons for creating special projects for the elderlies.

These special projects need different design criteria than the ordinary design criteria. Elderly household usually form of one or two people, therefore need minimum space. There are also the needs caused by physical deterioration in old age.

"In addition, certain basic psychological and sociological principles should be observed in planning for the elderly." (De Chiara et. al., 1995, p.126). Elderly people usually do not want to live in a foreign environment and need activities and community functions to participate in daily life.

Neighborhood environment and site are important factors in locating housing for the elderly. Neighborhood environment should provide comfort security and independence. "It should be basically residential, possess the normal range of community facilities, have convenient public transportation and be removed from particularly objectionable land users." (De Chiara, et. al., 1995, p.126). For example location of housing for elderlies does not need to be near schools or playgrounds. On the other hand it is preferable to locate them close to facilities like supermarkets, public transport stops, medical facilities, social center, banks, shopping areas, etc. (De Chiara, et. al., 1995)

The selection of the site involves the following items:

> "topography should be as level as possible to minimize the need for steep walks, ramps or stairs; the site should not be bounded on all sides by major traffic arteries, essential commercial facilities should be close at hand; public transportation should be immediately available at the site; the site should be large enough to permit the development of adequate outdoor areas for both active and passive recreation." (De Chiara, et. al., 1995, p.126)

In planning housing accommodations for the elderly should involve. "Small size and compactness for convenience and economy; fireproof construction planned for maximum safety; minimizing of the problems and effort of housekeeping and daily

activities; livability, pleasantness and the effect of spaciousness; a high degree of privacy; careful avoidance of an institutional look." (De Chiara, et. al., 1995, p.126)

3. 1. 3. Some Housing Solutions For the Elderlies

To solve the problems of elderly people, some attempts were made, recently. Each country or society tried to solve this problem in relation with its social structure and demands from the elderly population.

Generally, elderly people are provided with a house where they can live together as a group. The most common alternative is the institutional care as in Turkey. Another kind of housing is the "sheltered housing that is the least supported kind of residence for those unable to cope in their own home" (Ineichen, 1993, p. 74)

Sheltered housing is a system that involves at least a dozen dwelling on the same estate. Some of the sheltered housings are provided by the government whereas some are privately built. (Ineichen, 1993)

Samples from different countries are given below in order to compare each country's look on this problem.

1. Germany-Residenz Schlob Sterren:

Residenz Schlob Sterren is a site that consists of 900 years old castle with residences around the castle. It is a typical elderly housing, created for the middle and high income groups, with recreational facilities and other essential services.

Even though this resident is ideal for the retired people it is rather isolated and disconnected from the outer life and environment. Cultural and supportive facilities like thermal treatment, swimming pools, music hall, cafeterias create a social center environment where elderlies with the same interests gather together. (Francis, 1996)

2. England-The Mount Project:

Mount Project is one of the first projects in England done. by an association named as "Help the Aged".

It is a middle sized project located in a quiet environment on a rural area, consisting of four buildings in a garden. Each of these buildings have different floor plans; three of them have apartment floors with one and two bedrooms, while the fourth

one is studio type floors.

There are also some recreational facilities like library and gardening. This residence supplies a daily life with other services like cleaning, bathing, laundry and preparing meals. (Francis, 1996)

3. Japan-Sakura Yuyu-no-Sato:

It is a site located in a neighborhood and consists of five buildings and there exist services like commercial center, post office, bank, etc. within the site. Each of these five buildings are divided into separate apartment floors with kitchen, bathroom, living room and bedroom. Three of the buildings also involve common services like clinic and rehabilitation center.

The site has many recreational facilities like a swimming pool, sauna, restaurant, chess club, arts and crafts center, gardening. Most of the facilities can be used by the people who live in the same neighborhood. (Francis, 1996)

4. Holland-Jan Van Der Ploeg:

It is a complex for elderlies, which is located at the city center of Rotterdam and is constructed by a private institution.

It was designed like an atrium with apartment floors on the periphery and common usage's at the center. Each apartment floor has its own kitchen, bathroom, living room and bedroom. The kitchens face the inner side of the atrium to the common space and bedrooms, living rooms face the street an outer space.

There is an interior circulation corridor that takes place around the atrium that has an organized inner garden and stilling places for the users.

On the first floor grocery store, library, billiard saloon takes place. Apart from these usage's there are health services in accordance with the needs and requirements of the users. These services are organized so that the surrounding neighborhood can benefit from these services, too. (Francis, 1996)

5. Sweden-Martenslund

It is a middle size project that consists of sixty units in a three storey building. On the first floor there is restaurant and other common usage's. On the upper floors there
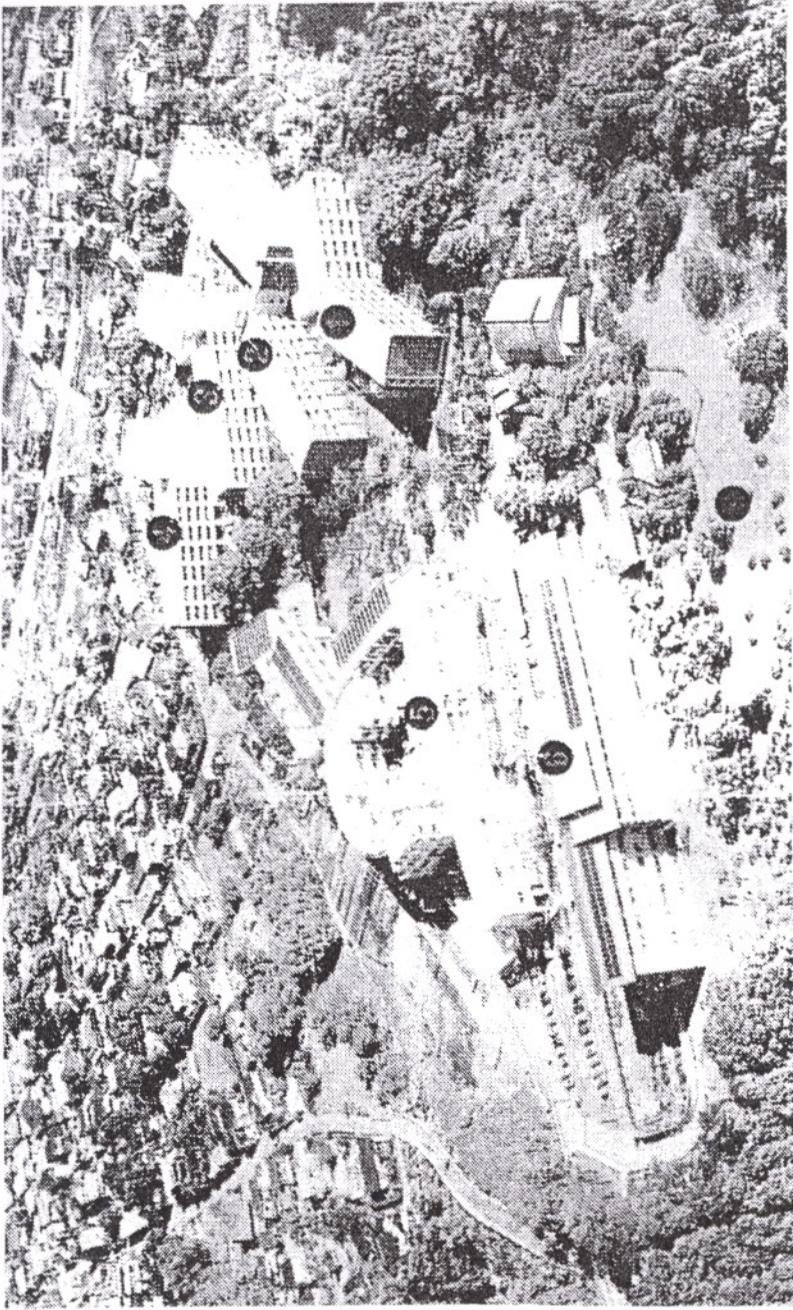
Fig.3. 2. Sakura Yuyu–no-Sato (Japan) (Francis, 1996, p.412)
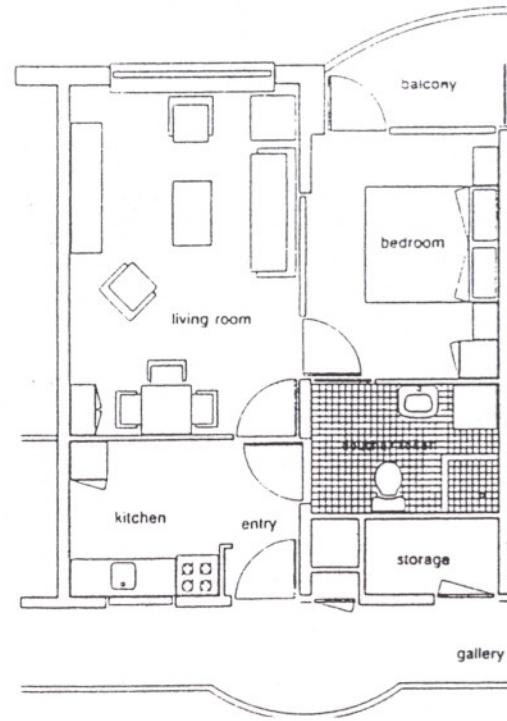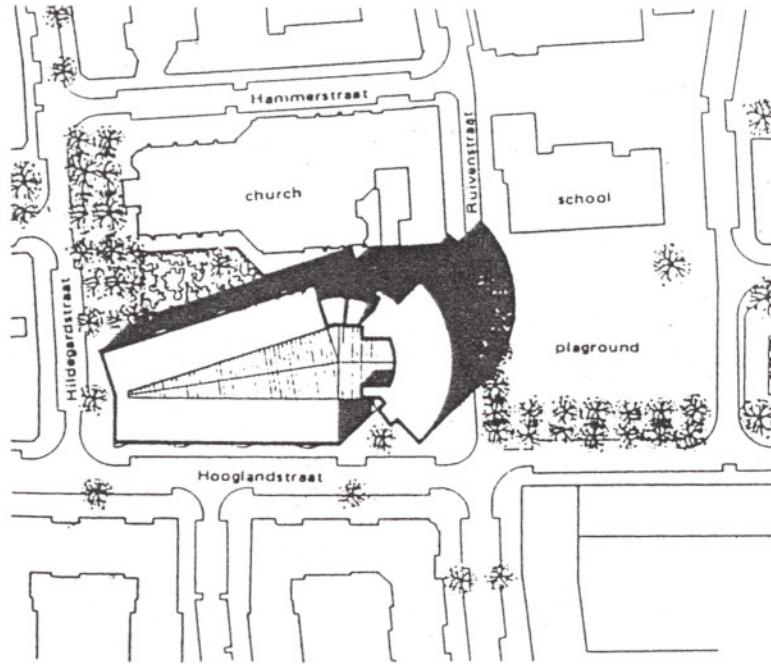
Fig.3. 3. Jan Van Der Ploeg (Holland) (Francis, 1996, p.413)
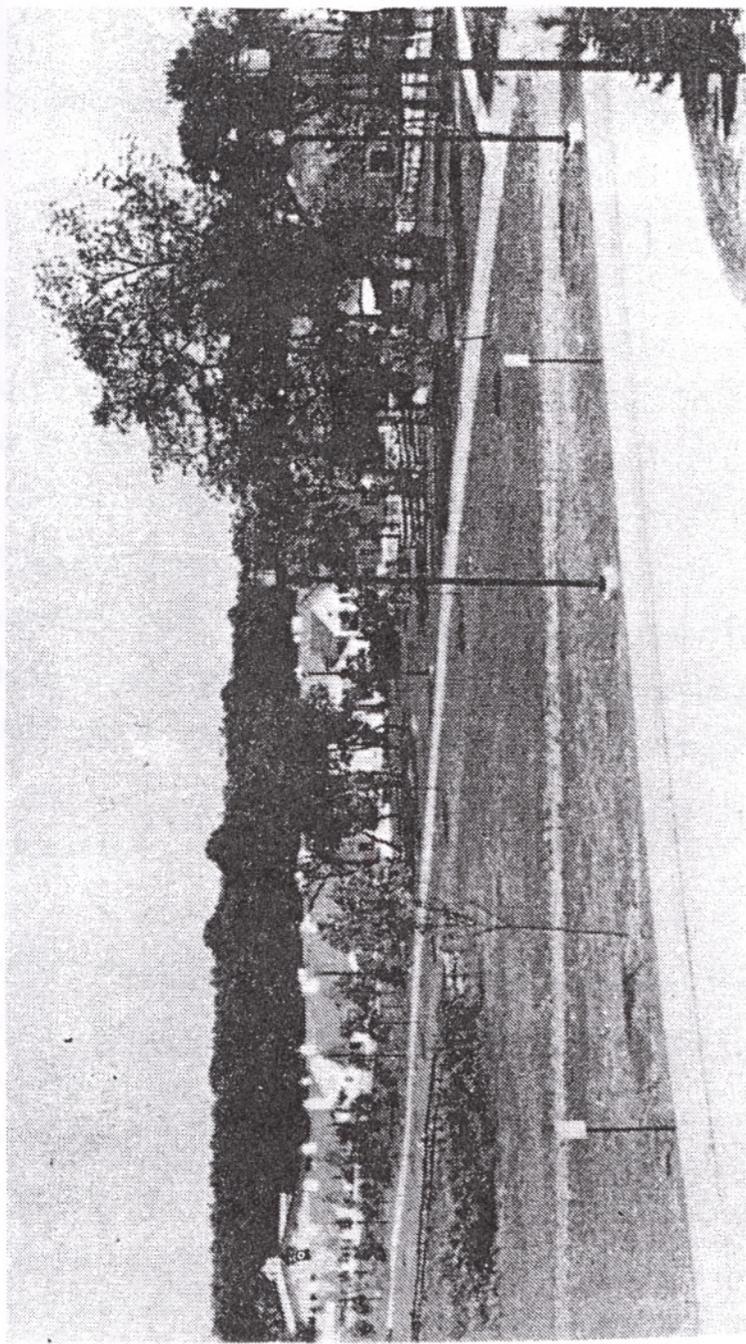
Fig.3. 4. The White Horse Village (USA) (Francis, 1996, p.415)

are living units. The dining rooms on the second and third floors act as a gathering place for the dwellers.

The ages of the residents are over 85, so they require a professional health care due to their physical deformation. There is no outdoor recreational facilities due to over aging.

The site is located close to city center and this caused easy transportation to the commercial center, post office, pharmacy, bank, etc. The swimming pool and the restaurant act as a gathering place and form an easy interrelation with the neighborhood.

6. USA-White Horse Village:

The site involves 38 apartment buildings and small houses scattered on a large piece of land within a forest. It is 8 km far from the closest city, center and forms quite an isolated residence. However, every requirement was tried to be solved within the site.

It has many recreational facilities like swimming pool, mini-golf, exercising and sports hall, arts and crafts center, library and small commercial activities, banks, etc. If a resident wishes he/she can work in one of these activities in an organization.

The elderlies in need of professional care live in another building and health services of the other elderlies are supplied as well. (Thiberg, 1996)

3. 2. Handicapped

Recently, the problems of handicapped people are began to be considered more seriously as a result of increase in the number of handicapped people within the population. Due to the accidents, wars and degenerative illnesses this number continuously shows an increase.

In the past as a result of insufficiency curing methods these people either had a very short life time or completely left to death. Now, with the progresses in modern medicine and rehabilitation, they live longer and healthier life; and with the technological progresses they have a more active life and easier integration into the society. New design and inventions about the vehicles and materials which the handicapped people use, are made each day, for them to have an easier life.

However, in the countries where the related architectural and urban design standards are not clearly defined and/or applied, the handicapped people have to face

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more problems in the integration into the daily life. If they are supplied with sufficient housing and urban environments, at least some of them will be capable of carrying on their lives by themselves without the supports of other people.

This subject has sociological, political and design perspectives. The governments or the administrative units have to develop new social policies for these people. Secondly, when the social structure of the present urban life is examined, the social structure cannot be defined as one large organism, but it is divided into many kinds of small organisms. Rather than personal helps, assistance of social organizations and mechanisms are needed today. This event will continue as it is, till the new urban sociology and urban design will ease the lives of whole people and groups of people.

The design perspective of this subject is the production of dwellings to meet the demands of people and also the design of urban environment for the benefit of them. (Francis, 1996)

3. 2. 1. The Integration of Handicapped into the Society

As mentioned above, the housing problem of handicapped needs both a social and design solutions. According to A.Gündüz (Gündüz, 1996) these solutions involve 8 important points:

1. Accessibility in houses:

In the developed countries the handicapped people with high income have changes to choose the dwellings suitable for their living conditions or transform the dwellings design according to their requirements. In same countries the designers or architects build the houses so that they can be transformed or changed in a way which suits the handicapped people's requirements.

This point is important because otherwise they have to live in an environment that may limit their freedom in some way. Their dependency on their family grows with the limitations on their living environment. Socio-economic and cultural being of the family plays an important role on the conditions of handicapped also. So, the education and the information of the families are necessary for them to accept this condition.

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2. Accessibility to the services:

The dependence of the handicapped people on their family can change with the families education, as pointed out above. If, first the families ideas and admissions can be changed, then, it would be easier for the whole society to change its point of view on the handicapped people.

Today in most of the developed countries new laws are put in order to make the daily life easier for the handicapped and for their easier integration with the society.

The transportation system, public buildings, recreational areas, city and business centers designs are made to supply the demands of handicapped people.

In the developing countries, however it is impossible to say that these arrangements are made according to standards. For example in Turkey on the sidewalks, ramps or in elevators the handicapped people are not recognized as users of these places.

3. Education:

One of the aims of curing the living conditions of the handicapped people is to cure their education. With sufficient education they can be economically independent . In the developing countries, especially, it is very rare for these people to take an education or go to a school.

The reasons can be both socio-cultural and economic. On the other hand the design perspective should be considered, too. The general, inconvenient conditions of transportation, school buildings and other design elements prevent many families and handicapped children to integrate into the existing education system.

This problem requires special educational institutions as in the developed countries. Another problem occurs due to the insufficient qualified training members for the handicapped children who need special training and education.

4.Employment:

The number of employed handicapped people within the whole employment is very low. According to the laws in Turkey each establishment, foundation or association should reserve certain amount of percentage of total labor-force for the handicapped people.

The educated handicapped people have more chance in employment than the uneducated or untrained ones. Education and employment of handicapped are very closely related with each other.

5.Social Security:

The rehabilitation and treatment of the handicapped may cost very high. As a result, financial support of the state is required. If the financial support cannot be obtained it can cause serious psychological depressions on the handicapped and on their families.

This is a serious problem in Turkey as in other developing countries. In contrast in developed countries the state does not abandon these people and either pay salaries to handicapped personally or pay any additional wage to their families throughout lifetime.

6.Integration:

The most essential factors to integrate the handicapped people into the social life is to provide them with independency, create equal opportunities and give equal rights. The equal opportunities involve the facilities like education, employment, income, social security, culture, religion and sports.

The social and physical environment is an important point in this respect. For a healthy integration essential physical arrangements, designs are required.

7.Culture:

The socio-cultural activities for the handicapped are neglected in the developing countries. However, these are the activities to help these people's integration into the society, easier. In the developed countries they can participate in the cultural activities like music, dance, theater, cinema and plastic arts.

8. Recreation and sports facilities:

Possibilities for the handicapped to participate in any kind of sports or games or some other recreational facility is very small. This also is related with the designs of these areas for the benefit and usage of handicapped people. (Komut, 1996)

3. 2. 2. Some Proposals For Housing Policies For Handicapped

With right housing policies the handicapped people can be supplied with an environment and dwelling that fit their demands.

According to Şükrü Sürmen (Komut, 1996) these policies can be listed as:

1. The state should have more control on the production of dwellings. By housing policies and planning that base on social changes, demographic inputs, social mobility and human sciences a more livable urban environment can be created. New standards and regulations should be put in order to build new buildings to meet the demands of different groups.

2. As the demands increase and differentiate, the expenditures on the social services increase as a consequence. The problems of sheltering the handicapped people will grow, similarly, causing the state to take some decisions. Nonetheless, these decisions will be unable to cope with the problems, as a result of increases in the expenditures. Therefore, another solution is needed other than specialized state institutions, which is to aid the families with additional payments.

3. A policy and planning idea that depends on the acceptance of the rights of the handicapped people should be adapted.

4. As a result of changes and new transformations on social life it is understood that there will be increase in the number of handicapped people who will live alone. Hence, this will lead to the production of smaller but more detailed dwellings. Furthermore, the plans and also the concept of plans will be built by the state, local governments, religious or social organizations will be considered more seriously.

On the other hand, the urban substructure and services should be sufficient and the connection between the dwelling and its environment should be very firm. The interaction between the designers from each scale and the handicapped people should be formed for rational solutions.

6. Support from social service organizations are needed for the handicapped people to integrate into the society and also to the urban daily life.

7. Another possibility is to adjust the existing dwellings setting in accordance with the requirements of these people.

8. Many researches are done to ease the life of the handicapped, new technologies, productions, materials, etc. are used as design elements. In designing the places these new developments should be recognized, as well.

9. The local governments should be more sensitive to these people and constitute units concerning about the housing problems of them.

3. 2. 3. Design Regulations From England-A Case Study

According to the latest records, there are more than 6 million handicapped people, in England. percent of this people of these people, which makes about 400 thousand, continue to live in the social institutions, while the remaining 93 percent live in rented or owned private houses by themselves or with the other members of the families.

In another words, 14 percent of the adult population is handicapped in one way or another. Thus, it is the responsibility of designers to produce houses to meet the demands of this proportion.

Another point of these records is to bring up the consequences of the proportion between the handicap and the age. Only 31 of thousand adults are handicapped in the age group 20-29, while it reaches to 240 of thousand in the ages of 60-69, to 408 in thousand between the 70-79 and to 714 in thousand people over the age of 80, in England.

If this is taken into consideration with the demographic formation of England, it is definite that it will show an increase in the future, due to the increase of elderly population within the whole population.

In England since 1970's there are some researches, done by central and local governments, for the integration of handicapped people into the society. First, the

The entry should be protected by a canopy or overhang.

Sliding doors should allow a 3'-0" opening.

The bathroom should be accessible to the master bedroom.

Patios, balconies, or decks should be developed.

Smoke detectors must be provided in any residence.

It is not necessary that all bedrooms have wheelchair capability but all rooms should be accessible to the veteran.

Automatic garage doors are recommended.

It is not necessary that all bathrooms have wheelchair capability.

A means of emergency egress should be provided directly from the master bedroom.

The fireplace may have a raised hearth with a gas starter.

A high density, low pile carpet may be used in any appropriate location.

Smoke detector.

Washer and dryer should be front loading.

Where the garage is detached, a covered connecting passageway should be provided.

Fig. 3. 5. Typical floor plan of a handicapped housing type
(De Chiara, 1995, p. 880)

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handicapped people were divided into three main groups; people using wheel chairs, people having difficulties with seeing and people who have problems of hearing.

In 1970 the Chronically Sick and Disabled Persons Act was ratified which says:

"Any persons, understanding the provision of any building or premises to which the public are to be admitted, whether on payment or otherwise, shall, in the means of access both to and within the building or premises and in the parking facilities and sanitary conveniences to be available, make provision, in so far as it is in the circumstances both practicable and reasonable, for the needs of members of the public visiting the building or premises who are disabled." (Bennet, 1990,p.260)

Later in 1981, in the International Year of Disabled People, the government introduced the Disabled Persons Act. The impact of this Act on planners is that it had additional two sections on the Town and Country Planning Act 1971.

"The first section forces developers to gives attention to the requirements of the handicapped people through, the planning authorities. And secondly the phrase in so far as it is in the circumstances both reasonable and practicable, in 1970 Act is substituted by the phrase 'appropriate provision'." (Bennet, 1990, p.260)

In 1979 a report was published, named as 'Can Disabled People Go Where You Go?'. In this report it was recommended that: "Every Local Authority at district level should designate one of their officers, preferably placed in the Planning Department, as an Access Officer' who would act as a Liaison Officer and coordinator on questions involving access for disabled people." (Bennet, 1990, p.262)

Based on this report, in the city of Leicester, an access officer was assigned for this purpose. The duties of the access officer were not limited just with the access to buildings but contain access to and within the whole of the built environment, as well. Therefore, the access officer worked with every department within the Council, to be sure that each department would take the requirements of handicapped people into consideration. (Bennet, 1990)

Access officer first made the essential corrections on the plan applications both for the new buildings and the existing buildings that need provision. Then, new and revised local plans are made which include policies to meet the requirements of people with disabilities. Access to recreational and cultural facilities were improved, too.

Improvement of the street environment are carried out through the city engineer's department. For example for handicapped people the provision of drop kerbs for wheelchair users are made. For the blind people fact paths and cycle ways were segregated by differentiated designs of the paving texture. (Bennet, 1990)

Apart from legislation, the provision of existing designs on every scale depends on the financial resources.

"Through the Planning Committee Leicester City Council offers to the owners of publicly accessible buildings a 50 percent grant towards works which will be of benefit to people with disabilities. These grants are given for things ranging from the installation of an induction loop so that hearing aid wearers can hear speech more clearly in a meeting room, to the provision of a unisex wheelchair accessible toilet cubicle." (Bennett, 1990, p.264)

Another perspective is the conditions of houses. In England the first legislation about the standards and design guidelines for the houses for the wheelchair users was published in 1975 by the state.

The wheelchair users' basic requirements are

"to have sufficient place for circulation within the building, the design and location of the bathrooms, toilets and bedrooms. It has two basic components; provision of sufficient place and using special materials for these houses. These standards were not the minimum obligatory standards, but the recommended standards." (Buckley, 1996, p.308)

The basic requirements of easy access houses can be listed as below:

1. Covered access between the entrance and the main parking provision.
2. Level access throughout, with no threshold exceeding 15 mm. and ramps not exceeding 1:20
3. Minimum corridor width 1200 mm.
4. Minimum doorstep width 900 mm.
5. Entrance level WC with minimum internal dimensions 1400 mm. x 1750 mm.
6. Straight-run staircase with handrails on both sides, and a wall one side for stairlift installation, continuing uninterrupted beside top and bottom landings for at least 450 mm. beyond the stairs.

7. Minimum bathroom dimensions 2100 mm. x 2100 mm. to allow for subsequent adaptations

8. Hall, kitchen, living room, dining room and at least one bedroom to accommodate a 1500 mm. diameter clear circle.

9. 300 mm. clear reveal to leading edge of all doors.

10. Door handles, light switches and power points to be horizontally aligned at 1040 mm. above floor level.

11. Kitchen window sill height minimum 1050 mm. above floor level.

12. Houses for wheelchair users should be located close to shopping centers and public transportation. (Bennet, 1990, p.265)

Another housing concept for the handicapped people is the adaptable houses. It is seen in most of the European countries as in England. Since, most of the the handicapped people are not born this way, but become handicapped by many effects like illness, accidents, wars, etc. during their lifetime, the houses should be built so that they can be easily transformed into an access house.

This may cause easy and quick transformation of houses with low expenditures. For this purpose, now, in England new standards are beginning to be developed by the planning authorities. These new housing standards will place the old ones. (Buckley, 1996)

In the past, the basic interest focus was on the wheelchair users and on the handicapped people who can walk. Neither the planning nor building control powers included the requirements of people with visual or hearing impairments till recent past. Now in England, with new legislation public buildings are beginning to be built according to these requirements.

In the dwellings designed for the people with hearing and seeing defects some technical equipment are used for their benefit like alarms, signals, differentiation on the coverings of surface, etc. (Buckley, 1996)

3. 3. The Homeless People

The third group that needs special attention is the homeless people. To understand the subject it is essential first to understand the meaning of home and the definition of homelessness.

3. 3. 1. The Meaning of Home and the Definition of Homelessness

"There is remarkably little consensus among policy makers, researchers, local authorities and housing, organizations as to a definition of homelessness." (Watson, 1986, p.8)

This conflict occurs due to the concepts of home and house. The concept of house is closely related with a physical structure whereas the concept of home also involves social relations and factors within the physical structure, as well. "The word home conjures up such images as personal warmth, comfort, stability and security, it carries a meaning beyond the simple nation of a shelter." (Watson, 1986, p.8)

The problem occurs when drawing a line between homeless people and people with homes. This line is essential in order to serve homeless people, however it is also subjective and variable. At one end there are people without any shelter, living on streets and at the other end there are people who owns a house. "In between however, lies an extensive gray area ranging across hostels, hotels, temporary accommodations, sleeping on friends floors and so on." (Watson, 1986, p.9)

"There are two arguments developed here. The first is that homelessness is a socially determined and relative concept, that within the whole spectrum of different types of accommodation other factors come into play; the conditions and standards of the physical structure its form and location, the form of the household and the relation to tenure of each member of the household and the nature of actual and possible social relations within the physical structure and its environs. The second is that the definition of homelessness selected has major implications for the causes of the problems and also for policy and provision." (Watson, 1986, p.10)

At this stage it is essential to underline the meaning of home. In recent years many researchers tried to search for an answer, however there is disagreement among a definite. Gurney as one of the researchers goes furthest in seeing home "as an ideological construct created from people's emotionally charged experiences of where they happen to live." (Somerville, 1992, p.529)

Gurney argues that even the homeless have a home, he declares that for single people living rough "the cultural milieu of life on the street became a measure of
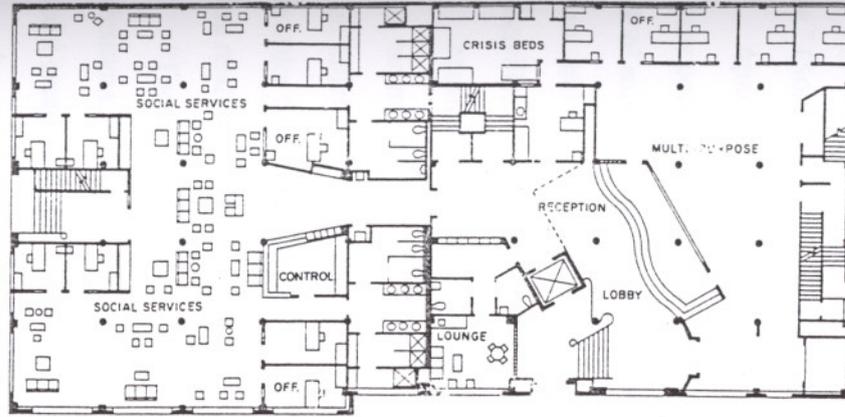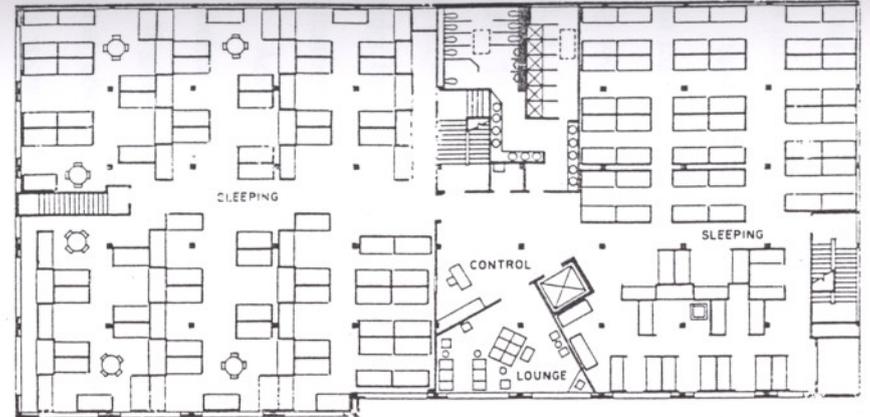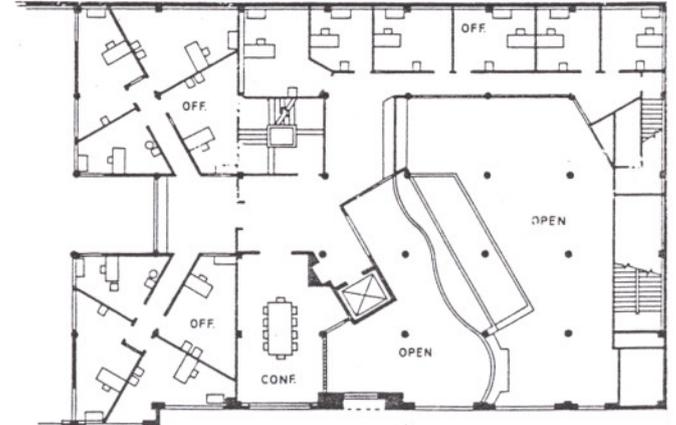
Fig.3. 6. A typical homeless center in USA (De Chiara, 1995, p. 947)

redefining home". (Sommerville, 1992, p.530) According to this it is true to say that street people gain a feeling of home if they are accepted by the other street people.

Watson and Austerberry's research shows different meanings of home "such as decent material conditions and standards, emotional and physical well-being, loving and caring social relations control and privacy, and simply living/sleeping place." (Somerville, 1992, p. 530). In this research homelessness indicates that it is a relative concept like poverty. The reason is, people compare their conditions with what they see around them. If the mud huts, for example, are the forms of housing in a society, the inhabitants do not consider themselves homeless. If, however, people live in mud huts in wealthier societies the situation can be quite different. They consider themselves homeless. (Watson, 1986).

According to Somerville (1992) a home has seven dimensions of meaning, which are shelter, hearth, privacy, roots, abode and paradise. These key, signifiers correspond with Watson and Austerberry's findings. For example shelter corresponds to decent material conditions; hearth to emotional and physical well-being, heart to loving and caring social relations, privacy to control and privacy and abode to living/sleeping place.

At this extent "homelessness can be represented as the semantic contrary of home." (Somerville, 1992, p.534)

Apart from these characteristics home has a symbolic status, being set in a complex context of social status relations. "Conversely, homelessness is distinguished by a lack of social status, invisibility or a problem to others, with the homeless being seen as outcast and rejected at the bottom of the social scale, disreputable and nickeless." (Somerville, 1992, p. 534)

Meanings of home and homelessness are related to features of the world-social status, tenure, domestic relations of production and reproduction and so on. Social world has an order of its own and home and homelessness are closely related with this order. "The order that is meant here is not a causal order. It is rather a logical order, comprising logical relationships between types of social relations." (Somerville, 1992, p.536)

"There is much more to homelessness than the minimal definition in terms of rooflessness. In official government perceptions and constructions, however, only the material meaning of homelessness is recognized." (Somerville, 1992, p.536)

According to Housing Act 1977 in England "a person is homeless if there is no accommodation, which he and anyone who normally resides with him as a member of his family or anyone the housing authority consider is reasonable to reside with him is

entitled to occupy or if he has accommodation but cannot secure entry to it, or if it is probable that his occupation of it will lead to either, violence or real threats of violence from someone else residing there." (Watson, 1986, p.12)

The Department of Environment study (1981) defines homelessness as:

"1. being without adequate shelter now,

2. facing the loss of shelter within one month,

3. living in a situation of no security of tenure and being forced to seek alternative accommodation within a time period which the client considers to be immediate,

4. those living in: reception centers, crash pads, derelict buildings, squats, hostels, lodging houses, cheap hotels and boarding houses." (Watson, 1986, p.16)

3. 3. 2. Poverty and Homelessness

According to many researchers poverty and homelessness are interrelated.

"Poverty occurs in many kinds of families and all races and ethnic groups" (Dye, 1992, p.117)

"Proponents of programs for the poor frequently make high estimates of the number of poor. They view the problem of poverty as a persistent one even starve in an affluent society, from hunger, exposure, and remedial illness and that some of them even starve to death. Their definition of the problem virtually mandates immediate and massive public welfare programs (Dye, 1992, p.115)

"In contrast others view government welfare programs as causes of poverty, destroying family life and robbing the poor of incentives to work, save and assumpt responsibility for their own well being." (Dye, 1992, p.115)

"Poverty is most common among female-headed families." (Dye, 1992, p.115)

In many countries feminization of poverty has begun to be seen which describes a relation between poverty and family structure. "Today the disintegration of the traditional husband-wife family is the single most influential factor contributing to poverty" (Dye, 1992, p.118)

Aged people is another group that is commonly discussed with the subject of poverty. It shows differences from country to country depending on the public welfare programs of each country. In the developed countries where social security programs are

formed according to the social groups which exist in the society, the aged are in better conditions then in the third world countries.

"Poverty can also be defined as a state of mind".(Dye, 1992, p. 119) Some people may think that they have less income or material possessions than the other people. This state of mind may cause a deprivation that is not tried to any absolute level of income. (Dye, 1992)

Policy makers list the causes of poverty as:

"1. Low productivity: Many economists explain poverty in terms of human capital theory. Absence from the labor force is the largest single source of poverty. Over two-thirds of the poor are children, mothers of small children, aged or disabled people who have no job.

2. Economic stagnation: A serious recession and widespread unemployment would raise the proportion of the population living below the poverty line.

3. Discrimination: Discrimination plays a role in poverty especially in the societies where race problem or other discrimination occur.

4. The culture of poverty: Another explanation of poverty centers on the notion of a culture of poverty. The culture of poverty involves not just a low income but indifference alienation, apathy and irresponsibility. The culture of poverty also encourages family instability, immediate gratification, present-orientedness, instead of future orientedness.

5. Disintegrating Family Structure: Poverty is also related with family structure. Female-headed households face poverty more than the husband-wife households. Since there occurs a new trend in family composition in all around the world this subject gains importance as well.

6. Capitalist Exploitation: This is the Marxist explanation of poverty in a capitalist society. According to this explanation the public policy in a capitalist society will be designed to maintain poverty. Welfare programs are not designed to end poverty but rather are designed to avoid rioting, violence or revolution. (Dye, 1992)

3. 4. Women's Agenda: Problems and Solutions

The second group that emerged lately in cities is formed by women. Especially after World War II, this subject began to be considered more seriously. The social and

economic conditions of the urban life transformed changed so that the position of women changed, too. In this section these topics will be examined in detail.

3. 4. 1. Gender, Women and Patriarchy

"The lives of women and men the work they do, the income they receive, the roles they are given and the relationships that they share are all shaped by social norms and traditions which treat women and men differently." (Beall, 1996, p.1)

This statement, indeed, summarize the conditions in which women have to coupe with. Other than the common accepted norms and traditions, laws institutions, economic and social structures possess the roles of women within the society. This differentiation goes as for as to the continuing marginalization of women.

Sexual differences have strong influences however, most of the time people are unaware of the sexual differences and their influences on them. The reason, is these differences occur without our being aware of them.

The word sex, in daily life refers categorization of people, including the biological or anatomical differences between men and women. On the other hand, "gender concerns the psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females." (Giddens, 1993, p.162)

Behavior differences of women and men can be originated from their biology or from gender learning. Researchers are divided into two large groups; one insisting on that gender is biologically coded in the chromosomes and cannot be affect by external influences, the other group argues back that it is not a biological fact, but, rather the subject of gender relations.

Whatever the reason, it is and it was the fact that in most of the societies gender division and gender inequality is seen. In some countries it is very prominent, whereas in others it began to diminish. The level of gender inequality is closely related with the level of patriarchy.

"The simplest definition for patriarchy is the male dominance over females." (Giddens, 1993, p.173) Patriarchy is an universal concept, maybe the density of it changing from one society to the other. Formation of patriarchy according to the sociologists is the result of the birth-giving characteristic of women. "Because of their role as mothers and careers, women are primarily, absorbed in domestic activities.

Women become what the French novelist and social critic Simone de Beauvoir called the second sex, because they are excluded from the more public activities in which males are free to engage." (Giddens, 1993, p.173)

"The concept of patriarchy was originally used by Weber to refer to a system of government where older men ruled society through their position as heads of households, where the dominance of younger men took a prime look." (Duncan, 1994, p.1177) The patriarchy can be categorized in three parts:

1. male control over female labor,

2. male aggression and violence toward women,

3. women's role in childbearing, motherhood and sexuality.

Although this categorization is made the important point here is the "male domination-female subordination, which remains the same throughout history and across different types of society." (Duncan, 1994, p.1178)

When, patriarchy today is examined, it can be seen that it differs from the patriarchy in the past. This is because the social and economic life of the society is different from the past and also the new social structuring is effective on everyday life of people. Also, it is true that even women living in the same country have different lives from each other.

"At the most abstract level, patriarchy exists as a system of social relations. At a less abstract level patriarchy is composed of specific social structures-different social mechanisms which carry through patriarchal relations in different areas of life." (Duncan, 1994, p.1180)

The largest gender division is seen in the patriarchal mode of production where women generally have to work in part-time, low-status work which are considered as female sectors. On the other hand if women generally work in well-paid, full-time jobs, changes are seen in domestics life, too.

"Researches developed alternative categorizations of differences in gender relations which are called as gendered welfare models." (Duncan, 1994, p.1182)

According to Duncan this categorization has two sources:

1. In some countries, particularly in Scandinavian countries, state develops a social system so that women can highly participate in labor force, like men. This system supply public childcare, gender equality in the tax and benefit system. Motherhood is socialized and women are treated as workers. This system is called women friendly.

2. There are some welfare-state regimes on the other hand that can be called as gender blind.

Many theories were developed based on these two sources. Esping-Anderson's theory (1990) is one of the most important ones. Esping-Andersen research categorizes regimes according to their social policies. According to this research three typical regimes exists: Liberal, Conservative and Social-Democratic. In Liberal regimes social policy is highly based on traditional and ethic norms. USA is an example of this regime. Conservatives are reinforced by major social and political role retained by religious institutions. Germany is the typical of these. Social-Democratic welfare regime is structured on a social policy which considers the equality of the highest standards rather than minimal needs. Sweden is an example. (Duncan, 1994)

Another type involves, Southern, European countries that are called as rudimentary welfare states. "While residualism and forced entry to the labor market remind us of the Liberal model, the state can rely on surviving elements of the household subsistence economy and a large informal sector to both provide welfare and top-up employment." (Duncan, 1994, p. 1183) Greece and Portugal are these types of countries.

However, Esping-Anderson's categorization does not involve the gender specifically. So, Leibfield in 1993 made a research including a partial incorporation of gender into the Esping-Anderson framework. According to him, "in the Conservative regimes public policy is used consolidate a specific male citizenship." (Duncan , 1994, p.1183) On the other hand, Scandinavian modern welfare states are gender-friendly.

Langan and Ostner (1991) developed Leibfield's model further and described the political and economic position of women in various regimes.

According to them Scandinavian model are independent and have gotten their liberation. Motherhood does not stop or prevent women from entering labor-force. However, most women are paid by the state to service other women who have jobs in service sector. This able men to work men in better jobs in private sector. So, women became independent of men but dependent on the state.

Conservative model is reluctant to see women in labor-force, rather prefer them to have the status as wives and mothers. In order to realize this model, both the state and also the religious institutions put pressure on women. "Motherhood is supported, taking paid work is not" (Duncan, 1994, p.1184) State, supports "many male workers with family wage supplements that directly reflect the number of dependents." (Duncan, 1994,

p.1184). Religious institutions emphasize the "normal family atmosphere." (Duncan, 1994, p.1184). In these countries divorce rates, births outside marriage and women in labor-force is at minimum levels.

"In the Anglo-Saxon model women are free to choose between paid work and unpaid work at home" (Duncan, 1994, p.1184). However, because state does not take the responsibility, women cannot easily participate in the labor-market equally with men. Public child-care rates are very low, so married mothers either have to work in low-paid, part-time jobs or be dependent on their husbands, or on minimal state benefits. "So in these countries, only a small and declining proportion of lone mothers are able to take up paid work, with a growing proportion living on or around the poverty line." (Duncan, 1994, p.1184)

The last model, Latin model, gives very little opportunity to women to work outside home. Women either have to work at home as an unpaid worker or work im small firms and in informal economy of low-wages. The result is low birth and divorce rates and high inside marriage births. (Duncan, 1994)

"These models are considered analytically poor for several reasons. First of all, these regimes are gender-blind which make gender considered as an optional add-on. Secondly Gender-welfare models like these generalize the subject. The naming of the typologies shows this well. Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Scandinavian and Conservative are geographical and ethnic categories with a largely nominal status." (Duncan, 1994, p.1185)

And finally there may be variations in gender relations within the same country or regions. For example will Ireland be considered as Latin or Anglo-Saxon? or can Greece fits into Latin model? and so on. (Duncan, 1994).

When gender division is studied in terms of social sciences two faces appears; private and public patriarchy. Private patriarchy deals with gender stratification in household and public patriarchy rightly emphasizes male domination and exploitation of women. But any middle range theory should incorporate the power of women -both publicly and privately- to change their social circumstances (Duncan, 1994). It involves both ideological change and the structural position of women as mothers and workers, both paid and unpaid.

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Hirdmann, in her report (1990) puts the idea of a structuring and dynamic system of gender. According to her people are arranged "into genders according to two rules:

1) virtually all areas of life are divided into male and female categories where

2) this division is hierarchical and the male is seen as the norm." (Duncan, 1994, p.1186)

> "This gender system can be maintained on three levels:
> 1. the cultural superstructure with normative views and cultural images of gender.
> 2. social integration in institutions.
> 3. socialization-the direct learning of gender relations.
>
> Based on these three features of gender there will be major variations in space and time." (Duncan, 1994, p.1187)

3. 4. 2. Feminist movements

The first feminist movement was seen in French after the French revolution, in 1789. Women, affected by the ideals of freedom and equality of the era, formed several women's clubs. In these clubs women discussed about developing policies for equal rights in education, employment and government. (Giddens, 1993)

Based on the main constitutional document of the revolution, "Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen" the "Declaration of the Rights of Women was formed. The main point of this declaration was to include women to the free and equal citizenship, like men. (Giddens, 1993)

However against this first Women's Act the women's clubs were closed and restricted, in 1793. Since that date, feminist groups and women's movements formed in Western countries. (Giddens, 1993)

In the 19th century, in the United States feminist movements began. "In the period from 1830 to 1850, American feminists were closely involved with groups devoted to the abolition slavery" (Giddens, 1993, p.183) In 1848 women's leaders prepared "Declaration of Sentiments" based on the American Declaration of Independence. The first paragraph states "we hold these truths to be self-evident that all men and women are created equal." (Giddens, 1993, p.183)

At the same period, 1500 British women signed and presented a petition to the parliament in 1866. The petition demanded full voting rights for women. The petition was not considered even and in the following year women organized the National Society for Women's Suffrage.

In the early 1990's, there were meetings and street demonstrations organized in both countries. The largest of these meetings were held in June 1908 in London, with the participation of half million people. After this, women's movements spread out rapidly throughout other countries, together with Australia and New Zealand. (Giddens, 1993)

After 1920's, as the right to vote was achieved feminist movements showed a decline in the world. Women, as the result of the era, moved into other areas, like combating Fascism. "Yet the achievement of equal political rights did little to extend equality to other spheres." (Giddens, 1993)

In the late 1960's women's movements, began again, continuing since then. This new women's movement involved the Third World countries, too. The resurgence of feminism begun in the United States, influenced by the civil rights movements and by student activism of the period. However, a problem occurred when the civil rights leaders, mostly men did not want the women's rights included into the manifestos of equality, separately. Women had to establish their own organizations.

Women's movements and reactions toward these movements are determined related with these political trends. So, in 1980's "rightist thinkers asserted that women should return to traditional values of marriage and the family." (Giddens, 1993, p.185)

"Feminism, they claimed, has undermined the sanctity of marriage, helped contribute to the rise of lone-parent families and has even brought anguish to women themselves." (Giddens, 1993, p.185)

On the other hand research findings are in contrary to the rightist viewpoint. "Rates of depression are higher on average among married than among single women and highest among married women who are not in paid work."

3. 4. 3. Women and Employment

The number of women who work outside home shows differences throughout time and place. The general socio-economic conditions and policies of the countries are effective on this.

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During the two world wars the number of women who work in paid work showed an increase.

In pre-industrial societies and in third World countries today, productive activities and household activities were not separated. Production of any good was related with the home or nearby. "All members of the family in medieval Europe participated in work on the land or in handicrafts." (Giddens, 1993, p.174). Women, although they were excluded from politics, took part in the economic processes.

With the development of modern industry, separation of the workplace and home began. "Women came to be associated with domestic values, although the idea that 'a woman's place is in the home' had different implications for women at varying levels in society" (Giddens, 1993, p.174) For the women who worked outside home, at the beginning of the 20th century, there were minimum kind of work to choose. They either had to work as house servants or in the factories, as a laborer.

The women's participation in paid labor-force showed very high increases after world wars due to shortages if male labor-force. "Today between 35 and 60 percent of women aged between sixteen and sixty in most European countries hold paid jobs outside the home." (Giddens, 1993, p.175)

The most significant rise is seen in married women. Till the beginning of 20th century married women had the lowest rates in occupying a paid work. Through time their rates increased, however the works they occupied were usually low-paid, low-status jobs. To have children or not is also effective on the women's participation in labor-force. Those who have children either choose low-paid, part-time jobs or they quit working completely and stay at home.

This trend began to show changes in the 1990's. Women gained new rights with the development of the labor legislation. According to these new rights motherhood was not seen as negative situation. Mothers are today much more likely to return to full time work, to the same job, and for the same employer than they were at the beginning of the 1980's" (Giddens, 1993, p.176)

"The growth in women's employment has been closely connected with the expansion of service jobs." (Giddens, 1993, p.517). The labor market consists of two large groups: primary labor market that involves work in large corporations, unionized industries, government agencies and secondary labor market that consists of unstable

forms of employment. The primary labor has high wages and job security, whereas secondary labor has low wages and poor working conditions. (Giddens, 1993)

"The widespread economic restructuring that has been experienced in advanced industrial economies over the last two decades has had a marked impact on the nature and distribution of work." (McDowell, 1994, p.1397)

After the mid - 1970's , there occurred three significant changes, in the nature and distribution of work.: Globalization, casualization and feminization.

Globalization has many perspectives in today's world. Globalization in economic imply to domination of multinational or transnational capital over the economies of industrialized countries. This capital forced many cities to become global cities, like New York, London and Tokyo. These are the cities where the capital is gathered mostly.

"Casualization and polarization is the second impact. It is closely related with globalization. In global cities due to the power of the capital accumulation now types of were created. At the top end there are growing numbers of highly paid, prestigious full-time opportunities in the financial service sector." (McDowell, 1994, p.1398) At the bottom end, "there are expanding numbers of part time, casualized jobs." (McDowell, 1994, p.1398) This conditions resulted growing income differences between two ends.

Feminization, according to McDowell is the third trend. "Service sector occupations, especially those at the bottom end of the occupational hierarchy, are traditionally associated with the socially constructed attributes femininity." (McDowell, 1994, p. 1398)

"Feminization, globalization and casualization in combination with high levels of unemployment, especially in Western European countries, is resulting in growing social divides." (McDowell, 1994, p.1400)

> "Economic restructuring and the growth of a post-Fordist service-based economy has resulted in a pronounced feminization of the labor market. Although the majority of women who entered the labor market throughout the 1980's found employment in low-paid, part-time or casualized jobs, other women have successfully entered professional occupations. It has been argued that the result is an increasing divide between women in terms of their wage levels, their terms and conditions of service and their overall standard of living" (McDowell, 1994, p.1416)

3. 4. 4. Changing Family Structure and the Position of Women

During the last decade, slowly gathering trend have crystallized into new patterns of household composition and female labor force participation." (Gerson, 1993, p.138) As the alternative family types emerged women's position in the paid labor force also increased.

So, it can be concluded that changes in family patterns and women's position are interrelated. "Traditional family type does not dominate but rather coexists with growing numbers of dual earner couples, single and childless adults and households headed by women." (Gerson, 1983, p.138)

"Families in pre-industrial and early industrial times generally operated as small businesses, looking to all family members to contribute to the household economy." (Gerson, 1983, p.138) The women and their employment was discussed in the former chapter in detail.

"The growth at alternative household forms nevertheless signals the concentration of poverty among both households headed by women and the elderly, most of whom are also women. Poverty has thus become feminized to a substantial degree." (Gerson, 1983, p.140)

"Changes in family patterns partially stew from and at the same time reinforce, changes in women's work and childbearing decisions. (Gerson, 1983, p.142)

Especially during the last two decades more women started to work outside home and this condition both resulted caused decreases in birth rates. In the future it was predicted that smaller families and childlessness will be seen in higher rates.

"These changes will persist, moreover, because they stew from underlying structural changes now taking place in the economy, at the workplace and in the nature of private life." (Gerson, 1983, p.143)

First, living only on the male wage is declining due to the economic conditions and to the difficulty of achieving on acceptable standard of living on only one income. Secondly, dependence of women on the marriage for their economic security is decreasing, too, as a result of marital stability and high divorce rates. Thirdly, the look of women on work changed through time. When first they accepted low-paid, part-time jobs, in the last years they started to take part in high-paid, better conditioned, full-time jobs.

"Paid employment has also provided economic independence for growing segments of the female population. As a result women now face an expanded set of alternatives to traditional marriage." (Gerson, 1983, p.144)

Existing social policies are insufficient when the new family patterns and the situation of women of new era are considered. "These problems range from narrow issues-like the difficulty recently divorced women have in establishing credit-to broader, more difficult ones such as the feminization of poverty and the relative devaluation of parental time spent in paid employment." (Gerson, 1983, p.145)

In addition to social planners, "urban planners might be particularly interested in locally based land use, transportation, housing and welfare policies that take account of the growing diversity of family forms." (Gerson, 1983, p.146)

"Given the current diversity of family forms and the diversity of needs and interests they embody, no consistent set of policies can please or benefit all groups. Those who continue to follow traditional patterns are especially likely to oppose the social arrangements these policies would promote. The economic as well as the political costs of these policies are likely to be high. Yet the costs of ignoring the changes now underway will likely be even higher. To ignore, disapprove of or try to prevent these changes will not make them disappear. Instead, such strategies are more likely to intensify the problems created by change." (Gerson, 1983, p.146)

3. 4. 5. Women, Housing and Homelessness

Homelessness in general was discussed in the previous chapters in detail. In this chapter the concept homelessness and its effects on women will be discussed.

"A further interesting dimension of the ambiguous nature of homelessness is the relativity of its meaning both between different forms of households and within the household unit itself." (Watson and Austerberry, 1986, p.18)

For Women, who are dependent on male-wage, homelessness has different viewpoints than other homeless groups. Since, the relative definition of homelessness involves factors like conditions, form, location of the physical structure and the relation to tenure, women's homelessness involves these factors, too. According to the relative definition, homelessness is not just to be without shelter, but without adequate shelter.

Poor physical conditions of the house affect the women the domestic laborers. "Similarly, the design attributes of the dwelling and its spatial, relation to the urban and social environment have a specific relevance to women. (Watson, 1986, p.20) For example high-rise flats isolate women in home, whereas lowrise buildings socialize women more. "The distance of a dwelling from the local school, hospital, community center, shopping center and the efficiency of the local transport system affect women." (Watson, 1986, p.20)

Secondly, the ownership of the house or the payment of rents are mostly dependent on the males, in the male-breadwinner families. In these families male-breadwinner controls the family's income and the woman is dependent on him for her housing security. (Watson, 1986)

The last factor is the social relations within the house or home. "The sanctity and privacy of marriage have been enshrined in legislation and in the attitudes and policy of social agencies." (Watson, 1986, p.21). Therefore domestic violence, where women fear of violence and cannot see their house as a home.

"Within what way appear to be a cohesive family household, relation to tenure, physical and locational attributes, and/or internal social relations can thus transform the dwelling into home for one member of the household while for another the dwelling may be little more than a physical structure." (Watson, 1986, p.21)

"The historical picture of women's homelessness revealed the social and moral concern about single women's lack of housing." (Watson, 1986, p.71)

Housing production and consumption is always accepted as produced just for nuclear family type. The single households, in this concept, were omitted from the housing market." Families who do not conform to the stereotype suffer in the housing market." (Watson, 1986, p.71)

Single-headed households cannot enter owner-occupied sector, easily for several reasons. First of all, because the housing costs are very high, it needs two incomes to buy a house, which means that the married couples of have more chance in buying a house. Second reason is building companies, both public or private have an assumption that single-parent households have no stability. So they are reluctant to construct houses for their requirements. Thirdly, because of low-paid, low-status, part-time jobs women's incomes are lower than men, in general. Single-parent, women-headed households cannot buy or even rent a dwelling as a result. (Watson, 1986)

Another aspect is, the dwellings that can be found in housing market are mostly designed for nuclear family types. The spaces which women and men use mostly are created accordingly with the nuclear family's needs. "The nouveau poor, women heading households, who have experienced a dramatic shift from middle income to low income status due to divorce, widowhood or abandonment, constitute a demographic group whose housing opportunities are limited by certain restrictive zoning practices." (Netter and Price, 1986, p.172,)

During the last two decades, the number of single-parent households increased due to high divorce rates. This new type of households consist of a female and children, if there are any. It was estimated that if the number increases at the same rate, in the year 200 the poor, homeless people would be composed mostly of women and their children.

Decrease in income affects the lifestyle, as well. "If one is female and widowed, divorced or abandoned and has children one's new-found marital status may be treated by neighbors and town officials as a scarlet letter would be among Paritans." (Netter and Price, 1983, p.172)

The nouveau poor, consisting of female-headed household is seen as a threat to traditional family pattern. Therefore, to preserve certain lifestyles communities use regulations that contain restrictive definitions of family, bedroom formulas favoring one or two bedroom units, that exclude nouveau poor." (Netter and Price, 1983, p.172)

"Land we use regulations sometimes serve as impediments to the right to choose a particular living arrangements." (Netter and Price, 1983, p.173) For example, in the plans of dwelling areas the population estimations are usually based on the number of family members. In these calculations the nuclear family patterns are taken as a base. However as discussed before new family patterns are taking place in urban life and it is necessary to put these new formations into the estimations.

A serious conflict occurs when the community wants to maintain a more traditional lifestyle and if groups are formed that want to live a counter lifestyle.

"The nouveau poor represent a new class of suburban poor. This group, and all households headed by single women, have special housing and human needs that should be taken into account when planning for future growth and development. Communities can adapt their regulations to accommodate this new family. By redefining family and thus permitting house sharing, by permitting accessory apartments in single family zones and by ensuring that there is sufficient affordable

housing for families with children, communities can meet these needs and at the same time preserve residential neighborhoods that have traditionally been single family." (Netter and Price, 1983, p.179)

3. 4. 6. A Sample of Women's Village

In Tanzania a project is developed by a group called WEPA (Women Empowering Poverty Alleviation). It is a project of co-housing for women and one-parent families. The main goals are: participation training, self-help appropriated technologies, tourism and development, fostering women north/south.

In Tanzania, approximately 1 million of 13 million women live in urban areas, whereas the majority (12 million) live in rural areas. Women living in rural areas are mostly peasant farmers who produce food mainly and are also responsible for child-rearing, care for elderly and sick, procurement of fuel and water and tending small livestock.

On the other hand, women's share of the national pay-check is much less than half because men dominate the monetarized economy in general and the senior positions in particular.

Most women's effective working week exceeds 80 hours, often starting before down with domestic chores. For a woman with no higher education, there is little incentive to add an 8-to-5 job in the formal economy even if she could find one the payment rates are very low for women, yet not diminish her domestic burden in any way. This the poverty trap from which Tanzanian women have yet to escape.

To an even greater extent, men dominate transport and communications in Tanzania. Most women live near their birthplace and rarely travel further than the nearest market. The lack of books and unavailability of video and television means that she is ill-informed about the outside world. Opportunities to acquire and apply new information and to gain from experience are limited. The poverty trap is reinforced.

No more than %3 of girls complete secondary school. Culture, poverty, ignorance and fear deprive women of control over their reproductive powers. The poverty trap is renewed with each new generation.

The population pyramid is broadly based and sharply tapered upwards. Life expectancy after infancy is 50 years; but infant mortality remains high. In her lifetime, an average Tanzanian woman has 6 to 7 children of whom 4 or 5 service to maturity.

A majority of women population accept their present roles as subsistence farmers and child rearers.

Those without power, money, credit, security of tenure, mobility, education, literacy and numeracy, are least able to cape with rapid structural change. The poverty trap is actually deepening and becoming more difficult to escape.

The condition of Tanzanian women, in some respects, are alike with the condition of women living in rural areas of Turkey. Rural Tanzanian women are far removed from the social, political and economic changes transforming the rest of the world.

It is the intention of the proposal of WEPA to try to initiate projects that will give women some power so as to slowly remove themselves from the trap.

Since the world is entering the era of poverty alleviation world-wide, there is no way that one could think of successfully accomplishing such a mission without the serious consideration of improving the economic situation of women for their empowerment.

For this reason village forestry, fish ponds, and mechanized agricultural production are encouraged in six regions in Tanzania as pilot projects in empowering women in rural areas.

Fish farming, for example, when combined with the women's other household chores and care of the children, offers women the opportunity to participate in the whole chain of production. The project aims at supporting women's initiative in establishing fish ponds to improve the nutritional status of the families in general and to raise the economic status of women through the sale of fish.

Mechanized agricultural production is closely related with the empowerment of women. Developments in agriculture, including new forms of organization, production have only marginally affected the overall situation of women. Women are generally excluded when land is being distributed they have little access to credit, training or further education and they seldom are members of agricultural cooperatives.

Against this background, it is proposed that women in the pilot area be assisted with tractors to alleviate them the problem of hand-hoe cultivating. The men who own the tractors charge the women and other poor farmers very highly. Given access to such

an assistance, the women can sustain the tractor because, apart from tilling their land, they will also charge other farmers the same amount of money.

To realize this proposal a village for women and their children is designed. The women's village takes place near a small town and consists of houses workshops a community center, a school and nursery.

Houses are one storey high and designed for one parent families. If the number of children is high, they can be extended. Each house has a garden for agriculture, at the back where the children can play safely, also. Even when the mother is doing house chorus she can control the children while they are playing at the back yard.

In front of the houses, on the street, workshops take place. The volunteer women are trained in the workshops and they have the opportunity to sell their productions in the bazaar, on bazaar days. This way they can earn an extra income.

co-housing
for women in tanzania 4 goals:

■ participation training
■ self-help appropriated technologies
■ tourism and developement
■ fostering women north/south

KAGERA WOMEN
HOUSING COOPERATIVE SOCIETY

CO-HOUSING FOR WOMEN
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Major plan
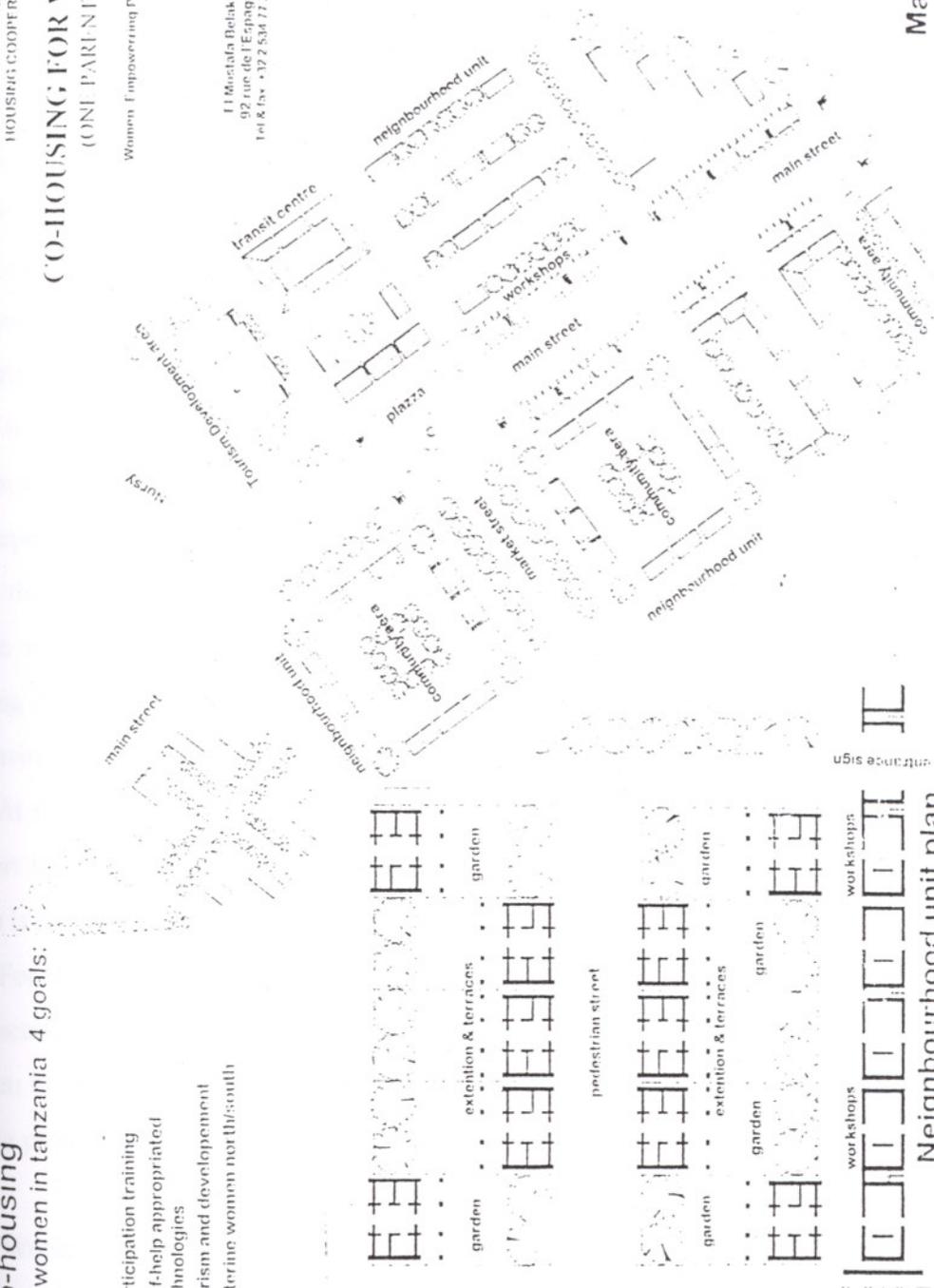
Neighbourhood unit plan

Fig. 3.7. A Women's Village in Tanzania

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3. 4. 7. Women's Conditions in Turkey

Women, in Turkey as in other countries are facing the problems due to socio-economic changes. New family patterns, divorce rates and women's taking part in employment, put women into a different situation, than in the past. As mentioned in the previous chapter, especially married women with children loose their job, if they had any get adapted to the role of housewife. If any divorce or death of a husband occurs and if they have no income they become homeless. And if they have no training, the conditions are worse.

Especially in Third World countries, the women's place in the society is determined by specific social roles, that are more dominant than the laws. These social rules define the women's roles in the society. They may vary from one country to another, from one region to another.

In the last years, women's acts against the traditional rules began to form. The main purpose is to empower women against the poor socio-economic conditions and prevent them from becoming homeless. In order to provide these people with an adequate shelter, the first step that should be taken is to accept that their number is increasing each year. Another important point is not to omit them in physical plans of living environments.

At the present time there are women's shelter existing in large cities in Turkey. For short term, women's shelter may be a temporary solution. However, a long term solution is needed for women in need of protection.

For the women's shelter or village the most important point is to supply women with a secure place at first. From the interviews done in women's shelter in Izmir and Mor Çatı in Istanbul this subject was the first to be mentioned. Women who run away from the problems in their homes want to get last in the big city, where no one can find them.

Women's shelter, therefore, usually select a location on the outer skirts of the city and usually hide their name or purpose in order not to be disturbed by the women's family members. For example, in Izmir, women's shelter is known as an orphanage, because they share the same building with Şehit Üsteğmen Adem Dertsiz Orphanage. It was stated by the administrators that even with these provisions it was not completely possible to obtain the security of the place.

The women's shelter cannot obtain a permanent place for women. According to the rules of the shelter a women can only stay for three months in the shelter. At the end of this period the woman is suppose to leave the shelter. There are only two places to go; if she has not gained an opportunity to carry on her own life, she either returns back to her home where she will face the same problems or to the streets.

Therefore, besides the shelter, a permanent place is needed for the women to stay for a longer time and this will be the women's village. Women who first come to the shelter, can choose to live in the village if they wish, at the next step.

The location criteria of the shelter and the village differs to the authorities, the shelter, that is the first step, needs a location within the city. It is an important fact in accomplishing security. The next step, women's village can be located near a small village or countryside.

The women's village, besides providing a permanent shelter, for women should also act as a social center with educational facilities. Especially with educational facilities the uneducated women can acquire some other features to survive their own lives.

This section, mainly focused on the special groups (elderlies, handicapped, homeless people and women) that started to exist in the urban societies, put forward the evidences of the present and the future conditions. The statistics and researches that were done world-widely indicate to the increasing number of people in these sub-groups and that they need urgent solutions for their integration into the society.

To solve the problem the first step that should be taken is to determine the groups that need special solutions. Secondly their requirements, can be both physical, social, personal and financial should be considered seriously. And the last step is to produce adequate, efficient policies for these groups. In order to achieve this goal, professionals from various disciplines, politicians, local administrations, sociologists, psychologists, designers from various disciplines have to work together as a team.

Besides these sub-groups another group began to form especially in developing countries: children in need of protection. Most countries try to protect them by laws, but laws may be insufficient because in spite of laws their numbers and problems are increasing.

The next chapter will examine the conditions of children in need of protection related with the subject of this thesis.

Chapter 4

CHILDREN IN NEED OF PROTECTION

One of the largest and the most important group, which should be considered as one of the special groups involve the children who are in need of protection. Throughout the whole world special attendance has started to be given to children.

There are many researches done about the problems of children and many solutions were proposed. In determining these problems and solutions the nature of the children and their basic social and economic requirements were examined in detail. These conditions are studied in this chapter in order to form a base for children's village.

4. 1. Sociology of Childhood

Sociology of childhood differs from the sociology of adulthood and is important since childhood is the period in which the child's character forms.

It is a general knowledge that animals lower down on the behaviors of the younger ones are not learned but just transformed from the parents. However if the animals on the higher scale are studied it can be seen that they learn certain ways of behavior. Human beings being on the highest level of evolutionary scale need a care of an adult in order to survive, learned become socialized. "Socialization is the process whereby the helpless infant gradually becomes a self-aware, knowledgeable person, skilled in the ways of the culture into which he or she is born." (Giddens, 1989, p.60)

Starting from the birth infants', socialization begins also. First the distinction of the mother or any other care taker develops. At the age one and a half they can understand the interactions and emotions of other family members. About the age of one play becomes to occupy much time. Play is the first important step in socialization because through playing children "improve their bodily coordination and start to expand their knowledge of the adult world." (Giddens, 1989, p.66)

In order to develop a healthy personality care and protection of a mother or another close caretaker is essential during the above mentioned stages. A research carried by a psychologist (John Bowlby, 1951) indicated that a young child without a

loving and close relationship with its mother suffer major personality disturbances later. (Giddens, 1989)

Socialization of a child occurs through agencies of socialization which involve groups and/or organizations like family, peer, group, school, mass media, etc.

-The family:

Family systems and child-family relation varies across cultures. In every culture mother is the focus point of the child however "the nature of the relationships established between mothers and their children are influenced by the form and regularity of their contact." (Giddens, 1989, p.76)

In modern societies, families are usually nuclear family types while in third-world societies family types are more traditional, containing parents, children and other close relatives. Variation in family types show its effect on the members of the society, resulting varying relations and influences within the family. Another fact about the modern societies various family types can be seen like: single parent families, divorced families and step-families.

-Peer relationships:

Peer groups can be described as "friendship groups of children of a similar age." (Giddens, 1989, p.77)

During the first years of infancy a child is under the influence of the family, whereas after the age of four or five the child begins to spend more time with the other children. Since women prefer to take part in workforce at higher proportions, nowadays, peer relations have more influence on the children than it has been before. Day-care centers, kindergartens and primary schools are the places where peer relations are mostly seen.

A famous psychologist named Piaget "point out that, because of their power, parents are able to enforce codes of conduct upon their children. In peer groups, by contrast a child discovers a different context of interaction, within which rules of conduct can be tested out and explored." (Giddens, 1989, p.78)

-Schools:

School is a formal, socialization agent and also a place where peer groups can form.

Since education is seen as a chance for the poor to improve their social and economic conditions it is an essential and also a demanded agent. "Mass education in modern societies is linked to ideals of equality of opportunity-people reach positions for which their talents and capacities suit them." (Giddens, 1989, p.78)

Nevertheless in most countries, especially in Third World Countries, there may seem some inequalities and imbalances among the children who have better socio-economic conditions and the children who have poorer socio-economic conditions. In fact governments should be in charge of diminishing these inequalities in education and should provide every child with the same opportunity.

Families are needed to be informed and guided about the importance of education, too. Generally, lower class families rather wish their children to work to gain money.

-The mass media:

Mass media including newspapers, periodicals, journals, and different types of electronic communication systems (radio, TV, computer, etc.) have great influences on children as well as on adults. A research done in Britain shows that "British children spend the equivalent of almost a hundred school days per year watching television." (Giddens, 1989, p.79)

-Other socializing agencies:

Besides the above mentioned main agents there are as many socializing agencies as there are social groups. Some of them can be listed as jobs, voluntary associations, clubs, religious activities, etc.

4. 2. Rapid Urbanization and the Conditions of Children

As it is very well known and as it is mentioned in the previous chapters, rapid urbanization started at the beginning of 20'th century, accordingly with rapid industrialization. In 1950's the developed countries were already urbanized. On the other hand developing countries were just beginning the process of urbanization. With the increasing rate of urbanization, the majority of the world's population began to live in urban areas. Various reports conclude that "the population growth rate in rural areas has been falling since the beginning of 1970's." (Tannerfeldt, 1995, p.4)

Developing countries are facing the problems of rapid urbanization due to their economic, social, cultural and political consequences.

When the statistics are taken as a base for the definition of urbanization it is rather impossible to mention a global definition. For example "an urban center in one country would be classified as rural in another; administrative divisions may define the outskirts of a city, as a rural area in sprite of huge informal settlements located there and so on." (Tannerfeldt, 1995, p.11)

Another problem occurs in the projections that are generally based on past trends. However, certain economic changes can affect the urban growth and urbanization rate in a particular country or region.

Rapid urbanization in third world countries has both good and bad effects on the physical and social structuring of the cities. Municipalities and local governments are usually incapable of coping with the problems of large cities. Both these incapabilities and population increases in urban areas causes the unplanned, illegal squatters to form "with limited access to basic needs and with environmental conditions that threaten life and health." (Tannerfeldt, 1995, p.19)

The good perspective of rapid urbanization is due to the economic conditions of a country. Studies show that there are interrelations between economic growth and the level of urbanization: higher GNP, higher urbanization.

Estimations of the World Bank indicate that 25 % of the urban population in developing countries live in absolute poverty. (Tannerfeldt, 1995). In sufficient conditions in poor settlements result people to suffer. Women and children are the ones who are affected the most. Children's problems are both social and physical, including a serious economic problem that compel the families to force their children to earn money.

Instead of getting education, children start to work in the formal and/or informal sectors, depending on the laws of each country.

Another concept that has begun to be seen both in developed and developing countries in the last twenty years is the street children. They are both the result and cause of various socio-economic problems.

Child labor is common in the third world countries more than in developed countries. In fact, children throughout the whole world are seen as a cheap labor force. They especially work in agriculture, in mines or industrial jobs where their physical and physiological health are threatened and damaged.

Children of poor families and street children are mostly used in illegal marginal jobs like begging, stealing, drug market and prostitution. In other words, they do the job which are risky for the adults. If the children are caught by the police, they are either sentenced for a few months or sometimes are just sent to the reformatories; whereas any adult person could be sentenced maybe for years.

Child abandonment is the other face of poverty stricken families. Many women who are left alone to raise their children cannot support all of the family and either send their children away where they can be looked after or just abandon them. These abandoned children from different age groups live in the streets and are called as street children. Estimations done in third world countries show that there are about 30 million street children in these countries. (Gilbert and Gugler, 1992)

4. 3. Children's Rights

United Nations being in conscious of the importance of children stated the general problems and searched for the solutions of these problems. In 1995, as a preparation for Habitat II, with the leading role of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's), UNICEF and United Nations Human Settlements Commission, held a meeting with an international group of officials, practitioners, researchers and activists about children. The Expert Seminar outlined the principles to be achieved to improve the living conditions of children.

The report of the Expert Seminar consists of two main parts. The first part is about the children's rights and their necessary habitat conditions and the second part is about the implications of governments.

First part involves the conditions of family, the home and its surroundings, and the community in which the children live and are affected the most.

"a.) Family-security: Nurturant families, in all their forms are the primary institutions and the best environment for protecting and promoting the right and well-being of children. Whenever possible, children must be able to live with their families in adequate, secure housing. Essential to the survival of families is their capacity to support themselves in ways which do not undermine family life. When families are unable to provide adequately for their children, States have the obligation to assist and support them.

b.) The Home and Its Surroundings: Homes and their surrounds are the primary environment of must children during the critical early period in their lives when they are most vulnerable and are developing most rapidly. The home environment must be secure, safe and healthy, must facilitate care giving and must meet children's basic physical, social, cultural and physiological needs. Children are active learners from the beginning of life and the provision of a warm and stimulating environment, where each child is valued as an individual, is essential to support and maintain their full development.

c.) Community: Communities must be physically, socially and emotionally healthy environments. Their inhabitants and their resources, services and institutions should go beyond maintaining basic survival to promoting a high quality of life for all" (Report of the Export Seminar, 1996)

4. 4. Children in Need of Protection

United Nations Children's Rights Declaration states that every child has the right to live in the conditions that are essential for the children's requirements. The same, declaration also states that for the normal development of children's personality they need loving, care and understanding. If any child is without the care of family or if the family is incapable of meetings the requirements of the child, the society and the public organizations are responsible of that child.

Children, especially before school-age, should live with their family, where they can first learn how to get adapted to the society. Family, plays the most influential role in

the social development of a child. The relations among the child and the family and among the other members of the family form the child's personality.

Nevertheless, some children without any family begin and continue their life in an environment that is insufficient in these respects. With the effect of negative environmental conditions these children are forced to be potential, criminal people.

In Turkey these children are tried to be protected by laws. The first paragraph of law no.6972 determines the children in need of protection as: "Children whose physical, physiological and ethical developments are under danger, children without any parents, children whose parents are unknown, children who are neglected and children who are forced to sexual abuse, alcohol and drug uses are called as children in need of protection."

These children, till they attain their majority, are put under the responsibility of the governmental foundations in order to be looked after and in order to gain a career opportunity.

According to the 6th paragraph of the same law, children between the ages of 0-6 should be put into orphanages and school children between the ages of 7-12 should be sent to youth houses for their education. At the age of 18 they have to leave the youth house no matter whether they will be safe or not at the outer world. In other words they are abandoned maybe for the second time in their lives. Records of the year 1979 tell that in Turkey there were about four million children under these conditions.

In the 22nd paragraph of this law it was stated that for the children who require special education, like blind, deaf, mute or with any other physical or physiological deficiencies, Ministry of Education is suppose to establish institutions for their education.

In 1961-1962 there were 7.999 children staying in 63 orphanages. After ten years in 1970-1971, the number of orphanages increased to 82 and the number of children to 11.856. After another decade the numbers increased to 94 orphanages and 13.360 children. This means that each year only 250 children were saved and rescued the danger of streets. When the number of 4 million children who need to be protected is compared with this data the insufficiency of the condition is clear. Another problem occurs due to the services that are given in the orphanages and due to the lack of specialist personnel. (Yavuzer, 1982)

The second paragraph of the law number 6972 obliges the police force, municipalities and mukhtars to inform the head of the civil services about the children

that were described in the first paragraph. It is also the duty of the citizens to inform the civil services if there are any children who are in need of protection. However, most of the citizens are unaware or unconscious of this condition.

4. 5. Relevant Laws and Conditions in Turkey

In Turkey there are special laws and relevant items concerning the children in need of protection. Some important ones are as follows: Constitution, Civil Law, Criminal Code, General Health Law, Primary Education Law, Law Number 6972 about the Children in Need of Protection.

According to law number 6972, the municipalities and other local governmental administrations are obliged to establish orphanages, youth houses and institutions and foundations in order to educate and raise the abandoned children. Monetary support of these associations and organizations are held by Ministry of Health and local governments. They are supposed to give some of their subsidy to the foundations related with these children.

However, because of financial shortages local governments cannot adequately meet the demands, needs and requirements of the foundations. As a result Children's Associations try to collect financial aid through the volunteer organizations, charities and through citizens. Even with the help of financial aids it is still impossible to meet the expenditures of the orphanages.

Other than these basic problems there are many other areas. The most important one is the lack of interrelation between the responsible establishments and foundations of the state and local governments. The second problem occurs due to the qualification and quantification of the children who will stay in the orphanages. In general, only mentally, physiologically and socially normal children can stay in the orphanages. Children with any abnormality are isolated. Quantity of children is another problem since here is real difference between the number of orphans and the number of orphanages. The last problem is about the teachers and other staff who work in the orphanages. They should maintain an adequate pedagogic formation before starting to work in these foundations.

The mission of the orphanages finish as soon as the child is eighteen years old. To leave these children, who had an isolated life in many aspects and who were not equipped to survive all alone, is like leaving them into an unknown future. So, it is a

must to give them a career education while they are still in the orphanages. It is an essential factor in order to prevent them from becoming criminals.

4. 5. 1.Child Labor

In Turkey as in many other Third World countries millions of school-aged children work in different kinds of labor. Main reasons of the increase in child labor are the low payments and the employers avoidance of insurance and taxes.

Child-labor also increases accordingly with uneducation and impoverishment. Especially poor families with many children are not capable of giving any education after primary school. Therefore the child has to work in order to gain money either for himself or for the family and usually for both. After primary school only 50-60 % of young population can enter into a higher degree of education. Rest of this population goes to work.

They either work as apprentices in some employment where they can be trained also or they sell various kinds of substances in the streets. Either may they are under danger and pressure; working in the streets, each day starting from the early hours of morning till late in the evening can cause them to face many kinds of people and gain bad habits; working in an employment can be hard on them, too.

According to the General Health Law number 1593 children, between ages 12-16 cannot work more than 8 hours in a day and not after 8 p.m. However situation is quite the opposite. They work till late in the evenings with machinery or tools that can be dangerous for their health or can cause accidents. These negative conditions cause physical and/or physiological defects on their bodies and souls. (Yavuzer, 1984)

4. 5. 2. Conditions in Turkey

In September 1990 an international conference about children was held. In the International Conference about Children both the universal dimensions of the subject were discussed and also the associated policies and practices were determined. According to these decisions, in 1993 a report about "National Activity Program of Children" was prepared and was put into practice. The report involved the children's rights to live, to be developed and protected.

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This national report was improved in 1995 accordingly with Turkey's conditions and requirements.

The first part of the report mainly consists of the general social structuring in Turkey and how children are affected by this structure. The new social structuring can be examined in three parts in general:

1. Turkey is going over a period of rapid industrialization, urbanization and modernization. In economy, industry and services show an increase, while sector of agriculture is decreasing. It has many effects, like: migration from small towns to large cities and rapid urbanization occurred related with this factor; as a result urban population increased nuclear families formed the share of the families from the national income increased social services and women's labor in the non-agricultural sectors increased, as well.

   All of these changes and developments caused changes in the family structures; roles, functions and responsibilities distribution within the family; and changes in the relations within the family and between family and its environment.

2. In determining the children's rights it is essential, first to examine their place state within the family. Social, economic and cultural factors are influential on the families and they determine children's state in the family. To remove their negative effects it is necessary to develop the services in quantity and quality. To improve the women's roles and conditions in social and economic life is an important point.

3. The basic aim of the society should be to bring up the children so that they would be healthy, well educated people in the future. To achieve these aims it is necessary to give health services to every member in the society to supply the children in need of protection with a family-like environment, to develop the educational and training conditions of children, to prevent the child crime and to equip the children who want to work with carrier.

   In the Constitution of Turkey there are paragraphs about family, women and children.

- Paragraph No.41- Family is the base of Turkish society.
- Paragraph No.42- No one can be deprived of the right to get education.

- Paragraph No. 50 -Nobody should be forced to work in jobs that do not suit with his/her age, sexuality and power.
- Paragraph No.56 -Everybody has the right to live in a healthy environment.
- Paragraph No. 61 - The State should take every prediction to win the children in need of protection for the benefit of society.

Turkey's participation in the international activities and policies concerning children can be summarized as below:

1. Turkey is the first and only country in the world that has a special celebration for children. (23 Nisan Ulusal Egemenlik ve Çocuk Bayramı)
2. Children's rights were put into the agenda of international societies after World War I. In 1920 UNICEF was founded, in 1923 Declaration of Children's Rights was published, in 1924 it was officially accepted. The purpose was to meet the urgent requirements of children who were injured and damaged by the war.

In 1948 in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights also the rights of children was mentioned briefly. On November 20th , 1959 the General Council of United Nations accepted the Declaration of Children's Rights. This declaration played the basic role of the Agreement About the Children's Rights that was accepted by UN, on November 20th 1989.

Agreement of Children's Rights was signed by Turkey on September 14th , 1990 and accepted by TBMM on December 9th , 1994.

General Directory of Social Services and Children's Protection Institution (Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Genel Müdürlüğü) was commissioned with the preparation and presentation of the national reports on January 11th , 1995.

Related with this, on May 3rd , 1997 Specialized Commissions were formed in order to prepare the first report that would be presented to UN. This commission involved representatives from various public and civil services, NGO's (Non-governmental organizations), universities.

3. In the previous Development Plans (Kalkınma Planları) children were subjected within the programs of health, education and population sectors. In the VI. Development Plan that involves the years 1990-1994 for the first time, children were examined under the title "Family, Women and Children" as a separate subject.

In the VII. Development Plans the subject of children was included under the title "The Project of Developing the Human Sources."

The aims determined in this last plan were parallel with the aims of the Agreement About Children's Rights, World Activity Plan (Dünya Faaliyet Planı), The International Conference of Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), International Women Conference (Beijing, 1995).

The report about "National Activity Program of Children, 1993" (Çocuklara Yönelik Ulusal Faaliyet Programı), involves the titles health, education, water and sanitation and children under difficult circumstances.

In this thesis the children under difficult circumstances will be studied. According to this national report, this concept involves more than one group under risks. Among these groups the first group is the children in need of protection and care. The reasons can be social or economic. Whatever the reason, the aim is to support these children physically or psychologically by taking care of them in a family-like environment.

The children who are under the risk of being criminals form the other group. The basic aim, concerning this group is to prevent children from becoming criminals and to win the criminal children again for the benefit of the society.

The last group is about the child-labor. To minimize the negative effects of working environment and conditions over the physical and psychological health of children was aimed. Another purpose is to give these children appropriate education, too, as well as an opportunity to gain a career. (Ulusal Faaliyet Raporu, 1996, p.7)

In this program, a detailed report of the current conditions of the children under difficult circumstances, analysis and recommendations were prepared.

1. Current conditions and problems:

-According to the population estimations of the year 1996, it is estimated that in Turkey the number of children in need of protection (0-18 year old) is about 504.704. The protection and care services are distributed as: 16.958 children stay at orphanages and youth houses, 550 disabled children stay at rehabilitation centers, 4.084 children were adapted by families, 4056 children stay with their families that get monetary aid from the state.

-Children can stay in the youth houses till the age of 18 and if they got appropriate education or skill they can be placed in public establishments according to law number 3413. Since 1988 about 7.500 children found a job this way.

-The system of orphanages and youth houses because of their economic costs, and because they can cause psychological and social problems, is not preferred.

-Even though it was decided to give protection and care, about 1.409 children cannot benefit from the services because of the insufficient capacity of the orphanages. Children that stay with their families, because of limited sources and regulations, cannot get the aids they are supposed to get.

Protective family services could not be generalized in Turkey. Only 271 children were placed under the care of protective family care.

-As it was aimed that the child should stay with his family, some caring and guidance services are developed; like social centers, youth guidance centers and nurseries. (Ulusal Faaliyet Raporu, 1996, p.31)

-Child-labor although it shows decrease, still forms a very large problem. Child-labor is seen mostly in small and middle scale businesses, at the streets, agriculture and at home. According to statistics of the year 1994 the age groups and labor force is like this:

Table 4.1 Age groups and child-labor (Ulusal Faaliyet Raporu, 1996)

Age group	Percent	Share of child-labor within the total labor-force
12-14	17.7	3.3
15-19	40.3	12.5

The largest child-labor is seen in agriculture and in unpaid family labors.

Table 4.2 Age groups and Child-Labor According to Sectors (Ulusal Faaliyet Raporu, 1996)

Age group	Agriculture (percent)	Unpaid family labor (percent)
12-14	73.9	75.3
15-19	58.3	62.4

2. Analysis and Recommendations:

-Family environment is essential for the healthy development of the child. Therefore, instead of staying under the care of an institution it is better for the child to stay with his family. Social and economic aids should be given to these families.

-In the institutions the services are given for 24 hours and in three shifts. However, it is impossible to create a family environment with this organization. Recently, it was advised that at least the physical environment should be improved. Also, for the new projects that will be developed, home-like projects are developed.

-There is insufficient number of qualified personnel to meet the children's physical, psychological and social requirements. They should be improved.

-Policies to obtain the participation of the society should be developed.

-A new structuring, that gathers the related public or private associations, foundations or organizations under the same roof is needed, in order to improve the services effectiveness.

A more detailed program concerning the children under difficult circumstances are given at the back.

4. 6. Street Children

Street children are:

-the opposite of the normal children who have houses, families and schools

-so marginal, they are physically forced out into the streets from the ordinary living places.

-not the reasons of the problems of the countries or cities but the results of those problems. However, they are defined as a problem.

-created by the environment they are living in and recreated again. (Komut, p.466, 1996)

There are different approaches from the society:

-the street children are either rejected completely

-or described as the bleeding wound of the society.

-or boundaries are put between them and the other children or put in a place where they cannot be seen.

They live everywhere in the city; in the parks, in the squares, at the junction points where they try to clean windows of the cars, on the ventilation holes of the large hotels, at the shopping centers.

Many social and physical projects are done for street children. However most of these projects are inadequate to meet the basic demands of street children.

4. 6. 1. Concept of Street Children

Street children is a fact of large cities all around the world. Despite the widespread opinion, it is not just the problem of developing countries but also the problem of developed countries. They are realized more evidently as their quantities and problems increase.

When studied historically it can be seen that it is not a new progress either. Street children could be seen in the middle ages and during the industrial revolution era in Europe. In Turkey the concept of street children became evident during 1950's when an immigration from rural areas to large cities began to take place. Today, as in three largest cities (Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir), street children are seen in other large cities, too, where population increase is seen due to the immigration.

Concept of street children differs from society to society; including the criminal, run-away, abandoned, homeless children. These types of clicks can cause confusions in determining and considering the problems and as a result developing wrong policies. For example, children who work in the streets are seen as potential criminals and therefore, are always arrested or beaten by the police. Another implementation is placing these children into orphanages without their wishes.

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Simplest definition of street children, defines them as "the children who adapted streets, vacant buildings or lots, terminals, etc. as their living environment." (Atauz, p.467, 1996)

Mainly, street children form two large groups, including children of the streets.

Children in the streets are the ones who work in the streets in order to gain money for themselves and/or for their family. They have family support behind them and although they spend their days in the street they go back to their home at night. (Atauz, 1996)

Children of the streets, however, form the second group of the street children and can be described as the real street children. They have no families or home to go back at night. Number of them is less than the first group and they have many more complicated problems.

To determine their number is quite difficult. As the other marginal-living people in the cities they do not take place in any statistics. Only with predictions their number can be estimated. According to the studies at international level there are about 100 million street children existing all around the world. Nearly half of them do live in Latin America. Regional wars, civil wars, changes in political changes (like in Eastern Block) cause increasement in the number of street children. (Atauz, 1996)

They usually consist of children from the poor families. In many countries poor families try to live without a house or even without any kind of shelter. Today in third world countries, almost half of the urban population, which makes about 600 million people, are living in inadequate conditions without healthy environment. % 45 of this population consists of children ages between 0-14. They live in squatters which are the most unsuitable places for the health of the people.

To live in poor neighborhoods means to be working in informal sector, also. Mostly women and children are involved in the informal economic activities. In the countries where child labor is restricted by laws, children work in the streets.

The attractiveness of informal sector is related with the fact of high daily income. Income levels of these families increase as the number of children who work increase. Even though, these children, unlike the children of streets have houses to go to at night, still all the dangers of the streets exist for them, too. (Atauz, 1996)

During the last five years there are changes in the quantities and qualities of street children in Turkey, as well. Till 1989 the most evident changes were seen in the increase

of their number and their taking location in the most central places of the city (like İstiklal Caddesi in Istanbul, Cumhuriyet Meydanı in Izmir, Sakarya Caddesi in Ankara) (Atauz, 1996)

> "Studies show that these children have some common characteristics: they usually come from families with broken family ties or where no love, understanding and relationship exist in-between the family members. Chronically impoverishment increases the tension in the family, causing many psychological problems for the children." (Atauz, p.472, 1996)

The physical existence of parents is not a guarantee for the wholeness of the family. Studies show that children prefer to live in the streets as a result of empty-house syndrome. The mentioned syndrome is caused by the physical and/or emotional abandonment of children by their parents or other family members (Atauz, p.472, 1996)

Transfer from living at home to living at streets starts by not going to school at school time but wandering around. During this period the child begin to get to know the streets and street life. Running away from home first starts by staying out one night at places known beforehand and this behavior becomes chronic by time. With new relations and alternative places for the nights, child gains an opportunity to go more distant places each time. This distance grows as for as another city or even another region.

The run away children first choose crowded places like bus terminals, train stations, parks, crowded streets, etc. They prefer these places both because they feel more secure and because they cannot be discriminated easily. (Atauz, 1996)

Gradually, children are adjusted to the streets as their living environment, and became members of a sub-culture. They create their own social, psychological and physical places both in time and place dimensions. In this respect places and relations carry different meanings for these children and for the other people.

Because they have no family ties they have great mobility within the boundaries of the city and they change their places continuously for various reasons. As a result it is not an easy task to get information about them unless one is friendly with them. To determine, count and to bring any service for them is rather difficult, too.

They prefer to stay at places like: parks, bus terminals, train stations, wagons, abandoned vacant buildings, unfinished building construction sites, ATM cubicles, loopholes of air conditioning systems, under the bridges, etc. While these places are used

as working, playing areas during the day, they are used as sleeping places at right. (Atauz, 1996)

To exist alone in the streets, is a difficult struggle for a young child. So, the child enters into one of the streets gangs. These gangs can be defined as social groups that make the streets suitable for the street children to live in." (Atauz, 1996)

Each gang has its own leader who suppose to be the most powerful, cunning and authoritative child in the group. Group association is essential in order to eliminate the dangers and in order to survive. Individual attitudes are not allowed and any money, food or clothes which are found are shared among.

Especially in large cities like Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara it is known that many children live in the streets unattended, without any protection and face to face with lots of danger. From time to time most of these children are gathered from the streets and are given back to their families if there are any, and few of them are sent to the orphanages. Those ones who are sent back to their families run away again and return to the streets and each year their number increases.

Data taken from the Istanbul Children's Bureau give some idea about the condition. Şehzadebaşı Children's Bureau was established in 1962 and is connected with Ministry of Internal Affairs. Most of the children who come to this bureau are run-away children who live in the streets and show tendency toward criminality.

Till 1981 almost 17.500 children were brought down to this bureau either by the citizen or by police force. The process in these bureaus are as follows: The child stays in the bureau for about one week or ten days. Within this period of time parents are informed about their children.

There are financial problems in these bureaus since there is no proper subsidy given by the state and no monetary aid is taken from the citizens. Another problem occurs in the services of the bureau since there are no physiologist, pedagogist, social service members or health members who work in this bureau. (Yavuzer, 1982)

Münir Kutluğ have done several observations about these street children; and he has called them "Family of Harem İskelesi".
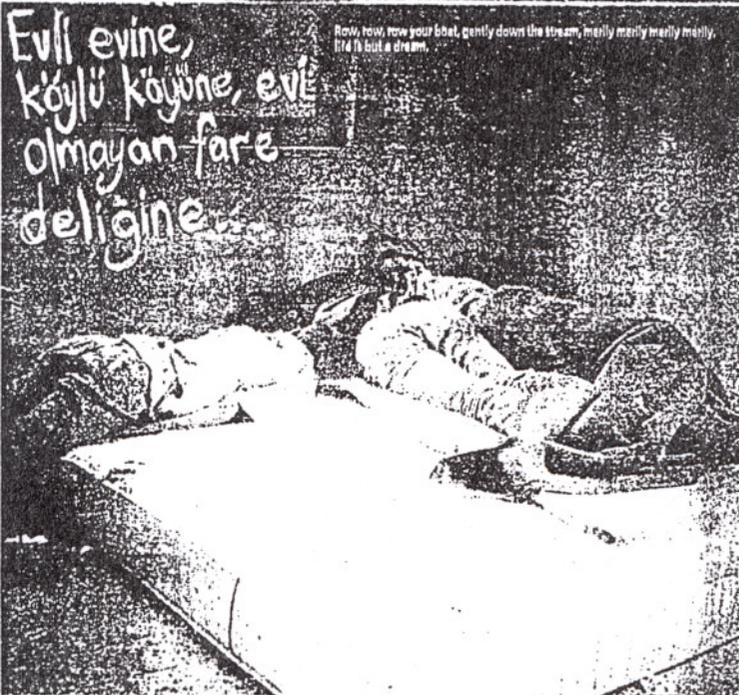
Fig. 4.1. Conditions of Street Children
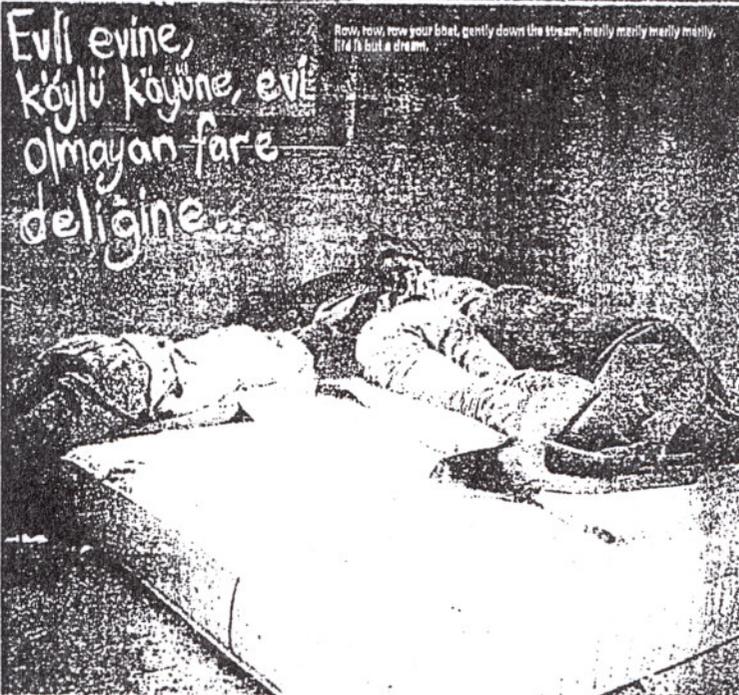
Fig. 4.1. Conditions of Street Children

"Family of Harem İskelesi:

If you ever go to Harem İskelesi you will see children between the ages of 10-15. These children have found an escape from the insufficient socio-economic home environment and conditions by seeking a shelter there. Harem İskelesi is their first place to stay when they first come to the city of Istanbul.

They try to survive with very little amount of money that they have taken from their home. In a little period of time their money is gone with their hopes. They can find no bread to eat and no place to sleep. They only have one chance Harem İskelesi. They become part of the family of Harem İskelesi.

All of them are hungry, all of them are looking for any kind of job and all of them are rivals. At nights their state is even worse. If the weather is warm they can sleep anywhere but in winter they try to sleep on icy concrete floors.

You will see children who shiver, who wet their underclothes, who cry silently in a corner. They are not allowed to sleep on the banks of the dock, even on the floors. These children do not like the nights, they want to scream but cannot. Everything is forbidden from their life.

They eat whatever they can find and sometimes cannot find anything to eat and stay hungry. When they are hungry they beg for money, for bread, for cigarette. Smoking and drinking wine or alcohol is their way of life" (Yavuzer, 1982, p.232)

According to the statistics, observations and interviews about the Family of Harem İskelesi these children form a group which is absolutely abandoned to its fate. In near future they will create even greater problems in the society. 43 % of these children come from Anatholia and 33 % of them are run-away children. Number of them increases hundred percent each year.

Although almost all of them are unhappy to have this kind of life only half of them are willing to go back to their homeland. These street children neither want to live in the streets nor want to go back to their homes. They are kind of captured between the past and the future. They have no one to guide them and what's more they do not want to be guided.

As a result it can be concluded that street children are seen guilty in front of the society and laws. However, it is not justice to say that they are guilty without thinking about the conditions of the society and environment in which they were born and brought up, their education and the attitude of the whole society toward them. (Yavuzer, 1982)

4. 6. 2. Solutions

General approaches to the problem of street children are far-off from concrete solutions. However, since the problem grows continuously there should be some practical projects about the subject.

In many countries there are centers where the run-away children or teen-ages can apply to. These centers support the children and guide them with specialists working at these centers.

In Turkey, street children caught by police are either sent to the neighborhood police stations or to the branch offices of children's protection centers. Afterwards they are either sent to the orphanages or just sent back to streets where they continue their previous life.

Throughout the world in some cities, a project to support the street children in various ways, was developed. They are gathered in centers where they find some kind of shelter, physiological treatment and therapy and also physical health improvements. They are given a proper education as well as vocational training.

Another approach that is highly used is the adaptation of orphan and street children. There is yet another project to support the families under social and/or economic risks. The last two solutions rather play a preventive role in preventing the child to break up from the home environment.

To produce solutions for the fact of street children is not the responsibility of only one profession or institution or group. Participation and sharing the responsibilities are essential if more realistic solutions are aimed. (Atauz, 1996)

For this purpose Turkish Foundation For Street Children is founded in January 1996. Bringing solutions to problems of children that are pushed to live in the streets, meeting their basic needs for food, shelter, education, health and employment, in other words integrating these children into the society are the basic aims of the foundation.

According to the founders and volunteers, one of the primary things is to remind all of the street children that they are 'children', and show them that there is a different world than the one they are experiencing. To achieve this the basic point is to reach them; so they started social work on the streets.

A group of social workers and trained volunteers work in seven neighborhoods of Istanbul, in the streets, every night, to get into relation with street children. The minibus of the foundation take the group to streets where children live and sleep. The

Fig. 4. 2. Street Children's First-Step House

group introduces The First Step House and invites children to this house for rehabilitation. Even if they do not accept to go to the house their needs for clothing, food, blankets, medication, cleaning, etc. are supplied. Medical treatments are either provided by the group or arranged to be provided at hospitals. If the children accept they can get a professional help for addiction.

The other project is the Street Cafe, which the first one is opened in Beyoğlu where most of the children gather. The cafe is both open to street children and also to the society. Children have a warm place where they can apply for consultation or just call on to meet and talk to different people, eat, drink, have a shower and get clean clothes.

The First Step House is the name of the house where children protected by the Turkish Street Children Foundation are living at. It is the shelter where the first-steps of socialization is made. Here, a home-like environment is provided and needs of children for sleep, nutrition, cleaning are met.

A group of social workers, psychologists child development and education specialists, teachers, psychiatric nurse and trained volunteer, consulted by a psychiatrist, work at the First Step House.

Psycho-social situation of the children living at the First Step House is monitored closely by the specialists. In order to improve their sense of responsibility the children are involved in casual house-work. Football games, drawing and music, short-play and mime are some of the activities organized at the house, through which children can both get rid of their negative energy and learn different ways of expressing themselves.

Social workers prepare individual reports about the reasons of children for being on the streets, their family structures, problems and background history. Psychologists make IQ, ability and personality tests and give information to the team about the children. Child Development Specialists work on individual capacities and abilities of each child, listen to their desires and abilities of each child, listen to their desires and try to socialize them.

Further plans are made for street children by the foundation. The most important step is to create on alternative to living on the streets for children. Educating families to avoid the increase of the number of children living in the streets, is the second step. The others are as follows:

-Providing solutions to improve and develop the social work policies by all the governmental institutions about children who are subjected to sexual abuse, violence and poverty.

-Establishing Observation Units, where medical, legal and social needs of children living 24 hours a day in the streets are identified and programmed to be met.

-Establishing Information and Consultation Desks at Places with high flow of entering to major cities, where children lost or abandoned may apply easily.

-Establishing Children Station where children working or studying can spend their free time. A cultural center, exhibition hall, workshop, sports and hobby center and a library are being planned to open at this center.

-Establishing a Children Center, where 200 children can be accommodated to provide education and training to street children.

-Opening Rehabilitation Centers, where occupational training about textile, carpentry, apiculture, agriculture, etc. can be given to children, alongside meeting their daily needs.

The Foundation For the Street Children in Istanbul has a First Step House at Küçükçekmece near Yeşilköy Atatürk Airport. Street children who accept to go to the house are brought here. The capacity of the house is 15 children. Rehabilitation process starts as soon as the child comes to the house.

First, information about themselves and about their families are learned. The main goal is to send them back to their families. If there are problems with the families they are kept in the house.

According to the child's age group they are sent to school or if they are older they get education within the foundation. If they wish they can start working. For older children's education and shelter, a training and production center will be established in Zeytinburnu.

After First Step House and Zeytinburnu the foundation plans to establish a village for street children. The land for this village is found in Çamlıca and the size is about 4000m^2.

Street children because of their problems and addictions are not accepted to the children's villages. So, the foundation decided to establish a similar village for these children.

4.7. Space, Environment and Children

Although, the main idea of psychology is based on the personal behavior, the concept of environment is also included as a component to this study. Indeed, the importance of environment is always mentioned in psychological studies. However, environment is this context means just the social environment that consists of human beings. One environment that is never mentioned is the physical environment.

At the end of the 1940's two American social psychologists, Roger Barker and Herbert F. Wright pointed out the ecological psychology. They defended that behavior always formed within a context, so psychology was in need of natural methods in order to be able to be analyzed perfectly.

Natural environment or natural surroundings in this context means the normal daily life of a person and also the physical environment this life occurs within.

These are the essential subjects to understand the relation between the child and the environment and also important for the designers who will design an environment for the children. The designers should be aware of:

a. social and physical factors that plays a role in the behavior of children.

b. the child's developmental characteristics

c. the presentation of the considered environment.

As a result designers should create environments that have positive influential effects on the children's development.

Physical environments of children can be studied in three parts: privates spaces (houses) semi-private spaces and public spaces. (Gökmen, 1996)

Home is the place where the children's physical socialization from due to the learning from the adults. In this concept home involves both the physical environmental characteristics and also the social roles. What's more, spaces with both social and physical environmental qualities send symbolic messages to the children. Designing the living environment or condition of home or at least their own room gives children a feeling of belonging. (Gökmen, 1996)

Both the physical and social environments can be active independent from each other, can change together or can mediate each other. The physical characteristics of the environment can be changed, destroyed or damaged by the parents or other family members, causing children to be affected negatively.

5. 1. The Idea of Children's Villages

As mentioned above children's villages that are getting common throughout the world are eventually replacing the orphanages. The main difference of orphanages and children's villages is related with their administration. In most countries, as well as in Turkey, orphanages are related to the governments or governmental organizations. However children's villages are private establishments related with the non-governmental organizations (NGO's).

The most famous and widespread private child-care organization is the International SOS Association that was founded in 1949, by Hermann Gmeiner (1919-1986). Today this network consists of more than 1150 projects in more than 119 countries.

The purpose of SOS Children' Villages is to provide a family environment for children whose parents are unable to care for them. A quotation from Hermann Gmeiner indicates this purpose very clearly: "What the orphaned and abandoned child needs first and foremost is a family - a family in which he or she can develop normally."

In these villages 8 to 10 children of various ages constitute small family-type groups, who grow-up like brothers and sisters. Each SOS family lives in a house of its own. The head of the family is the SOS mother who provides the children both with physical and psychological care that are essential factors for the children's healthy development.

Each village involves about 15 houses that form a community and provide an extended family for all children. There is also a male in the villages who represents the father figure and who advises the mothers. The children grow up in conditions very similar to those in a normal family.

Children are accepted to SOS Children's Villages from infancy, to the age of eight years. They stay at the villages until they are able to begin an independent life. Older teenagers are placed in Youth Houses which support them in taking their first step to independence. If the conditions are appropriate the SOS Children's Villages, maintain contact with the extended family from which the child comes.

Villages are usually located in attractive surroundings, near a large town or city. They are meant to build a bridge to the surrounding world with the families as an integral

ADDIS ABEBA/ÄTHIOPIEN

RIO DE JANEIRO/BRASILIEN

RETALHULEU/GUATEMALA

GULPILHARES/PORTUGAL

NAIROBI/KENIA

BOGOTÁ/KOLUMBIEN

Fig. 5. 1. Samples of Children's Villages From Different Countries

part of the local community. Children attend public schools and are encouraged to integrate with the surrounding community.

Attached to the SOS Children's Villages are a number of associated SOS Facilities, that have a purpose of better integrating the villages into their neighborhood. These facilities serve as preparation of children and adolescents to earn their own living and also serve for the benefit and usage of neighborhood children and teen-ages.

After their compulsory schooling and during their vocational training or further studies, adolescents are supported by youth houses or youth communities. These facilities are intended to help the young people adjust from SOS Children's Village family life to one of self-sufficiency.

Their reference person is the guidance counselor. He or she is assigned to the particular facilities and counsels and supports the adolescents during this part of their lives. Young people are responsible for their own housekeeping, financial management and daily chores.

In non-European countries, SOS Children's Villages are providing more and more vocational training, life support and orientation at these facilities. The SOS educational centers promote the integration of SOS Children in their natural surroundings, while making an effective contribution toward raising the educational level of socially underprivileged groups.

At SOS Vocational Training Centers (carpentry, metal working, printing, farming, etc.), young people from SOS Children's Villages and their surroundings can acquire basic and advanced trades that are caught after on the national market.

A sample of children's villages is from South Africa. The SOS Children's Villages Association of South Africa was formed in 1982 with the construction of the fist SOS Children's Village. Today hundreds of children are provided with a permanent family environment in SOS Children's Villages in five cities.

Attached to each SOS Children's Village is a SOS Kindergarten, which is open to the surrounding communities and offers educational programs to young pre-school students. SOS Youth Houses provide bridging facilities for the transition from life in the SOS Children's Villages to independent life.

Under the guidance of a Youth Leader who lives with them, young adults manage their own household while they learn, how to share resources and take responsibility for their actions.

Practical skills training programs, such as computer usage and sewing, offered by the SOS Training Centers are aimed at assisting youths from SOS Children's Villages and the community in gaining employment. Through the Educate Community Program SOS shares its experience in educating children with developing activities and programs for children.

The SOS Children's Villages Association of South Africa is a private, charitable social welfare organization. It is politically and denominationally independent and is an affiliated member of SOS Kinderdorf International, based in Innsbruck, Austria.

These villages are dependent on financial support of individual and corporate supporters. Individual donors generally donate sum of money per month to support a broad range of programs. Corporate sponsors support the direct costs of operating one or more SOS Family, Houses and make contributions for educational programs which in some cases, are tax deductible.

5. 2. Children's Villages in Turkey

As mentioned, above, in this chapter, according to the international children's funds agreement each child has the right to get sufficient education, sufficient health controls, to grow in healthy environment, to defend and to clarity himself. However, although, Turkey has accepted these conditions by signing the agreement still most of the children cannot benefit equally from these rights.

International agreements and Turkey's existing laws supply each child with the right to live a healthy life with or without his family, including the street children. Another important point is to prevent children from working at difficult jobs or at least to put some arrangements to improve the conditions that they work.

Authorities of Social Services and Children's Protection Association indicate that in Turkey there are at least 500 thousand children in need of protection. Only 20 thousand of them can be sheltered and protected. The head of the Çocuk Vakfý, Mustafa Ruhi Þirin tells that in Turkey there are about 8.5 million children under the line of impoverishment. Cumhur Onur, head of the Foundation of Street Children predicts that there are about 15-20 thousand street children in Turkey. (Cumhuriyet Gazetesi, 20.11.1996, p.3)

The only institution that is related with this problem is the Institution of Children's Protection that is administered by prime-ministry. Mission of this institute is the establishment and administration of the orphanages and youth houses in Turkey. Orphans, in this respect, are protected by laws and are under the guidance of the state. Street children, on the other hand, even though they are the facts of this country and even though they need specific solution, are disregarded

Another problem about the institutions is their capabilities, and capacities. Institutions, as mentioned above are managed by the government for their monetary subsidy. Usually, governments are incapable of supplying sufficient number of orphanages with high qualities and/or quantities. Problems of overcrowding, insufficient physical, psychological and social environments are created.

5. 2. 1.Establishment of Children's Villages in Turkey

As mentioned above, many times there are many insufficiencies in the quantity and quality of the state orphanages and youth houses. Non-governmental organizations, due to these insufficiencies, tried to find solutions for the problem.

The most important and effective solution seems to be the children's villages. Both the physical conditions and the psychology of the villages are capable of supplying children with essential requirements, that were determined by the report of "National Activity Program of Children."

For the establishment of the children's villages a protocol was made between the Institution of Children in Need of Protection and the Foundation of Children in Need of Protection (Türkiye Korunmaya Muhtaç Çocuklar Vakfý established in 1979). With this protocol the permission to establish a children's village was obtained.

Based on this protocol, in 1988 the first children's village in Turkey was established: Istanbul, Bolluca Children's Village:

The purposes of this foundation are:

-to obtain financial and moral supports for the development of children in need of protection.

-to give these children the feeling of security.

-to help them to develop an efficient personality both for their own and the society's benefit.

-to educate and shelter these children in the children's villages within a family environment and with a mothers loving, caring.

To achieve these purposes Bolluca Children's Village was founded. The construction of the village started at the beginning of 1988 and the village opened in March 1992.

Bolluca Children's Village was constructed on a plot of 52.000 m². There are 12 houses, 1 administrative building, a house for the administrator, house for the technician, a guest house, a nursery for 30 children, a generator, playground and sports area.

The construction of the children's village was done by SOS KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL and the buildings' furnishings, infrastructure and environmental design of the village was done by the foundation.

In Each house there is one "mother" who is responsible of the children and the house. 'Mothers' and 'aunts', who help mothers, are educated on psychology and pedagogy. Mothers are supposed to finish 8 years of education, should have a good character, should be either unmarried, divorced or widowed and suppose to be between the ages 25-40.

Only the children between the ages 0-8, children who have no parents or only have one parent, children without any physical and psychological deficiencies are accepted to the village. Children and teen-agers can stay in the village or under the care of foundation till they will be able to manage their own lives.

From the interview done with the manager of the village it was learned that are 72 children living in the village, right now. The personnel consist of 10 mothers, 6 aunts, 3 nursery teachers, 2 gardeners, 4 watchmen, 1 technician, 1 secretary.

According to the manager family environment that was aimed was established. Children living in the same home consider themselves as brothers and sisters. Another project is developed about youth houses. The age of children in the village is under 15, but the foundation is planning to constructing a youth house where girls and boys over age of 15 will be separated.

Within the village there is no elementary school, so children have to go to Bolluca Village School. Children who need higher education go to other high schools. 55 children are getting education at different levels. They will get vocal training after the age 15, if they wish.

They have good relations with the villagers and according to the director of the children's village the villagers willingly accepted children as well. However, beside these positive sectors, there are some insufficiency in Bolluca Children's Village.

According to the criteria that are developed in this thesis, the selection of the location of the village is the weak point of Bolluca .If the general location criteria, that are stated in section 5.3 are examined, this point can be seen more clearly.

First of all, according to the personal observations, the site is indeed seperated from Istanbul and from the social environment of the city. It seems too remote and isolated from the surrounding environment, too. The integration of the children into the social environment is weak. The isolation of the children's village still exists, as in the state orphanages.

Secondly, the socio-cultural facilities that should take place do not exist in the village or at the surrounding neighborhood. So, in the village a-socio-cultural center could have been planned for the usage of the children and the whole community.

Fig. 5. 2. Houses in Bolluca Children's Village

Fig. 5. 3. The Interior of the Houses in Bolluca

Fig. 5. 4. Site View From Bolluca Children's Village
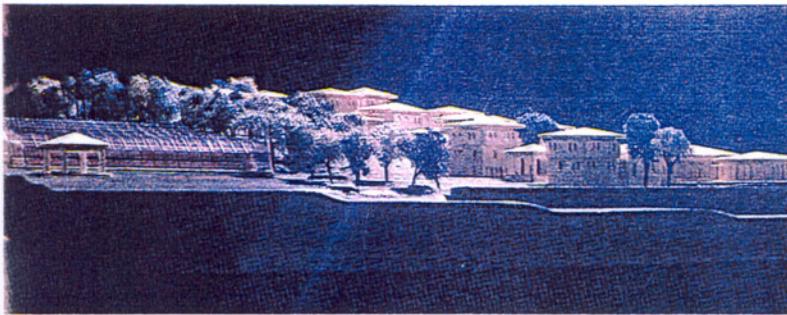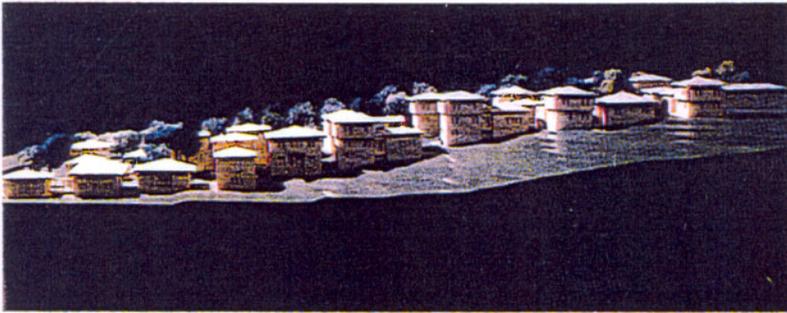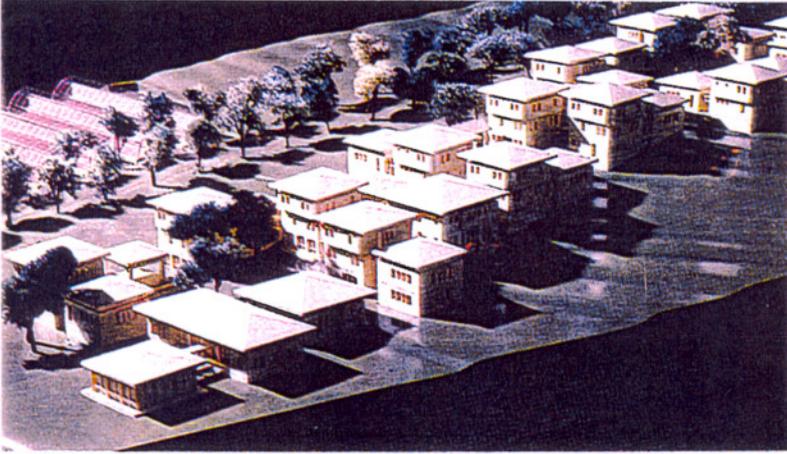
Fig. 5. 5. Pictures of the Model of Bolluca Children's Village in Istanbul

Infrastructure of the village is completed. They use the city water net. Village has its own wastewater treatment plant and they use the treated water in gardening. There is central heating system in the village.

Houses have the same plan; an entrance, a living room, kitchen and mother's and aunt's room on the first floor and children's bedrooms and bathrooms on the second floor. There is one bedroom for every 2 children.

In choosing the place they tried to find a place appropriate with the criteria SOS has put. The area was donated to the foundation by a benevolent.

The foundation is responsible of the village financially, also. They get no monetary aid from the state. Village's only income is from the donations. Volunteer people can either help for once, or they give certain amount of money each month or they can be responsible of the expenditures of one house.

Life in the village is the same as the daily life in any house. Mother sends the older children to school and do the daily chorus afterwards. The director of the village lives within the village with his family and has the role of father figure as well. The foundation is constructing an elementary school that can be both used by the children of the village and also by the neighborhood." (Cumhuriyet Gazetesi, 16.3.1997, p.18)

Impressions of a journalist about Bolluca Children's Village is as follows:

"There is a very large statue of Atatürk at the entrance of the village. Gardens are full of flower beds with various colors. The building, in which 30 girls 42 boys, totally 72 orphan children live is very clean. You can feel the warm atmosphere of a family life as soon as you enter the village. When you realize that those children live with the affection and love of the volunteer mothers in a warm atmosphere and when you see that the children get a contemporary education you understand that you did not get a wrong impression.

About 7 children share a house with a mother. Girls and boys have their separate rooms. Mothers stay for 24 hours a day with the children, in the same house. Meals are prepared by the mother but from time to time children also help their mother." (Hürriyet, 19.4.1997, p.18)

The second children's village was built in Urla, Barbaros. It was founded by Foundation of Children in Need of Protection. The Izmir branch of the foundation was founded in 1989.

Fig. 5. 6. The plot of the Barbaros Children's Village. S: 1/1000
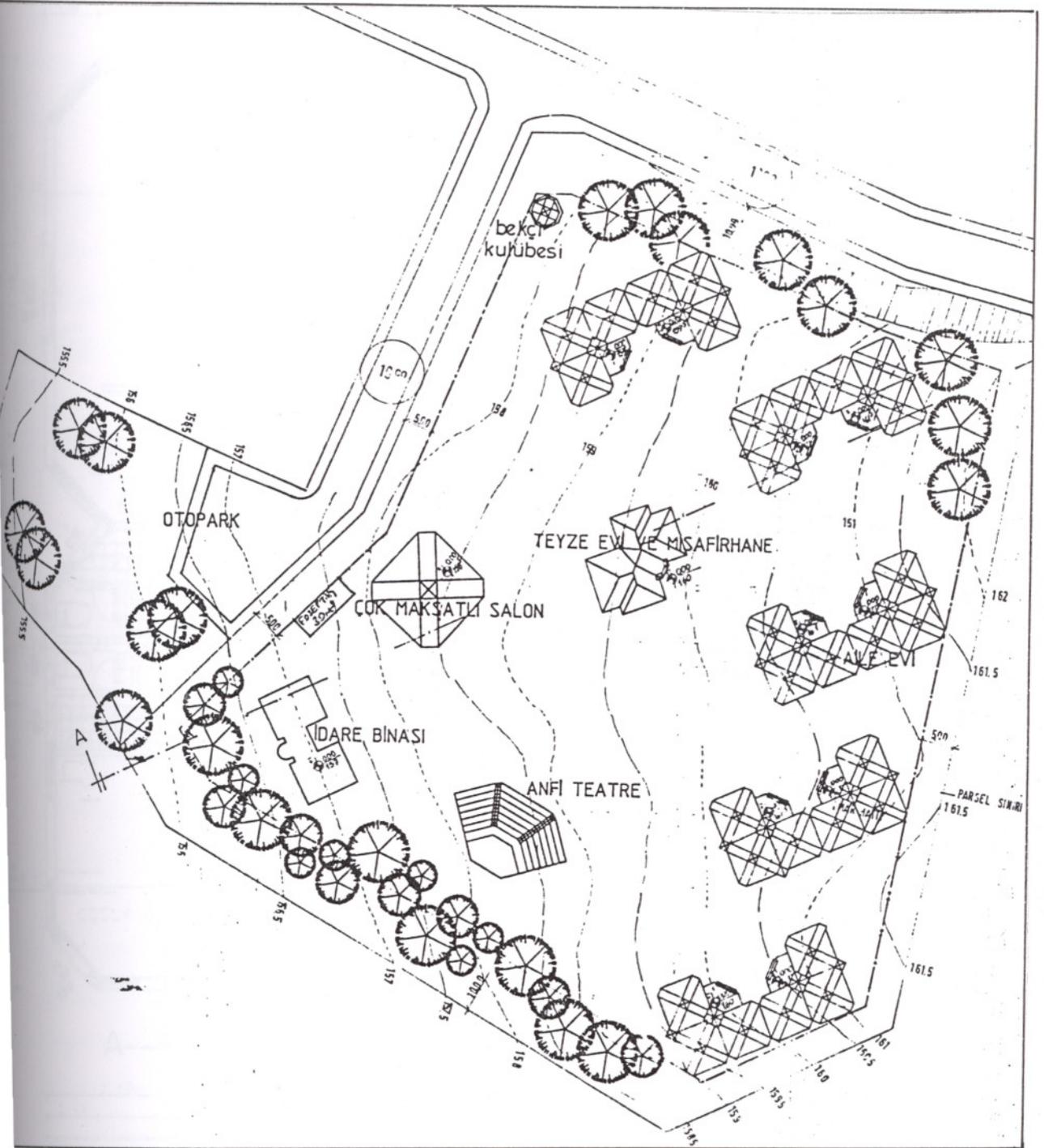
Fig. 5. 7. The Site Plan of Barbaros Children's Village Project
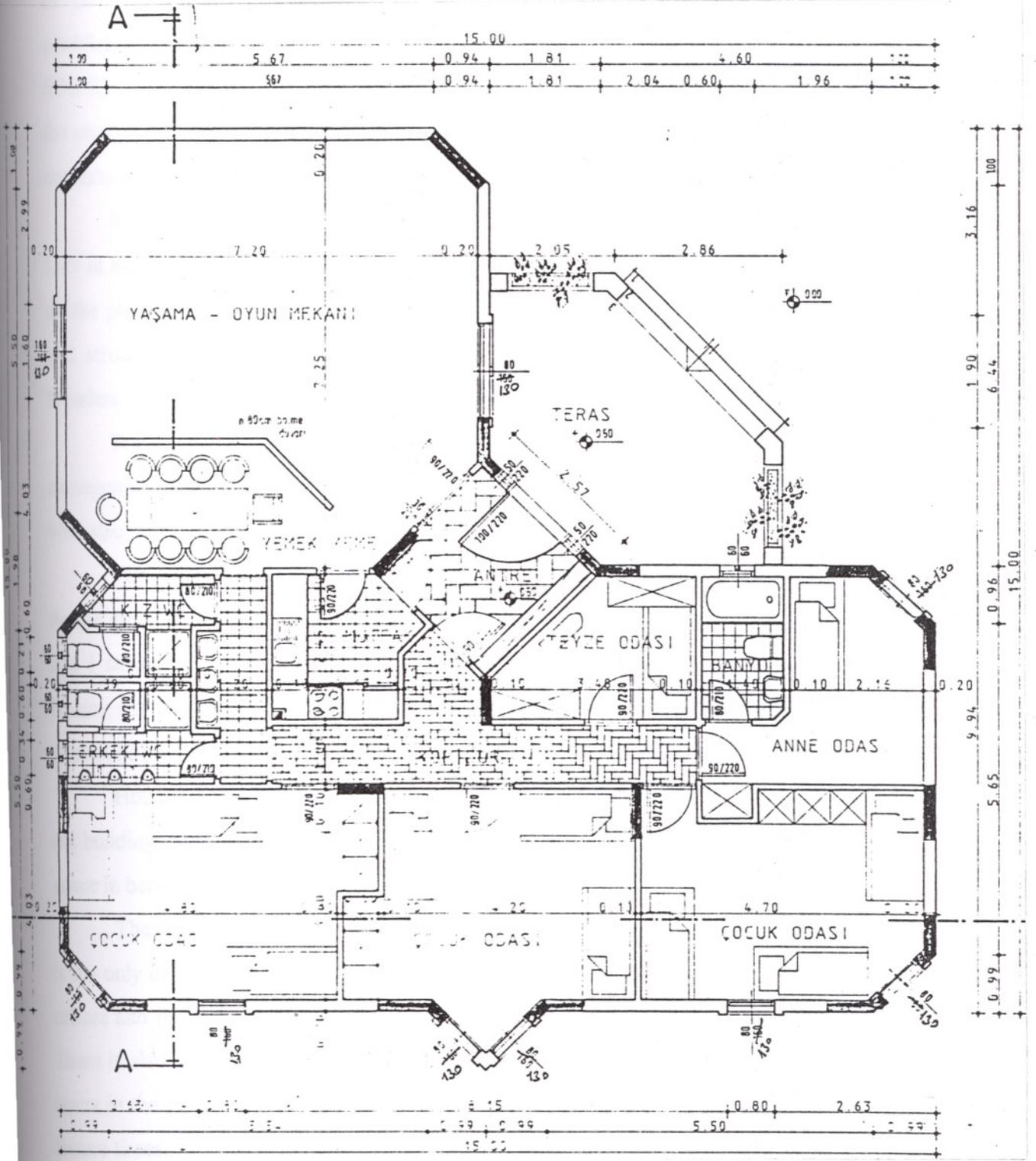
Fig. 5. 8. The Architectural Plan of the Children's Houses of Barbaros

From the interviews done with Zehra Çalkan, who is a psychologist and also is a charter member, it was learned that establishing a children's village in Izmir was the idea of Dr. Benal İnceer. The same procedure was followed in the first periods of establishment. First the Bolluca Children's Village was examined, then an agreement with SOS Kinderdorf was made. SOS aided the İzmir branch in finance and consulting about the construction. The main difference of two villages occurred after this period. SOS still consults and finances Bolluca while Barbaros separated from SOS.

In choosing the plot the criteria that were determined by SOS were accepted. Like in Bolluca the plot was bought and donated by a founder. After finding and deciding on the plot, a volunteer construction firm, which is also a founder, did the architectural and structural plans of Barbaros Children's Village. During the construction period founders financially aided the construction of each house.

There are 10 houses in Barbaros and the full capacity is 90 children. The management system is the same with Bolluca; a mother for each house, aunts, a director who also plays a father figure.

The architect of the Barbaros Children's Village informed that, before starting to do the architectural plan, she had examined the plan of Bolluca. The houses are 150 m^2 and 1 storey high. From the impressions she got in Bolluca she decided that 1 storey houses are more convenient for the usage of children than the multi-storey houses. The control of mothers over small children are easier, in 1 storey houses.

House units are constructed so that they face a common space. The orientation of the buildings was not achieved fully, because the main point here is to form a common space in between houses.

The first building that was constructed is the management building. This building is the only one which is 2 storeys high. On the first floor there will be the administration offices and the second floor will be used as the residence of the manager of the village. There is also a 2 storey house for the usage of aunts. While mothers have to stay for 24 hours in the house, aunts work in three shifts and they use the aunts' house during their leisure times.

Each house has a living room that can be used as a play-room, also. Kitchen, living-room and bathrooms were located so that they are closely related with each other. Kitchen is placed at the entrance and on the right the living room takes place. Bedrooms are located on the left of the kitchen.

(a)

(b)

Fig. 5. 9. (a) Surronding Area and (b) Site View of Barbaros Children's Village

(Fig. 5. 10. Cont. next page)

(Fig. 5. 10. Cont.)

Fig. 5. 10. Houses That are Realized in Barbaros

There is a common kitchen in the management building, where the meals are prepared for the whole village. Meals, then are sent to each house. Living room is used as a dining room, too.

There is no school within the children's village and the school of Barbaros Village could not be opened, because number of school children is very low. So, both the village children and children's village children go to the school at Uzunkuyu, that is about 8 km. far from the Barbaros . The villagers hope that after the opening of children's village the school in Barbaros will open, too.

The reaction of villagers toward the children's village is positive. From the interviews done with the mukhtar I got the impression that the villages have easily got adapted to the idea.

Water supply of both of the villages was from the Uzunkuyu village, before. However the maintenance of the pipes were very difficult. Therefore, they opened a new well near Barbaros village, for water supply. Children's village has its own wastewater treatment system.

Both the villagers' and the mothers' largest problem is transportation. There is no direct transportation from the village to Izmir. Villagers think that with the construction of the campus of Izmir Institute of Technology (IYTE) and as the campus will be used efficiently they will benefit from the condition.

There are some insufficiencies when the general plan of the village is considered. The main problem is the lack of common usage's. Again, the interviews done with two mothers who are staying in the village brought this problem. The children village in Barbaros needs both open and close play-ground and sports area and hall. A library and study hall both for the usage of children and other employees are needed.

During the researches of this thesis Barbaros village has not opened to the usage of children, yet. In September 1997 there were only one watchman and 3 mothers staying in the village. Mothers were employed in 1995, however they could not start to work. Later, in the spring of 1997, they were sent to Bolluca Children's Village for a trainee. They had stayed there for 3 months as aunts to learn the procedure. Starting from June 1997 they came back to Barbaros and stayed there from them on.

Although the construction of the village had ended in 1995 they could not be able to open it. The reason is there were many reactions from the governments of the current year and they resisted to open the village. Apart from the status of Bolluca, Barbaros has

a different status. Bolluca, as mentioned above is a private village, founded, constructed and managed by private foundations and non-governmental organizations.

Barbaros likewise, was founded and constructed with the aids from private foundations and non-governmental organizations, appropriate with the main/basic idea of children's villages. However, the Izmir branch of the foundation was not financially powerful to support the management of the village and they did not want the support of the SOS organization. So, they decided that it would be better if the management would be done by the state.

The political viewpoint of the current government was against the concept of children's villages. They opposed to sign the protocol which would transfer the management of the village to the state. Because of these problems, although the village was usually completed, could not be opened.

With the change in the government a new party and coolation came into being. Their look toward the villages was positive. So the protocol was signed with the new government and the village will be opened in November, 1997.

5. 3. Site Selection Criteria For Children's Villages

Today, when physical plans of cities are examined it can be seen that there are reserved areas for parks, for schools, for religious buildings, for industry, for cultural and health services. On the other hand the children's villages (like women's villages), being a new concept do not have reserved areas for their development. The main reason is the lack of knowledge and lack of a legend in existing physical planning regulations.

The legend that are used in physical plans are the results of human needs. Therefore, every step that is taken or every legend that is put in the plans have to meet these human needs.

When the urbanization throughout history is examined, it can be seen that cities grew and developed in accordance with the changes in social, economic an d cultural lives of people. It is also emphasized in this thesis that people are going through a new change. This change especially occurs in social life and is most effective on women and children.

In this context, the children's villages is a new legend apart from social service areas legend. The social service areas that are reserved in urban plans are insufficient in

many ways. First of all an adequate children's village need certain physical features. Secondly, the social aspects of the surrounding community should be considered while selecting a location.

Depending on the analysis of the existing examples of children's village in Turkey and in other countries location criteria can be defined as follows:

The site selection criteria for children's villages can be examined in two groups: physical criteria and social criteria.

1. Physical criteria: Children's villages' main purpose is to supply children with a healthy, physical, psychological and social environment. To obtain these features the site:

- should be located in a least polluted area

- should have a nice climate and nature

- should be protected from cold winter winds by mountains or other site features. The best location is on the south or east slopes of small mountains

- the accessibility to and from the village should be easy and comfortable

- the necessary social and health services should exist in the surrounding community

- the infrastructure systems (water supply, electricity, sewage systems) should be supplied.

- instead of located in large cities where the children can be lost in large community, the small towns are better places for this purpose. Location of the village must not to be physically isolated and far from existing settlements

- for older children the educational facilities should exist or at least should have an easy access.

2. Social criteria: The other important criteria is the social conditions of the surrounding criteria.

The social environment of the close neighborhood area also effects the location. Today, children in the orphanages are usually isolated from the surrounding physical environment. However, for the healthy socialization of the children it is not a desired fact. Instead, this children should live in a friendly neighborhood. This is especially important for orphan children.

5. 4. The Facilities and Requirements of the Children's Villages

The next step is to determine the facilities, space requirements and design criteria of these facilities that should take place in the village.

In definition process of facilities and development process of space requirements and design criteria, existing samples in Turkey, existing norms which have been developed for similar facilities were used in this study. Depending on these criteria the children village project in Urla is realized in this context. Detail information about the planning process and the basic features of the project will be given in the next chapter.

For children's village the usage and facilities, that should take place in the village can be listed as: houses for children, a house for aunts, administration building, a house for the administrator, kindergarten and school building, library, sports hall, sporting area, playground, vocational training building, parking area and shopping center.

Children's villages, when examined world widely, consist of 90-120 children, 9 children sharing one house, with a mother. Each house has one living room, 3 bedrooms for every 3 children, a bedroom for the mother and a bedroom for the aunt, a bathroom for the mother, 2 bathrooms one for girls and one for boys, and a kitchen. The living room can be used as dining room, too.

The houses should have 2 storeys at most. For example, children's village in Izmir consist of one storey high houses, while the Bolluca Village consists of houses that are 2 storeys high. However in the interviews done with the mothers who live in each village, it was emphasized that many problems occurred due to the staircases. In Bolluca the houses designed so that the entrance, the living room, the kitchen, the bathrooms are located on the first floor and the bedrooms on the second floor. For small children the staircase, forms a handicap and many injures occurred when they go up and down the stairs. In Barbaros the houses were built one storey high after these handicaps were seen.

Houses in Barbaros Children's Village are 170 m^2 each. Living room is 52.2 m^2, bedrooms of children 49.3 m^2, mother's bedroom 12.5 m^2, kitchen 6 m^2, bathrooms 8 m^2, aunt's bedroom 8.5 m^2. The architect of the Barbaros Children's Village stated that these areas are the minimum areas required for the children's houses. She also stated that she has got these standards from Bolluca Children's Village and that they were determined by SOS.

Table 5. 1. Facilities and minimum area requirement in a children's village

Facilities	Capacity	Min. Area Req.	Types
1. Dwelling Units			
Children's Houses	Min. 90 Children 10 Houses	170 m² x 10 = 1700 m²	one storey high single, detached
Aunt's and Guests-House	4 Aunts and 8 Guests	300 m²	two storey high single, detached
Administrator's House	4 People	150 m²	one storey, single, detached
2. Administration Building	-	250 m²	one or two storey
3. Educational Facilities			
Elementary School	150 pupil	1500 m²	one storey
Vocational Training	-	2100 m²	two storey
Kindergarten (day care center)	40 Children	150 m²	one storey
4. Recreational Facilities			
Playlots	40 Children	260 m²	-
Playground	-	600 m²	-
Sports Area	-	1078 m²	2 Basketball 1 Mini Footbal
5. Cultural Facilities			
Library	13 Readerseats Pop. of 2500 People	200 m²	one storey
Multi-Purpose Building		200 m²	one storey
Amphitheatre	-	-	-
6. Shopping Center (Daily Shopping)	120 People	400 m²	one storey high
Total		8888 m² ≅ 9000 m²	

In this thesis these standards that were determined by SOS will be used. Some other standards for orphanages were developed, throughout time, according to the requirements of children. However, as it was mentioned in the previous chapters, orphanages do not supply an adequate environment for children.

For the children who will in the villages and also for the usage of the surrounding neighborhood area, educational, cultural and sports areas and facilities are required. Since, one of the basic functions of the villages is the adaptation of orphan children to the social community life, it is essential to form a place with facilities that can serve to the whole neighborhood area. These facilities should take place within the boundaries of the village but should be used by the other people, too. They can act as a connection bond between the residents of the village and the surrounding community.

Educational facilities within the village will involve a kindergarten, primary school and for older children vocational training. To determine the capacity of the facilities it is essential first to determine the capacity of the village.

According to the records taken from the Social Services there are 2 orphanages in Izmir: one is Karþyaka Orphanage, the other Buca Orphanage. In Barbaros Children's Village the children from Karþyaka Orphanage will be sheltered. This project will shelter the children from Buca Orphanage which makes 84 children according to the records of July 1997. With the newly coming children, the number of children, that will be sheltered in the village, is accepted as 120. It is also the maximum amount that can be accepted in one village according to SOS.

For the school area requirements, the standards of Neufert is used. The site should be located away from the traffic ways and should be in close relation with parks and sports areas, also close to residential areas. Orientation is also important. The classrooms should not to be located on the north, north-east and north-west directions. The school will be one-storey high, because there can be handicapped children, too.

School will be designed for 8 years of education and one classroom will be allocated for each year of education. According to the standards, the minimum number of students for each classroom is 60 m^2. Minimum length should be 9 m. and minimum
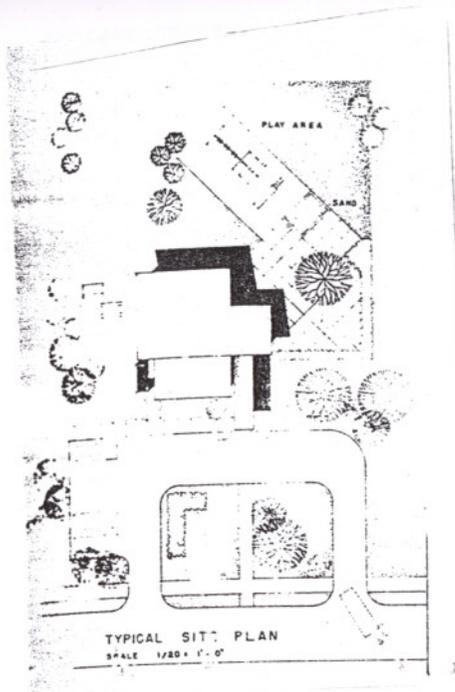
**Fig. 5. 11. Site Plan of a Day-Care Center (De Chiara, 1990, p. 211)**
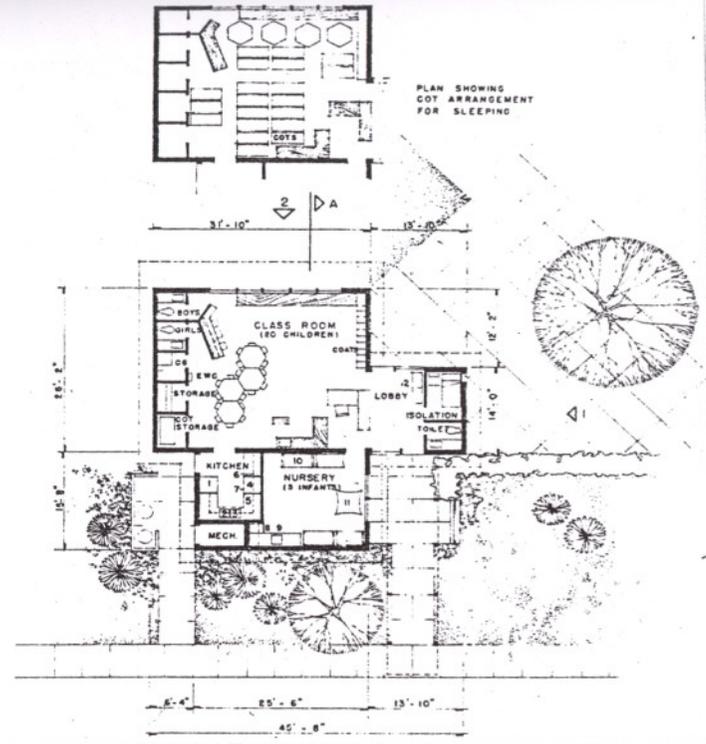
Fig. 5. 12. Floor Plan of a Day-Care Center (De Chiara, 1990, p. 211)
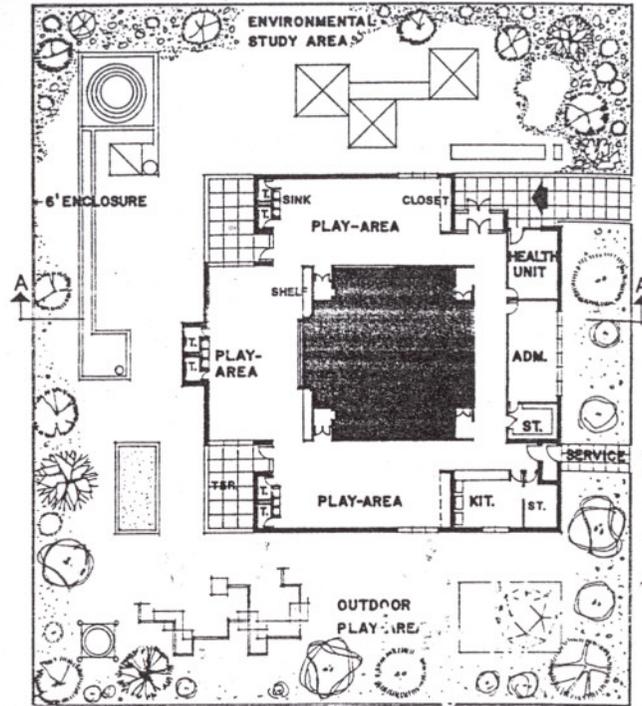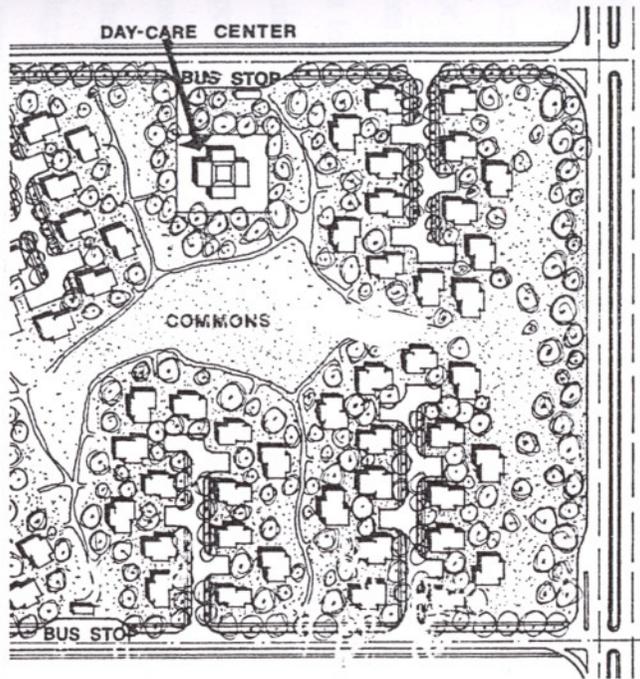
Fig. 5. 13. Day-Care Center Location and Site Plan
(De Chiara, 1990, p. 210)

width should be 6.5 m. Minimum height should be 3.60 m. The capacity of the school will be 200 pupil. The area for the classrooms will be 480 m^2. For the projections, a room of 80 m^2 is needed. A lab for science classes is required, too, with an area of 80 m^2.

Corridor width should be minimum 2.5 m or 3 m. Other common spaces and minimum required areas are as follows: conference room - 0.60 m^2 / student, library 25 m^2, closed recess area 1 m^2 / student, art-room 100 m^2, dark-room 20 m^2.

The head-office should be minimum 25-30 m^2, teachers room minimum 60 m^2. Head-office should be located near the recess area and the teachers' room on the opposite side of the recess area.

WC's should be located close to the recess area and for handicapped children a special WC is needed. 1 WC for every 40 boys and 1 WC for every 20 girls are required.

The minimum school area is about 1500 m^2.

The kindergarten will serve to children between the ages 3-6. Orientation of the building is important; the living and playing areas should be at the south and other service areas should be at the south and other service areas should be at located at the north. The Neufert standards state that for every 20 children 1 room is necessary, and minimum 1.5 m^2 for each child is needed. The kindergarten will be used as a closed playground in cold, rainy days. So, the main purpose is to supply children with a place where they can play with each other. Aunts can stay with the children in the kindergarten during day and children will go back to their houses for lunch or sleeping. A minimum area of 30 m^2 is needed for this purpose.

For sports facilities, an open air sports areas and one sports hall is essential for the children. Open air sports area will consist of 1 football area and 2 basketball areas. Standards for mini-football is 70 x 50 m., basketball is 26 x 14 m. A total area of 1078 m^2 is required for this purpose.

Sports hall will be located as a complex with the primary school, so that it can both be used by the students or by other children during vocations.

The playground within the children's village is one of the most important features of the village. Therefore, it should be examined in detail.

Recreational facilities of children can be studied in two groups. The first group is the playlots and the second the playgrounds. Playlots serve for children up to 6 years of age. They should be located between houses so that the children could be observed from the houses by mothers.
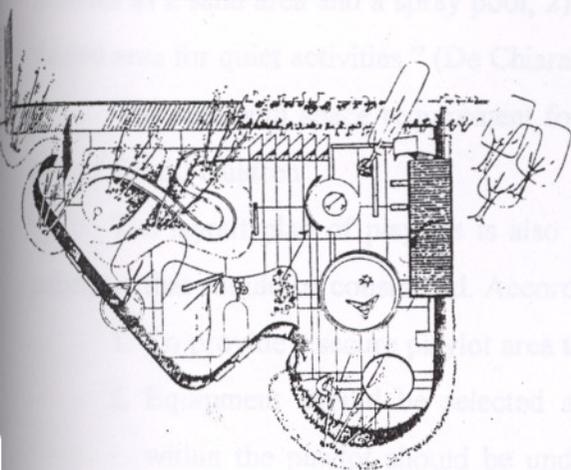
**Fig. 5. 14 Playlot
Site Plan
(De Chiara, 1990, p. 223)**
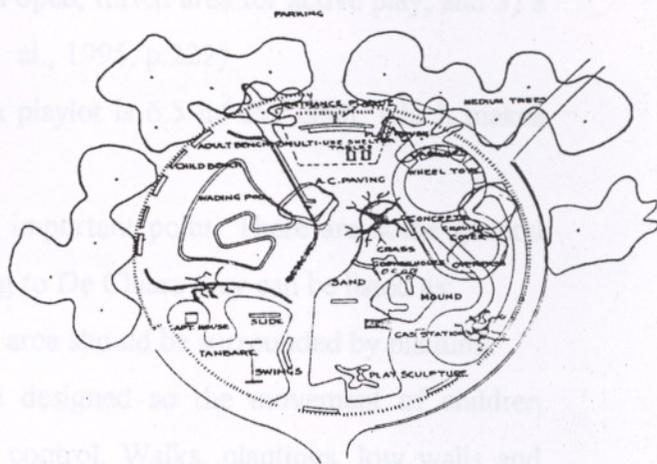
**Fig. 5. 15 Playlot layout
(De chiara, 1990, p. 223)**
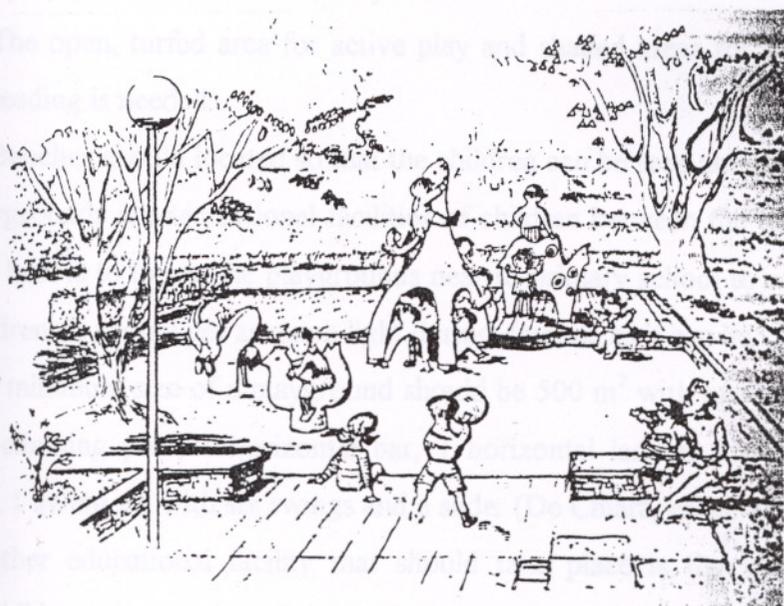
**Fig. 5. 16 A Typical Scene from a Playlot
(De Chiara, 1990, p. 793)**

"Playlots may include 1) an enclosed area for play equipment and such special facilities as a sand area and a spray pool; 2) an open, turfed area for active play; and 3) a shaded area for quiet activities." (De Chiara et. al., 1995, p.222)

The minimum space requirement for a playlot is 6.5 m^2 Per child, which makes 195 m^2 for 30 children.

The layout plan of playlots is also an important point. There are some general principles that should be considered. According to De Chiara they can be listed as:

1. To provide a secure playlot area the area should be surrounded by planting.

2. Equipment should be selected and designed so the movement of children within the playlot should be under control. Walks, plantings, low walls and benches can be used to organize the movements.

3. To provide safety; sand areas, play walks, playhouses, play sculpture should be located away from swings and slides. Shaded area is required for these play pieces.

4. To protect children from swings or other moving equipment these play pieces should be separated by walls and fences. Slides and swings should be oriented away from the sun and toward north.

5. Spray pools should be centrally located.

6. The open, turfed area for active play and shaded areas for quiet activities lie reading is needed.

7. Benches should located so that the children can be seen and protected easily.

Playgrounds are recreational facilities of children between the ages of 6 and 16. The best is to locate the playgrounds near to primary school to serve most of the children. It should get as much light during daytime as it can be.

The minimum size of a playground should be 500 m^2 with one balance team, one climber, 1 climbing pole, 1 horizontal bar, 1 horizontal ladder, 1 merry-go-round, 1 parallel bar, 1 swing set with six swings and a slide. (De Chiara, et. al. 1995)

Another educational facility that should take place is the vocational training center for children. As mentioned above, in the previous chapters, vocational training is needed for children who volunteer to take this kind of education. "Industrial and vocational education are one and the same, vocational being the more specialized education program designed to train a person for a vocation rather than simply acquainting him with a working knowledge of tools and their uses." (De Chiara, et.

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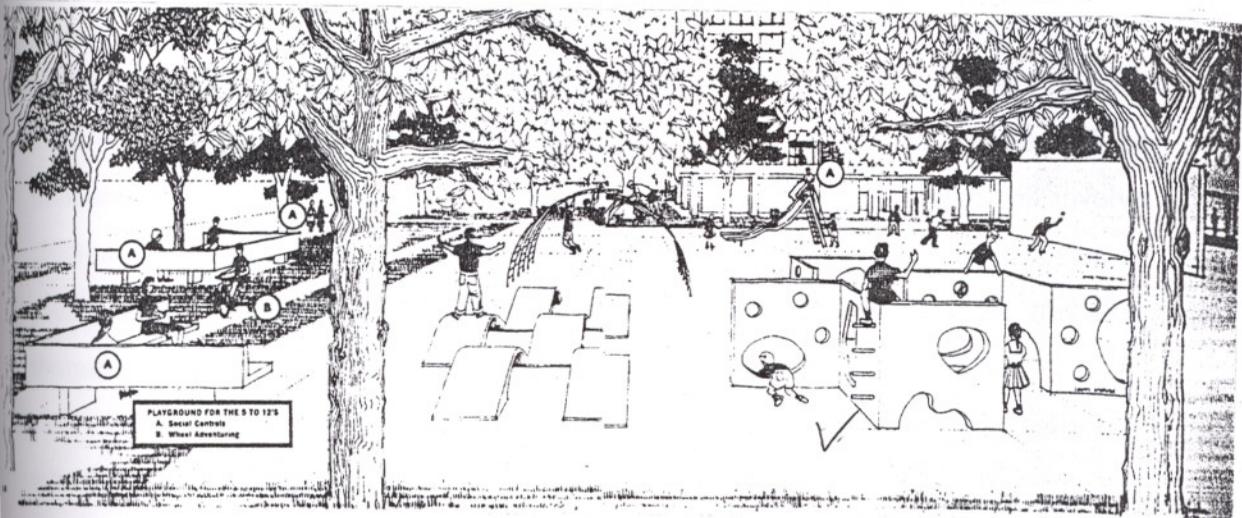
Fig. 5. 17 A Scene from a Playground

(De Chiara, 1990, p. 794)

Type of apparatus	Dimensions of apparatus		Approximate use space requirements, ft	Space, ft²
	Length, ft	Height, ft		
Balance beam	12	.5	6 × 20	120
Climbing structure (average)	10	10	20 × 20	400
Climbing tree or ladder	5 (diam.)	12	12 × 12	144
Giant stride	—	12	30 × 30	900
Horizontal bar (single)	6	5.5–7.5	12 × 20	240
Horizontal bar (double)	11	5.5–7.5	18 × 20	360
Horizontal ladder	12–16	6.5–7.5	8 × 30	240
Junglegym (junior)	6.5	i	12 × 15	180
Junglegym (medium)	10	10.5	20 × 20	400
Merry-go-round	10 (diam.)	3.5	22 × 22	484
Sand box	6 × 10 (min.)	1	12 × 16	192
See saws (set of 4)	12	2	20 × 20	400
Slide	16	8	12 × 30	360
Slide, gang	16	8	25 × 40	1,000
Slide, kindergarten	8	4.5	8 × 16	128
Slide, racer	16	8	20 × 30	600
Swings (set of 3)	15 at top	12	25 × 35	875
Swings (set of 6)	30 at top	12	25 × 50	1,250
Swings (set of 4)	18 at top	10	20 × 30	600
Swings, chair				
(set of 3)	10 at top	8	16 × 20	320
(set of 6)	20 at top	8	16 × 30	480
Traveling rings (in line)	36 at top	12	20 × 60	1,200
Traveling rings (circular)	10 (diam.)	12	25 × 25	625

Fig. 5. 18 Playground Equipments and Required Areas

(De Chiara, 1990, p. 793)

al.,1995, p. 250)

An education program, that is cooperative with the local industries, may be useful for children to find a job in the future. However, since, in the children's villages, children between the ages 0-15 will stay, the vocational training may act as the first step to a more complicated vocational training. So a studio or small project rooms will be sufficient at this stage. For a more complicated vocational training, which will involve children who complete their 8 years of education, can be located within the complex of youth centers, that shelter children from 15 years old to the age when they can look after themselves.

In this meaning a vocational training center may be located within the elementary school. "It should be made as integral a part of the total school as possible physically and philosophically." (De Chiara, et. al. 1995, p.250)

Apart from the library of the school, another library and cultural center is required for the neighborhood community and also for the mothers who want to use. It can be used as a public library, as well.

A branch library that provide books or magazines which will meet the everyday reading needs of children and adults in a local neighborhood, will be sufficient. They can be located in urban shopping centers or in rural communities. (De Chiara, et. al., 1995)

According to Time-Saver Standards a minimum area of 200 m^2 is needed. A library at this size can serve population of 2.500, with 13 reader seats. Also from the interview done by the mothers who live in Barbaros or Bolluca their main problem occurred as shopping. From the administrators of the village they take certain amount of money each week to give children as a pocket money. The general needs of each house and the whole village are supplied by the benevolent from the large supermarkets. However the mothers emphasized that for their personal needs, they need a small shopping center within the village.

The shopping center within the village will serve to the mothers, children, other people who work in the village and also for the women's village. According to them the most essential stores are the bakery shop, drugstore, barber shop, a small market, grocery store.

The library and shopping center can be located in relation with each other. Kindergarten, elementary school, sports hall, open sport areas, playgrounds can be
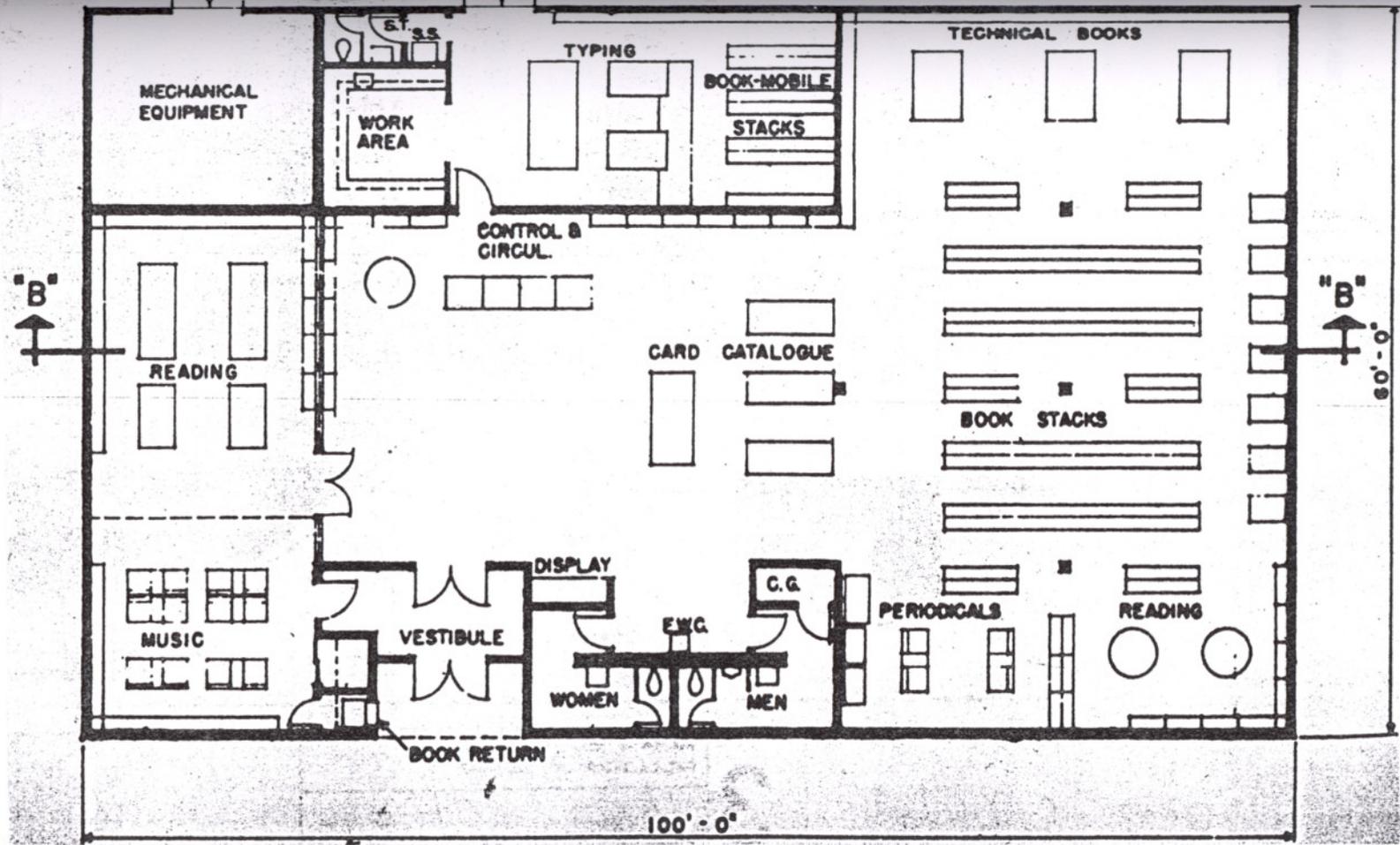
Fig. 5. 19 A Typical Plan of a Branch Library Serving a Population of 2.500 People
(De Chiara, 1995, p.795)

located to form a complex. On the other hand playlots for small children should be located near the houses for safety.

These facilities should be located so that the residents of the children's village, and also the surrounding neighborhood community could benefit and use every facility at the same rate.

Chapter 6

URLA CHILDREN'S VILLAGE PROJECT

The aim of this thesis is to develop a sample of a children's village according to the criteria that were set in the 5th chapter. Urla, being a small town and being close to the metropolitan city of Izmir, is selected as one of the most suitable place for this purpose. Its physical, social and environmental conditions prove to be most convenient.

This chapter consists of three main parts. The first section is about the general information about Urla, the second about the characteristics of the chosen site and the last about the project.

6. 1. General Information About Urla

The Analytic Study Report done by and the Report of Urla Plan-1995 are the main sources of this section.

6. 1. 1. Location

Urla is a city which is located in the boundary o Izmir of Province, on the west of Aegean Region and on the Peninsula of Çeşme. It is surrounded by Aegean Sea at the north, Seferihisar and Sığacık Bay the south, Çeşme at the west and Güzelbahçe at the east. Its distance to Izmir is 35 km.

The settlement shows the characteristics of a large city and the agricultural small country. The built up area of the city is surrounded by agricultural areas. Urla acts as one of the most important areas for secondary housing.

The structure of Urla will show to the construction of the campus of Izmir Institute of Technology (IYTE).
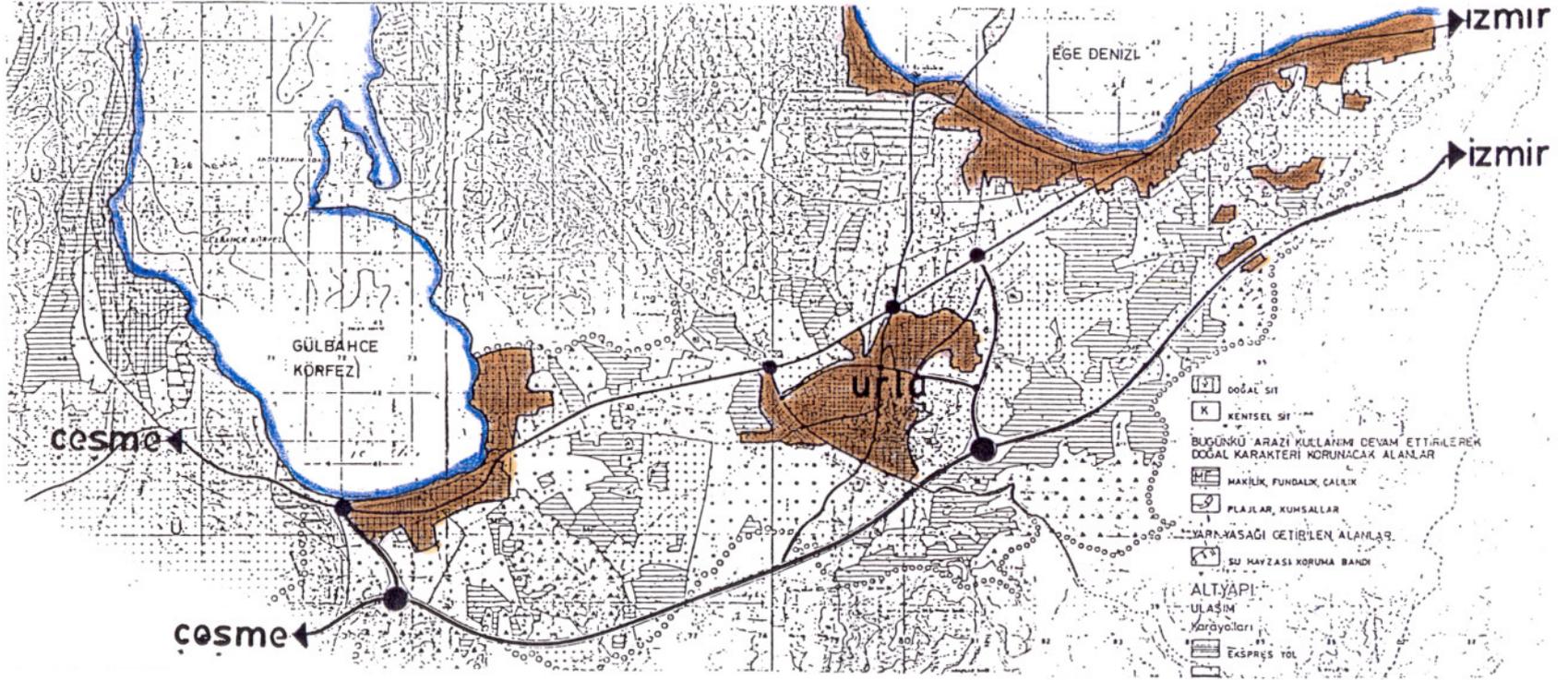
Fig. 6.1. Transportation to and from Urla

6. 1. 2. Transportation

Transportation to and from Urla is mainly by highway and in summer also by ferry boats. Until the completion of Izmir - Çeşme express- highway, the transportation was dependent on the old Izmir-Çeşme road.

Transportation to Izmir is done by buses and minibuses. At each 20 minutes, a bus travels to Izmir and from Izmir to Urla. Also from Urla to Iskele and Çeşmealtı ESHOT buses make a ring for the transportation. In summer ferry-boats are also used for transportation from Izmir to Urla.

6. 1. 3. Physical Structure

6. 1. 3. 1. Physical Condition

In Urla the geological analysis show that area consists of mesozoical, limestone, Cenozoic, (yaşlı çökel kayalar) and volcanic areas.

According to Turkey's seismology maps the area is within the earthquakezone. Till today the earthquakes were not so affective and they did not give serious damages. However, because the underground water level is high at the area, effect of a severe earthquake will be at great levels.

Studies done by DSI the plains in Urla have a total drainage area of 122 km^2. General characteristics of the topography of the site is rough, except for the alluvion areas that are mostly seen near the sea. The slope of the land is generally between 11-20 percent. Slopes between 21-30 % are seen also. At the north-west of Güvendik and at the west of Içmeler mountains and steep slopes take place. Slopes of the existing settlements and the slopes of the close surrounding area are in no condition to cause any cause problems for the structures and infrastructures. Slopes are mainly toward north and south.

6. 1. 3. 2. Surface and Underground Water

In the study area water is used as drinking water and in agriculture. Underground water level is higher in inner land than at the coast.

As surface water, small streams exist but they dry in summer.

Hydrogeological areas are determined according to the underground water sources and the physical structure. Within the boundaries of this area certain points should be considered with great care. Firstly the waste water system should be planned to prevent the pollution of the underground water sources. Related with the geological structure and soil types in the area, every kind of pollution should be prevented by restrictions.

6. 1. 3. 3. Natural Vegetation

The natural vegetation of the area is developed according to the climatic and topographic factors and varies with the socio-economic occupations of people. The quality and the types of soil are also related with the natural vegetation. So, shrubberies, bushes and olive groves are mostly seen in the area.

Forests are also seen in Urla that cover an area of 34151.5 ha.

6. 1. 3. 4. Soil Types

In the boundaries of Urla soil types can be classified in 7. The most general soil types are VII., III., and II., class soils.

Agricultural activities are done in the areas which consist of III. and II. Soil types. Tobacco growth, viniculture, vegetable and fruit growth and olive groves take place on these soil types where topography is also not so slopey.

6. 1. 3. 5. Climate

The area is under the influence of Mediterranean climatic characteristics. Summers are hot and dry, winters are warm and rainy. The yearly average temperature is 17.4 °C.

The above mentioned data is the general climatic data of Izmir. However, there are some specific climatic characteristics of Urla. The yearly average temperature is 2 °C lower than of Izmir. It is the result of northern winds which Urla is located in an area exposed to these winds. It causes a micro-climate that gains an importance especially in

summer. As a result of these winds summers are cooler. In addition the area is protected from cold winter winds by its geomorphological characteristic.

6. 1. 4. Demographic and Social Structure

6. 1. 4. 1. Demography

According to the 1990 census the total population of Urla is 35.467 / 72 % of the total population live in rural areas of Urla. Starting from 1970's urbanization increased in spite of relative decreases that can be seen at some periods.

The decrease in the portion of Urla's population within Izmir's population is mostly due to the increase of Izmir's population with the migrations out from Izmir.

In Urla there are great differences between summer and winter populations. In 1992 the estimated winter population was about 30.000 and the summer population was about 50.000. In other words 40 % of summer population is temporary and consist of people who have their secondary houses in Urla.

Another point occurs due to the construction of farm houses near Urla. Especially since 1990's high income groups in Izmir began to prefer living near Urla for this purpose. The influences of this state both on the urban population and on the economic condition of Urla is not clear at the moment.

Still another important subject that will affect demographic structure of Urla is the mass housing project of Urla-Koop. It is located at the west of Urla and consists of 828 two-storey houses. When the family size is accepted as 4, the extra population it will bring to Urla is about 3300 people. Like farm houses and other housing projects its effects on Urla will be seen after the intense usage of Urla-Koop.

However, it can be concluded that most of Urla-Koop population will go to Izmir to work or for education and will return to Urla at night.

Also; when the campus of IYTE finish; the changes will be seen in demographic and social structure of Urla.

6. 1. 4. 2. Social Structure

In Urla nuclear family type is dominant and the average household size is 3.5. The size of houses varies between 30 m² and 150 m². However it was founded that there was no relation between the house size and income level. It was also found that the house size and family size are directly related.

At the historical environment the houses are mostly coutyarded and two-storey high.

The ownership ratio is 74.3 % and tenancy ratio is 17.6 %.

The distribution of the working population into sectors is as follows: 51.1 % wage earner, 20.8 % employer, 8.3 % family business, 11.8 % rentier, 2.8 % unemployed.

The education ratio is rather high in Urla with a percent of 89.1. In Urla there are 4 elementary schools; 3 high schools (one is giving vocational training and the other religious training); 1 vocational training school for girls.

According to the data taken from the Analytic Study done in 1992 there is one hospital, 1 health center and 1 dispensary with an area of 12605 m².

The social, cultural activities are very limited at the present. The only existing cultural activities, cinemas were closed in the last years. However, with the new plan done in 1995; the required areas for socio-cultural facilities were reserved.

The most important factor that influence the investments done in this sector is the absence of financial resources. However, with the rational usage of the areas and also with the renewal projects of the traditional tissue socio-cultural activities will more easily come into being.

With the efficient usage of campus of IYTE, Urla will gain a new identity. Since there is sufficient housing supply for this pupose, it is apparent that the population of Urla will increase through time. Both to meet the local population's socio-cultural needs, municipality of Urla and the university should work together. The social, cultural and recreative services should be enriched and should have high quality.

Urla, in the future with these activities may have the role of cultural center of Izmir. For this purpose, new projects should be developed and investments that will attract other educational, cultural and health facilities should come into being.

Another characteristic of Urla is its historical urban environment. With the renewal and restoration projects, this site can become a cultural and commercial center for Urla and Izmir.

6. 1. 5. Infrastructure

The present condition of water supply system of Urla is insufficient, because of spread out settlements. The uncontrolled usage of underground water resources will have negative effects on the general balance of water sources.

Most houses in Urla have their own wells for water supply and underground water is highly used uncontrolled. The city's water supply system should be completed immediately. Another solution can be instead of opening new well for each house, the cicterns can be used.

Electricity is provided from Izmir by TEK, and is distributed in whole Urla and efficiently used.

In Urla the solid wastes are collected and depoted in the forestary area in Ovacık at the outskirts of Urla. The Municipalities of Urla and Çeşme are studying a common solid waste system including both the collection and treatment of solid wastes.

Municipality of Urla has completed the sewage system and it started to be used efficiently. A project of waste water treatment plant is also planned. This plant has the capacity of population of 40.000 people. The treated water will be discharged to the sea.

However, it is also clear that this system will be insufficient in 2010 when the summer population will reach to 90.000 people. So, another treatment plant is necessary and instead of discharging the treated water into the sea it is more economic better to use it in irrigation.

Moreover, the mass house project areas, like Urla-Koop, which are not connected to the central sewage system should complete their own sewage collection and treatment systems. In the areas that are not yet connected to the system only the unfittering septic tanks should be used. (Report of Urla Plan, 1995)

The analysis process as proposal project is to select a convenient site, where the research is to be conducted. During this process the project location criteria that are stated and explained in Location Criteria for Choosing a Venue? are used.
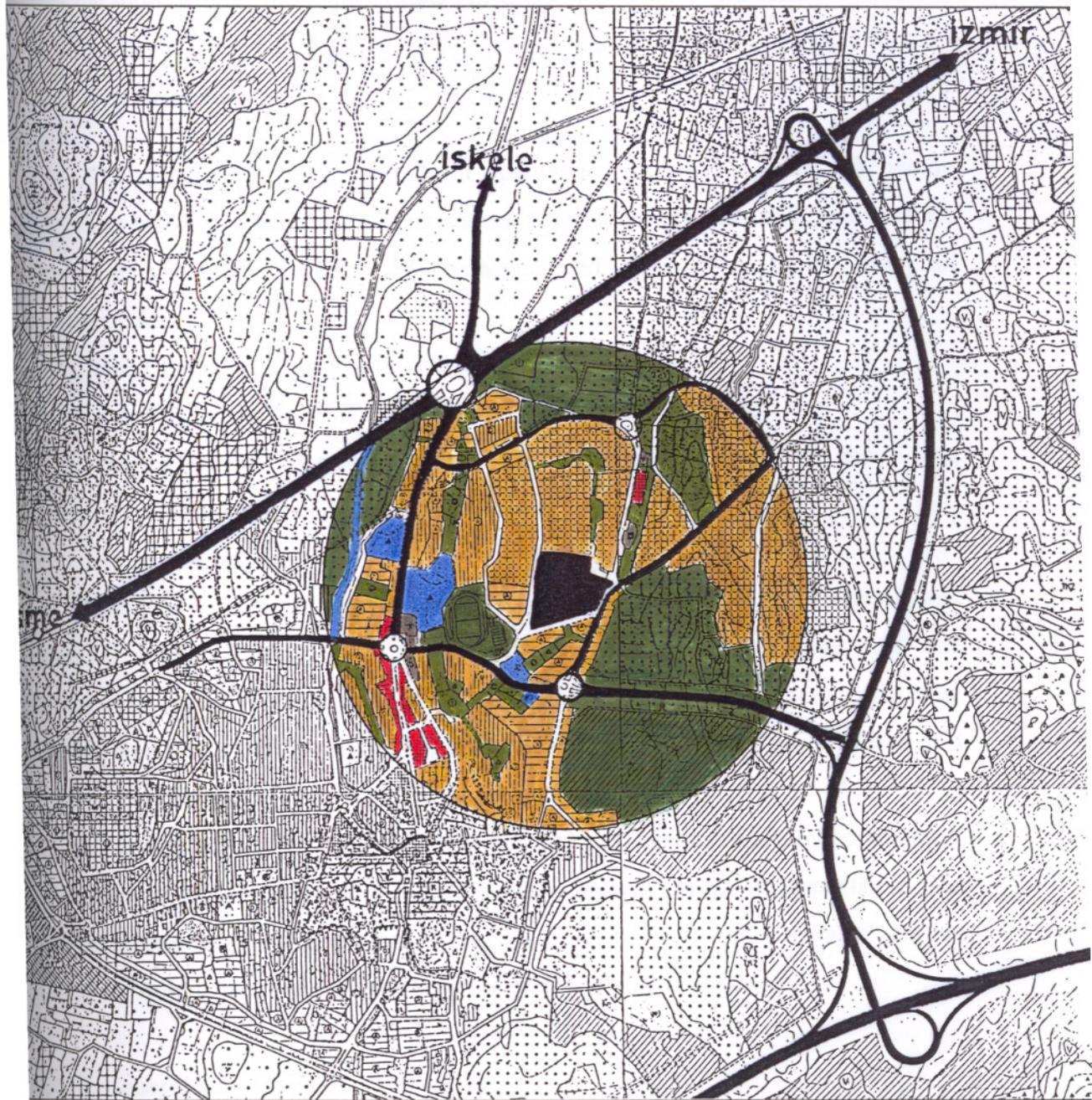
Fig. 6. 2 Site Location of the Project Area in Urla

The project area for this research is to be surrounded by main roads of Urla. It is important for children to develop safety and also ... a ... strategy in a way to develop and communication between ...

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6. 2. Site Analysis of the Project Area

The second stage of the proposal project is to select a convenient site, where the plan is to be realized. During this process the general location criteria that are stated under the sub-title "Site Selection Criteria For Children's Villages" are used:

6. 2. 1. Site Selection

The social and physical environment where the children live is highly effective on their whole being. The general characteristics of the site, because they will constitute the semi-private and public spaces in which the children will continue to live, carry an important role.

Three methods are used at this stage:

-the study of the Urla Implementation Plan maps (scale: 1/5000)

-getting general information about Urla and detailed information about Urla Implementation Plan from the municipality

-an intense field survey

The first step was to examine the areas that were reserved for social services and municipal services. Both of these areas were insufficient. The plots were small and located in insufficiently qualified neighborhoods. On the other hand there was no other reserved area that could be used for this purpose. This was the solid proof of lack of a legend in physical plans.

The last decision for the location of the children's village is made by acceptances. There were three possible sites, each one privately owned. On the implementation plan the area is reserved as housing area. Among these three sites the most suitable one that suits to the criteria that were developed in the previous chapter is selected.

6. 2. 2. General Characteristics of the Site

The project area is located within a neighborhood unit surrounded by mass houses of Urla-Koop. It creates an adequate urban environment, for children to develop healthy and also for their integration into the society. It is a way to develop an interrelation between the community and children in the village.

The close neighborhood area will have the required social, cultural and educational facilities too, in the near future. At the west of the site there is an open and closed sports area, at the north Urla-Koop is planning a shopping and cultural center. The educational facilities (an elementary school, a high school, a vocational training school) are within a walking distance.

The center of Urla is also within a walking distance and the plan gives a possibility of an easy pedestrian access from the site to the center. Because that the settlement pattern of Urla shows a compact characteristics, the implementation plan was done appropriate with this.

In order to protect the surrounding fertile, agricultural land a planning decision of forming a compact structure was taken. This decision is the reason of the town. Perhaps by taking a further traffic calming planning and design decisions an easier pedesterian accessibility can be acquired.

The site also has an easy vehicular traffic accessibility either from Izmir-Çeşme highway or from Izmir-Çeşme road or from other surrounding settlements like Güzelbahçe and Narlıdere.

The physical features of the site involves components such as the topography, geology, vegetation, water resources, micro-climate and soil types.

Topography of the site is not steep and forms a wild slope around a small hill in the middle of the site. The slope is between 7 % and 14 %. The highest point is 75 m high from the sea level and the lowest point is 55 m. high from the sea level.

There is no detailed geology map about the area. Therefore the data about this subject is taken from Urla-Koop. The surrounding area is under construction and the construction firm of Urla-Koop indicated that there was no geological or geomorphological problem about the area.

The local vegetation of the site consists of shrubs and few olive trees. During the site survey and site seeing stages and from the general information of Urla, it can be concluded that the area with its surrounding was once an olive grove. However, during the construction of the mass houses of Urla-Koop almost all of the olive trees were cut. Only a very small number of olive trees remain, now.

On the northern part of the site the remains of the olive grove exists. During the planning period these olive trees were protected, since they consist of nature and healthy trees. There is no surface or underground water resources within the site.
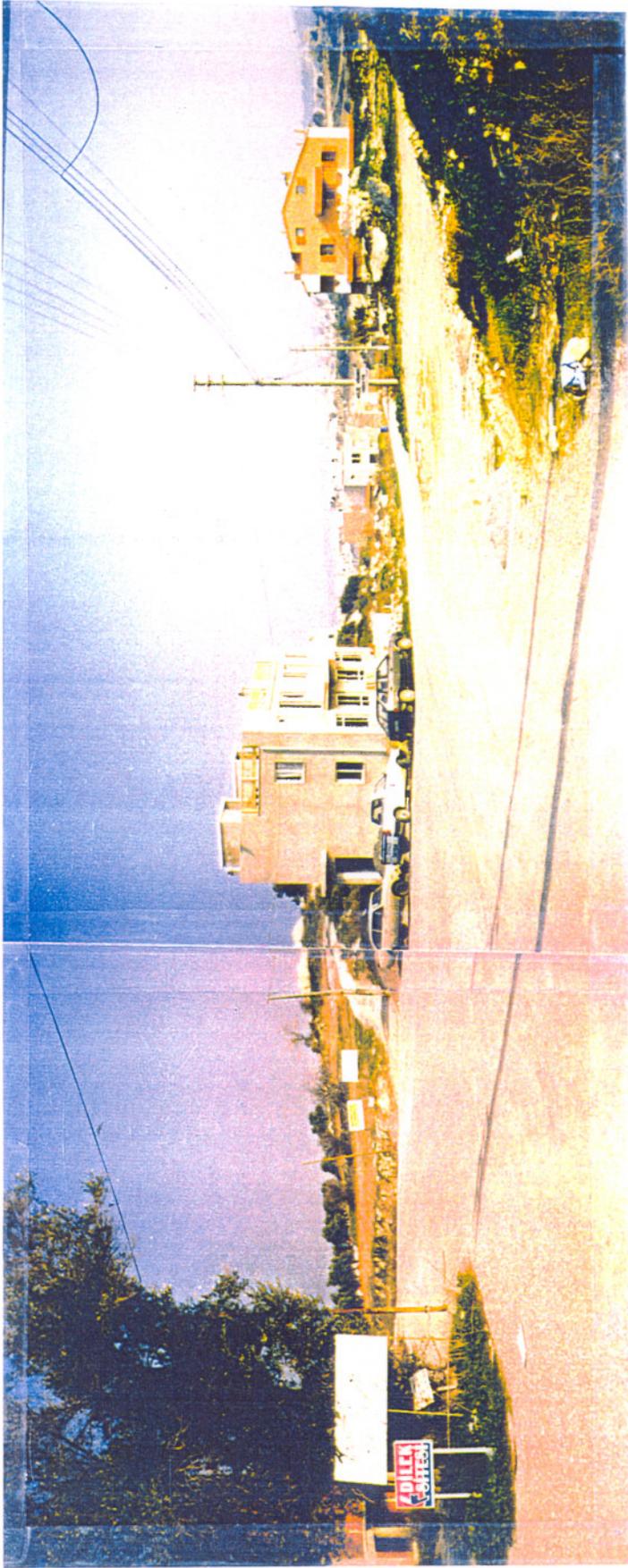
Fig. 6. 3 Approching to the Study Area from the City Center.
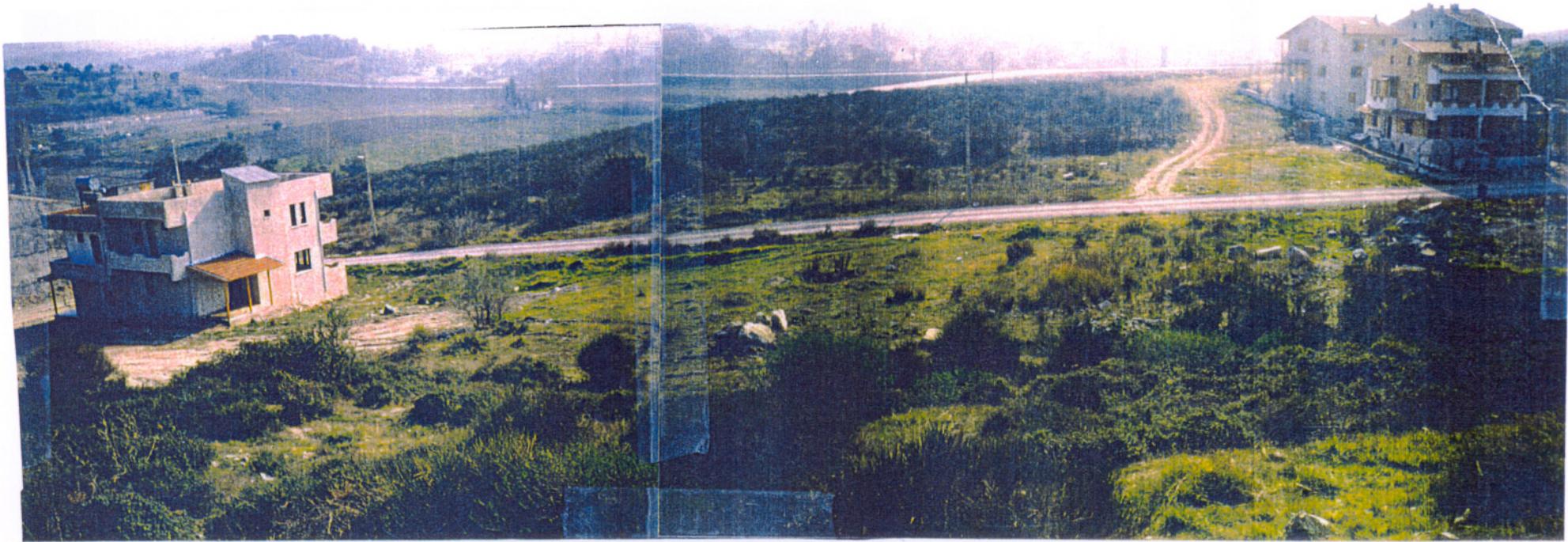
Fig. 6. 4 The South Vista from the Highest Point of the Site.
(At the Far Distance Izmir-Çeşme Highway Can be Seen)

Fig. 6. 5 The Olive Trees as Seen from the West of the Site.
(The Road is the One that Connects Urla-Koop and City Center)

Fig. 6. 6 The Southern Part of the Site.

**Fig. 6. 7 The Surrounding Built-Up Area of Urla-Koop as Seen from the Small Hill Within the Site**
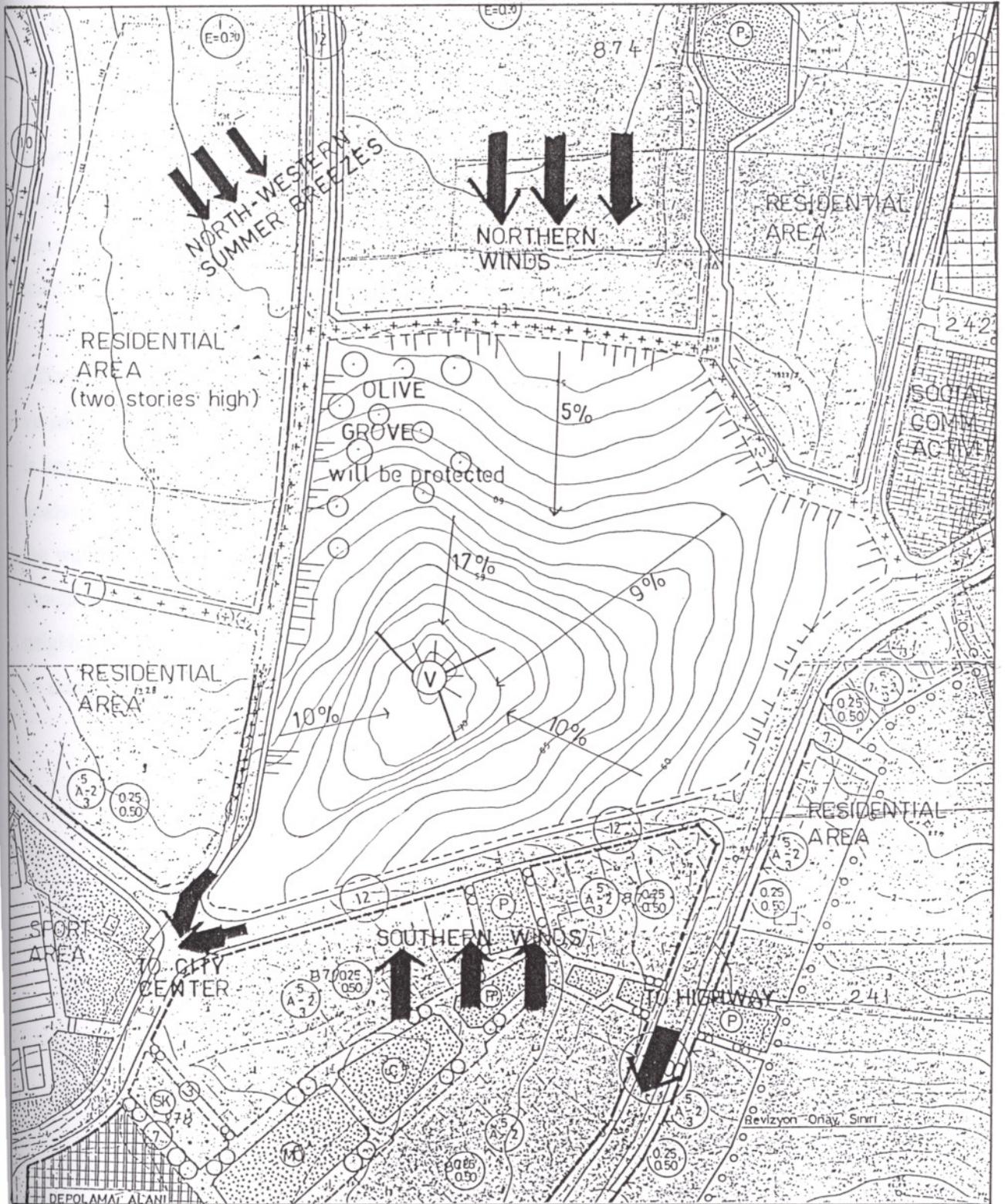
Fig. 6. 8 Site Analysis of the Project Area

6. 3. Design Program

The design program of the project is done according to the general requirements of a children's village. General requirements that were stated in section 5.4. can be accepted as musts. However, in some cases part of these requirements can be met from the surrounding community or neighborhood. This even encourages the interrelation between the surrounding environment and children's villages. On the other hand, if the surrounding community lacks some of these requirements they can be located within the boundaries of the village. In this context, these facilities can both serve to the village itself and also to the neighborhood area.

Related with this, it can be concluded that the planning process of each village a different design program should be developed. Socio-cultural, physical and economic variables of each region and society will be effective on the design program. Therefore, it is important to know the characteristics of the area beforehand in order to achieve the goals of building a children's village. For example if there is no elementary school within the walking distance of the neighborhood area, an elementary school can be put into the design program. This way to goals can be achieved: 1) children living in the surrounding neighborhood can also use the school and 2) by this an integration and interrelation can be established.

Table 6. 1. Facilities, Capacities and required areas in Urla Children's Village

Facilities	Capacity	Required Area	Building Types
Children's Houses	12 houses	$180 \times 12 = 2160 \text{ m}^2$	one storey, single, detached
Aunt's house and guest house	6 aunts 8 guests	$180 \times 2 = 360 \text{ m}^2$	two storey high single, detached
Administrators house	4 people	150 m^2	one storey
Administration building	-	250 m^2	one storey
Day-care center	40 children	150 m^2	one storey
Library	13 reader seats	200 m^2	one storey
Open sports area	1 basketball	45 m^2	-
Playground	-	600 m^2	-
Playlot	6.5 m^2 / child	250 m^2	-
Multipurpose building	-	200 m^2	one storey
Shopping center	120 people	400 m^2	
Open green areas	14 m^2 / child	1512 m^2	
TOTAL		6277 m^2	

The design program that is given in this section, therefore, is special for Urla Children's Village Project.

The construction stipulations are as follows:

Table 6. 2. construction stipulations

Floor area ratio	0.15
max. building height	6.50 m
building line	5 m from the adjacent estates, 10 m from the road

The other essential facilities will be supplied from the neighborhood area. For example the open and closed sports hall exist very close to the site; the existing and proposed school areas are all within the walking distance. Therefore in Urla Children's Village these facilities are eliminated. On the contrary the surrounding neighborhood is in need of a socio-cultural center and library. Urla-Koop plans propose a socio-cultural center, so a small library that would both serve to the village and the surrounding community is proposed within the Urla Children's Village Project area.

6. 4. Urla Children's Village Project

1.Transportation system:

The aim of this project is to create a neighborhood like living place for children where they can live in a healthy social and physical environment. And while providing these features also providing the security of the village.

It is a way for them to feel as one part of a neighborhood (a social environment) and also benefit from the natural physical environment.

During the design period another goal was not to destroy the site features. It includes to protect the existing plantation and the natural sloping of the land. Perhaps it would be easier to design the land by accepting that it had no slope. However, the existing natural features should be protected also. Destroying or giving damage to natural site is easier than protecting, but not so right.

When necessary small excavations are done and it resulted high slopes to form. By retaining walls as low as possible and by filling up the land at some points this problem is tried to be solved.

The site has a rectangular shape that is formed by the existing surrounding roads. From the south two roads, one from the highway and another from the center of Urla reach the plot. At the west of the plot a road with 12 m. width connects the center of Urla to Urla Koop which also serves to the site of children's village.

At the north and north-east a pedestrian way (7 m. width) separates the plot and the site of Urla Koop.

The entrance to the site is planned from the south. As a result of tryings to provide a secure place for children only one entrance is proposed.

The traffic is forbidden within the site to prevent both the accidents and the pollution. There is a service ring (6 m. width) that circles the lot, only for the usage at essential conditions (like for collecting garbage or for the service to the socio-cultural and shopping center).

In order to provide safety, the service cars can only enter the area at certain hours, either late in the evening or early in the morning.

Pedestrian access system for this project is mainly based on circular ring systems that connect the houses and other facilities.

When required this road system (about 4 m. width) can be used at certain occasions and for service purposes, too.

The materials used in the pavement will differentiate these two pedestrian systems. The road which has 6 m. width will be of concrete and can be also be used as a bicycle way. The other one's (4 km. width) material will be semi-rigid..

2. Buildings:

Buildings in the children's village can be studied in two parts: the houses and service buildings.

The project consists of 12 houses for children, a house for the administrator of the village, a house for the guests and aunts.

The service buildings are the administration building a multi purpose building, a library, a shopping building and a day care center.

-Houses

Houses are located on the eastern and north-eastern slopes of the site, where the slope is rather low. The shape of the site and the slopes and the small hill at the center of the site combine to form a fan-like form, where the houses take place at the outer edges. In the middle of the fan the common facilities are located. And at the inner part other service buildings take place.

In designing the houses certain points are considered. First of all the site itself is designed so that there are private places (houses), semi-private places, and common places do exist. Certain age groups need certain restrictions, and certain spaces for various reasons.

Secondly it is important that each house gets sufficient sun-light and ventilation. Enough sun-light in winter and ventilation on hot summer days.

Orientation of the housing groups to the east and north-east. They can both get adequate eastern sun-light and also the prevailing northern winds.

Houses form housing groups in order to create the above mentioned private, semi-private and common places. Homes are the private places where children feel secure and safe. The space in between the houses in each group forms the semi-private space and the space between the housing groups forms the common spaces.

Private and semi-private spaces are essential for younger children where they can both play and also be under the guidance of their mothers and aunts. On the other hand older children can play or use the common spaces.

The architectural design of the houses should be done by the architects. However the space requirements are as follows: a living room with an min. area of 45 m^2; 3 bedrooms, each one with min. area of 120 m^2; two bedrooms

Table 6. 3. Minimum area required for children's houses

FUNCTIONS	MIN. AREA REQUIRED
LIVING ROOM + DINING ROOM	45 m^2
CHİLDREN'S BEDROOM	20 x 3 = 60 m^2
MOTHER'S BEDROOM	10 m^2
AUNT'S BEDROOM	15 m^2
PLAYROOM	15 m^2
KITCHEN	10 m^2
BATHROOMS	20 m^2
CIRCULATION	10 m^2
TOTAL	180 m^2

one for the mother and one for the aunt; a playroom; a kitchen; at least 3 bathrooms (one for the mother and two for the children)

-Administration Building

It is located near the entrance where it has an easy access to and from the neighborhood. It is also the building which the guests see at first. It actually consists of two buildings; a building in which the administrational services are given and another building for social purposes. The second building can be called as multi-purpose buildings.

Certain social and/or cultural activities, events can take place in this building

-Library

Library serves both for the village itself and also for the surrounding neighbor hood. A small branch library is sufficient for this purpose. It should also need a study hall where pupil can do their researches or studies.

Library shopping center, cafeterias are all located close to each other and around the small hill that takes place in the middle of the site. This emphasizes a visual effect and is also the vista point of the site.

-Shopping Center

Actually the shopping center forms of a market and a cafeteria. The village is very close to the center of Urla and also Urla Koop plans to develop a socio-cultural and shopping center adjacent to the village. So, the inhabitants of the village can use these places.

However, during the interviews, especially mothers prefer to have a small market and a cafeteria within the village.

-Day Care Center

It serves as a kindergarten for pre-school children and also can be used by older children during winter when they cannot play outdoor. The min. capacity should be 30 children.

Day-care center will serve only to the children that stay in the village

3. Out-door Facilities

For a children's village the outdoor facilities are as important as the buildings. Children in order to develop healthily need open, fresh air to play, to learn, to get social with other children or just to get enough sun-light for their health.

In this project the out-door facilities are grouped in two groups: active and passive open areas. Passive open areas are designed where children can freely use the area. There they can plant their own plants, do picnics or just stroll around. These areas take place at the northern and north-east part of the site. In this area there are existing olive trees and more plantation will be done if it will be necessary.

A water element is designed in this area to create a visual effect and for the cooling effect in summer. It is designed as a small, natural stream starting from the highest point of the land. This stream is designed very shallow in order to prevent any accidents. From time to time the stream widens to form small pools with benches around them.

Active out-door facilities are mainly the playgrounds, amphitheater, a large scale chess-game, one baseball field.

In between the housing groups there are playlots designed for younger children where they can play under the guidance of their mothers or aunts. These playlots are bordered with elements to prevent younger children to wander around.

In the playlots plastic and wooden play elements are put for children to play.

There is one large playground at the center, near the day-care center. It also acts as a gathering place for older children.

The highest point of the site, which is 69 m. high from the sea level, is designed as an open gathering place for the inhabitants. This natural small hill is also the vista point of the site. At the north Aegean Sea, the shores of Urla and islands can be seen clearly. At the south the valleys and hills and highway creates a wonderful view. Therefore, this small hill is protected as possible as it can, and a social gathering open space is designed.

It acts as a small community center with library, shopping center, cafeterias, and chess-games, a water element also attract people.

All out-door facilities can be used by the inhabitants of the surrounding neighborhood. To provide security certain provisions can be taken; for example all the facilities and open air activities can only be used between certain hours of the day or for example for the usage of the library a card system can be put.

Table 6. 4. Land-uses and percentages facilities in Urla Children's Village

Facilities	m^2	%
Housing	2.670	6
Playground	600	5
Playlot	250 x 2 = 500	1
Administration	600	1.2
Community Center	4.500	9
Passive Recreation	7.200	15
Parking	150	0.3
Pedestrian roads	3.780	1
Open green areas	23.985	54
Sports area	875	2
TOTAL	44100	

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

As examined in this thesis, there are new groups, which need special design regulations and social policies and which started to emerge due to the changes and transformations of the society. The main sub-groups can be named as elderlies, handicapped people, homeless people, women and children in need of protection. 21st century will be the era when the urban sciences will acquire a new perspective and meaning. The main focal point of the urbanism will be the human beings.

The transformation of family patterns from traditional family type to nuclear family type and to other forms of family types which affected and also are affected by the changes that occurred in socio-economic and cultural life resulted the existence of these groups. As their number increased, the society realized their existence more and tried to put some solutions for their physical and social integration into the society.

To attain this goal first it is essential to accept the existence of special groups in the society. Secondly, a general social policy should be determined to provide these groups with an adequate life in all terms, including the social, economic, cultural and sheltering perspectives. These groups' expectancy from life should be the concern of the state, and all other decision makers of the society.

The third and the most important point that is related with the urban designers at most is to supply the elderlies, handicapped people, homeless people, women and children in need of protection with a sufficient, healthy environment. In recent years many studies, conferences, symposiums and workshops are done about this subject, where new ideas, viewpoints and alternatives are discussed and defined, widely.

In this thesis, related with the above mentioned subjects, a special importance is given to the subgroup of children in need of protection. It is a fact that children face the problems of impoverty more frequently than the others. Furthermore, they should be protected and each child should have the right to live in a healthy physical and social environment.

As a first step the conditions and concept of children in need of protection are studied and it is determined that they form two large groups: orphan children and street children. Their common feature is their socialization and integration into the society by a

way in which they can be less damaged and in a complex where they can acquire the essential facilities they need, in order to develop healthily. Their segregation from the social and urban life, today, is at high levels. However, these detailed studies also indicated that these two groups should be handled separately, because their requirements differ after this phase.

The second step involves a detailed study about orphan children and a conclusion is attained that for their benefits certain provisions are needed, before it is too late. In this context, in this thesis,

-first the researches that were done and projects that were developed about finding solutions to the problems of children in need of protection are studied,

-the findings of this researches indicated that children's villages can be important alternative living environments that should be considered while creating healthy environments for children in need of protection,

-the samples from various countries and the samples that were realized in Turkey and the general concept of children's villages are studied, based on the existing samples,

-the location criteria, space requirements, design criteria and design program are developed for children's villages,

-and a sample of children's village is designed according to these developed principles in Urla.

-a final conclusion is attained that within the urban texture a new land-use is necessary and this new land-use should be put into the legal regulations and legends of physical plans.

The existing physical planning regulations are needed to be improved to meet the newly forming demands. Participation of various professions and disciplines are required to set the new norms for the new groups. Planners, architects, urban designers, lawyers, sociologists, psychologists, etc. and people from Non-Governmental Organizations should cooperate for this purpose.

This thesis, is mainly based on children in need of protection and children's villages, for orphan children. There exist other children groups such as: mentally handicapped, physically handicapped children, street children, etc. Further studies involving these groups should be considered and realized, for them to live in a well-planned environment.

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APPENDIX

YÜRÜTME VE İDARE BÖLÜMÜ

Yönetmelik

Kadın Misafirhanelerinin Kuruluş ve İşleyişine Dair Yönetmelik

BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

Amaç, Kapsam, Dayanak ve Tanımlar

Amaç

Madde 1 — Bu Yönetmeliğin amacı, Kadın Misafirhanelerinde verilecek hizmetlerin çeşidi ve niteliği ile işleyiş esaslarını belirlemek, personelin çalışma esas ve usullerini tesbit etmektir.

Kapsam

Madde 2 — Bu Yönetmelik, Kadın Misafirhanelerine başvuracak müracaatçıları, bunlara verilecek hizmetleri istihdam edilecek personelin niteliklerini ve çalışma esaslarını kapsar.

Dayanak

Madde 3 — Bu Yönetmelik, 2828 sayılı Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Kanunu'nun 9 uncu maddesinin (j) bendine dayanılarak hazırlanmıştır.

Tanımlar

Madde 4 — Bu Yönetmelikte adı geçen;

a) "Genel Müdürlük", Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Genel Müdürlüğü'nü,

b) "İl Müdürlüğü", İl Sosyal Hizmetler Müdürlüğü'nü,

c) "Misafirhane", İl Sosyal Hizmetler Müdürlükleri bünyesinde hizmet veren Kadın Misafirhanelerini,

d) "Müracaatçı", Kadın Misafirhanelerine başvuran kişileri,

e) "Yönetici", Kadın Misafirhanelerinin idarî, malî ve teknik sorumlusunu,

ifade eder.

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

Kuruluş, İşleyiş ve Görevleri

Kuruluş ve İşleyiş

Madde 5 — Kadın Misafirhaneleri, hizmetlerini il müdürlüklerine bağlı olarak, il müdürlüğü ve diğer bağlı kuruluşlar ile gönüllü ve diğer kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarıyla işbirliği yaparak koordineli bir şekilde yürütür.

Yürütme ve İdare Bölümü Sayfa : 1

Madde 6 — Genel Müdürlük, Kadın Misafirhanelerini uygun gördüğü ve ihtiyaç duyulan il ve ilçelerde açar.

Madde 7 — Kadın Misafirhanelerinde görev yapacak personelin sayı ve niteliği hizmetin özelliğine uygun olarak Genel Müdürlükçe belirlenir.

Kuruluşa Kabul Edilecek Olanlar

Madde 8 — Kuruluşa;

a) Eşler arası anlaşmazlıklar nedeniyle korunmasız kalıp, sokağa terkedilen kadınlar,

b) Anne, baba, eşler tarafından ihmal edilip, fuhuş, dilencilik, alkollü içkiler veya uyuşturucu maddeleri kullanma alışkanlığı gibi her türlü sosyal tehlikelere ve kötü alışkanlıklara karşı savunmasız bırakılan ve başıboşluğa sürüklenen kadınlar,

c) Kendi bünye veya çevre şartlarından doğan ve kontrolleri dışında oluşan maddi ve sosyal yoksunluk içerisine düşmüş kadınlar,

d) Herhangi bir sebeple evini terkederek, şahsi güvenliği tehlikeye maruz kalabilecek kadınlar,

kabul edilir.

Madde 9 — Misafirhanelere, kabul edilecek müracaatçının şahsi başvurusu esas olmak üzere mülki amir, Emniyet, Jandarma ve diğer kamu kurum ve kuruluşları, şahıslar, basın ve benzeri organlar kanalıyla intikal eden kişiler, il müdürlüğünün teklifi ve Valiliğin onayı ile kuruluşa kabul edilirler.

Madde 10 — Misafirhaneye kabul edilen kadının çocuğu varsa; çocuk hakkında sosyal inceleme neticesinde 2828 sayılı Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Kanunu'na göre gerekli tedbirler il müdürlüklerince alınır.

Madde 11 — Misafirhaneye kabul edilen her müracaatçı için dosya düzenlenir. Aşağıdaki belgeler tamamlanır :

a) Başvuru dilekçesi,

b) İlk görüşme formu,

c) Sosyal inceleme raporu,

d) Valilik oluru.

Madde 12 — Hakkında dava açılan kadınlarla ilgili bilgiler hiçbir şekilde açıklanmaz ve dosyalar gizlilik ilkelerine uygun olarak saklanır.

Madde 13 — Misafirhaneye kabul edilen kadının misafirlik süresi en fazla 3 (üç) aydır. Gerekirse bu süre il müdürünün teklifi ve Valiliğin onayı ile uzatılabilir.

Misafirhanelerin Görevleri

Madde 14 — Misafirhanelerin görevleri aşağıda belirtilmiştir :

a) Kadınların sosyal, ekonomik ve psikolojik yöndeki problemlerini kendi kendilerine çözümleyebilmeleri için, meslek elemanlarının bilgi ve becerileriyle diğer kurum ve kuruluşların imkânlarından faydalanır.

b) Evli olup da, evini terkeden veya terketme mecburiyetinde kalan kadınlarla ilgili;

1 — Eşler arasındaki anlaşmazlıkların giderilmesi ve aile bütünlüğünün sağlanması için mesleki çalışmalar yapar.

2 — Problemin çözümünde etkili olabilecek üniversiteler, kamu kurum ve kuruluşları, belediyeler ve gönüllü kuruluşlarla işbirliği yapar.

c) Yapılan mesleki çalışmalar sonucunda, aile bütünlüğünün sağlanmasında başarılı olunamayan durumlarda müracaatçının hukuki problemlerinin çözümüne yardımcı olur.

d) Kadınların kuruluşta kaldığı süre içerisinde kendi kendilerine yeterli olabilecekleri bir iş ve meslek edinmelerinde gerekli tedbirleri alır.

e) Çocuğu ile kabulü yapılan kadınlardan hukuki problemleri olmadığı takdirde çocukları hakkında 2828 sayılı Kanun hükümleri uyarınca gerekli tedbirleri alır.

f) Bulunduğu çevreyi her yönüyle tanıması için araştırma ve inceleme yapar.

ÜÇÜNCÜ BÖLÜM
Personelin Görev ve Yetkileri

Yöneticinin Görev ve Yetkileri

Madde 15 — Misafirhanenin idarî, malî ve teknik sorumlusudur. Misafirhanenin bütün işlerini ilgili kanun, yönetmelik ve Genel Müdürlük genelgeleri doğrultusunda yürütür.

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a) Misafirhane hizmetlerin'n en iyi şekilde yürütülmesi için gerekli plân ve programların hazırlanmasını, görevliler arasında işbirliğini ve koordinasyonu sağlar. Denetimlerini yapar.

b) Gerekli kayıtların tutulmasını ve formların doldurulmasını, istatistiki bilgilerin ilgili birimlere zamanında ulaşmasını sağlar.

c) Misafirhanenin gönüllü kuruluşlar ve kamu kuruluşlarıyla işbirliği içerisinde çalışmalarını sağlar.

d) Personelin özlük dosyalarının tutulmasını, bunlara ilişkin her türlü işlemin zamanında yürütülmesi sağlar.

e) Misafirhane personelinin yasa, tüzük, yönetmelikler ve genelgeler uyarınca devlet memurlarından istenilen tutum, davranış, kılık-kıyafet ve benzeri özelliklerini izleyerek denetimlerini yapar.

Diğer Meslek Elemanlarının Görevleri

Madde 16 — a) Mesleki bilgi ve becerilerini kullanarak ailelerin sosyal, ekonomik, psikolojik ve eğitim alanlarında ihtiyaç duyulan konularda rehberliğini yapar. Problem çözücü ve sosyal rehabilitasyona yönelik çalışmaları yürütür.

b) Misafirhanenin çevreye ve topluma tanıtılması, benimsenmesi ve desteklenmesine yönelik programlar hazırlayıp uygulamasını yapar.

c) Yönetici tarafından verilen diğer görevleri yürütür.

DÖRDÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Malî Hükümler

Madde 17 — Misafirhanenin işleyişiyle ilgili her türlü giderler Genel Müdürlükçe gönderilen ödenekten karşılanır.

Madde 18 — Misafirhanenin yemek ihtiyacı il müdürlüğü'nün uygun gördüğü sosyal hizmet kuruluşlarınca sağlanır.

Madde 19 — Misafirhaneye kabul edilen müracaatçının yol, yiyecek, sağlık ve bunun gibi giderleri, Genel Müdürlükçe gönderilen ödenekten karşılanır.

BEŞİNCİ BÖLÜM

Çeşitli Hükümler

Madde 20 — Kabulü yapılan müracaatçının sağlık, sosyal ve ekonomik problemleri sözkonusu ise, çareler aranır ve rehabilitesi sağlanır.

Madde 21 — Misafirhaneler Genel Müdürlükçe uygun görülen vakıf, dernek ve gönüllü kuruluşlarla işbirliği yapabilir.

Madde 22 — Misafirhaneler hizmetlerini yürütürken, üniversiteler ve diğer kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarıyla işbirliği yapabilir. Bu konudaki esaslar ilgili birimlerin bağlı olduğu kurumlar veya kendileriyle Genel Müdürlük arasında yapılacak protokolle belirlenir.

Madde 23 — Misafirhanede kalındığı süre içerisinde iaşe ve ibatesi temin edilen müracaatçı il müdürlüğünce uygun görülürse, Valilik onayı ile kuruluşlardan herhangi birisinde boş zamanları değerlendirilir.

Yürürlük

Madde 24 — 832 sayılı Sayıştay Kanunu'nun 105 inci maddesi hükmü uyarınca Sayıştay Başkanlığının görüşü alınarak hazırlanan bu Yönetmelik Resmi Gazete'de yayımlandığı tarihte yürürlüğe girer.

Yürütme

Madde 25 — Bu Yönetmelik hükümleri Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Genel Müdürü tarafından yürütülür.

EMPOWERING WOMEN.........................

A SOLUTION TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION???

PROPOSAL FOR THE ALLEVIATION OF POVERTY THROUGH THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN IN TANZANIA

SUBMITTED BY:
WOMEN EMPOWERMENT GROUP
DAR ES SALAAM
TANZANIA

March 1995

co-housing
or women in tanzania 4 goals:

participation training

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technologies

tourism and developement

fosterine women north/south

main street

Nursy

Tourism Development area

transit centre

neignbourhood unit

community aera

plazza

neignbourhood unit

garden

extention & terraces

garden

market street

main street

workshops

pedestrian street

neignbourhood unit

community aera

garden

extention & terraces

garden

main street

garden

garden

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workshops

workshops

entrance sign

community aera

Neighbourhood unit plan

Major plan

PROPOSAL FOR THE ALLEVIATION OF POVERTY THROUGH THE EMPOWERING OF WOMEN IN TANZANIA

Tanzanian women in the poverty trap

Background

There are approximately 13 million female Tanzanians of whom about 700 000 live in or near Dar es Salaam and 300 000 or so live in other urban centres such as Arusha. Moshi, Tanga, Morogoro, Dodoma, Tabora, Mwanza and Bukoba. The overwhelming majority (± 12m) are rural, mostly peasant farmers.

They produce the bulk of Tanzania's staple food, maize. On average, each Tanzanian rural household (many of which are headed by women) produces half a ton of maize per year. Women are also the primary producers of the other main food crops (cassava, millet, sorghum, rice, pulses, vegetables and groundnuts) and significant producers of principal cash-crops, namely cotton, sisal, tobacco, coffee and tea. This is in addition to virtually sole responsibility for child-rearing and care for elderly and sick, procurement of fuel and water, and tending small livestock.

No less than 85% of Tanzanian energy consumption is derived from fuelwood collected by women and girls. Most energy-sector aid is given to electricity and oil, thereby usefully diminishing the reliance on fuelwood - but not to any extent that could yet be perceived by rural dwellers. Similarly women draw and carry most the nation's domestic water supply.

Women's share of the national pay-check is much less than half because men dominate the monetarized economy in general and the senior positions in particular. Not even ten percent of top decision-makers in government and the private sector are female. Official working hours in positions of formal employment are around 44 hours per week.

Most women's effective working week exceeds 80 hours, often starting before dawn with domestic chores. For a woman with no higher education (i.e. most women), there is little incentive to add an 8-to-5 job in the formal economy, even if she could find one, when it would typically pay no more than 12 000/= per month, yet not diminish her domestic burden in any way. This is the poverty trap from which Tanzanian women have yet to escape and which interested donors/groups could help to address.

To an even greater extent, men dominate transport and communications in Tanzania. Most women live near their birthplace and rarely travel further than the nearest market. For a woman in Tanzania, the country's famous scenic attractions (Kilimanjaro, Serengeti, Ngorongoro) are more remote than they are to a woman in another part of the world, and less relevant to her order of priorities.

The average density of population is low - merely 13 women per square kilometre. Of course, that figure disguises local concentrations offset by vast nearly uninhabited areas. Nevertheless the low density, lack of time, very rare opportunities to use a telephone and necessity to move on foot, combine to keep the typical (i.e. rural) Tanzanian woman's circle of acquaintances small. The lack of books and unavailability of video and television means

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that she is ill-informed about the outside world. Opportunities to acquire and apply new information and to gain from experience are limited. The poverty trap is reinforced.

Estimates of the literacy rate vary greatly; it is somewhere between 35% and 90% depending who is doing the counting. Yet no more than 3% of girls complete secondary school. Far more drop out, pregnant, from primary school. Culture, poverty, ignorance and fear deprive women of control over their reproductive powers. The poverty trap is renewed with each new generation.

The population pyramid is broadly based and sharply tapered upwards. Of the ± 6 500 000 Tanzanian women over the age of 14 years, few are elderly. Life expectancy after infancy is 50 years; but infant mortality remains distressingly high. Most Tanzanian women spent their entire lives child-rearing, from early girlhood when they start to look after their younger siblings, to early grand-motherhood. In her lifetime, an average Tanzanian woman has 6 or 7 children of whom 4 or 5 survive to maturity. The female population increases by more than 300 000 per year. Despite the will of government and donors to spring it open, the poverty trap recruits new members.

Many women's lives <u>are</u> as described above. Yet they are not despondent. A majority accept their present roles as subsistence farmers and child-rearers. They remain unaware of the fundamental changes being wrought in Tanzanian society by population growth, structural adjustment, political evolution and the commercialization of the economy. They are aware that good arable land is getting hard to find, that yields are falling in areas of maize monocropping, that prices are rising faster than incomes and that wealth is being redistributed -but not to them.

Those without power, money, credit, security of tenure, mobility, education, literacy and numeracy, are least able to cope with rapid structural change. The poverty trap is actually deepening and becoming more difficult to escape. Rural Tanzanian women are, by and large, an able-bodied yet profoundly disadvantaged sub-class in the second poorest country in the world, a fourth world society below the lowest rung of the third world. By no stretch of the imagination are they developing in a developing country. Rural Tanzanian women effectively have little say in the changes now underway in Tanzanian life and are far removed from the social, political and economic changes transforming the rest of the world.

Why the proposal??

The above country background has tried to show how women are in the everlasting poverty trap that is not easy to escape. It is the intention of this proposal to try to initiate projects that will give women some power so as to slowly remove themselves from the trap.

Since we are entering the era of poverty alleviation world-wide, there is no way that one could think of successfully accomplishing such a mission without the serious consideration of improving the economic situation of women for their empowerment. It is for this reason that a proposal is being submitted to start pilot projects in six regions in Tanzania, namely:- Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Kagera, Iringa and Mbeya. In each region only one district has been selected for the implementation of the project. The regions and districts will be our pilot areas. The lessons that will be learnt from the pilot districts will be used to other

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districts in the country.

Justification for selecting the regions and districts

The regions and districts have been selected with a purpose.

- ○ Kilimanjaro region has been selected to represent the regions in the north, and also as one of the most developed regions in the country. Most of the household in this region are headed by women in terms of bread-winning since most of the men are in working outside the region thus leaving the women to fend for themselves. Only one district of Same will be selected in this region and two villages of Ishinde and Bangalala are identified. Also Same district is the most disadvantaged district in terms of its geographical location and undeveloped infrastructure.

- ○ Dar es Salaam region has been selected because of the big population it has. Lots of people are leaving the rural areas for Dar es Salaam because they cannot offer them much in terms of better living conditions. That explains why the city has got so many people, much more than it can afford. The region has a mixture of different ethnic groups that would be found all over the country. Kinondoni district has been identified to serve this sort of heterogeneity with its three villages of **Madale, Kiluvya and Bunju.**

- ○ The third to be included in the pilot project lie in the southern highlands, and it comprises of Iringa and Mbeya and each with one district. The southern highlands are famous for being part of **the big four** and two villages of Msombwe and Idodi on the Iringa side, Iringa rural district, and Rungwe village on the Mbeya side, Rungwe district.

- ○ Another region identified to be in the pilot area is Kagera region, Bukoba district, Bishaka village. This region represent the regions of the lake zone with lots of influence from neighbouring Uganda and Rwanda.

What projects do we want to initiate?

Village Forestry

It is estimated that 90% of the yearly production of forestry products in Tanzania is used as fuel. Deforestation has become a worldwide problem, Tanzania being no exception. This crisis entails a daily struggle to find sufficient wood to prepare the family meal.

It becomes even more difficult for women to carry out many of their most important tasks such as fetching water and wood in sufficient amounts within a reasonable length of time. The fuelwood crisis is also a cause of malnutrition or undernourishment as warm diet becomes replaced by cold or insufficiently cooked food.

The lack of wood is related to nutritional problems in still another way. Cow dung, which is needed for fertiliser, is being used more and more as a substitute for fuelwood. Thus the

agricultural yields become smaller and smaller, which in turn forces the people to convert even more forest land into farming acres, sometimes in places where the land is not suitable, such as on steep slopes. A vicious circle is put into motion resulting in increased erosion and impoverishment of the soil.

The above reasons are good enough to consider starting wood lots in some of the villages of the project areas. Villages with acute shortage of fuelwood will be dealt with in this phase. The regions of Iringa, Kilimanjaro and Dar es Salaam are identified for the initial start of wood lots.

Fish Ponds

Fish farming, especially in the case of small-scale fish production, when combined with the women's other household chores and care of the children, offers women the opportunity to participate in the whole chain of production. The project aims at supporting women's initiative in establishing fish ponds to improve the nutritional status of the families in general and to raise the economic status of women through the sale of fish. Small-scale inputs are desirable. Besides providing fish ponds, the project aims also at including fish processing and distribution.

Fish ponds will be started in Dar es Salaam in Madale. Kiluvya and Bunju villages. This region has been selected in order to improve the nutritional status of people in the city and also to provide income to women in the villages.

Women have been traditionally involved in fish selling to supplement income. Those who have failed to live within the city due to the ever rising cost of living have opted for a solution to stay in the suburbs of Dar es Salaam and be actively involved in agriculture. Introducing such a project therefore to these women would not only provide them with income but improve the nutrition status of the families.

A need to possess and control modern technology??

The majority of food producers in Tanzania are women. Developments in agriculture, including new forms of organisation, production have only marginally affected the overall situation of women. Women are generally excluded when land is being distributed, they have little access to credit, training or further education and they seldom are members of agricultural co-operatives. The one-sided concentration on men in the reorganisation of agricultural production has led to a division within the family farming unit into a self-sufficient sector to meet the family's own needs and a sector that is oriented towards production.

Women have the responsibility for and the control over the self-sufficiency sector, but do not have the right to own the land. Work within this sector, which was previously shared by both the men and the women, is now performed almost solely by the women. Where once a surplus could be produced, present yields are often hardly sufficient to fulfil the family's own needs. The men concentrate their efforts almost entirely to the production of cash crops and women have little access to this produce or to the income it brings, although they too have often invested much hard labour in its production. Almost all of the

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modernization that has taken place within the agricultural sector has been directed towards cash-crop production. The introduction of ox-drawn ploughs and tractors has improved the working conditions of men. However, there has been no corresponding technological improvements with respect to weeding and harvesting, tasks which are traditionally delegated to women. They use the same simple hand tools they have always used.

Against the background described above, it is proposed that women in the pilot area be assisted with tractors to alleviate them the problem of hand-hoe cultivating. The men who own the tractors charge the women and other poor farmers very highly, for example one acre of land costs ten thousands shillings for a tractor to till it. Given access to such an assistance, the women can sustain the tractor because, apart from tilling their land, they will also charge other farmers the same amount of money and thereby will be able to meet the costs of running the tractors.

Four tractors are being requested for the already mentioned villages of Dar es Salaam, Iringa, Kilimanjaro and Kagera regions.

Request for Milling Machines???

With mechanized agriculture production will increase and therefore the women will need milling machines to process their food. From the increased production, women in the project villages will be able to start other income generating projects like modern cattle keeping and poultry which will be fed from what they produce. It is for this reason that the project is requesting three milling machines for the three villages that are in Dar es Salaam. The milling machine project will extend to other villages of the pilot regions during the second phase of the project.

Seed Money for credit scheme in the pilot areas

Credit grants should also be linked to these activities. Also projects that encourage women to work in groups and to start co-operatives could help to strengthen the economic and social position of women in the society.

It is difficult for poor and illiterate women to borrow money from a bank. They have seldom any security to give, and often must first obtain their husband's consent. They have difficult in filling out the necessary forms and cannot count on getting help from the bank's personnel. Although it is usually a question of small loans, the administration involved is still fairly complex for illiterate people and they may have difficulty in understanding the correct procedures, for example for paying back the loan. Experience shows, however, that with respect to the last point, women are good borrowers. In general, more than 90% of the loans obtained by women are paid back.

In many contexts credits are a better form of transactions than outright grants. They contribute to the development of the individual's creative capacity and initiative in seeking solutions to problems, whereas extending grants may encourage passivity and the expectation that others will solve one's problems. Credits also contribute to thinking in terms of profitability and adaptation to actual market conditions.

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The development of the rural areas has at the same time robbed women of many of the traditional sources of income. They are no longer always self-sufficient with respect to food and other daily needs. The expansion of the money economy even to the rural areas creates a need for cash, especially in families where the woman is the sole head of household.

It is for this reason that it is being proposed to establish a credit scheme for the women within the project area so that they can start income generating projects for their empowerment. The project will benefit all the women in all the villages of the project area, and the funds will be centrally controlled. This fund will be a revolving one so that it can reach a bigger women population in the project area.

Provision of Lorries ???

The regions of the project will be involved with many activities and it is intended that during the project period there will be a lot of transactions going on. Agricultural production will definitely improve due to the mechanized agriculture that the women will have. The need for markets will arise and each region will need one lorry to ferry the crops to the markets country wide. It is therefore proposed that a lorry be provided for Kilimanjaro region, Same district; Dar es Salaam region, Kinondoni district; Kagera region, Bukoba district; Iringa region, Iringa rural district and Mbeya region, Rungwe district. These lorries will also be used for income generation for the women in the project villages and they will be self-sustainable. To begin with, one lorry could do.

Below is a summary of all that is being requested in a table form:

item	region	district	village
Wood Lots	Kilimanjaro	Same	Ishinde Bangalala
	Iringa	Iringa (R)	Msombwe Idodi
	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Kiluvya Bunju
Fish Ponds	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Kiluvya Bunju

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Tractors	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Bunju Kiluvya
	Kilimanjaro	Same	Ishinde Bangalala
	Iringa	Iringa (R)	Msombwe Idodi
Lorries	Kilimanjaro	Same	Ishinde-Mahuu Bangalala
	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Kiluvya Bunju
	Kagera	Bukoba(R)	Bishaka Mushozi
	Mbeya	Rungwe	Rungwe
Four wheel Drive	one for Project Coordinator		
Seed Money	Iringa	Iringa (R)	Msombwe Idodi
	Kilimanjaro	Same	Ishinde-Mahuu Bangalala
	Kagera	Bukoba (R)	Bishaka
	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Kiluvya Bunju
	Mbeya	Rungwe	Rungwe
Milling machines	Dar es Salaam	Kinondoni	Madale Kiluvya Bunju

here will be one woodlot per village and this will act as demonstration plots for the illages that are not in the project area. So applies to the fish ponds. With the tractors, the tuation will be different. There will be only one tractor for the district to be used for the lentified villages. This applies also to the lorries.

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS AND HABITAT:
THE REPORT OF THE EXPERT SEMINAR

PART I: CHILDREN'S RIGHTS AND THE HABITAT CONDITIONS FOR ACHIEVING THEM

FAMILY SECURITY

Nurturant families, in all their forms, are the primary institution and the best environment for protecting and promoting the rights and well-being of children. Whenever possible, children must be able to live with their families in adequate, secure housing. Essential to the survival of families is their capacity to support themselves in ways which do not undermine family life. When families are unable to provide adequately for their children, States have the obligation to assist and support them.

1.1 Families must have ready, legal and affordable access to housing, and to the information, credit, land, materials or rental opportunities necessary for such access. There must be no discrimination owing to religion, ethnicity, race, sex, nationality, social status or political convictions.

1.2 Families must have legal security of tenure and must be protected from the traumatic effects of forced eviction and displacement, and from other forms of arbitrary or unlawful interference.

1.3 In the event of unavoidable displacement or dispossession, families must be promptly compensated or relocated to an acceptable new site appropriate to the special needs of children.

1.4 Housing must be adequate and appropriate for family life.
   a) Location must allow access to basic services and the necessities of life.
   b) Housing must be able to provide accommodation for the entire family, as it is locally defined, and must allow access to informal support networks such as grandparents and extended family.
   c) There must be adequate space, facilities, lighting, ventilation and warmth.

d) Conditions in the physical environment of the home must support the capacity of parents, grandparents and other caregivers to provide loving, nurturant care for their children.

e) Housing should lend itself to the preferred living patterns of its occupants and should allow for patterns of spatial interaction that are fundamental to culture and to the child's understanding of cultural identity. This is particularly important for displaced families, since their cultural identity is unlikely to be reinforced by the wider surroundings.

f) There should be user participation, including that of children, in the planning and management of housing in order to ensure the appropriateness of the living environment.

1.5 Families must be able to provide adequately for their children.

a) They must have access to resources and to income-earning opportunities.

b) Conditions of livelihood must not be such that they disrupt or undermine family life.

c) Families must have access to a range of information and services, including family planning options, that will enhance their choices for improving the quality of their lives.

1.6 When families are unable to provide fully for their children, States have an obligation to support and assist them in providing an environment that is in the best interests of the child. Children must be protected from violence, abuse and neglect within the family.

1.7 Vulnerable children without family or home should be provided with care in a family-like setting which offers protection and security and is conducive to their full development.

Homes and their surroundings are the primary environment of most children during the critical early period in their lives when they are most vulnerable, and are developing most rapidly. The home environment must be secure, safe and healthy, must facilitate caregiving and must meet children's basic physical, social, cultural and psychological needs. Children are active learners from the beginning of life, and the provision of a warm and stimulating environment, where each child is valued as an individual, is essential to support and maintain their full development.

2.1 Families and caregivers must have access to basic knowledge regarding child development, environmental care, health and nutrition, including breastfeeding, and should be supported in the use of this knowledge.

2.2 Children must have a safe, healthy environment, beginning in the prenatal period. In order to combat malnutrition, gastro-intestinal ailments, respiratory disease and other hazards that threaten the lives of young children, the following conditions must be met:

a) There must be easy, safe and affordable access to sufficient supplies of clean water and to sanitation, ideally within the home or immediately outside it.

b) Children must have adequate nutrition, with no gender discrimination, and there must be safe facilities for food storage and preparation.

c) Children must be protected from the risk of injury within the home and its near surroundings.

d) Within the home and its surroundings, children should be protected from exposure to toxins and to air or water-borne pollutants. In particular, in order to address acute respiratory infections, smokeless, harmless and sustainable household fuel must be available.

e) There must be adequate management of surface runoff, waste water and solid waste to prevent the breeding of disease vectors.

2.3 Children must have a home environment that supports their full development. Parents and other caregivers must be recognized for their central role in promoting the natural learning capabilities of their children. The physical environment of the home should enable parents and other caregivers to be responsive and interactive and to provide, according to

their culture, a setting that supports and stimulates the full physical, mental, social, spiritual and moral growth of their children. This implies that adequate space must be available, and a diverse environment which provides sensory stimulation, opportunities for exploration and manipulation, access to safe space for play and the capacity to withdraw from noise and crowding.

2.4 The home environment of children should support the development of their cultural identity. This can be accomplished in part through family rituals within the home and through spatial organization (see 1.4(e)). In addition, children's play materials and the communication media, especially television programming, should be culturally appropriate and sensitive to children's needs.

2.5 Children must be protected from work in the home that threatens their health or development. Particular attention must be given to the plight of girl children, whose contribution to the family is frequently taken for granted, and whose needs are often overlooked, to the detriment of their development, their future and the future of the families and societies that they will someday help to sustain.

a) Domestic work, such as carrying water and fuel or cooking, must not expose children to risk or be beyond their physical capacity.

b) Children's contribution to domestic work must not interfere with their opportunities for play, rest and education.

2.6 Parents and caregivers of disabled children must be provided with information that gives them an understanding of and respect for their children's potential, and the means for achieving it. They should also be enabled to adapt their homes to meet the full range of their children's developmental needs.

COMMUNITY

Communities must be physically, socially and emotionally healthy environments. Their inhabitants and their resources, services and institutions should go beyond maintaining basic survival to promoting a high quality of life for all.

3.1 Children must have community environments that promote physical health.

a) At the community level there must be the provision of basic infrastructure, water, sanitation and solid waste removal.

b) There must be provision for access to health information and preventive and curative services, including mental health care, and to emergency care in the event of injury or acute illness. People in marginal or unrecognized settlements must have a way of accessing the full range of health care.

c) Communities must be planned to minimize risks to children from traffic, unexploded land-mines and other dangers.

d) Measures must be taken to reduce risks to children from radiation and all forms of pollution.

3.2 Children must be protected within their communities from intolerance, violence and all forms of exploitation, and should be enabled to develop into tolerant human beings.

a) Laws must be enacted and enforced that protect children from all forms of violence, sexual and economic exploitation.

b) Law enforcement must be protective of children's rights as citizens, respectful of their cultural and religious identities, and cognizant of their particular vulnerabilities and developmental needs.

c) When safety cannot be guaranteed in the community at large, 'safe places' for children must be provided.

d) Children must be protected from the consumption of drugs and from drug-related exploitation. Preventive measures should be supported within the community through the provision of meaningful activities for young people and caring role models.

e) For the protection of children, individuals who are responsible for any form of abuse against children should be required to undergo rehabilitation.

f) Children who have been victims of maltreatment, exploitation, armed conflict, torture, abuse and drug abuse must have appropriate treatment in facilities that are safe, healthy and homelike, and that take into account their developmental needs.

CRC 24: *States Parties recognize the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and to facilities for the treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health. . . .*

CRC 28: *States Parties recognize the right of the child to education. . . .*

CRC 29: *States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to: the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential. . . . the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. . . . the development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values. . . . the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society. . . . the development of respect for the natural environment. . . .*

CRC 30: *In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practice his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language.*

CRC 31: *States Parties recognize the right of the child to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts. . . .*

CRC 32: *States Parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. . . .*

CRC 33: *States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislative, administrative, social and educational measures, to protect children from the illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances as defined in the relevant international treaties, and to prevent the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of such substances.*

CRC 34: *States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse.*

CRC 35: *States Parties shall take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form.*

CRC 36: *States Parties shall protect the child against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare.*

CRC 39: *States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim of: any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; or armed conflicts. Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.*

g) Children who have been convicted of criminal behaviour must have rehabilitation that is appropriate to their developmental needs, and that has as a goal their reintegration into family and community.

3.3 Recognizing that for many children work outside the home is unavoidable, measures must be taken to protect these children from work that may be harmful to them.

a) Children must not be required to perform any work that may threaten their safety or be harmful to their health.

b) Work must not interfere with children's opportunities for play and education.

3.4 All children have the right to accessible care that is responsive to their particular needs. Young children should be provided with family-like child-care services if parents and others who might serve as caretakers are at work, sick or unable to attend to their children's needs for any other reason. Facilities should meet basic standards for the health and well-being of young children, and caregivers should be appropriately trained in the developmental needs of children.

3.5 In times of war, emergency or rebuilding, or in other situations where governance is missing for any reason, the interests of children must be given priority. Attention must be given to their long-term development and well-being, as well as to their immediate survival.

3.6 Children must have the opportunity for an education that helps them to meet their potential, supports their development as responsible members of society and prepares them adequately for life.

a) Creative ways must be found to make the right to education attainable equally for all children: girls and boys, poor children, children of minorities, immigrants, migrant groups, indigenous populations, refugees, disabled children, institutionalized children, working children and children living on the streets.

b) It must be recognized that informal and non-formal approaches, and some work experiences, may be viable alternatives or supplements to formal education, and these approaches should be supported and encouraged within the community.

c) Adequate child care and early childhood education are necessary foundations for life.

d) For sustainable community development, children's education should build on local knowledge of the community and environment and local livelihood skills, while also offering them access to knowledge of the wider world and flexible skills for future livelihoods and life-fulfilment.

e) Active education on the Convention on the Rights of the Child should take place at all levels of society, especially at all government levels, and in those institutions that most affect children—schools, law enforcement, the judicial system and health and recreation provision.

f) Education should promote the health and safety of children in relation to the total living environment, extending the concept of primary health care to include primary environmental care.

3.7 Play and recreation are fundamental needs for children and key factors in their development. Children must have access to appropriate opportunities for play and to recreational facilities within their communities.

a) Opportunities for play and recreation, especially outdoors, must be available and easily accessible to all children, including children in difficult circumstances.

b) Play facilities, formal and informal, must be free from threats to children's health and safety.

c) Facilities for play and recreation must accommodate a range of needs and choices, including those of boys and girls of various ages, disabled children and street children, and must stimulate all aspects of development.

d) In adolescence, play has a different but equally important set of meanings. Access to space is essential for social interaction, and a sense of belonging and group identity.

e) Convenient and safe access to natural settings should be readily available for all children within their communities, where they can enjoy and learn about the natural systems on which all life depends.

3.9 Children must be able to assemble freely and to partake in the public life of their communities. Their community environments should allow them to maintain both cultural and religious identity and to participate in cultural life and the arts.

a) Public places within the community must be freely and equitably available and accessible to all children, including street children, disabled children, girl children and all children in difficult circumstances.

b) Communities and public authorities must be educated towards regarding street children as legitimate community members who deserve support in their attempts to cope with their difficult circumstances.

c) Towns and cities must enable children and adolescents to move around by foot, bicycle and public transport, and freely experience and learn from their surroundings. Safety for girls must be particularly emphasized.

d) Within the community there must be places and activities that allow for and support the expression of children's cultural and religious identity.

3.10 In recognition that democratic behaviour in a civil society must be learned through experience, children should be given a voice in their communities, according to their abilities. This will serve as a preparation for their full participation in civil society as adults and will be a means of better meeting their needs as children.

a) Basic education for children should include investigations and dialogue on local development and the local environment in order to facilitate participation for sustainable development.

b) In recognition of the marginalization of women in decision-making, attention should be given to preparing girls as well as boys with the confidence and skills to be involved as equal participants with their peers.

c) Children should be involved, according to their capacities, in the design of environments intended explicitly for them, such as play places, schools and children's hospitals.

PART II: IMPLICATIONS OF CHILDREN'S RIGHTS FOR GOVERNANCE

Achieving the conditions necessary for the fulfilment of children's rights has distinct implications for governance and suggests the need for changes in current economic models, patterns of government and relationships between all levels of government and local communities. The Expert Seminar endorsed the following governance principles:

- the sharing of responsibilities, power and resources with governance at local community levels;
- the empowerment of civil society, especially of low-income groups, women, children and youth through access to information, employment, resources and services;
- the accountability of all levels of government, the private sector and international agencies for the impact of their policies, investments and actions on children and their families;
- the full participation of all citizens, of all ages, according to their capacities, in decision-making, resource allocation and management.

DECENTRALIZATION OF GOVERNANCE

4.1 The global trend towards decentralization is a complex process that requires appropriate responses from central governments, including the redistribution of national resources. Central governments should promote a transparent devolution process for the redistribution of power and resources to local actors and their institutions.

4.2 In response to decentralization and devolution to the community level, local authorities and governance institutions must learn new ways to address the social and economic problems of their communities in a coordinated manner. Central governments should support their efforts.

4.3 Decentralization does not remove the need for the allocation of resources from state and national governments to address the needs of children, especially during critical periods of transition. These resources should support and supplement local resources.

4.4 The use of low-cost technologies must ensure that priority infrastructure and services do not fall victim to structural adjustment. A shift of resources in favour of low-cost technologies and service delivery for the many rather than high-cost services for the few should be promoted as long as quality is maintained.

THE EMPOWERMENT OF CIVIL SOCIETY

5.1 Democratic participation of communities in local governance, in response to decentralization, is a powerful vehicle for social progress. Government policies at both central and local levels must support citizens in the creation of strong communities.

a) Community members must know their rights and how to act to ensure that they are respected. Governments and other agencies must support the provision of legal advice, technical advice and other support services to low-income families and communities.

b) Communities, including low-income households, must have easy access to information about the plans of government and private enterprise that affect their economies and neighbourhoods, and must have a voice in these plans.

5.2 In order for all families to fulfil their responsibilities as the guardians of their children's rights, certain conditions are necessary in their daily living environment. Structures of governance should be organized to support the capacity of families to achieve these conditions.

a) Governments must acknowledge the assets that low-income groups have (including shelter, social networks and access to common property resources), the means by which they are frequently dispossessed of these assets and the means by which their asset base can be strengthened. Legal, institutional and political systems must protect the rights of low-income groups to livelihood, shelter, security of tenure and access to services.

b) Policies and interventions to support families and children should be aimed at the community level, empowering and strengthening family and community support networks.

c) Within the framework of the decentralization process, government agencies at all levels, and other outside agencies, including international organizations, should improve the coordination of their services to families and children. Agencies not traditionally concerned with children, including private sector agencies, should receive technical assistance and training to help them understand the impact their activities have on children and how they can better serve the interests of families and children in a coordinated way.

MONITORING AND ACCOUNTABILITY CONCERNING CHILDREN'S RIGHTS

6.1 Independent, participatory structures for the support of children's rights (such as Councils for Child Protection or Councils for Child and Family Development) should be established in each municipality. The function of these organizations should be the creation and monitoring of programmes that affect the well-being of children, using the Convention on the Rights of the Child as a point of departure. All groups should be represented, including schools, parent groups, youth groups, NGOs, grass-roots organizations and municipal departments. These local organizations should be represented at regional and national levels, where they should also have a central role in monitoring the performance of higher levels of government.

6.2 The review of legislation at all levels of governance (by-laws and ordinances) should be undertaken in a participatory fashion, and legislation should be amended and expanded for maximum conformity with the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

6.3 There is a need to broaden the range of indicators used for assessing progress on children's well-being and the quality of their living conditions. The generation and use of indicators should be a participatory process. While statistics at local, national and international levels must be consistent and comparable, it is also essential that they be able to reflect local circumstances and preferences. They should also enable intra-urban disparity analysis through gender and age differentiated and spatially disaggregated data.

6.4 At the international level there must be codes of conduct for international agencies and transnational corporations regarding any matters of potential concern to children's lives. The formulation, enforcement and monitoring of these codes of conduct should involve civil society. Decisions should reflect not simply the absence of harm, but children's best interests. The impact on children's environments of proposed major projects and programmes, and any other initiatives that might affect children's lives, should be incorporated into the evaluation criteria.

PARTICIPATION

7.1 Formal democratic mechanisms should be established for giving all citizens, including children, according to their capacities, a voice at the community and municipal level, both as a way of preparing them for participation in civil

society and as a way of improving the appropriateness and effectiveness of decision-making.

7.2 Children's participation works best in a society which also encourages adult participation; the participation of adults and children must be complementary and mutually reinforcing.

7.3 Local authorities should initiate the establishment of innovative partnerships between children, parents, schools, private sector and community-based organizations and NGOs to optimize the effectiveness of the existing structures by involving children in local community services provision. This will strengthen children's awareness and sense of belonging to the community.

7.4 Children should participate according to their abilities in the management of all institutions and facilities that they use, including schools, recreation facilities, children's organizations and community organizations.

7.5 Local government authorities should involve children, according to their capabilities, in local governance processes.

TÜRKİYE
SOKAK ÇOCUKLARI VAKFI

1992'den 1996'ya...

Tarihçemiz :

1992 yılında Barınacak Yeri Olmayan Çocuk ve Gençleri Koruma ve Geliştirme Yardımlaşma Derneği kuruldu. Kurucu üyesi 11 kişi olan bu dernek, sokakta yaşayan, barınacak yeri olmayan çocuk ve gençlere hizmet vermeyi amaçlamaktaydı. Bu amaca yönelik olarak barınmayı geçici de olsa sağlamak için İstanbul, Sefaköy semtinde gece ve gündüz kalabilecekleri bir ev açıldı. Bu evdeki ve sokaktaki çalışmalar devam ederken, Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Genel Müdürlüğü'nün 2828 sayılı yasası "ihtarı" üzerine adımızdaki "Koruma ve Barındırma" kaldırılarak 16.01.1994'te derneğin adı SOKAK ÇOCUKLARI DERNEĞİ olarak değiştirildi. İki yıl gibi bir süre, bu isim altında çalışmalar yaparak edindiğimiz bilgi ve deneyimler sonucu bize çocuklara daha fazla "profesyonel" hizmet götürmek projeler kapsamında çalışmak ve aynı zamanda kamuoyu oluşturmak gerekliliğini gösterdi. Bunun üzerine 15.01.1996'da *TÜRKİYE SOKAK ÇOCUKLARI VAKFI*'nı kurduk.

Çalışmalarımız:

Dernek döneminde, İstanbul'daki sokak çocuklarıyla yapılan çalışmaları şu şekilde özetleyebiliriz.

Amaç; sokakta bulunan sokak çocuklarıyla, bulunduğu yerde tanışmak ve iletişim kurmak, dernek merkezine yönlendirmek. Çocuklara başvurabilecekleri bir adresin ve kurumun bulunduğunu görmelerini sağlamaktı.

Amaç doğrultusunda;
Çocukların yoğunlukla yaşadığı semtlerde, (Bakırköy, Aksaray, Beyoğlu, Kadıköy) alan çalışmalarına başlandı.

Kimdi bu çocuklar?
a) Gruplar halinde sokak aralarında, sur diplerinde, köhne binalarda, 24 saat sokakta yaşayan,
b) uçucu madde kullanan (tiner, bally)
c) suça itilen,
d) sağlık ve temizlik koşullarından yoksun kalan,
e) dışarıdan ve kendi aralarında fiziksel ve cinsel istismara uğrayan çocuklardı.

Çocuklar niçin sokakta?
a) Parçalanmış aile ilişkileri,
b) Sosyo-ekonomik nedenler,
c) Göç,
d) Aile içi şiddet, Psikolojik baskı, kötü muamele,
e) İhmal ve sevgisizlik,
f) Yasalarla koruma altına alınmama.

D1

Alan çalışması sırasında tespit edilen çocuklara götürülecek, öncelikli hizmetler; sağlık, giyim, temizlik, yaşadıkları mekanları iyileştirme, beslenme gibi ihtiyaçlar belirlenip bu hizmetler alana taşındı.

Sokak çalışması sırasında bu hizmetler devam ederken, bize aynı zamanda karşımızda *"bir topluluk"* olduğunu göstermiştir.

Bu topluluğun, sokaktaki yaşamlarının farklı kurallar zinciri ile işlediğini, kendi aralarında bir dilleri olduğunu, bir gruba dahil olmak zorunluluğunu, gruba dahil olmak koşullarının ise; sokak kurallarını öğrenme ve bu kurallarda itirazsız yaşamak, sinyale çıkmak (para istemek), uçucu madde kullanmak, suç işlemeye ortaklık, grup yaşamını dışarıya sızdırmamak, ispiyonlamamak (cezası ağır) gibi çocuğu ağır yaptırımlarla karşı karşıya getirdiğini, yine aynı çocukların grup içinde, iyiyi ve kötüyü birlikte yaşadıklarını ve paylaştıklarını gördük. (Örn. Dışarıdan gelen tehlikelere karşı birbirlerini korumalarını, ağır yaralanmalarda arkadaşlarını hastaneye götürmelerini vb.)

Bu topluluğun içinde bire bir çalışan kişilerin, zaman zaman (sokağın) topluluğun kurallarına uyma riski olduğunu da bize göstermiştir. Topluluğun kıyısından götürülen bire bir ilişkilerin ve çalışma yöntemlerinin, kurtarma vaatlerinin, iyiniyet gibi gözükse bile çocuklara bir kere daha, zarar verilmesinin boyutlarını gösterdi.

Yine bu alan çalışmalarımız sırasında, sokakta henüz topluluk olmayan, yine de bizim için her an sokak çocuğu kimliğine girme riski taşıyan, bir başka tablo olduğunu da gördük. Bunlar, dilendirilen, sokakta çalışmak zorunda bırakılan ve sokağı eğlence yeri gibi gören, çocuklardı.

Bu çalışmalar sürerken, sokak yaşamı içerisinde; yaralanan, hastalanan, ağır ameliyatlardan geçen, üzerinde taşıdıkları uçucu maddeden dolayı yanan, sokakta şiddete maruz kalan çocuklar, artık SOKAK değil, EV diyebilen çocuklar, sokağa yeni gelmiş ve sokağın kurallarıyla henüz tanışmamış çocuklar bizim evin konukları olmuşlardır.

. Evde konuk kaldıkları zaman içerisinde geçici barınma , sağlık sorunlarının çözümü, temizlik ve beslenme gibi temel ihtiyaçlar karşılanmaya çalışılırken, gönüllülerin çabalarıyla, değişik yaş gruplarından olan çocukları, eğitsel çalışmalara katmak için çaba gösterildi. Okuma yazma öğretmek, resim çalışmaları, tiyatro çalışması, sportif faaliyetlere katmak vb. organizasyonlar düzenlendi. Düzenli olarak psikolojik ve fizyolojik taramalar yapıldı.

Ev içi iletişim çalışmalarında ise amaç; ailelerinin olup olmadığını öğrenmek, gerçek kimliklerinin tespiti, kaçış nedenlerinin ortaya çıkarılması gibi konular oldu. Uçucu madde kullanımının ev içinde yasak olması sonucunda, çocukların bazılarının bunu kendiliğinden bıraktığını, bazılarının da profesyonel desteğe ihtiyaç duyduklarını gözledik.

Bu nedenle de ağırlığı profesyonel destek verebilecek uzmanlarla çalışmaya başladıkve kurumlarla çalışmaya başladık ve ilişkiye geçtik.

İLİŞKİ KURULAN KURUMLAR:

Semt Karakolları : Çocukların yoğun olarak bulunduğu bölgelerde, polisle karşılaşabileceği ve karşılaştığı sorunlar için semt karakollarıyla iletişim sağlanmaya çalışıldı.

Sosyal Hizmetler İstanbul İl Müdürlüğü: Evde kalan çocukların listesi verildi. Barınma konusunda yardım istendi, Kadıköy'deki Çocuk Misafirhanesi'nin açılabilmesi için görüşmeler yapıldı. Yanıt: Sonuçsuz.

Küçükleri Koruma Şubesi: İlişkide bulunduğumuz çocukların isim listesi verildi ve sokakta bulunan çocukların bize başvurusu yapıldığında bu şubeye yönlendirdik.

Kayıp Çocuklar Bürosu: İsim listesi verildi. Yanıt gelmedi.

Yerel yönetimlerden; Bazı zamanlarda gıda dağıtımı yapıldı.

Devlet Hastaneleri: Amatem; Yetişkinler ve uçucu madde dışındaki diğer maddelerin tedavisi için kurulan bu merkezde, çocuklarımız zaman zaman ücretsiz yatıp kısa dönemlerde tedaviye alındılar, ama bu tedavi çocuklarda pek fazla başarıya ulaşamadığı gibi farklı maddelerin de kullanımını, diğer kalan hastalardan da öğrenmeleri gibi sakıncalar doğurdu.

Diğer devlet hastaneleriyle girdiğimiz ilişkiler sonucunda, yardım isteğimiz kısmi olarak cevap verildi. Diğer tedaviler para karşılığı yapıldı.

Bu tablonun da gösterdiği gibi, gittikçe sokakta çoğalan çocuk sayısına, başvuru taleplerine dernek olarak karşılık verilemeyeceğinden ve deneyimlerimizden de hareketle, çoğalan sokak çocuğuna kolay ulaşılabilmesi için profesyonel kişiler ve projelerle çözüm bulmanın önemini kavradık ve vakıf olmaya karar verdik.

Sokak ve Ev deneyimimizden yola çıkarak Türkiye ve Dünya Sokak Çocuklarının bilgilerini de potamıza alarak TÜRKİYE SOKAK ÇOCUKLARI VAKFI'nı kurduk.

Sokağa gelme nedenleri, sokakta yaşama koşulları, psikolojik, fizyolojik ve eğitimsel destek vermek, toplumu bilinçlendirmek, aile eğitimi ve çocuklarla yüz yüze gelen tüm kurum ve kuruluşların eğitimi, hepsi birbirinden önemli başlıklar ve projelerdir. Bu başlıkların ayrı ayrı ele alınması olanaksızdır. Çünkü insan kaynakları, maddi olanaklar, eğitim politikaları, uluslararası sözleşmelerin yaşama geçirilmesi, profesyonel desteklerin yanlız amaca yönelik yapılması gibi, başlıkların da ayrıca denetimini gerektirmektedir. Olaya bu bakış açısı ile bakıldığında yapılması planlanan şey yine iyi niyet gösterilerinden öteye gidemez. Çocuklar için üretilen her slogan, projeler ve eylemler, politikalar, dinler, cinsler ve yetişkinlerüstü olmalı ve tek dil ve eylem biçimi seçilmesi gereklidir. Öncelikle, çocuklar için söz söyleyen ve proje üreten her kişi ve kurumun eğitimci eğitimine tabi tutulması gerekilidir. Bu eğitim bilimsel ve teorik olmaktan öte, pratiğe ve yaşatmaya dayalı olmalıdır. Bilimsel tanımlanan her şey pratik yaşamda, hele de çocuk için her an geçersiz olabilmektedir.

Vakfın hedefleri arasında, bu nedenle, eğitimin dinamik yapısı önceliklidir. Vakıf için sokak çocuğu kavramı iki ana başlıkta toplanmıştır.

1- Önleyici projeler,
2- Varolan durumun karşısında ne yapılmalıdır?

Önleyici Projeler :

Devletten ve hükümetten uluslararası sözleşmeler doğrultusunda hizmet talep etmek, kamuoyu oluşturmak ve bilgilendirmek. Çocukla yüzyüze gelen tüm kurum ve kuruluşlardaki kişilerle ortak çalışmalar yapmak. (Hastane personeli, polis, zabıta, yardım dernekleri, öğretmenler, pedagog ve psikologlar v.b.) Çocuklarımızın günü bitirmekten başka hedefi yoktur. Sokakta bir günü bitirirken, yukarıda belirtilen tüm kişi ve kurumlarla karşı karşıya Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Devletinin de kanunları ile yaşamaktadırlar. Biz bu nedenle, medyadan, polise, öğrenim kurumlarından, hastanelere kadar her kesin sokakta payı olduğuna inanmaktayız. İşbirliği de bu anlamda önemlidir. Varolan durum karşısında ise, çocukları hemen koruma altına almak çözüm değildir. Nereden ve nasıl sorularının yanıtları için bir sistem içinde hareket edilmelidir. Yaş grupları, cinsiyetleri, kaç yıldır sokakta oldukları ve uçucu madde kullandıkları, ne tip psikolojik ve bedensel tacize uğradıklarını, kendilerini bekleyen (organ nakli, fuhuş ve uyuşturucu sektörü gibi...) diğer tehlikelere yakınlıkları gibi konular gözönüne alınarak;

izleme noktaları ⇄ başvuru merkezleri ⇄ ayakta tedavi birimleri ⇄ gece barınakları ⇄ ilk adım evi ⇄ rehabilitasyon merkezleri ⇄ çocuk istasyonu ⇄ okul yurtları ve kendi evleri.

Bu şema vakfın çözüm önerileridir. Yalnızca öneride kalmayan bu şema hedeflerimizdir. Bu hedeflerden bir tane ilk adım evi oluşturulmuştur. En kısa zamanda sokak lokal çalışmalarımızı, başvuru merkezlerimizi açmaya koyulduk. Kısa vade hedeflerimiz arasında, ilk adım evleri ve rehabilitasyon merkezini oluşturmak var.

Önleyici çalışmalar ve varolan duruma çözüm şemalarının projelerini yazılı hale getirdik. Bizimle birlikte yol almak isteyen her işbirliği önerisini değerlendirmeye açığız.

Türkiye Sokak Çocukları Vakfı

TÜRKİYE KORUNMAYA MUHTAÇ ÇOCUKLAR VAKFI
RESMİ SENEDİ

Noter Senedi   : İst.6.Noterliği 20.08.1979-36727
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Değişiklik Tescili : ist.Asliye 7.Hukuk Mahkemesi 20.11.1987-1987/441 E.

BÖLÜM I
Kuruluş, Amaç, Vakfın Kurucuları, Çalışma Konuları ve Tasarruflar

Kuruluş:
Madde1: Türkiye Korunmaya Muhtaç Çocuklar Vakfı adında bir vakıf kurulmuştur. "Türkiye Korunmaya Muhtaç Çocuklar Vakfı" aşağıdaki maddelerde "Vakıf" olarak anılmıştır.

Vakfın merkezi İstanbul'dur.

Vakıf, Mütevelliler Kurulu kararı ve Vakıflar Genel Müdürlüğünün izni ile gerekli gördüğü yerlerde şubeler açar.

Amaç:
Madde 2: Vakfın ana amacı, korunmaya muhtaç çocukların bedenen, ruhen, ahlaken ve fikren olumlu gelişmeleri için maddi ve manevi destek sağlanmasına, güvenlik duygularının aşılanmasına, ileride toplum içinde yapıcı ve verimli kişilik kazanmalarına çalışmak, kurulacak çocuk köylerinde anne sevgisi ve aile anlayışı içinde kimsesiz çocukları barındırmak ve eğitmek; korunmaya muhtaç çocuk sorunlarının çözümlenmesinde devlete en geniş ölçüde yardımlarda bulunmaktır.

Bu amacın doğrultusunda, Vakıf özellikle suça itilme tehlikesine maruz veya suça itilmiş çocuklar için, yatılı yurt, tesis, rehabilitasyon merkezi ve üniteleri kurulması işini öncelikle ele alır.

Vakfın Kurucuları:
Madde 3: Vakfın gerçek ve tüzel kişilerden oluşan kurucularının ad ve soyadları aşağıda gösterilmiştir. Kurucu üye olabilmek için en az on bin lira öderler.

I - Tüzel Kişiler:
1- Atatürk Ağaçlı Bozhane ve Yakacık Yetiştirme Yurtlarını Koruma Derneği
2- Boğaziçi Lions Kulübü Derneği
3- Karaköy Lions Kulübü Derneği
4- Konbaş Ambalaj Sanayi Şirketi
5- Levent Soroptomist Kulübü Derneği

II - Gerçek Kişiler:
1- Ömer Aksu
2- M.Yalçın Alkan
3- Dr.Erdoğan Alkın
4- Raşide Aydın
5- Ali Aydoğ
6- Aydın Bolak
7- Hüseyin Başarır
8- Serdar Başarır
9- Haldun Başarır

33- Nevzat Gürelli
34- Mehmet Ali İkizer
35- İbrahim Kaymak
36- Alican Kermen
37- Adile Keskiner
38- Sevim Kırdar
39- Abdülkadir Süreyya Kıvılcım
40- Mahpeyker Koçgündüz
41- Süheyla Kunt

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10- Muzaffer Baysal
11- Nurdan Bilgin
12- Hüseyin Bilgin
13- Ferudun Birkandan
14- Lütfü Bornovalı
15- Erol Bozkurt
16- Rıdvan Cebiroğlu
17- Kenan Çelik
18- Necati Çokuslu
19- Yusuf Demizrahi
20- Varol Ziya Dereli
21- Güngör Dilgimen
22- Sabahattin Dumer
23- Dündar Erendağ
24- Bingöl Ertul
25- Hasan Eryüksel
26- Onur Eryüksel
27- Cengiz Gökhan
28- Hasan Erdem Gökmen
29- Ural Güngör
30- Hatice Nuran Gözaydın
31- Ali Rıza Gökalp
32- Enver Güreli

42- Şerife Zübeyde Mengüç
43- Gökhan Once
44- Nüzhet Özerdil
45- Emin Abdullah Özerol
46- Armağan Özgür
47- Erdost Pekcan
48- Saffet Haluk Pelit
49- Nephan Saran
50- Murat Salman
51- Bahattin Sarpel
52- Nuran Sayın
53- Berna Sirman
54- Münir Subarlas
55- Süha Şanlı
56- Mesut Şenel
57- Türkan Şoray
58- Taliğ Şuru
59- Necati Tandoğan
60- Onar Tosun
61- Mehmet Ataullah Turaç
62- Ayhan Tüköz
63- İhsan Ünver
64- Çetin Yıldırımakın

Çalışma Konuları:

Madde 4: Vakfın ana amacı doğrultusunda çalışma konuları aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

a) Vakıf,Kamuoyunca şimdilik layıkıyle bilinmeyen (korunmaya muhtaç,suça itilme tehlikesine maruz veya suça itilmiş çocuk) sorunlarını kamuoyuna duyurmaya,bunun için de resmi merciler, yazılı ve sözlü basın ve benzeri organlar ile işbirliği yaparak korunmaya muhtaç çocuksorunlarını en iyi şekillerde,konferanslar vermek,radyo ve televizyonda konuşmalar düzenlemek, açık oturumlar tertip etmek,broşürler yayınlamak yoluyla kamuoyuna mal etmeye çalışır.

b) Vakıf,korunmaya muhtaç çocukların yetiştirilecekleri koruma müesseselerinin nitelik ve nicelik bakımından,nasıl olmasının icap edeceği hususunda araştırma yapar ve bu suretle ortaya çıkacak olan koruma müessesesini bir rapor halinde yayınlar ve bunu ilgili bakanlıklara ve mercilere sunar.Vakıf,bu araştırmayı yaparken,Üniversitelerin konu ile ilgili öğretim üyelerinden ve korunmaya muhtaç çocuk sorunları hakkında tecrübe ve ihtisasları olan sair kimselerden ivazlı ve ivazsız olarak istifade edebilir.

c) İkinci maddenin ikinci fıkrasında öngörülen amacın doğrultusunda,Vakıf,gelirlerinin Genel Kurul tarafından uygun görülecek kısmı ile saptanacak bir program gereğince suça itilme tehlikesine maruz veya suça itilmiş ve korunmaya muhtaç çocuklar için:
aa)Devlet-Vakıf işbirliği ile,
bb)Doğrudan doğruya kendisi,tesisler (rehabilitasyon merkezleri ve üniteleri,yurt binaları ve benzeri müesseseler ile çocuk köyleri)kurar,icabında bunları devlete devreder. Bu tesislerin personelini devlet atayacağı için Vakıf bu tesislerin işletilmesinde,gerekli hallerde devlete maddi ve manevi yönden katkıda bulunur,devlete yardımcı olur. Vakıf ayrıca psiko-medical, eğitimsel, sosyal incelemeler yapar veya yaptırır ve bunları yayınlar. Bu çocuklar için,gerekli hallerde tıbbi tedavi sağlar.
Çocuklar topluma iade edildikten sonra kontrol sistemi ile denetlemeye ve takip etmeye çalışır.
Vakıf,bütün bu işleri yerine getirmek için:
Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı,

Adalet Bakanlığı,

Sağlık ve Sosyal Yardım Bakanlığı,

Maliye Bakanlığı,

İçişleri Bakanlığı,özellikle bu Bakanlığın Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü ve Çocuk Şubeleri,

Sosyal Hizmetler ve Çocuk Esirgeme Kurumu Genel Müdürlüğü,

Üniversitelerin ilgili fakülteleri,

Yerel İdareler

ile konularının işbirliğini gerektirdiği diğer ilgili tüm kuruluşlar ile uyumlu çalışma düzeni sağlar, işbirliği yapar ve yürütür.

ç) Vakıf,yetiştirme yurtlarından yetişen çalışkan,kabiliyetli çocuklardan yüksek tahsil yapmak için gerekli imtihanları kazanmış olanlara imkanları ölçüsünde burs verir veya bu gibi bursları veren eğitime yönelmiş vakıflar ile temasa geçerek burslar sağlar.

d) Vakıf,korunmaya muhtaç çocuklar hakkındaki yasalarda mevcut olup,değişik nedenler ile tatbik edilmeyen hükümlerin uygulanması yolunda ilgili merciler nezdinde gerekli işlemlerde bulunur.

e) Vakıf,gerektirdiği hallerde,korunmaya muhtaç çocuklar için yeni mevzuatın çıkarılmasını veya mevcut mevzuatda yeni hükümler getirecek maddeler ilavesi için ilgililer nezdinde girişimlerde bulunur.

f) Vakıf,icabında memleket içinde veya dışında benzeri teşebbüsler ile haberleşir,işbirliği yapar.

g) Vakıf,konuları ile ilgili uzman eleman yetiştirme imkanlarını araştırır.

h) Vakıf ikinci maddede belirtilen ana amacının gerçekleşmesine yardımcı olacak nitelikteki her türlü çalışmalarda bulunur.

Vakıf amacına ulaşmak için yapılacak tasarruflar:
Madde 5: Amacına ulaşabilmek için Vakıf,Kanuni sınırlanmalar müstesna,miktar ve değeri ne olursa olsun taşınır ve taşınmaz mallara veya her ikisinden müteşekkil her çeşit mal ve mülke ve mal varlığına bağış,vasiyet,sair ölüme bağlı tasarruflar yolu ile veya satınalma,kiralama suretiyle sahip olmaya ve kullanmaya,sahip olduklarn satmaya,devir ve ferağ etmeğe,gelirlerini ve karlarını tahsil ve sarfa,Vakfın mal varlığına dahil bir veya birden fazla gayrimenkulu veya gelirlerini bir veya birçok defa yatırımda kullanmaya,Vakfın amacına aykırı olmamak ve o amaca kısmen veya tamamen tahsis olunmak kaydıyle,vaki bağış,veya vasiyet veya çeşitli ölüme bağlı tasarruflar yoluyla temellük ettiği taşınır ve taşınmaz malları ve paraları idare ve tasarruflar yoluyla harcamaya,şirketlerin hisse senetlerini obligasyonlarını ve diğer hisse temsil eden veya mevcut veya vücut bulacak bir hak ve alacak ifade eden evrakını ve bilcümle hisse senetlerini ve bütün bunlara ait kuponları almaya,satmaya,gelirlerin tahsil ve sarfa,Vakfın amacına benzer olarak faaliyette bulunan vakıflarla işbirliği yapmaya,kurulmuş ve kurulacak vakıfların yönetimini kabul etmeye vakıfları devralmaya ve vakfa katılma kararlarını kabule,yabancı vakıflardan yardım almaya,bu yardımı temin için onlarla anlaşmalar akdetmeye;

Gayrimenkullerin intifa,sükna gibi mülkiyetin gayri ayni haklarını kabule ve bu hakları

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kullanmaya,mevcut veya vücut bulacak gelirleri ile kuracağı akdi münasebetler için taşınır ve taşınmaz malların rehni dahil her türlü teminatları almaya,muteber banka kafaletlerini kabule,Vakıf gayelerini gerçekleştirmek amacıyla gereğinde ödünç almaya,taşınır ve taşınmaz mallar rehin göstermeye vesair teminat iradesine,

Vakfın amaçlarından birinin veya tamamının gerçekleştirilmesi için faydalı ve lüzumlu görülen bilcümle teşebbüs,tararruf,temellük ve sözleşmeleri ile işlemlerini icraya,Medeni Kanunun 46.maddesinde bildirildiği üzere izinli ve yetkilidir.

BÖLÜM II
Yönetim Organları

Organlar:
Madde 6: Vakfın yönetim organları şunlardır:
a) Kurucular Genel Kurulu,
b) Mütevelliler Kurulu,
c) Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu,
d) Denetleme Kurulu.

Kurucular Genel Kurulu:
Madde 7: Vakfın kurucusu olarak bu resmi senet altında imzaları bulunan gerçek kişiler ile tüzel kişilerin yetki verecekleri ikiden çok olmayacak temsilcileri ve kurucu üye yerine seçilen gerçek ve tüzel kişiler Vakfın Kurucular Genel Kurulunu oluştururlar.

Gerçek kişi olan kurucu üyeler ölümlerinde ya da görev yapmaya engel durumlarının ortaya çıkmasında,yerlerini almasını istedikleri iki kişinin adını yazılı ve gizli olarak Mütevelliler Kuruluna verirler. Bu iki kişiden hangisinin kurucu üye olacağına Kurucular Genel Kurulu karar verir. Kurucular Genel Kurulu üye sayısının 2/3 oranında ki çoğunluk kararı ile aday olarak gösterilen kişiler dışından bir kişiyi kurucu üye olarak seçebilir.

Kurucular Genel Kurulu her yıl Mayıs ve Ekim aylarında olağan olarak Başkanın çağrısı ve düzenlediği gündem üzerine toplanır ve katılan Kurucu Üyelerde çalışmalarına başlar. İlk toplantıda bir Başkan, bir Başkan yardımcısı ve bir sekreter seçilir. Kararlar salt çoğunlukla alınır. Kurucular Genel Kurulunun görev ve yetkileri aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

a) Vakfın amaç ve çalışma konuları doğrultusunda hizmetleri yoğunlaştıracak düşünce, yöntem ve kurallar üzerinde çalışmalar yaparak, Mütevelliler Kurulu ile Vakıf Yönetim Kuruluna önerilerde bulunmak,

b) Hizmet projelerinin yapılabilirliklerini incelemek ve uygulanmasına ilişkin görüşler belirtmek,

c) Mütevelliler Kurulu ile Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun istek ve dilekleri hakkında görüş ve kanılarını bildirmek,

ç) Vakıf Resmi Senedinde değişiklik tasarılarını incelemek, dilek ve önerilerini belirtmek.

Mütevelliler Kurulu:
Madde 8: Kurucular Genel Kurulu tarafından oluşturulmuş otuzbeş üye ile doğal üye olarak Kurucular Genel Kurulu üyeleri Vakıf Mütevelliler Kurulunu oluştururlar.

Mütevelliler Kurulunun otuzbeş üyesinden herhangi birisinin iş görmez duruma gelmeleri ya da istekleri ile ayrılmaları ya da iki yıl içinde düzenlenen toplantıların yarısından bir fazlasına

katılmamaları halinde yerlerine Mütevelliler Kurulunun 2/3 oranındaki çoğunluk kararı ile seçim yapılır.

Özürleri nedeni ile toplantıya katılmayacak Mütevelliler ile Kurucular,Kurulda üye bulunan diger bir Mütevelli ya da Kurucu Üye aracılığı ile kendilerini temsil ettirebilirler. Bir Mütevelli ya da Kurucu, ikiden çok Mütevelli ya da Kurucuyu temsil edemez.

Mütevelliler Kurulunun Toplantı İlkeleri:
Madde 9: Mütevelliler Kurulu, Başkanının çağrısı ve düzenleyeceği gündem üzerine her yıl Şubat ve Kasım aylarında olağan olarak toplanır. Gerektiğinde Olağanüstü toplantı yapılabilir.

Mütevelliler Kurulunun toplantı yeter sayısı ondokuz olup karar yeter sayısı katılanların salt çoğunluğudur.

Mütevelliler Kurulunun Görev ve Yetkileri:
Madde 10: Mütevelliler Kurulunun görev ve yetkileri aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

a) Vakfın amaç ve çalışma konuları ile yasaların öngördüğü hükümler doğrultusunda gereken kararları almak,

b) Şubat ayı olağan toplantısında, geçen dönem Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu çalışma raporu ile Denetleme Kurulu denetim raporunu görüşmek, bilanço ve gelir gider çizelgelerini onaylamak, Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu üyelerini aklamak,

c) Kasım ayı olağan toplantısında, gelecek çalışma dönemi Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu çalışma raporunu görüşmek, bütçe ve plasman planını onaylamak, üç yıl süre ile geçerli olmak üzere Mütevelliler Kurulu Başkanı ile Yönetim Kurulu asıl ve yedek üyelerini seçmek,

ç) Vakıf Resmi Senedi değişiklik önerilerini karara bağlamak,

d) Vakfa ilişkin yönetmelikleri kabul etmek,

e) Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun istek ve önerileri hakkında karar vermek,

f) Vakıf Kurucular Genel Kurulu istek ve önerileri hakkında karar vermek,

g) Vakıf Denetleme Kurulu asıl ve yedek üyelerini seçmek,

h) Vakıf Resmi Senedinde yer alan görev ve yetkileri kullanmak.

Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu:
Madde 11: Vakfın yönetimi ve temsili ile yetkili ve sorumlu bulunan Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu, Mütevelliler Kurulu Başkanı ile Mütevelliler Kurulunda seçilen sekiz asıl ve beş yedek üyeden oluşur.

Mütevelliler Kurulu Başkanı Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu Başkanı olup ilk toplantıda, üyeler arasından, iki Başkan yardımcısı, bir Genel Sekreter, bir Genel Sayman, bir Halkla İlişkiler ve Yayın Sözcüsü, bir Bilimsel Çalışmalar Sözcüsü, bir Çocuk Köyleri Sözcüsü ve bir Sosyal Çalışmalar Sözcüsü seçilir.

Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu en az ayda bir kez toplanır. Toplantı yeter sayısı beş olup karar yeter sayısı katılanların salt çoğunluğudur. Özürsüz olarak üst üste üç toplantıya katılmayan ya da özürlü dahi olsa bir çalışma döneminde düzenlenen toplantıların yarısına katılmayan üyeler ayrılmış sayılırlar ve yerlerine yedek üyeler çağrılır.

Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun Görev ve Yetkileri:

Madde 12: Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun görev ve yetkileri aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

a) Vakıf Resmi Senedinin 5.maddesinde gösterilen işlemleri yapmak,

b) Vakıf bütçesi, plasman planı ve çalışma dönemi çalışma programı ile bilanço,gelir gider çizelgesi ve çalışma dönemi raporunu hazırlamak,

c) Vakıf Resmi Senedi değişiklik tasarısı ile Vakıf Yönetmeliklerini hazırlayıp Mütevelliler Kurulunun onayına sunmak,

ç) Vakıf personelini atamak ve gereğinde görevinden uzaklaştırmak,

d) Vakıf amaç ve çalışma konuları doğrultusunda çalışmalar yapmak,uygulamak kural ve yöntemlerini belirlemek, yapılabilirlik raporlarını hazırlamak, gereğinde Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu adına yürütme işlemlerini yerine getirmek üzere Mütevelliler Kurulu üyeleri arasından ya da dışarıdan seçilecek üyelerden oluşan komite ya da komisyonlar oluşturmak, çalışmalarını izlemek ve bu komite ya da komisyonların istek ve önerileri hakkında karar vermek,

e) Vakıf Kurucular Genel Kurulu ile Denetleme Kurulu istek ve önerilerini karara bağlamak,

f) Mütevelliler Kurulu kararlarını uygulamak,

g) Vakıf Resmi Senedi ile öngörülen görev ve yetkilerini kullanmak.

BÖLÜM III
Mali Hükümler

Vakıf Denetleme Kurulu:
Madde 13: Mütevelliler Kurulu, kendi üyeleri arasından veya hariçten seçeceği üç asıl ve üç yedek üyeden oluşan Denetleme Kurulu ile Vakfın hesap ve işlemlerini denetletir.

Denetim raporu Vakfın hesap yılı itibariyle düzenlenir.

Ücretsiz Çalışma:
Madde 14: Kurucular Genel Kurul ve Mütevelliler Kurulu ile Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu ve Denetleme Kurulu üyeleri, Vakıf çalışmaları karşılığı hiç bir isimle ücret ya da yarar sağlayamazlar.

Vakfın Varlığı:
Madde 15: Vakıf kurucularının kuruluş ile birlikte Vakfa terk ve tahsis ettikleri 450.000.- (Dörtyüzellibin)TL.sı ile kuruluşunu takiben Vakfın ivazlı veya ivazsız veya şartlı ve/veya şartsız iktisap edeceği menkul ve gayrimenkuller Vakfın mal varlığını teşkil eder.

Vakfın mal varlığı hiç bir biçimde amaç dışı konulara ayrılamaz ve harcanamaz.

Mali Uygulaması:
Madde 16: Vakfın mali uygulamaları ile ilgili ilkeler aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

a) Vakfın hiç bir biçimde kar amacı olmayıp Vakıf Yönetimi; bir yıl içinde elde ettiği brüt gelirlerin %5'ini yönetim ve idame giderleri ile yedek akçeye, %15'ini Vakıf mal varlığını arttıracak yatırımlara, kalanı (%80) ise Vakıf amaçlarına harcamaya ve özgülemeye zorunludur.

b) Yönetim ve idame giderleri ile yedek akçeye ya da Vakıf mal varlığını arttıracak yatırımlar için ayrılmış fonların tümü ya da bir bölümü Vakıf amaçlarına yönelik hizmetlere özgülenecektir.

c) Vakıf amaçlarına özgülenen fonlar, hiç bir biçimde başka bir amaçla kullanılamaz. Yönetim ve idame giderlerine ayrılan fonlar, yedek akçe ya da Vakıf malvarlığını arttıracak yatırımlar içinde kullanılabilir.

ç) Vakfın,amaçlarına özgülediği gelirleri yıl içinde harcaması zorunludur. Ancak bu gelirlerin tümü ya da bir bölümü Maliye ve Gümrük Bakanlığınca onaylanmış belli projelerin gerçekleştirilmesi için belli bir fonda tutulabilir.

d) Kurulacak eğitim tesislerinde en az %10 kapasite yetenekli ancak maddi olanaklardan yoksun öğrencilere, sağlık tesislerinde ise hizmetlerin ve yatak kapasitesinin en az %10'u maddi olanağı bulunmayan hastalara özgülenir.

e) Vakıf bilanço esasına göre gerekli defterleri tutar ve yıllık bütçeleri ile değişiklikleri, uygulamadan önce Maliye ve Gümrük Bakanlığı'nın onayına sunulur. Onaylanan bütçe aynen uygulanır.

f) Vakfın çalışma dönemi 01 Ocak'ta başlar ve 31 Aralık'ta sona erer.

Bağışlar:
Madde 17: Vakıf, amaca uyan ve en az %80'i 903 sayılı Kanunun 4.maddesi gereğince genel,özel ve katma bütçeli idareler bütçeleri içinde yer alan hizmetleri öngören bağışları kabul edebilir. Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu uygun görmediği bağışları kabul etmeme ve uygun görülen bağışları Vakfın yararına en uygun bir biçimde kabul ve uygulamaya yetkilidir.

Yedek Akçe:
Madde 18: Bir yıllık dönem içinde,Vakıf fonlarının plasmanından elde edilen net gelir Vakıf yedek akçesinin hesabına esas olur.

Bu gelirden yönetim giderleri ile 903 sayılı Kanun gereğince saptanacak olan teftiş ve denetleme giderlerine katılma payı düşülerek kalan miktardan %10'u yedek akçe olarak ayrılır.

Yıllık Vakıf gelirleri, yönetim giderlerini karşılamayacak durumda olursa, gereken harcama Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu kararıyla yedek akçe hesabından yapılabilir.

Vakfın resmen kuruluşundan sonraki onuncu yıl olağan Genel Kurulunda toplanan yedek akçenin yeterli olup olmadığı hususu görüşülür. Yedek akçenin yeterli olduğuna karar verilirse yedek akçe ayrılması durdurulur. Yedek akçenin yeterli olmadığına karar verilmesi halinde yedek akçe ayrılmaya devam edilir. Ondan sonra her beş yılda bu konu Genel Kurulca tekrar ele alınır.

Plasman Programı:
Madde 19: Vakfın varlığına ek olarak bağışlanan paralar ile yıllık net gelirden ayrılan yedek akçeler, gelecekteki projeler için toplanan bağışlar ile uzun süre harcanamayacağı öngörülen gelir fazlaları, Vakfa en emin ve yüksek geliri sağlayacak biçimde veya aşağıdaki sıralamaya göre:

a) Devlet tahvillerine,
b) Şirketlerin hisse senedi ve tahvillerine,
c) Taşınmaz mallara.

Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun kararına göre yatırılır. Yapılacak plasmanda derhal paraya çevrilebilme ilkesi göz önünde tutulur.

Vakıf Mallarında Değişiklik:
Madde 20: Vakıf amacının gerçekleştirilmesine ayrılmış olup, vakfetme,bağışlama ve satınalma

yolları ile kazanılmış bulunan taşınmaz mallar ekonomik değerini ve rantabilitesini büyük ölçüde ve devamlı olarak yitirme durumuna düşerlerse, Kurucular Genel Kurulu kararı ile ve 903 sayılı Kanundaki yöntem ve ilkeler dahilinde satılabilir.

Yukarıda birinci fıkra kapsamına girmeyen taşınmaz mallar ile hisse senetleri ve tahviller Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun kararı ile paraya çevrilebilir. Sağlanan paralar 9.maddeye uygun olarak değerlendirilir.

Resmi Senet Değişikliği:

Madde 21: Vakıf Resmi Senedi, Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun önerisi üzerine, Mütevelliler Kurulu üyelerinin en az yirmiyedisinin hazır bulunduğu toplantıda 2/3 oranında ki çoğunluk kararı ile değiştirilebilir.

İlk toplantıda yeterli sayı sağlanamadığı taktirde ikinci toplantıda Mütevelliler Kurulu üyelerinin en az yirmiikisinin hazır olması durumunda salt çoğunluk kararı ile değiştirilebilir.

Resmi Senet değişikliği tasarısının gerekçesi ile birlikte, toplantıdan en az onbeş gün önce Mütevelliler Kurulu üyelerine postayla iadeli taahhütlü olarak gönderilmesi şart olup aksi halde değişiklik görüşmelerine başlanamaz.

BÖLÜM IV
Çeşitli Hükümler

Fesih:

Madde 22: Vakıf, ancak Vakfın malvarlığının geliri ile Vakıf amaçlarının gerçekleştirilmesinin olanaksız bir hale gelmesi nedeniyle feshedilebilir. Bu durumda Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu, feshe gitmeden önce, Vakfın kalan aktif değerine ve bunun gelir yeteneğine göre, bir bölüm harcama yerlerini azaltmak ya da büsbütün çıkarmak suretiyle gerekli değişikliklerin yapılmasını sağlamaya çalışır.

Vakfın gelirlerinin amaç veya amçlarını gerçekleştirmeye yetmeyeceğine ve Vakfın feshine dair karar Kurucular Genel Kurulunun 3/4 çoğunluk oyu ile alınabilir. Vakfın feshi sonunda kalan malvarlığı Vakıf amaçlarına uygun hizmetlerde kullanılmak üzere Devlet'e verilir.

Fesih Kurulu:

Madde 23: Vakıf Kurucular Genel Kurulu tarafından feshedildiği ya da kanuni sebeplere dayanılarak Mahkemece Vakfın feshine karar verildiği takdirde o tarihteki Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu Fesih Kurulu adıyla tasfiyenin sonuna kadar görev yapar.

Ancak Mahkemenin fesih kararında Vakıf Yönetim Kurulunun tasfiye görevini yapması sakıncalı görülürse, Tasfiye Kurulu Mahkemece teşkil edilir.

Geçici Mütevelliler Kurulu:

Geçici Madde 1: Kuruluştaki Mütevelliler Kurulu aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

1- Enver Güreli (Başkan)
2- Aydın Bolak (Başkan Vekili)
3- Lütfü Bornovalı (Başkan Vekili)
4- Hüseyin Bilgin
5- Sabahattin Dumer
6- Hasan Eryüksel
7- Hüseyin Başarır
8- Türkan Şoray

19- Adile Keskiner
20- Gökhan Önce
21- Süheyla Kunt
22- Prof.Nephan Sakan
23- Av.Çetin Yıldırımakın
24- Nurdan Bilgin
25- Berna Sirman
26- Av.Dündar Erendağ

E8

9- Nuran Sayın
10- Prof.Dr.Rıdvan Cebiroğlu
11- Prof.Nevzat Güreli
12- Nuran Gözaydın
13- Mahpeyker Koçgündüz
14- Av.Mehmet Ali İkizer
15- Ömer Aksu
16- Armağan Özgür
17- Av.Mehmet Ataullah Turaç
18- Dr.Cengiz Gökhan

27- Av.Emin Abdullah Özerol
28- Raşide Aydın
29- İhsan Ünver
30- Onur Tosun
31- Ali Rıza Gökalp
32- Necati Tandoğan
33- Süha Şamlı
34- Sevim Kırdar
35- Bingöl Ertul

Geçici Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu:
Geçici Madde 2: Kuruluştaki Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

1- Enver Güreli (Başkan)
2- Aydın Bolak (Başkan Vekili)
3- Hüseyin Bilgin (Başkan Vekili)
4- Gökhan Önce (Genel Sekreter)
5- Hüseyin Başarır (Muhasip Üye)
6- Hasan Eryüksel (Üye)
7- Nuray Gözaydın (Üye)

Geçici Denetleme Kurulu:
Geçici Madde 3: Kuruluştaki Denetleme Kurulu aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

1- Av.Dündar Erendağ
2- Armağan Özgür
3- Berna Sirman

"What the orphaned and abandoned child
 needs first and foremost is a family
 - a family in which he or she can
 develop normally"

                           Hermann Gmeiner (1919-1986)
                     Founder of SOS Children's Villages

 WHAT ARE SOS CHILDREN'S VILLAGES?

iternational SOS Association was founded in 1949. Today this
k consists of more than 1150 projects in more than 119
ies, making the SOS Children's Villages Association (or SOS
dorf International, as it is know in some countries) the
s largest private child care organisation.

:pose of SOS Children's Villages is to provide a permanent
 environment for children who have lost their parents or
arents are unable to suitably care for them. 8 to 10
n - boys and girls of various ages who grow up like brothers
ters - are cared for in small family-type groups, the SOS
s.

; family lives in a house of its own. The head of the family
;OS mother. She provides the children entrusted to her care
 affection and sense of security they need to ensure their
velopment.

houses are grouped together as an SOS Children's Village
rms a community and provides an extended family for all
. The SOS Children's Village is supervised by a Village
o advises the mothers and, together with other male
, represents the father figure.

ren grow up in conditions very similar to those in a
mily. They attend public schools and are encouraged to
 with the surrounding community, while educational therapy
:s the children's upbringing. Children are accepted by SOS
; Villages - irrespective of race, nationality or creed -
icy to the age of eight years, solely according to their
care. They stay until they are able to begin independent
r teenagers may be placed in Youth Houses which support
king their first step to independence. Wherever
e, the SOS Children's Villages maintain contact with the
amily from which the child comes.

      · COMMITMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

   ldren's Villages Association of South Africa was formed
   h the construction of the first SOS Children's Village.
   eds of children are provided with a permanent family
    in SOS Children's Villages in Ennerdale, Mamelodi,
   :th, Cape Town and Pietermaritzburg.

    each SOS Children's Village is a SOS Kindergarten,
    n to the surrounding communities and offers educational
    o young pre-school students. SOS Youth Houses provide
    ilities for the transition from life in the SOS
    illages to independent life.

    idance of a Youth Leader who lives with them, young
    : their own household while they learn how to share

ources and take responsibility for their actions.

ctical skills training programmes, such as computer usage and
ing, offered by the SOS Training Centre in Mamelodi are aimed at
isting youths from SOS Children's Villages and the community in
ning meaningful employment. Through the Educare Community
che" Programme SOS shares its experience in educating children
developing communities by training child-care workers and
isting in developing activities and programmes for children.

THE ORGANISATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

SOS Children's Villages Association of South Africa is a
vate, charitable social welfare organisation. It is politically
denominationally independent, and is an affiliated member of
Kinderdorf International, based in Innsbruck, Austria.

Finances

Children's Villages are dependent on financial support of
ividual and corporate supporters. Individual donors generally
ate between R5 and R200 per month to support a broad range of
grammes. Corporate sponsors support the direct costs of
rating one or more SOS Family Houses and make contributions for
cational programmes which, in some cases, are tax deductible.

ds received are administered by the SOS Children's Village
ociation of South Africa. Every effort is made to keep
inistration cost to an absolute minimum.

How YOU can help

y children need many friends. Friends to share the
ponsibility for their well-being now and in the future. Rather
n leaving destitute children to their own devices and a life of
elessness and poverty, your contribution will make it possible
us to train and educate these children in proper caring family
ironments. You can assist us to teach them to help themselves.
re are many ways of furthering aims of the local SOS
ociation.

instance:
 * Monthly contributions as a friend of SOS
 * Sponsorship of a specific project
 * Donations, large or small
 * Bequest, legacies

friends of SOS receive regular information on the progress made
South Africa.

ional Office:
    PO Box 22
    RANDBURG
    2125
    REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

    Tel +27 (0)11 792-9324/5/6
    Fax +27 (0)11 792-9329

Guiding Principles

idea - and the creation of the first SOS Children's Village - grew out of Hermann Gmeiner's steadfast conviction that help can only be effective when a child grows up within a family and a home environment. "We have realised that the present generation of children must be given a chance to grow up happily if they are to secure a worthwhile future for us all."

pillars of the SOS Children's Village child-welfare concept are the four principles advanced by Hermann Gmeiner, founder of SOS Children's Villages.

MOTHER

Every abandoned child is given a mother as a permanent contact person. An SOS Children's Village Mother knows the same cares, duties and joys as every other mother. She is the head of the family and runs her own household. The SOS Children's Village Mother gives the children trusted to her love, security and trust - things every child needs for a healthy development.
Photo: SOS Children's Village Imzouren, Morocco; A. Gabriel

OTHERS AND SISTERS

An SOS Children's Village family consists of the SOS Children's Village Mother and about six to eight children. Natural siblings stay together. Boys and girls of various ages grow up together.
Photo: SOS Children's Village Vinh, Vietnam; R. Pichler

HOUSE

Every SOS Children's Village Family has its own house, which is a new, permanent home for every child. The SOS Children's Village Houses are designed for a large family with many children.
Photo1: SOS Children's Village family in Ethiopia; SOS archive;

VILLAGE

An SOS Children's Village generally consists of ten to fifteen family houses. SOS Children's Villages are usually located in attractive surroundings, near a large town or city. The SOS Children's Village is meant to build a bridge to the surrounding world, with the families as an integral part of the local community.
Photo: SOS Children's Village Lekenik, Croatia; SOS archive

Profile on SOS Children's Villages

1949 <u>*Hermann Gmeiner*</u> founds the Austrian SOS Children's Village Association and builds the first <u>SOS Children's Village</u> in Imst, Tyrol.

1955 The first SOS Youth House is built in Innsbruck. The SOS-Kinderdorf e.V. is founded in Munich, Germany.

1956 Foundation of the French SOS Children's Villages Association "Association Villages d'enfants s o s de France".

1959 There are over 10 SOS Children's Villages in Europe. SOS Children's Villages Associations are founded in Belgium, Finland and Luxembourg.

1960 SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL is founded as the umbrella organisation for all SOS Children's Villages Associations.

1963 SOS Children's Village work begins in developing countries. First projects in South Korea and Latin America. The Hermann-Gmeiner-Fonds Deutschland e.V. is founded in Munich to promote the work throughout the world. Further SOS Children's Villages Associations are created in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Holland, Switzerland and USA with the objective of promoting SOS Children's Village work in developing countries.

1968 SOS Promoting Association founded in the UK.

1969 Twenty years after the foundation of the first SOS Children's Village there are 70 SOS Children's Villages in 35 countries. The SOS Children's Villages Association in Canada is established.

1974 Twenty-fifth anniversary of SOS Children's Villages over 100 SOS Facilities in over 50 countries. New projects in Ethiopia, Egypt and Pakistan.

1979 As a contribution to the International Year of the Child, 30 new SOS Children's Villages and the first SOS Hermann Gmeiner Hospital in Hohenau/Paraguay are opened. There are 143 SOS Children's Villages in 60 countries. Over four million people throughout the world support the work of these SOS Children's Villages.

1982 Inauguration of the Hermann Gmeiner Academy in Innsbruck - a training and educational centre for SOS Children's Village staff from all over the world.

1984 Thirty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the first SOS Children's Village.
SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL is registered on the Roster for Consultative Status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council.

1986 On 26 April Hermann Gmeiner dies in Innsbruck, Austria.

1987 Hermann Gmeiner's birthday, 23rd June, is declared "International SOS Day" to be celebrated in all SOS Children's Villages and associated SOS Facilities. Helmut Kutin, President of the umbrella organisation SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL, inaugurates the first two SOS Children's

Villages in China and one in Amman, Jordan.

1989 The first SOS Children's Villages are built in the USA and the former USSR.

1993 The 15th ordinary General Assembly is held in Innsbruck. The new statutes and organisational structure are approved.

1994 SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL participates in the International Year of the Family. More than 1,200 children are given a new home in SOS Children's Villages; 8,500 neighbourhood families benefit from SOS aid programmes.

1995 The first SOS Children's Villages in Albania and the Baltic States take up their function.

SOS Facilities

OS Children's Villages care for the children entrusted to them until they are independent and able to make their own way in life.

Attached to the SOS Children's Villages are a number of associated SOS Facilities, which have one main objective; to better integrate the SOS Children's Village into its neighbourhood. They serve to prepare OS Children and adolescents to earn their own living as adults but are also open to neighbourhood hildren and young people.

SOS YOUTH FACILITIES

After their compulsory schooling and during their vocational training or further studies, adolescents are supported by youth houses or youth communities. These facilities are intended to help the young people adjust from SOS Children's Village family life to one of self-sufficiency.
hoto: SOS Youth House La Paz, Bolivia; A. Gabriel

heir reference person is the guidance counsellor. He or she is assigned to the particular facility and ounsels and supports the adolescents during this part of their lives.

he young people themselves are responsible for their own housekeeping, financial management and aily chores.

SOS HERMANN GMEINER SCHOOLS, SOS HERMANN GMEINER SOCIAL CENTRES and SOS VOCATIONAL TRAINING CENTRES

n non-European countries, SOS Children's Villages are providing more and more vocational training as ell as SOS Hermann Gmeiner Social Centres.

OS Children's Villages give the local community the opportunity of vocational training, life support and rientation at these facilities. The SOS educational centres promote the integration of SOS Children in heir natural surroundings, while making an effective contribution toward raising the educational level of ocially underprivileged groups.

In countries with scarce educational opportunities, SOS Children's Villages operate their own SOS Kindergartens and SOS Hermann Gmeiner Schools.
hese facilities are available to SOS Children as well as children nd adolescents from the surrounding community.

Photo: SOS Kindergarten, Maseru, Lesotho; SOS archive
Photo: SOS Hermann Gmeiner School in Sierra Leone; W. Zoller

Just as in educational matters, SOS KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL, as a humanitarian organisation, is also active in social and technical fields to help people to become self-sufficient. SOS Children's Villages operate medical centres or clinics and mother-and-child centres.
oto: SOS Hermann Gmeiner Medical Centre Mogadishu, Somalia; C. Sattlberger

Further, SOS Children's Villages operate counselling services and social centres.
Photo: SOS Hermann Gmeiner Social Centre Cochabamba, Bolivia; SOS archive.

SOS Children's Villages have also proven themselves as a reliable, efficient and effective emergency relief agency in disaster and conflict areas in various parts of the world. SOS Children's Villages relief work is successful because it can use its own existing infrastructure.
oto: SOS Emergency Relief Programme Ngarama, Rwanda; A. Gabriel

At SOS Vocational Training Centres (carpentry, metalworking, printing, farming etc.), young people from SOS Children's Villages and their surroundings can acquire basic and advanced trades that are sought after on the national market.
oto: SOS Vocational Training Centre Cochabamba, Bolivia; SOS archive

F7

The Founder of the SOS Children's Villages and His Successor

Hermann Gmeiner was born in 1919 in the Province of Vorarlberg in Austria. He came from a large farming family, and suffered the loss of his own mother himself at a very young age. After World War II he began his medical studies in Innsbruck where he was also engaged in youth work. Here, confronted with the plight of so many war orphans and homeless children, became determined to find a way of helping children in need. He came to the conclusion that help can ly be effective when a child grows up within a family and a home.

he idea - and the creation of the first SOS Children's Village - grew out of this steadfast conviction of ermann Gmeiner's. Since then, the SOS Children's Village idea and concept have been acclaimed all er the world. "Millions of friends all over the world have helped me to found the hundreds of SOS hildren's Villages. This is a sensational wave of goodwill. We have realized that the present generation children must be given a chance to grow up happily if they are to secure a worthwhile future for us l."

Appointed as his successor by Hermann Gmeiner, **Helmut Kutin** was elected President of SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL in 1984. Helmut Kutin was born in Bolzano (South Tyrol, Italy) in 1941. After having lost his mother and sister, and, in consequence, the mily being separated, he came to the first SOS Children's Village in Imst in 1953. In 1967 he started his reer with SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL where, due to his extraordinary achievements, he w himself appointed Representative for Asia in 1971. In the course of almost ten years, 50 SOS hildren's Villages and a further 50 SOSFacilities were developed. Helmut Kutin has been presented with veral awards in different countries of the world. On the occasion of the 15th Ordinary General ssembly of SOS-KINDERDORF INTERNATIONAL in 1993, Helmut Kutin was re-elected as resident.

F8

BOLLUCA ÇOCUKKÖYÜ İŞLETME DÜZENI

ÇOCUKLAR

1. Çocuklar köyün aktif bir parçası olmalı, sadece hizmet götürülen bireyler olarak yaşamamalıdırlar. Çocukköyünün katkıda bulunmak zorunda oldukları yuvaları olarak kabul etmeli ve yaşlarına uygun sorumluluklar alarak yerine getirmelidirler.

2. Çocuklara günlük ve haftalık esasına göre sorumluluklar verilmelidir. Ev işlerine yardımcı olma, bahçe işleri, ağaç sulamak, küçük kardeşlerin bakımı v.b. gibi...

3. Çocuklar yaşadıkları alanları temiz, tertipli ve düzenli tutmalıdır. Yataklarından, kitaplarından, elbise düzenlerinden, kişisel temizliklerinden, anneleri ve kardeşleri ile iyi ilişkiler kurmaktan sorumludurlar.

4. Çocuklar öz güvenleri artırılarak, yaşadıkları topluma saygı duyacak, kendine yeterli, sorumluluk sahibi yetişkinler olmayı öğrenmelidir.

ANNELER

1. Anneler profesyonel eğitimci yada sosyal hizmet uzmanı değildir. Kelimenin tam anlamı ile bir annedir.

2. Anne işe başladığında 25-40 yaşlarında olmalıdır.

3. Evli olmamalı ve bakıma muhtaç çocuğu olmamalıdır.

4. Anne doğrudan çocukların gelişimi ve bakımından sorumludur. Çocukların en temel ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması dışında, iyi bir eğitim seviyesine ulaşmalarına, kişiliklerinin olumlu gelişimine ve iç değerlerinin artmasına çalışmalıdır.

5. Anne günlük ev işlerinin idaresinde tam yetkili ve sorumludur. Aile evi onun yuvasıdır. Anne doğrudan Köy İdaresine sorumludur.

6. Annelerin eğitimi ve gelişmesi çocukların doğru gelişiminde anahtardır. Anneler çocukların ev ödevlerine yardımcı olabilecek kapasitede olmalı ve dışarıdan asgari müdahale ile bir aile evini geçindirme ve yönetme kaabiliyeti olmalıdır.

7. Çocukköyü anneleri periodik olarak çocuk bakımı, eğitimi, ev ekonomisi v.b. konularda uzmanlar tarafından eğitilmelidir. Böylece istenen standartların devamlılığı sağlandığı gibi çocuk eğitimi konusunda yeni metodların da aktarımı sağlanmış olur.

8. Anneler evlerinin fiziki durumu veya çocukların temizliği ve giyimi ile değil, çocuklarının akademik performansını ve genel davranışlarını ne şekilde etkiledikleri ile değerlendirilir

TEYZELER/ STAJYER ANNELER

1. Teyzeler ileride anne olmaya aday kişilerdir. Teyze olarak geçirdikleri süre deneyim kazanacakları bir stajerlik süresidir.

2. Kural olarak teyzelerin anne olabilmesi için en az üçyıl stajyer anne/ teyze olarak çalışmış olmaları gerekmektedir. Bu süre içinde anneliğe uygunluğuna karar verilebilir.

3. Stajyer anneler de ev yönetimi konusunda eğitilmeli ve çocukların büyütülmesinde aktif rol oynamalıdırlar.

4. Stajyer annenin seçimi yardımcı olacağı anne ile beraber yapılmalı, anneye ailesinin gelişimi açısından öneriler yapma fırsatı verilmelidir.

UKLARIN KÖYE KABULÜ

cukköyü'ne kabul edilecek çocuklar 2828 sayılı yasa uyarınca haklarında korunma kararı
uş çocuklardır.

çocuklar köye kabul edildiklerinde 0 ila 8 yaş arasında olmalıdır. Öz kardeşlerin
maması için 12 yaşına kadar olanlar kabul edilebilirler.

cukköyü'ne kabul edilecek çocuklarda sürekli bir bakıma ihtiyacı olmak ve aile düzeni
yetiştirilmeye uygun olmak koşulu aranacaktır.

ıksel ve zihinsel özürlü olan çocuklar, Çocukköyü özel bakım için donanımlı
dığından ve bu türlü çocuklar kurumsal nitelikte rehabilitasyon bakımına ihtiyaç
caklarından Çocukköyüne kabul edilmezler.

cukların bir çocukköyünden diğerine veya bir aile evinden diğerine nakledilmeleri
ade edilmez. Kardeşler aynı evde kalırlar.

çocuk için bir kabul formu doldurulmalıdır. Çocuğun köye kabulünden önce Köy
rü ve Koordinatörlükçe kabulleri tasvip edilmelidir.

Aile Evinde annenin kapasitesine göre değişmekle beraber 5'den az 10'dan çok çocuk
malıdır.

ye kabul edildikten sonra çocuk tam bir tıbbı muayeneden geçer ve sağlık raporu
sına konur.

cuğun Çocukköyü Ailesi sonsuza dek onun ailesi addedilir. Dolayısıyla çocukların
ıtik olarak köyden alındıkları bir safha yoktur. Gençlik evine geçecek her çocuğun
mu şahsi olarak değerlendirilir.

ILMA İŞLEMLERİ

cuklar ergenlik çağına girdikten sonra Köy İdaresi, Sosyal Hizmet Uzmanı, Psikolog ve
in oluşturacakları bir komitenin kararıyla Kız ve Erkek ayrı olmak üzere Gençlik
ine giderler.

çler evlerinden Gençlik Evlerine taşınırken tüm şahsi eşyalarını beraberinde götürürler.
ytları Çocukköyü İdaresi tarafından tutulmaya devam edilir.

çler eğitimlerini tamamladıktan en geç 6 ay sonra Gençlik Evini terkederler.

ufta tüm köyden ayrılan çocukların listesi tutulur. Bu listede meslekleri, şimdiki
eri, aile durumları v.b kayıtlar bulunur.

AILE EVI

1. Her aile evi bağımsız ve doğal olarak çalışmalıdır. Her evin kendini ait bakmakla yükümlü olduğu bir bahçesi, hayvanı v.b malı olmalıdır.
2. Aile evini en önemli prensibi dışarıdan gelecek asgari müdahale ve kontrol ile kendi gelişimlerini tayin edebilmeleridir. Her aile kendi beğenisine göre evini dekore edebilir ve organize eder
3. Her evin kapısı Köy Müdürü ve diğer personele daima açıktır fakat evleri kontrol etmeye ve yönetmeye teşebbüs edilmemelidir. Bu sorumluluk annenindir
4. Aile evleri dışarıdan asgari müdahale ile kendini idare eden bağımsız birimlerdir. Kontrol, test, anket ve diğer davetsiz gelişlerde dikkatli olunmalı, normal aile düzeni içerisinde bulunulmayacak davranışlardan kaçınılmalıdır. Her ev normal bir aile gibi saygı görmelidir.
5. Her aile evinde 10'dan fazla, 5'den az çocuk bulunmamalıdır. Öz kardeşler aynı evde kalırlar Çocuklar evden eve nakledilemezler.

KOY MÜDÜRÜ

SHÇEK tarafından atanan Köy Müdürünün görevi köydeki sosyal hizmet ve eğitim faaliyetlerinin kanun ve yönetmelikler çerçevesinde yürütülüp yürütülmediğini, ayrıca Mudur Yardımcısının görev ve yetkilerini bu kanun ve yönetmeliklere uygun olarak denetlemektir Köy Müdürü yaptığı denetlemelerde tesbit ettiği yürütme noksanlığını Koordinatöre ve Yönetim Kuruluna rapor eder.

KÖY MÜDÜR YARDIMCISI

Vakıf tarafından görevlendirilen Köy Müdür Yardımcısı Personel İşleri, Mali İşler, Eğitim İşleri, Teknik İşlerin planlaması, koordinasyonu, uygulanması ve yönetiminden sorumludur

KÖY İDARESI

1. Köy Müdürü bu topluluğun öncüsüdür ve olumlu, şefkatli ve sorumluluk örneği olarak köyu denetler.
2. Köy Müdürü idari işlerin amaçlanan biçimde ve zamanında yapılmasından sorumludur ve bütçe uygulaması, mali işlem onayları ve personel işlerini denetler.
3. Köy idaresi köydeki çocukların emniyeti, refahı ve gelişimlerinden sorumludur. Köydeki her ailenin bir parçasıdır ve her çocuğa karşı yükümlülüğü vardır.
4. Köydeki tüm teknik ve eğitim faaliyetlerini denetler. Bu faaliyetlerin planlanmasından ve yönetiminden doğrudan sorumludur. Personel arasında çıkabilecek anlaşmazlıkları çözmelidir
5. Çocuklara özel faaliyetler hazırlamak, çocukların öğretmenleri ile iyi bir dialog içerisinde olmak, akademik başarılarını izlemek, gençlere meslek edinmede yön vermek, iş bulmakta yardımcı olmak görevleri arasındadır.
6. Müd. Yrd. : anneler ile yakın işbirliği içinde çalışarak çocukların eğitim hedeflerini ve programlarını beraber saptamalıdır.
7. Köy Müd. Yrd. yarım günden fazla idari büroda tutacak tüm idari görevler diğer personele yetki verilerek paylaşılmalıdır. Büro işleri ve personel takibini gerektirecek işler için görev dağılımı yapılmalıdır.
8. Günlük idari işlerin yürütülmesinden büyük ölçüde Muhasebeci / Yönetici pozisyonundaki Müdür Yardımcısı sorumludur. Kendisi Personel işleri ve Muhasebe işlemlerinin uygulanmasından sorumludur.

9. Müdür Yardımcısı Koordinatörlük tarafından istenen tüm personel ve muhasebe işlemlerini uygular. Nakit para ile ilgili tüm işlemlerden ve depo, dükkan ve satın alma işlerinden sorumludur.
10. Köy Sekreteri, Köy Müdürü ve Yardımcısı yönetiminde günlük işlere bakar.

KÖY BAKIMI VE GÜVENLİĞİ

1. Çocukköyüne gelen tüm ziyaretçilerin danışma binasında kaydı tutulur.
2. Köyde, köyün bakımını, güvenliğini ve düzenini sağlayacak olan teknik elemanlar, bekçi ve bahçıvanlar bulunur.
3. Teknik elemanlar ve ustalar bağımsız olarak çalışır ve Köy Müdür Yardımcısına doğrudan rapor verirler.
4. Bekçi, bahçıvan ve düzenden sorumlu diğer elemanlara , Müdür Yardımcısı tarafından görev dağılımı yapılır.

MALİ İDARE

1. Müd. Yrd. köyle ilgili tüm mali işlerin uygulanmasından sorumludur.
2. Müd. Yrd. mali işlemleri öngörülen limitlere kadar onaylar ve denetler.
3. Köy bütçesinin ön hazırlığı muhasebeci tarafından yapılır. Koordinatörlüğe gönderilecek bütçenin son şekli konusunda Köy Müdürüne danışılır.

EV BÜTÇELERİ

1. Her anne evini geçindirmekle yükümlü olduğu bir aylık bütçe alır.
2. Her ailenin alacağı para miktarı Vakıf Koordinatörlüğü tarafından belirlenir ve evdeki çocuk sayısına bağlıdır.
3. Anneler harcamalarını detaylı olarak yazacakları bir ev defteri tutmak zorundadırlar.
4. Ev içinde zarar gören birşey var ise (kırık pencere, tabak v.s.) hasar ev bütçesinden ödenir. Zararın büyüklüğüne göre Köy İdaresi yardım gerekip gerekmediğine kara verir.
5. Kural olarak evde ev için yapılan tüm harcamalar ev bütçesinden karşılanır. Örneğin sabun, yemeklik v.s. Köy içerisinde o birime ait bir servis varsa bile (çamaşırhane gibi) masraflar ev bütçesinden karşılanır.

DEPO / DÜKKAN

1. Depo gelen tüm malların ve alımların kabülünü ve dağıtımını yapar.
2. Tüm satınalmalar Köy Müdürü ve Köy Müdür Yardımcısı tarafından onaylanır.
3. Tüm bağışların depo girişleri yapılır ve evlere piyasa fiyatından satılır.
4. Sekreter malzemelerin doğru depolanmasından ve gerekli evrakların giriş ve çıkışta tanziminden sorumludur.
5. Sekreter tüm malzeme ve dökümanların takip ve organizasyonundan Köy Müdür Yardımcısına sorumludur.

TAŞITLAR VE SATINALMA

1. Tüm taşıt araçlarının bakımı ve onarımı şoför / satınalmacıya aittir.
2. Bu şoför / satınalmacı taşıtın temizliğinden, çocukların ve malzemelerin taşınmasından ve Köy idaresi. / Müdür Yardımcısı tarafından öngörülen şekilde satınalmadan sorumludur
3. Şoför acil durumlar için 24 saat bulunabilmelidir.
4. Taşıtlar için öngörülen şekilde taşıt defteri tutulacaktır.

MİSAFİRLER

1. Misafirler köyü gezmek için davet edilmeli ve soru sormaya teşvik edilmelidir.
2. Her hafta bir aile evi " Misafir Evi " olmalıdır. Bu eve gelen misafir anne ve çocuklar ile beraber olmalı ve küçük bir ikramda bulunulmalıdır. " Misafir Evi " her hafta değişmelidir.
3. Her misafir, ziyaretçi defterini imzalamalıdır.
4. Yurt dışından veya il dışından gelen misafirler ancak koordinatörlüğüm onayı ile misafirhanede kalabilirler.
5. Köy idaresi misafirlerin refahından sorumludur. Diğer çalışanlar görev verdiği biçimde kendisine yardımcı olurlar.
6. Önceden ilan edilecek özel günlerde ve Dini, Milli Bayram günleri haricinde 10 kişiden fazla gruplar aile düzenini bozmamaları açısından kabul edilmezler.

ÇOCUKLARIN AKRABALARI

1. Her ayın ilk Pazar günü çocukların akrabalarının ziyaret günüdür. Bu gün Müd. Yrd.   mutlaka köyde olmalıdır.
2. Çocukların akrabaları tarafından köye yapılan tüm ziyaretlerden Köyidaresininhaberi olmalıdır
3. Eğer çocuğun olumlu yönden gelişmesine yardımcı oluyorlarsa akrabaları daimi olarak köyü ziyaret edebilir.
4. Çocukların akrabaları gece köyde kalmamalıdır.
5. Köy Müdürü ve Çocukköyü Annesi çocuğa akrabalarından gelen mektupları açma ve eğer çocuğun üzerinde zararlı etkisi olacaksa.mektubu vermeme hakkına sahiptirler.
6. Tüm personelin ziyaretçilerinden Köy idaresi   haberdar edilmelidir.

SAĞLIK BAKIMI

1. Köyde sağlık ve hijyen standartları yüksek tutulmalıdır.
2. Her köyün çocuklara daimi tıbbi bakımı ve aşılarını yapabilecek bir doktor ile teması olmalıdır
3. Bulaşıcı bir hastalık kapmış çocuk derhal izole edilmelidir. Hastalanan çocuklar derhal en yakın sağlık merkezine gönderilir ve gereken tedavi uygulanır.

Bolluca Çocukköyü İşletme Düzeni maddelerini değiştirmeğe Vakıf Yönetim Kurulu yetkilidir.

URLA L 17 - a4

AKDAĞ

GERİ GÖLÜ O

SİNEKL

Kurubaşkaya

ZETTİNCİE GÖLÜ

İÇETLİK D.

AKtepe

Kocabağaros
(Mvk.)

Yeldeğirmen

Kayalı T.

Hafiblı D.

Çevre Plânı Dışındadır.

Barbaros Ko

Kavocidge D.

Balcıbağı

Barbaros uvası

423

ÇITLIK DAĞI

Loşuyesi
(Mvk.)

429
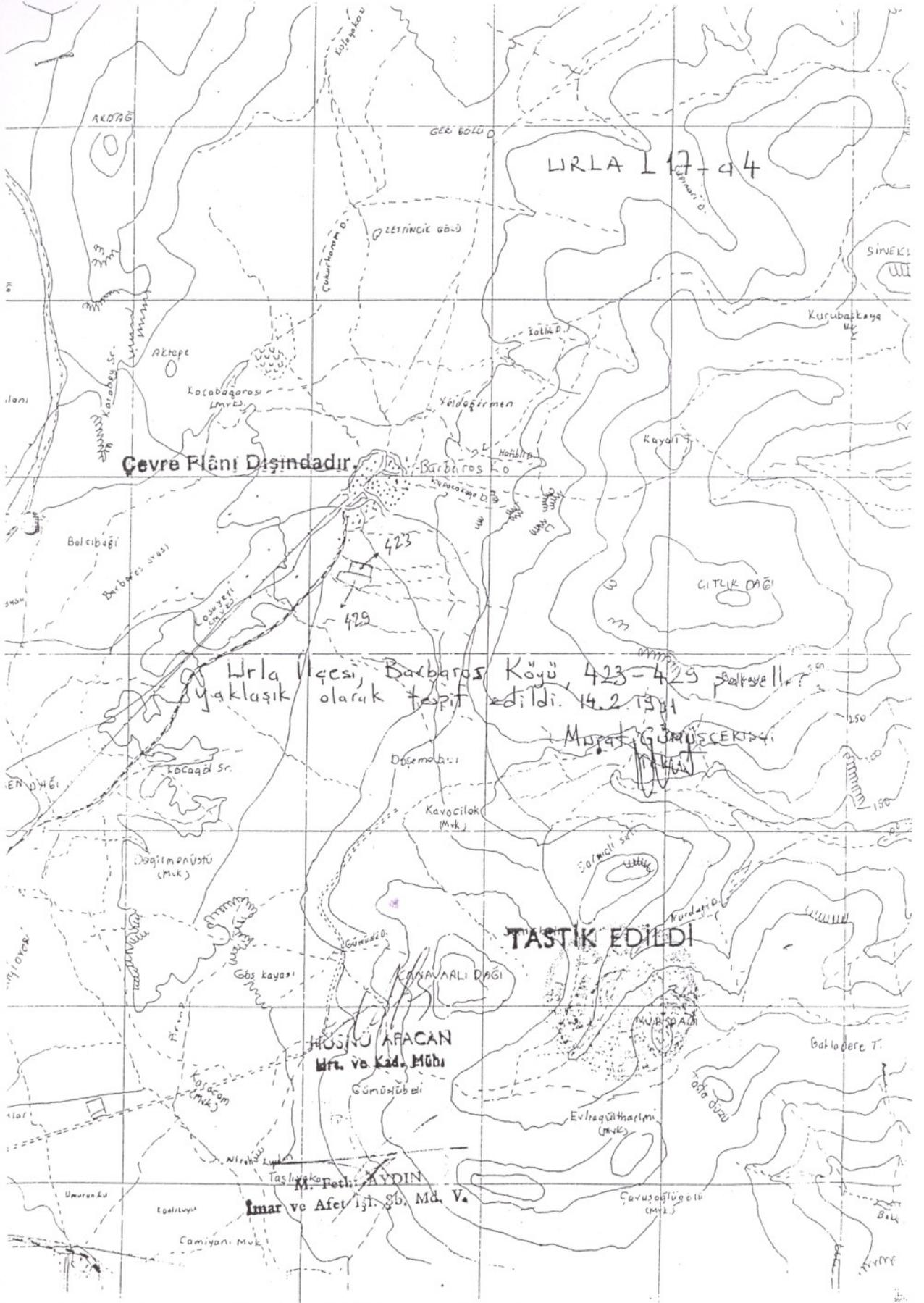
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Murat GÜMÜŞCEKİCİ

150

ER DAĞI

Locaağıl Sr.

Döşemealtı

150

Kavocilok
(Mvk)

Sarmalı Srt.

Dağırmanüstü
(Mvk.)

Nurdağı D.

TASTİK EDİLDİ

Göş kayası

Gümüşlü D.

KARAVAALI DAĞI

NURDAĞI

Ballodere T.

HÜSNÜ ARACAN
Urt. ve Kad. Müh.

Gümüşlübeli

Kosacam
(Mvk.)

Evliaçülthaçlmı
(Mvk)

oda oyu

Nireha Lvla

Taşlıyaka

M. Fetih AYDIN
İmar ve Afet İşl. Şb. Md. V.

Umurunku

Çavuşoğlüçölü
(Mvk)

Bal

Camiyanı Mvk.

H1

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TESHİN MERKEZİ

FOSSEPTİK
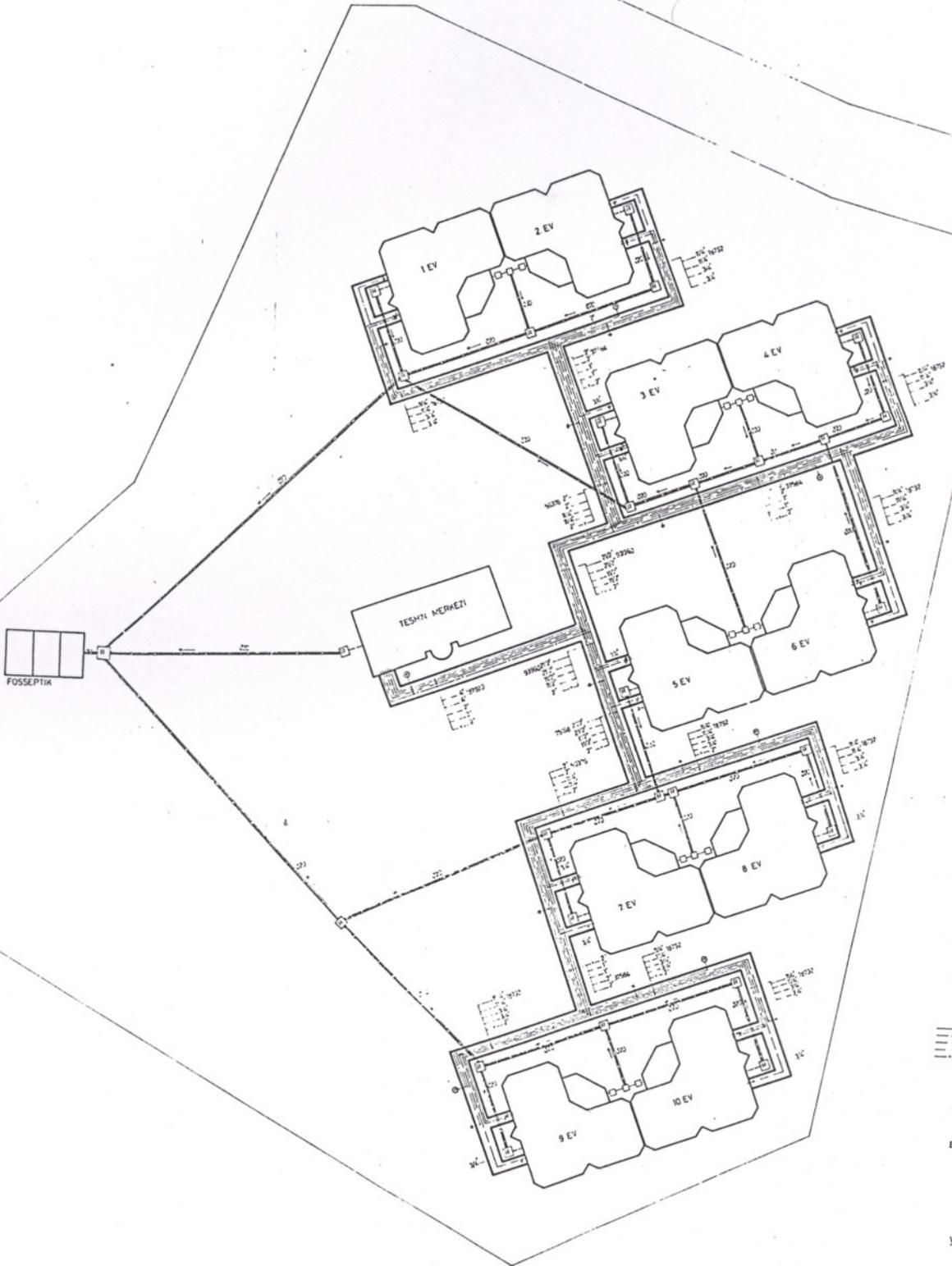
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