Öykü Su Sezen

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FORMATION AND EVOLUTION OF CHILDREN'S DOMESTIC SPACES IN TURKEY

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE
AND THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING AND SCIENCE
OF ABDULLAH GUL UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all materials and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

FORMATION AND EVOLUTION OF CHILDREN'S DOMESTIC SPACES IN TURKEY

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MSc. in Architecture
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March 2022

This study historically examines the formation and development of children's domestic spaces in Turkey from the beginning of the twentieth century to the 1980s. As will be shown, political, cultural, economic, and social turns have influenced the formation of children's space in Turkey in this period. The changing meaning of childhood in Europe since the seventeenth century had become the central element of the construction of idealized middle-class nuclear families in the nineteenth century. In the Ottoman society, observable changes in the thoughts and practices about childhood had begun since the nineteenth century. While the shift in the childhood phenomenon in different societies contains similarities and differences, modernization is the key term that I will coin to explain this complex process.

This thesis basically explores children's domestic spaces in Turkey by following the traces of the historical roots of the modern family construction and argues that the construction of a child as an individual cannot be read independently of the defined roles of the nuclear family members. In this way, it discovers the historical traces of the idea that the children should have their own living space within the home, which is one of the prominent issues while emphasizing the 'scientific' background of raising children. This thesis tries to set an original spatial reading on the changes in children's spaces by analyzing the visual materials, mainly taken from architecture magazines, home and life magazines, of the middle and upper-class houses in Istanbul and Ankara.

Keywords: Children's Room, Domestic Space, Modern House, Nuclear Family, Modern Childhood

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE'DE ÇOCUK MEKÂNININ KONUTTA OLUŞUM VE EVRİMİ

Öykü Su Sezen
Mimarlık Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans
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Mart 2022

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de çocuk odalarının konut mekânındaki oluşumunu ve gelişimini tarihsel olarak incelemektedir. Tez kapsamında, yirminci yüzyılın başından 1980'lere kadar olan dönüşüm incelenmiştir. İlerideki bölümlerdeki görüleceği gibi bu dönemde yaşanan politik, kültürel, ekonomik ve toplumsal dönüşümler, Türkiye'de çocuk odalarının oluşumunda etkili olmuştur. Avrupa'da on yedinci yüzyıldan itibaren anlamı değişmeye başlayan çocukluk, on dokuzuncu yüzyılda orta sınıf çekirdek ailesinin ideal bir yapı olarak kuruluşunda merkez öge olmuştur. Osmanlı toplumunda da çocukluğa dair düşünce ve pratiklerin on dokuzuncu yüzyıldan itibaren görünür biçimden değişmeye başladığı gözlenmektedir. Farklı toplumlarda çocukluk olgusunun değişimi, kendi içerisinde benzerlikler ve farklılıklar içerirken, modernleşme olgusu, bu karmaşık süreci açıklamak için kullanılan anahtar kavramdır.

Bu tez, temel olarak Türkiye'de çocuk odalarının gelişimini, modern ailenin inşasının tarihsel kökenlerinin izinde araştırıyor. Çocuğun bir birey olarak inşasının çekirdek aile içerisindeki rol paylaşımından bağımsız olarak okunamayacağını savlıyor. Bu doğrultuda, çocuk yetiştirmenin 'bilimsel' arka planı vurgulanırken öne çıkan dikkat çekici meselelerden biri olan çocuğun ev içinde kendine ait bir yaşam alanı olması gerektiği fikrinin tarihsel izlerini sürüyor. Bu tez, bahsedilen değişimi İstanbul ve Ankara'daki orta ve üst sınıf konutlarının mekânsal analizini yaparak ortaya koymakta ve bu analiz için mimarlık dergileri ile ev ve yaşam dergilerinde yer alan örnekler ile akademik literatürdeki kavramları sentezleyerek okumaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Çocuk Odası, Evsel Mekan, Modern Konut, Çekirdek Aile, Modern Çocukluk

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The research process could be compelling in the pandemic but I could accomplish thanks to several people who work in Ankara National Library, İzmir National Library, VEKAM or SALT.

And thanks to my family for their sensibility and invaluable support all the time. Their trust in me has been the foremost incentive.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SALT	Salt Research Architecture and Design Digital Collection
VEKAM	Koç University VEKAM Library and Archive
UN	United Nations

To my nuclear family

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Aim and Scope

The thesis aims to historically research the children's domestic spaces in Turkey, which was constructed with the ideal nuclear family notion, on the housing environment. The historical studies and discussions about the early period of human life have continued since the historians discovered the changing meaning of childhood concept with modernity. The construction of modern childhood notion is very connected with family, home, and domesticity. I examine the house's transformation into the nuclear family's private space through the domestication of women and the child.

Technical, cultural, political, and social developments as the outcomes of modernity affected the societies in time. The first signs of modernization emerged in the eighteenth century in Turkey, but they became more visible with more radical regulations in the nineteenth century. The reforms on military, education, and health after the Tanzimat decree (1839) and the cultural and social alterations among the upper-class Ottomans were the pioneers of the revolutionary modernization movements of the Republican regime after 1923. The modernization of the family was one of the critical problems of the reformists since the early twentieth century, and it was mainly dealt with the modernization of the domestic space. The modernists idealized the nuclear family as the core and the smallest unit of society. They also tried to identify the roles of each individual in the nuclear family. The modern family stereotype consisted of a rationalized family structure: a breadwinner father, an educated housewife-mother, and healthy and well-trained children.

Accordingly, the establishment of the nation-states in Europe and its impacts on creating modern childhood notion also influenced Turkish intellectuals. They conceptualized the children as the future of the society, and they considered it a central

topic for the state policies and societal impact. Education and health reforms primarily aspired to make healthy and well-trained generations of children. The government policies had been made to improve the conditions of mother and child health to prevent the high rate of child and infant mortality. It was based on the assumption that healthy and educated children would be crucial for making the future society's favourable citizens. Since the late nineteenth century, books, magazines, and seminars about child-rearing have played an essential role in educating and informing the parents, especially the mothers.

It is sensible to assume that the changing role of the child in the family affected the formation of modern family housing. As will be discussed in the following chapters, much research in the academic literature dealt with the relation between the modernization of houses and the alteration of traditional family structures in Turkey. The change of house design based on family life and familial relationships, domestic material culture, technological developments on household appliances have been among the main topics of the research so far. They mostly have paid attention to the gender codes of the house, especially by examining the role of women as housewives and mothers[1]. Nonetheless, what we know about the children's role in the domestic space and spatial occupation has remained relatively limited[2]. The childhood history studies in Turkey have not been very comprehensive compared to their European and American counterparts yet. Consequently, architectural historians have not substantially examined the history of children's spaces.

In recent years the research on children's space design has been increasing. However, many questions about the formation of children's spaces historically have not been answered yet. This thesis examines the evolution of children's domestic space in the twentieth century and fills some of the literature gaps by utilizing various archival resources. In this regard, the main question of the thesis can be formulated as "How was the children's domestic space formatted in modernizing Turkish houses?" Accordingly, there are several sub-questions below to be considered:

- How can we historically explain the formation of child rooms in houses?

[1] For instance, see Baydar, G. (2002); Bozdoğan, S. (1996); Gürel (2009b); Heynen (2005) Karamullaoğlu & Sandıkçı (2020); Özbay (1999)
[2] For the research on children's spaces in Turkey, see Öymen Gür (1997; 2002)

- How can we define the boundaries between the child and adult spaces in houses?
- What were the concerns of designing children's domestic spaces?
- What was the role of the child in the design and occupation of the child's domestic space?
- How did the children's domestic material culture evolve?
- How was children's domestic space design interpreted in the popular and architectural media?

1.2 Limits of the Research

At a particular stage of the research, some limits were set to define the main boundaries of the thesis. They are about the chronological period, geographical extent, and house owner's social class. First, I confined the scope of the research with the urban settings to observe modernity's social, economic, and cultural effects on modernizing house scape. The houses in Ankara and Istanbul were selected as examples in the context of the thesis. Istanbul was the capital city of the Ottoman Empire and the pioneering city of modernization in the nineteenth century. The twentieth century also witnessed the continuation of spatial modernization attempts in İstanbul. Shortly before the proclamation of the Republic, Ankara became the new capital, and it became a spatial setting for intensive architectural production by following modern urban plans. The reformist ideology of the Republican intellectuals remarkably shaped the capital's spatial planning as a modern city. Ankara and Istanbul were also the major cities affected by the rapid urbanization after the Second World War.

In the early phase of the thesis research, the chronological scope of the thesis was between 1945 and 1980, considering the massive urbanization and house production that happened after the Second World War. The housing industry addressed middle and low-income groups in this period. Nonetheless, the historical threshold could be late for researching children's spatial marks in the house because the modernization of the house in Turkey had been happening since the eighteenth century. Furthermore, the concepts of modern house design had gained importance in the last quarter of the nineteenth century (see Chapter 3.3). Besides, it is a fact that the construction of children as individuals and the evolution of children's domestic spaces in the European countries possessed some unique features (see Chapter 2.2). Considering the

modernization process of the house in Turkey and the evolution of children's domestic spaces in Europe and North America[3], the chronological scope was extended towards the 1920s accordingly. The modernization of the family and the house and the importance of the child in the relationship between these two concepts became evident in the Republican period. Although this emphasis increased in the 1930s, taking into account the modernization ideology of the Republic, the 1920s provided many essential concepts, which would be still influential for the later decades.

The 1980s marks the chronological end of end of this thesis, when new house architecture paradigms were dramatically shifted by changing economic, cultural, and political environments. Tekeli (1998) remarks that the process of urbanization and demographic changes after 1945 had reached a turning point in the 1980s. Another reason to limit the research to the 1980s is the increasing interest in children and architecture relation in the architectural literature. Although the interest in children's spaces among architectural communities began in the 1970s in Turkey, the research on children's domestic spaces started in the 1980s (Çakırer Özservet, 2015). Many researchers examined different aspects of domestic life and children's role in it by borrowing themes from different fields of humanities and social sciences[4]. Hence, the children's domestic spaces design in the 1980s and after is supposed to be handled in another context.

Another limit in the scope of this thesis is what kind of houses would be examined. Considering the different user profiles, the residences of middle-class urban families form the backbone of this research. The history of the modern family has been attributed to the changing familial relations and domestic culture of bourgeois middle classes; also, the discourse of idealized nuclear family targeted the middle classes since the nineteenth century. The presence of 'class' and 'middle class' notions in European terms are debatable in Turkey. Nevertheless, Kıray (1979, p.78) expressed that "The preliminary leaning of middle-classness occurred in the last century of Ottoman Empire, with those working in the business organizations dependent on the West and middle scale trade constitutions.[5]" As mentioned in detail in the following chapters, the

[3] For the historical research on child rooms in America, see Horowitz-Behrend, D. W. (2005).
[4] For instance, see Tümer, (1984)., Şahin(1984).
[5] Otherwise stated, all translations done by the author.

tendency to modernize houses physically and socially was seen among the ruling class, and this alteration affected the middle class since the late nineteenth century (see Chapter 3.3). The target of the ideal family/home discourse was again the middle classes (see Chapter 2.2). However, capacity of house production was limited in the early Republican period. The new houses were primarily built for upper and upper-middle-class families. The child room was seen in these houses in the first place. Therefore, the child rooms in the houses built before the Second World War were examined as early formations of its type. Although the child rooms in the early Republican period houses are associated with upper-class dwellings, it was seen that the early examples were also effective in the shape of the middle-class houses after 1945, and those were also included in the research (see Chapter 4.1).

The research method is the other limit of the thesis. Different methods are suitable for this historical examination. I prefer survey and study of archival materials, which is one of the essential qualitative research methods and typically preferred in historical studies. I set them in their own context by referring to secondary literature on related fields of study. In the scope of this thesis, the architectural and popular magazines were analyzed with an interpretive approach. The architectural periodicals presented the design and production practices and remarkable house projects. Popular magazines are significant sources because they represent the cultural and social environment of the period, reach the large masses, and consequently create collective consciousness and popular culture discourse about their content. It is essential to mention that shaping a framework for the thesis with archival research causes some limits for the research. First of all, although the archival materials have outstanding information about the social, physical, and cultural environment of the period, they also possess some contextwise risks. The periodicals usually reflect what should be seen, an idealized setting of things, but for most of the time, not the actual ones. However, a house as a dynamic space is in a state of flux. The product by designer and the one in the publishing, or the examples idealized by the periodicals may not represent real life, and they are changing in time. Hence, the materials in the publications are reflections of static information. It should be remembered that there may be differences or changes in individual and daily life when considering the potential of the data provided by archival materials. In this context, another method in historical research –oral history could have reflected the dynamism of home life. The method could have uncovered the personal choices or the physical

changes in time, unlike the limit of idealizing and stability of archival research. Yet, oral history research has limitations, and it is primarily functional for case studies. This thesis deals with an extended period and several examples, so the oral history method is not favourable for this research practically. In other words, the personal examples in the oral history method could have been limited to revealing the child-house relation in social meaning. As a result, the scope of this thesis and the research question are identifiers for choosing the convenient research method.

I examined the architectural periodicals first to reach housing projects produced in the studied period. The primary resource for this thesis is *Arkitekt/Mimar* (1931-1980). It was one of Turkey's most long-termed architectural periodical and the first published in the Latin alphabet. The publication had uninterruptedly represented the architectural production for a long time. The writers produced many articles that make us comprehend the housing policies, design approaches, and the economic, social, and technical factors in housing production of the term. Additionally, the house projects and articles about the housing question in *Mimarlık Dergisi* (Architecture Journal, 1963-) by the Chambers of Architects were examined to enrich the research. Naturally, one should not expect that the architectural periodicals contain all contents about the housing of the period. I used digital archives and secondary sources to procure selected house projects, which were not included in the periodicals. Design and Architecture Collection of Salt Research and "Civil Architectural Memory Ankara 1930-1980 Structure Inventory" in Koç University Digital Collections provide a significant amount of material for this thesis.

As will be listed in the appendix, there has been several residential projects examined in the thesis. The house projects were selected in two steps. First of all, I dealt with the examples that include the definition of a 'child's room' or a special domestic space belonging to a child among all the house projects in the resources mentioned above. However, as will be explained in more detail in Chapter 4, child's spaces may not have been defined explicitly in every project. For this reason, based on the features of defined 'child's rooms', examples that are likely to be designed as child's rooms in other projects were selected. These sample projects were textually ans spatially analyzed in the same way as the others and the child's spaces were defined. At the same time, house

projects were selected from three main typologies, namely apartments, detached family houses and mass houses as shown in Chapter 3.3.

In the spatial analysis, child's rooms had a central role. Considering different spatial typologies, such as apartment, detached house, mass housing or type project, I initially define all the spaces in the house. Then, the spatial configuration is examined according to each space proximity to the place of child's room. Information was provided about the use of the room(s) by specifying the number of child's rooms and children. Since the existence of spaces directly connected to the children's room is discovered, I group these spaces as balconies, gardens, parents' bedroom or other child spaces. Finally, the furniture of the children's rooms was evaluated by reading the furnishings on the plans. The data provided by the spatial analysis on the housing plans are summarized in a table for each theme.

The other resources examined in the research were the popular periodicals, which emerged in Turkey in the second half of the nineteenth century and can be interpreted as advice literature. Among the magazines that targeted women and published about issues like home economics, decoration, and child-rearing; *Süs* (Ornament) (1923-1924), *Ev İş* (Homework) (1937-1950), *Ev Kadın* (House and Woman) (1945-1950), *Hayat* (Life) (1956-1978) were selected to analyze. They have been chosen due to their immense content on home and decoration. Selecting different magazines for the research enabled me to hear diverse voices reflecting the change of domestic culture and its relationship with children's space. Moreover, as there was no periodical covering the process chronologically within the scope of this thesis, I have procured different examples covering a wide time interval from such a selection of magazines.

It is essential to utilize secondary sources to put the archival materials into a context and analyze them. In the scope of the thesis, the academic literature in different areas –especially in the history of modernizing housing - was used. In this context, the literature on the construction of modern childhood, idealized nuclear family, and modernization of domestic space have been used to understand the process in Europe, North America and Turkey. Therefore, it was inevitable to examine many sources on the history of family and childhood in anthropology, geography, historical demography, sociology, and to borrow concepts from these disciplines.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis consists of three main chapters excluding the introduction and conclusion chapters. Chapter 2 summarizes the historical background of modern childhood and nuclear family around the child by taking the 'invention of childhood' theory that emerged after the research of Philippe Ariés as a basis. Historians have different approaches on how childhood notion had changed in centuries and how social, economic, and cultural transformations with modernity affected the childhood notion. In this chapter, I tried to explain the multi-dimensional being of the subject by including different ideas on childhood history. Accordingly, I expressed that childhood notion has altered according to time, place, and culture. In addition, the increasing interest of modern society and the state in raising a healthy and educated generation has also been discussed as an important theme. This interest had shown up as a reflection of a systematic attempt to construct the child-centred nuclear family. The idealization of the nuclear family was explained through the domestic space of the bourgeois family and its modern living understanding. Those arguments were presented in the scope of Western societies and the internalization and interpretation of modern societies' approaches in Turkey.

The main concern in Chapter 3 is explaining modern housing and its relation with modern childhood and family concepts. I emphasized the household notion defined as 'a group of people living together in a house' to establish the connection between family and domestic space. Although the historically precise boundaries cannot be drawn, pre-modern households and their dwellings were discussed from Western and Ottoman perspectives taking into account the socio-economic and cultural differences of pre-modern and modern societies. Then, modern house concepts were examined by explaining the re-construction of domestic space physically and conceptually. The new house types after modernity and the approaches to modern housing were expressed. In the third subtitle, I examined the modernization process of house in Turkey. First of all, various developments in different periods affecting house design and production in the modernization process in Turkey were summarized. Then, the transformation of houses from the nineteenth century to the 1980s was discussed over the main themes and examples. The modernization of the house was analyzed under a few subtitles with the samples. Since the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the construction of apartment

buildings was a significant step for modernizing houses in Turkey. The process from the typologies that emerged at the beginning of the apartment building construction to the fact that apartments became the dominant housing type in the second half of the twentieth century was explained under Chapter 3.1: “The emergence of family apartments.” The spread of detached houses, suburbanization and idealization of detached single-family houses under the effect of modernization was described in another subtitle. The result of standardization with modernization on housing was summarized with the examples like row-houses and mass housing.

In Chapter 4, which can be primarily defined as the main discussion part in the thesis, the domestic spatiality of the child in Turkish modern houses was discussed over various themes, depending on the interpretation of archival materials. Primarily, the child room, which emerged with the functional separation of spaces at home and the formation of private units for household members, was examined by analyzing housing projects in periodicals and archives. The first two subtitles examine the spatial analysis of children's rooms by dividing them into two periods. In this context, the historical breaking point has been determined as the end of the Second World War. In determining the differences between the two periods, the type of housing production, common housing type and the socio-economic status of the housing user were remarkable. Thus, I discussed the villas and apartment buildings in the early Republican period, which were samples of limited house production and appealed to upper-class families, as early examples for child room design. In the post-World War Two period, the child rooms in houses, which started to become standardized with increased urbanization and the spread of mass housing production that appeals to other classes, were again examined on the plan level. In the other subtitle, I discussed the children’s relation with house spaces other than the child's room and the separation of child and adult spaces. The formation and alteration of children’s material culture items in the house were examined with the theme of “Materiality of Children’s Domestic Spaces.” Depending on the definition of the child as an individual, the actorship of the child in designing his or her own room was discussed with the theme of “Child room as a personalized space.” The last subtitle in this chapter - An Overview: Changing Themes of Children’s Domestic Spaces- is the conclusion discussion part of Chapter 4. By looking at all the materials examined, the prominent themes in the design and use of children’s spaces in the historical context were discussed in parallel with the childhood

perception of the time and the technological, cultural, and economic development experienced.

In the conclusion chapter, I summarized how the invention of modern childhood and the idealization of the modern nuclear family, which are discussed in the literature, affect the child's domestic spaces. Thus, the significant concepts in the evolution of the child's spatial relationship with the house in Turkey were once again revealed. Therefore, it has been evaluated how the concepts and examples presented in the second, third and fourth chapters of the thesis expose a model to explain the development of children's space in Turkey in the twentieth century. Accordingly, it has been observed that how the society and family view childhood and all technological, cultural and economic factors affected children's domestic space. Besides, the connection of the thesis content with social development goals and the contribution of this research on architecture history were exposed in the conclusion chapter.

Chapter 2

Childhood, Family, Modernity

2.1 A Brief History of Childhood Notion in Centuries

The research on the history of childhood, which started to get attention in the second half of the twentieth century, has been interested in the differences between pre-modern and modern childhood notions. Have people always attributed the modern-day meaning to the concept of childhood? How did they draw boundaries between childhood and adulthood periods? Although there are different opinions about pre-modern childhood, it is mainly accepted that childhood notions and lives of children are not sharply continuous in centuries.

"*L'enfant et la vie familiale sous l'ancien regime*" –published in 1960, translated in English as *Centuries of Childhood* in 1962- by Philippe Ariés is generally accepted as a pioneering work on the history of childhood (Stearns, 2017; French, 2020; Tan, 1989; Heywood, 2018). French (2020) also defined the work of Ariés as one of the most notorious in the area of childhood history. Many historians have criticized *Centuries of Childhood*, and many researchers have disproved some ideas of Ariés. However, *Centuries of Childhood* is needed to be mentioned in this research due to its importance on childhood history and still mostly referred.

Many historians criticized Ariés because of his idea that childhood notions did not exist in middle age societies (Heywood, 2018). Ariés argued that children were not seen as different identities from adults. His thesis was based on various historical information, like pre-modern societies did not even have words for children and children wore the same clothes as adults (Tan, 1989). In the seventeenth century, the term 'child' started to be used in a different, modern sense (Ariés, 1962). The same argument for Ottoman childhood was suggested by Cüneyd Okay's book *Osmanlı Çocuk Hayatında Yenileşmeler* [Changes in the Ottoman Children's Life]. He argued

that people did not realize that children and their needs were different before Tanzimat (Araz, 2013). In the Ottoman context, Araz (2013) objected to his attitude in his book that is covered Ottoman childhood history from the sixteenth to the nineteenth century.

The different opinions on childhood history were sometimes based on historians' subjective thoughts. For example, Lloyd de Mause supported the idea that the lives of children were getting worse when going back in time. The living conditions were worse for children and they needed to work in their early ages; most of them died at young ages. However, Ariés argued that children were more independent in the past. In modern times, they were restricted and controlled more (Araz, 2013). Both authors' arguments were actually based on shared historical realities. In the end, it is evident that there was an essential difference for children in pre-modern times. The critical reasons for different childhood understanding in pre-modern societies were high child mortality, the short lifetime of people, beliefs, and education understanding relying on religious knowledge or apprenticeship separated with context and method from modern formal education.

When we talk about the absence of childhood notion, child mortality was an essential factor to understand the reason. It had been very high from pre-agricultural to modern societies. The death of a child could be upsetting for parents, but it was inevitable and even required in hunting and gathering societies. In pre-agricultural European societies, many children died before they reached the age of five. The death of some children provided the society's population not to increase excessively. In this early period of humankind, a child could be sometimes considered as a burden even if the childhood period of life was much shorter. However, we can assume they were aware of the difference between childhood and adulthood. Most of them have some rituals for admission of boys to hunting (Stearns, 2017). The idea about child death can be cruel for modern people, but this is precisely why many historians have argued about variant childhood notions in different ages. An example of parents' acceptance of this due to the prevalence of child mortality can be given even from the eighteenth-century Ottoman society. Lady Montagu, who was in Istanbul at the beginning of the eighteenth century, asked a woman with ten or twelve children how to babysit for all of them. The answer was that some of them would die because of the plague (Araz, 2013).

The idea of a child as a burden altered in agricultural societies because people realized that they could benefit from a child as a labor force. Children were actively part of family labor in the middle of their teens. Families also wanted children to work for family labor as long as possible, so participation in the labor force was not an independency for children in agricultural societies. Children could marry, but parents expected they stay as a part of the extended family, so marriage did not ultimately provide independence. The other alteration of childhood in agricultural societies was about training. Children could have an opportunity for special training, but even if this was available for a minority group, craftsmanship training is linked with an apprenticeship (Stearns, 2017).

Several superstitious beliefs and fears about children emerged in many agricultural societies. For instance, the fear of babies born with caul or belief in twins had evil souls were some of them (Stearns, 2017). In the middle Ages, some ecclesiastics on St. Augustine's order thought that children were born with original sin. However, this should not cause an idea of that Christians saw children as evils or bad creatures. Childhood notions differentiated regarding period, class, or geography in the middle Ages. The child Jesus figure provided a positive meaning of childhood alongside the idea that children were innocent with various features and therefore superior to adults (Heywood, 2018).

Islamic societies had their own thoughts and rules about childhood according to religious beliefs and internalized ideas from some ancient cultures. The statements of the Qur'an about childhood became the identifier of laws and practices. Islamic culture accepted that children's lives were precious and blessed and rejected the property of fathers on children (Gil'adi, 2001). In the Ottoman Empire, Islamic jurists set many rules about raising children. These rules included marriage decisions, forms of guardianship and the situation of children in case of parents' divorce. Many legal sanctions are also mentioned in order to protect the rights and safety of children. In one example, it is mentioned that when the child was harmed, not only the offender but also the father was punished. This shows the responsibility of the father as the protector of the child (Kermeli, 2006).

The history of childhood in the pre-Tanzimat Ottoman society was mainly based on Islamic laws. *Fatwa*s and books about *terbiye* were significant sources of this field when the former predicated Islamic laws upon and the latter was about educating children according to social values. However, there were some common ideas and practices in Muslim and non-Muslim Ottomans. As an example, the gender preference was a boy independently religion and ethnicity of the family (Araz, 2013). In addition, Muslims, Christians, and Jews in Ottoman society married their daughters young (Araz, 2000). Even if Araz (2015) limited his research with İstanbul, he suggests that the childhood in İstanbul and other empire regions were not sharply separated. Especially abovementioned basis of childhood –Islamic law and the notion of *terbiye*- provided a common childhood perception (Araz, 2015). So we can assume that some notions of childhood in pre-modern Ottoman society were close, even if not exactly the same.

It is difficult to talk about specific ages for the boundaries between childhood and adulthood, since not much information can be obtained about the ages of the people from the Ottoman records. However the various qualities and needs provided to define life stages. These definitions were related to culture, social and religious influences (Dal, 2021). Islamic interpretations also drew the boundaries of childhood. There were mainly two periods of childhood; the first period contains birth to age seven, and the second was after age seven until adulthood. Alongside these categories, there were also intermediate steps based on gender differentiation. The steps had expounded differently by some Shaykh al-Islam. The boundaries of childhood were essential, especially for girls, to specify whether they are available for marriage or not. Transition to adulthood was based on their physical, sexual, and mental growth, not about the children's age. However, it was accepted that children before age seven were dependent on adults, especially on their mothers (Araz, 2013).

Child mortality was pretty high in the Ottoman Empire, like the other pre-modern societies (Okay, 2009). Despite high birth rates, the high number of deaths had decreased the number of families with many kids. Diseases, poor nutrition, accidents were the reasons for high child mortality. The health, hygiene, and nutrition conditions were generally bad for the majority, but these poor conditions affected children the most. Families used herbal medicines for treatment and tried to treat their children by themselves, getting advice from experienced people. Children could die because of

accidents inside or outside the home, so they tried to be frightened with some horror tales like creatures living in fire or water wells (Araz, 2013).

Not only high child mortality, but the frequency of parent's death also affected children profoundly. Because of the death of one or both of the parents and divorces, the fragmented families cannot be ignored in this period because second and third marriages were not rare at all. These experiences are noteworthy to understand children's circumstances in family life and their rights. The mother had the right to keep their children with her until their significant age, but she had to obey some social rules like being virtuous and honest. Children in the early ages should have lived with their mother or grandmother or other female relatives, but they belonged to their father and his family. When parents married again, children could live with stepparents, and the relationship between children and stepparents were varied. When one parent or both have died, children should be adopted (Araz, 2013).

Child-rearing was considered significant in Ottoman society, but it was not yet governmental policy before the nineteenth century. The most respected virtue of children was living as obeying religious and social rules so parents should rare their children with morality, *terbiye*. Education in early ages was regarded in Islamic interpretations because it would shape children's characteristics and behaviour at their older ages. At their early ages, women were responsible for child-rearing and their education. The mothers learned their children prayer, social principles, and religious knowledge until they went to school –if they went (Araz, 2013).

Education in the pre-modern Ottoman Empire was mostly conducted through religious institutions. Apart from this, although there were institutions that trained civil servants and provided education other than religious knowledge, there was no regular education system (Somel, 2010). The school was not compulsory until the nineteenth century. Both girls and boys could go to primary schools (*sıbyan mektebi*), but the age of starting and finishing school was not clear. After primary school, only boys could attend the madrasa. Madrasa was not also obligatory for boys; there were other options like an apprenticeship to have a profession. The education was based on Islamic knowledge, including reading Qur'an and learning religious notions and rules. Otherwise, learning science or art was also beneficial for boys. Girls had to know

domestic works and should have been virtuous because they should marry in their puberty. The education process and method could also differ between people from different social strata. Some morals books advised parents not to send their children to schools that were seen as somewhere immoral children went. These books were probably aimed at upper-class families (Araz, 2013).

2.2 Construction of Nuclear Family around Modern Child

"The nuclear family is a state of mind than a particular kind of structure or set of household arrangements."

Edward Shorter, *The Making of the Modern Family*

It is mostly accepted that modern childhood was constructed phenomenon, unlike the controversial thought on the existence of childhood notion in pre-modern societies. Some of the reasons, which affected the change of childhood notion, are abovementioned. All have strong relation with the alteration of family structure because the child started to be the centre of the family, the focus of his or her parents' attention. Therefore, it was necessary to explain various factors that emerged since the Enlightenment to understand the child-centred nuclear family.

When demographic historians explained pre-modern families in Europe, they wrote about families consisted of four or five people on average. Even if the family was based on a married couple and their children, the population of the house included more people in real (O'day, 1994). Blood ties and biological family were substantial both emotionally and legally, but children could live in a house with servants and other relatives, especially in wealthy families (French, 2020). We can assume that nuclear family did not only mean quantity of family members, beyond that, a modern sense including lifestyle, way of thinking and family relations. So I will summarize the various factors of the alteration in childhood notion in early modern and modern periods that were at the fore of nuclear family. The history of family and households will also be mentioned in detail in Chapter 3.1 "Pre-modern houses and households."

The term ‘bourgeois’ was connected with the emergence of modern nuclear family that affected by modern childhood and education. In the studies about childhood, home and family history, researchers used the terms ‘bourgeois family’, ‘bourgeois nuclear family’ or ‘child-centred bourgeois family’ (Tan, 1989; Norozi & Moen, 2016; Akbaş & Topçuoğlu, 2009; Blunt & Dowling, 2016). The motivation that made the bourgeois family child-centred was the idea of raising educated children as adults of the future (Norozi & Moen, 2016).

Historians mostly agreed that educational developments played a crucial role in constructing modern childhood. After the fourteenth century, ideas about childhood began to alter, but these were baby steps in the formation of the modern consciousness of childhood (Tan, 1989). Some historians defended that at the heart of the modern childhood idea, there was segregation of child from adult’s world (Tan, 1989; Akbaş & Topçuoğlu, 2009). Postman (1995) considered that these separate worlds emerged after the introduction of movable-type printing press. According to him, literacy level was very low in Middle Ages, so there was no reason to separate children’s world from adults’. However, after the printing press, children needed to learn reading and should be educated to become adults. Ariés also urged upon the effect of formal education on the formation of the modern family (Postman, 1995).

However, it was necessary to wait for a few centuries so that formal education became widespread. In Western Europe, children mostly attend school instead of working to contribute to the family economy after the eighteenth century (Stearns, 2017). Nevertheless, the education of childhood had some earlier impacts on families. After Reformation and Counter-Reformation, the patriarchal nuclear family was started to evolve. The advice literature, directed towards children in the 1400s, targeted parents, especially fathers in the seventeenth century. Parents’ responsibilities for a child’s education started to increase (French, 2020).

After a millennium of major religions, Protestantism’s impact on Christian belief had two critical outcomes that improved modern childhood notion in Western societies. In the first place, education gained importance with Protestants’ concern of reading the Bible after printing press. The schools could not obtain formal statutes initially, but the impact on literacy was non-negligible. The other advance was John Locke’s attack on

‘original sin’ belief. His definition of a child as *tabula rasa* also emphasized education (Stearns, 2017).

The education historians recognized the change in education, especially the relation between education and state, in the eighteenth century. Although adults in pre-modern societies were somehow aware that childhood was a learning period, there was no compulsory or systematic education, and schooling was not prevalent (French, 2020; Heywood, 2018). Most parents did not realize that education was the way of training children for adulthood until the early twentieth century (Heywood, 2018). Especially the children of low-income families working for the family economy were still seen even in the early nineteenth century. Industrialization provided a new space for families and capitalists to see children as the workforce (David, 2015). The state started to take an active role in spreading schooling in the eighteenth century, but notable changes in education occurred a century later. Most of the countries in the Western Europe have provided free and compulsory primary education since the second half of the nineteenth century (Heywood, 2018).

In the eighteenth century, health and hygiene conditions started to gain more importance (Tan, 1989). Heywood (2018) indicated that long-termed progress in the health field was evaluated by height and child mortality rates. The increase in the height of children and adolescents over the following centuries was based on nutrition recruitment and decreased strenuous physical activity. The child mortality rates also started to decrease in Sweden, England, and France at the end of the eighteenth century. However, the rates decreased steadily and all across Western countries only then during the late nineteenth and the early twentieth century. Even though some historians were dissenting on what factors affected health recruitment, living conditions, medicine, education, and motherhood should have been effective (Heywood, 2018).

Even if manuals about delivery and childcare, which targeted the midwives and mothers, had been popular in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, those did not include medical truths (French, 2020). After the Enlightenment, rational approaches were emerging in health, as in many other fields. As a result of these approaches, women had made a significant contribution as mothers and wives in the important progress of the health field. Education of women in health was a development that

cannot be ignored in reducing child mortality and raising healthy generations. The relation of health and motherhood gained more importance in this period. Health reform in the United States gave many responsibilities, especially to middle-class women who were primarily considered mothers. The importance of women's health and health knowledge were strongly connected with motherhood idea in the society. An author wrote in his book in 1839 that the first responsibility of a mother was childrearing. Many articles addressed women to educate them about health, including subjects like child welfare and childhood sexuality. A health reformer wanted to inform women about treatments for herself and her children so that her family and home would be healthy and happy (Morantz, 1977).

The developments related to childhood and family in the Ottoman Empire mostly took place after the Tanzimat Decree. The factors that led to modern childhood were in common with those in Western societies, but the top-down approach made the process different (Fortna, 2016). At this juncture, it is important to mention an imperial decree (*ferman*) before Tanzimat. In 1824, Mahmud II (r.1808-39) made primary school compulsory in Istanbul. He ordered parents not to deprive their children aged five or six years of school. Naturally, these were traditional schools, and the matter of the school was learning religious notions (Araz, 2013). The main purpose of schooling was reducing illiteracy which meant not to have Islamic knowledge (Berkes, 2012).

After 1839, the modernization of education took the lead for modernization of the society and had a significant influence on childhood notion. Statesmen of the period realized the importance of education since they had training in Europe. Sultan Abdulmecid made some arrangements on education since 1845, but the more important step was the Regulations for General Education (*Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi*) in 1869. The regulations were based on the education system of France and traditional primary schools (*sıbyan mektepleri*) divided into two levels as elementary and secondary. Modern primary schools (*iptidai*) were also opened after regulation, but the dual system in education continued. Both conventional (religious) and modern educational institutions were in force. From now on, primary schools were obligatory for both girls between six to ten and boys between seven to eleven (Okay, 2008). These regulations had not been fully met in practice. Despite the compulsory primary education, some families did send their children neither to the traditional schools nor to

the new modern primary education institutions. These families were generally poor and preferred to give their children to work as apprentices (Somel, 2010). However, all those arrangements were significant developments for children due to the state control of education.

Ottoman families in the nineteenth century also gave attention to the informal education of their children alongside the teaching in school. Initially, the upper-class families hired governesses for education at home. They desired the children to learn the European culture, foreign language (usually French), and also music and piano lessons were common. The governess could instruct in her own house or the child's house. Another development in informal education was about parental responsibilities. Childrearing should be based on scientific resources, then. Education started before school age (Okay, 2008).

Ottoman state made reforms also in the healthcare field in the early nineteenth century, even before Tanzimat. Infant and child mortality were far too much. One of the most critical developments on infant and mother health was about opening a course on baby delivery science in 1843. The purpose of the course was to educate midwives. The healthy delivery gained importance for the health of both child and mother. However, until the late nineteenth century, the state's role in children's hospitals was fewer. Most of them were established by foreigners (Okay, 2009). The first step from the state was Hospital for Children in Şişli (*Şişli Etfal Hastanesi*) after the death of Hatice Sultan, who was the daughter of Abdulhamid II. (Okay, 2009; Küre, 2016). The hospital was inaugurated in 1899 and provided free service to all children (Okay, 2009).

All those developments mentioned above do not mean that the problems about children education and health were solved. In the late nineteenth century, poor nutrition, diseases, epidemics, bad hygienic conditions were still serious problems for children. The most important development in this regard was that the state and families raised awareness about children's well-being, health, and education. This can be traced through increasing number of articles in the child periodicals. The articles about children's health in the Newspaper for Children (*Çocuklara Mahsus Gazete)* called parents and children about the issue (Küre, 2016). While the journal –Newspaper for Children- led

the others about children's health, physicians also published several articles about health care for children (Okay, 2009).

The modernization efforts in many fields in the Ottoman Empire also affected the social sphere. Even if there were no considerable alterations in the rural areas (Işın, 1986), in big cities, notably in Istanbul, Westernization of family and marriage mentality was manifesting. At first, the changes were seen in upper-class Ottomans, then spread around other classes (Duben & Behar, 2014). The marriage age increased for both men and women in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. According to the census of 1885, women were married at 19 on average (Duben, 2012), which was very high compared with the marriage age of girls before the nineteenth century. The relationship between husband and wife gained strength emotionally. Despite the low age gap between the young wife and husband, they had not a friendly and emotional relationship in earlier periods. The reason was that they were both very young, and the parental authorities of older generations did not let it happen. The older generations also had the right to rare or to love their grandchildren. Nonetheless, the modernization of the family has changed the situation since the nineteenth century. Young couples began to form a closer emotional bond, and no doubt, child-rearing was getting more important for parents (Duben, 2012; Duben & Behar, 2014).

While some developments in the family were recognized in the nineteenth century, the modern family issue was started to be discussed seriously after the Second Constitutional Period (1908-1920). According to Ziya Gökalp, the family issue had been continuing since the Tanzimat Decree. There were two different family themes on both ends of the discussion; one ignored the changes and connected to traditional values, and the other became the copy of the Western family. Intellectuals of the period wished to fix the degenerated society, so they knew where to start: the family (Toprak, 2017). The Constitutional ideology suggested "New Family" compatible with the new life of this period (Toprak, 1993). The state's attempt for modernizing family became cristallized after taking a decree for family law *(Hukuk-ı Aile Kararnamesi)* into action. Sociologist Ziyaeddin Fahri Fındıkoğlu remarked that the need for this new decree was based on the nuclear family (Toprak, 2017). Polygamy was the much-discussed topic around the regulations on family and marriage (Berkes, 2012). At the end of the

discussions, whether abolishing plural marriage was proper to Islamic laws or not, polygamy was limited but not forbidden at all (Konan, 2016).

Women's changing social status were related with new family conception in the early twentieth century. The alteration of women's lives was recognized since Tanzimat. Girls' education was considered essential, but only until secondary school *(rüşdiye)* level. The curriculum could also be different from the schools for boys. In the early twentieth century, education for women was extended to university with –again- some discrimination (Toprak, 2017). The concerns about women's rights and social status started to occur since the second half of the nineteenth century. At the beginning of the twentieth century, a group of people advocated that women should work and be in the political sphere. Still, women's social status was constructed over motherhood by the majority. A woman should be educated as a mother, but the reason of that she would raise future generations (Duben & Behar, 2014, p. 228).

In the Republican regime, woman, child and family issues were handled as being suitable with the modernization and progress ideals of the intellectuals until the 1920s. As a part of the radical modernization, they envisaged the modernization of the family as the smallest unit of the society. The European-based model - the child-centred nuclear family- was the favourable base. The legal aspects of the family modernization, which had been developing since the Second Constitutional Period, was completed with the adoption of Swiss Civil Law in 1926 (Duben & Behar, 2014, pp. 223-226). Without a doubt, the modernization of the family was not only the result of legal regulations, which has already been in practice for decades. However, the Republican family was a discourse production that naturalised the middle-class lifestyle, defined the roles and responsibilities of the members, and idealized with many features (Ertem, 2005).

Chapter 3

Alteration of Domestic Space through Modern Family and Child

3.1 Pre-modern Houses and Households

The word "household" means "relating to a house or flat and the people who live there" (Cambridge Online Dictionary, 2022), indicating an interesting conceptual similarity between languages and cultures. Kurt (2021) says that the English translation of the Turkish word "*hane*" is "household" and means that "house and people live in it", so the meanings are similar. *Hus* in German is also similar to *hane* as the meaning of the building and the people live in (Duben, 2012). Another definition of "household" is "a group of people, often a family, who live together in a house or flat" (Cambridge Online Dictionary, 2022). The household does not have to be a "family," as we can understand from the dictionary meaning[6]. Although nuclear family households are really common in modern times, pre-modern households mainly were more complex. In the previous section, it was shown that the nuclear family became widespread with the change of the bourgeois family. For this reason, in this section, where modern and pre-modern housing and households will be mentioned, I will deal mostly with the housing of the urban middle classes and, for comparison, the housing of the working class. Nevertheless, to convey the subject in its entirety, I will also refer to rural families and housing on some occasions.

3.1.1 Western Perspectives

Edward Shorter (1977) indicates that traditional European families cannot be identified simply because the household patterns differed by socio-economic classes and settlements in which people lived. The wealthy families' –petit bourgeois, merchants-

[6] Even "family" did not have to mean people with blood ties. For example, in Ancient Rome the word "Famiglia" meant people who lived in same residence (Kurt, 2021).

houses in town mostly included more people than labourers. We can explain the reason in two ways: economic conditions and the life style. The households consisted of servants alongside family members in the houses of merchants. Servants were for both domestic work and the workplace (Shorter, 1977). The houses of merchants were combined with both living and working spaces (Rybczynski, 1987). So the petit-bourgeois needed assistance, and they also could meet to pay them. However, the labourers could not afford to hire an assistant for domestic needs. The number of children living in the home also differed among these classes. It was common for almost all classes for children to leave home to work at an early age. This rule was a more prevailing situation for boys, but girls in wealthy families could stay in the home until marriage (Shorter, 1977).

The home was a public place in medieval times. The rooms –if there were more than one or two, the houses of the poor consisted of one room with a fireplace (Perrot, 2018) - could require several functions at different times of the day (Rybczynski, 1987). *Salle* was that kind of room of the house in Burgundy, France. It was a multi-functional centre of home life where all family members of all generations were together (Birdwell-Phesant & Lawrence-Zuniga, 2020). Accordingly, furniture was also multi-functioned. There was no writing table or dining table; it was the table people could eat, prepare food, work, and write on. The table was taken away in the evening, and beds showed up (Rybczynski, 1987).

Heating was one of the most critical issues for pre-modern houses. The family members gathered around the fire in winter and wore in layers. The windows were rare and small if there was. It was even luxury and taxed in England and France. The beds were also crucial elements in houses and pricey—the number of beds differed by the family's wealth. The whole family members shared a bed in poor houses, and the number of people could increase to five, six, and even seven. Although the situation was not so dire everywhere, workers and children could share a bedroom with their landlords or parents before the eighteenth century. While it was hard to find beds in poor houses, even the couples could have separate bedrooms in wealthy houses (Sarti, 2002). The bedroom for children was rare and children were not considered in designing house but still it was not an inventory of nineteenth century. In fact, an individual bed could not be afforded for the child but cradle dated back to old times. The cradle

provided protection for the baby because s/he could die smothering in parent's bed (Perrot, 2018). However, it is known that parents continued to sleep their little child in the same bed while the other children slept in other beds or bedroom (Sarti, 2002).

In pre-modern Europe, houses were associated with familial concepts. They were built lastingly so continuing generations of the family could use the dwelling and the durability of a house was reflection of family's coalescence, statute and permanence. The control of house and household depended on age and gender of family members. The house and household were in control in old generations but the women were mostly determined as the ruler of house. Especially the kitchen, which was the central and most multifunctional room of house, was the area of woman. In some parts of Europe, for example, the older grandmother controlled over the kitchen and she also slept there (Birdwell-Phesant & Lawrence-Zuniga, 2020). According to Alberti (as cited in Sarti, 2002), the peasant houses in the fifteenth century should include kitchen with light. There was also central kitchen in the peasant houses in Italy in the eighteenth century and the bedrooms were located around it (Sarti, 2002).

The households could alter in a lifecycle or in generations so the design of house was mostly flexible. The family members could portion the rooms, add new ones and also add a new house neighboured the old one. The last one was preferred for new couples when the young members were married but the new house was also controlled by old generation (Birdwell-Phesant & Lawrence-Zuniga, 2020).

3.1.2 Ottoman Perspective

The historians found many common features of families, households and houses in Ottoman territories in the pre-modern times. The differences between them stemmed from mostly regional customs and geographical circumstances; not religion, ethnicity or language. Another reason of different domestic cultures in Ottoman society was the economic condition such as in European societies. The size of household was mostly larger for wealthier families. Although the houses were differentiated into the material, size, or style; space use and functions of spaces were similar (Ortaylı, 2018; Faroqhi, 2005). Eldem (1954) categorized Turkish houses on common plan features. Ortaylı (2018) supported that the households were also similar in city and rural for traditional economies so in pre-modern Ottoman society.

The size of households in Ottoman society is not clear but there are some arguments according to some recent research on Ottoman documents. The households consisted of five people on average according to researches of Nejat Göyünç. The other researchers supported that the number of people were among four to eight. The number of children was also less but the reason was high mortality, not low birth rates (Ortaylı, 2018). The high mortality also affected the parents so many children did not have at least one parent (Araz, 2013; Ortaylı, 2018). A master thesis, *The Ottoman Households in the Seventeenth Century: A Case Study of Istanbul* analysed the households in the seventeenth century in Istanbul, also supported that the size of household was four or five people and the number of children was 2, 26 on average (Yetiş, 2005).

Alan Duben gave some important information about Ottoman families and households in *"Kent, Aile Tarih* (2012)" and also in "*İstanbul haneleri: Evlilik, aile ve doğurganlık, 1880-1940* (2014)" with Cem Behar. Although both researches considered mostly the modern period of Turkey, Duben (2012) indicated that the living styles in rural did not sharply changed until 1950s so it can be assumed that some findings were the same in the past. Kemal Karpat's research on Ottoman census also involved modern periods from 1830 to 1914 (Karpat, 2003). While he was explaining the method and concept problems of Ottoman census researches, remarked that the census was based on tax obligation or compulsory military service. Therefore, Ottoman census until 1856 does not straightly inform about the Ottoman family as a social unit. In the fifteenth and sixteenth century, Ottoman census included adult males, especially taxable head of the family and others. The taxable unit was *hane* (family) and the representative was the male householder. The Ottoman family was not considered as nuclear or extended (Karpat, 2003, pp. 46-47).

Although the household size was small, the idea that traditional Ottoman society lived in the form of an extended family did not completely disappear. The extended family included three generations of a family. Ortaylı (2018) explained that families mostly lived in houses around a courtyard and the family members were part of one socio-economic unit. The meaning of *hane* (household) also creates an interesting situation in this subject because Eldem (1968; cited in Duben, 2012) remarked that *hane* also meant room as well as house or household. This situation may be accurate for

mostly upper-class families. Their houses were more complicated and crowded because the official business was also conducted in the house. There were officers who worked and lived with the high bureaucrats like grand viziers. The dual use had continued until the emergence of modern bureaucracy and the new institutional bodies in the nineteenth century (Tanyeli, 2012). The houses consisted of two parts called *muhavvatai-hariciye* (external/public) and *muhavvatai-dahiliye* (internal/private) . The function of the former was to keep official works while the other was more private and belonged to the family. Both parts could be arranged around one or more courtyards (Tanyeli, 1999; Tanyeli, 2012). Besides, Akgün Özkaya (2015) also mentioned in her research on eighteenth century İstanbul houses, that the parts of houses named as *hariciye* and *dahiliye.* They were probably the earlier types of *haremlik* and *selamlık* that emerged in the nineteenth century (Akgün Özkaya, 2015; Tanyeli, 2012). Eldem (1954) remarked that haremlik and selamlık were seen in all houses in his book *Türk Evi Plan Tipleri* which he analysed 1500 houses from the second half of the fifteenth century to the end of the nineteenth century. The parts did not affect house plans every time because *selamlık* could be a one room in some houses. However, some big houses of statesmen had two buildings for each *selamlık* and *haremlik* (Eldem, 1954). *Harem* indicated the private place for women and family while selamlık was the place for men and their guests (Kurt, 2021). Similar to *haremlik-selamlık* separation, *dahiliye* was more private and where the women were in charge of (Akgün Özkaya, 2015).

The poorer families lived in houses with one room while the upper-class families' houses were more crowded and larger (Tanyeli, 2012; Duben, 2012). The average of one-room houses in İstanbul at the end of the fifteenth century was 66 percent; in the middle of sixteenth century it dropped to 38 percent and the average of two-room houses was 37 percent. However, the rates did not include collective house forms. The collective type of pre-modern period consisted of single rooms called *hücerat*; some families lived in these rooms. There was also a similar collective type where the single men lived. In these living units, spaces such as kitchens and toilets were used in common. It is also known that small scale collective houses existed in Bursa and in Edirne (Tanyeli, 2012).

The traditional Turkish house consisted of rooms that each of them could be a dwelling unit for each family. This situation made features of rooms different from

European houses, especially when it comes to privacy in houses (Duben, 2012). The doors between rooms were rare; the rooms opened a hall (*sofa*) or a courtyard (Eldem, 1954). The room doors even arranged with privacy. Even if the rooms opened to the sofa, which was a part of the house, the privacy of a room should be considered because a room was an independent living unit. The door could be arranged in the closet or it could be hidden with a curtain. The closet was an important part of a room, not external furniture. While it provided space to keep objects of the people living in that room, some of them had another part in it for bathing -called *gusülhane*- (Küçükerman, 1985).

Contrary to the built-in closet in Turkish houses, other furniture was portable. The beds were put in the closet in the morning because of the multi-functional feature of the room. The space for sleeping and daily life was common (Faroqhi, 2005, p. 181; Küçükerman, 1985, p. 81). The room could also be used for eating; separate kitchens were rarely seen in the big houses (Faroqhi, 2005, p. 181). Akgün Özkaya (2015), in her research on the eighteenth-century houses in Istanbul, specifies the percentage of the existence of *matbah* (kitchen) in houses. According to her results, the existence of a kitchen was frequent, unlike the findings of Yerasimos and Tanyeli, who researched sixteenth-century houses in Istanbul. However, Özkaya remarked that the houses in her research belonged to upper and middle-class households and also the kitchen may have been frequent from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century (Akgün Özkaya, 2015, p. 216).

3.2 Concepts of Modern House

> "Domesticity, privacy, comfort, the concept of the home and of the family: these are, literally, principal achievements of the Bourgeois Age."
>
> John Lukacs (1970)

When we talk about the concepts of modern housing, various themes and developments are mentioned about the ways of thinking, habits, and lifestyles that have developed with modernity, re-establishing the house physically and conceptually in a 'modern' way. The concepts defined as the main achievements of the Bourgeois Era in the above excerpt point precisely to this issue. The nuclear family ideal, which is seen

as an extension of the bourgeois society, was founded on these concepts together with their house and redefined the house as the family's private living space.

Historians tried to answer many questions about the changes of houses, households, and families. The main theme here is that the bonds of the nuclear family consisting of a mother, father, and children were strengthened, households became smaller, and 'home' was seen as a special place. Naturally, not all of these improvements occurred in order. According to Witold Rybzynski, the Netherlands led the family to become child-centred, and the home became family-centred. However, he remarked that it is dangerous asserting that family intimacy showed up in an exact place (Rybzynski, 1987). Also, Laslett found the roots of nuclear families –and the modern house with separated parts by function, gender, and generation- in England in the seventeenth century (Birdwell-Pheasant & Lawrence-Zuniga, 2020; Laslett, 1970).

The Netherlands became a major economic power in Europe despite its small territories and being recently independent. The country's manufacturing towns grew rapidly in the seventeenth century. In the same period, European countries' population-based on agriculture but burghers were predominant in the Netherlands, so it was a bourgeois society. Although the economic situation of the families was good, they were distinguished from the pre-modern merchants by their houses and household structure. The households consisted of four or five people, so the houses were tiny. There were a couple of reasons for the small size of the household population. First, the Dutch people mostly had their own houses, so tenants were absent. They also did not have servants in homes because their workplaces were separated from the house. Employers did not have to provide a dwelling for servants at work. Eventually, the mothers cared for their children, and they did not need a nurse in the house (Rybzynski, 1987).

It seems like suitable conditions were provided for the living of the nuclear family consisting of a mother, father, and children in a house. However, family relations and the small size of the household have created domesticity around the nuclear family in the Netherlands. Shorter (1977) expresses that the most important factor in the formation of the nuclear family was the relationship between mother and child. Perhaps, the absence of nurses could cause a stronger mother-child relationship. Not only the mother but both parents approached their children emotionally, not disciplinarily. The

Dutch people also cared for children's education, so they started to go to school until they were three years old. The children had lived at home with their parents until marriage. All those features of the Dutch family created domesticity, intimacy, and privacy at home (Rybzynski, 1987).

In the nineteenth century, the conditions that gave rise to the Dutch nuclear family residence produced a similar result in Europe and America's industrialized and capitalist cities. The separation of the house from the workplace and public space as the family's private living space resulted from urbanization since the mid-nineteenth century, with the residential areas of the middle classes moving out of the city. The separation of the domestic space from the workplace has started to define it as a special place where the household can get away from their working practices and relax and rest (Chambers, 2020, pp. 41-42). Blunt and Dowling (2006, pp. 100-101) argue that the idealization of white, heterosexual, nuclear-family suburban homes matches the concept of housing with the home. The emotional bond that household members establish with the home, explained as domesticity, is a modern formation (Miller Lane, 2007, p. 3). Heynen and Baydar also draw attention to the connection between the idealization of the house and the rise of industrial capitalism while looking at the meaning of domesticity.

The separation of home and workspaces has revealed a dichotomy that is defined as private-public, matching the first feminine and the other masculine. Feminist approaches hold capitalism responsible for this gendered spatial segregation and say that spatial segregation occurred by excluding women from production practices in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (Cieraad, 2017, pp. 1-2). As Chapman and Hockey (1999) cited:

> McDowell (1983) has pointed out that for many the process of suburbanisation has created a geographical separation of ‘home and work’, ‘domestic and public’, ‘female and male’, with women trapped in the child-centred world of the suburb, without transport or access to the public facilities of the city. (p. 61)

According to Tanyeli (2004), modern people have come to define themselves with their house and what it contains. Therefore, living in a modern house has become represented by a residential interior that symbolizes a modern lifestyle. The exclusion of the house and women from the production area also revealed a consumer culture emphasizing the decoration of the house and whose target audience was women. The room where guests were received in Victorian upper-middle-class homes was arranged as a showcase with the decoration. There have been publications containing advice on the emerging decoration concerns. Advice literature that first appealed to the upper and middle classes became available to the working classes at the end of the nineteenth century. The publications, which advised about the house, were not only limited to the subject of decoration but also produced content in all areas that would interest the housewife. The contents, which included subjects like housework, child-rearing, and home economics, were concerned with the rational use of the home. At the end of the nineteenth century, the principles put forward by Frederick Taylor to increase efficiency in the production area were reflected in the home area over time. All the advice, from planning the spaces in the house to how, when, and with what tools to do the housework, suggested rational and efficient methods of arranging and using the house (Chambers, 2020).

In the nineteenth century, as well as industrialization and mass production, bourgeois reformist ideas and urban specialists affected the production and design of houses. Bourgeois ideas with technological and scientific developments served some concepts of modern houses. The modern approaches of the house were expected to provide efficient and rational spaces and to meet the requirements of the idealized nuclear family. Privacy was one of the most important of them to be ensured both for the family from society and for each individual in the family. In this way, a modern house should include a living-dining room for family activities, a bathroom, an efficient kitchen with modern equipment, and three bedrooms, one for parents and the others for children of different genders (Birdwell-Phesant & Lawrence-Zuniga, 2020).

The nineteenth century was a significant turning point in terms of the introduction of house design into the field of architects' professional practice. In pre-modern times, the house emerged as a product of cultural and technical accumulation. Architects were building large-scale houses that were commissioned only by high-income people.

However, in the second half of the nineteenth century, urbanization, the increase in population, and the increase of the middle classes in new expectations were an opportunity for architects to design houses. The middle classes could neither afford large-scale houses nor were they willing to settle for traditionally built dwellings. The house was no longer just a building that met the need for shelter but also an object of prestige. Increasing urbanization throughout the century revealed the demand for housing to meet the needs of the new urban population. The increasing housing problem and the spread of industrial production paved the way for the mass construction of houses (Bilgin, 2000). Thus, modern architectural approaches that developed since the turn of the century, depending on the nineteenth-century concepts such as industrialization, mass production, and rationality, revealed various principles in housing design.

The concepts mentioned above were put forward with various principles and approaches by the leading architects of the period at the beginning of the twentieth century. While approaches such as Taylorism based on efficiency in mass production emerged in the USA, the influence of modernist architecture was seen in Europe. Machine efficiency and the scientific method were the basis of the modernist approach in design (Guillén, 1997). After the First World War, new residential settlements were forming in suburban areas. These were different from the previous model of detached houses with gardens and were built in apartment blocks. However, unlike the nineteenth century apartments, they were designed to receive fresh air and sun in every apartment flat. Frankfurt Kitchen, designed by Margarete Schütte-Lihotzky, which was included in the social housing project of Ernst May after the war, was also based on the understanding of designing the house with the scientific method (Colquhoun, 2002). The main features of the Frankfurt Kitchen were the functionality in small spaces, its hygienic and design that makes daily life easier for the housewife (Scanlan, 2011).

After the Second World War, the need for housing arose again. In France, Le Corbusier was commissioned to build a residential unit. The Unite d'Habitation was, according to the architect, an important example of modern middle-class housing (Colquhoun, 2002). It was a well-programmed mass housing project that fulfilled many functions and services, not just as a shelter. Thus, the architect reflected his healthy, beautiful, mass-produced 'House-Machine' approach in this project. Le Corbusier also

revealed his rational design approach by designing the house according to the Modulor scale (Pogharian, 1985).

3.3 Being Modern in Modernized House in Turkey

The discourse of being modern in a modern house was emphasized in the context of Turkey in the early Republican period (Bozdoğan, 2002). However, some modern practices about domestic space had been started in İstanbul since the eighteenth century; and modernization efforts have gained momentum during the nineteenth century and have been effective in many areas. In the context of the modernization of house, one of the most effective areas of these developments is the change of lifestyle, daily life and family life. However, developments such as modern urban planning and new construction techniques that affect the urban fabric and architectural structures have also been holistically effective in the change of residential architecture.

In the eighteenth century, the room numbers in houses increased but still there was no functional separation of the rooms. More room provided privacy and comfort for families. Another alteration in planning the house was the doors between rooms since the end of the eighteenth century so the room started to lose its function as *hane.* The arrangement was not frequent even in the nineteenth century but it was a sign of nuclear family life in the house (Tanyeli, 2012).

İstanbul became the centre of modern buildings as any other modernising developments in the nineteenth century. The apartment buildings in developing districts, the detached houses on the Bosphorus shore, and the row houses were the new house types that emerged (Ertuğrul, 2009, p. 295). These housing types prepared the modern houses of the next century. Apartments have become the most built and used house type since the mid-century. Detached houses at the peripheries of the city, mostly used as summer houses, did not directly define the transition to modern housing, but the change in the summer house culture demonstated that the upper class began to prefer a modernized lifestyle. The regions where these summer houses were built became the places where the ideal detached houses with gardens were settled in the Republican period. Row houses, on the other hand, were not a frequently used type of housing. However, the concept of standardization, which entered the architectural program with

the row houses, opened the way to mass housing. The three house types whose development is examined in this chapter describe the types of houses with child's rooms analyzed in the next chapter. In this title, the historical context of these types is examined and the modernization of the house is explained.

The reforms made after the Tanzimat Decree (1839) began to transform Istanbul on both an urban and building scale. Rationalist urban planning came to the fore for the city, which aimed to be at the same standards as the capitals of other European countries. According to this new planning approach, the geometric orders were extensively used in contrast to the organic form of the existing urban fabric. Thus, the control of fires, one of the biggest problems of Istanbul, and transportation would be easier. The fire danger was primarily associated with the dense wooden housing pattern in the city. For this reason, buildings had to be made of masonry instead of wood to prevent fires. In the second half of the nineteenth century, especially in Pera, the construction of apartments accelerated and these new European-style buildings were mostly masonry structures. These buildings were implemented according to the new building codes and they were aligned on the road line and eventually created images similar to the streets of European counterparts. At the same time, the mansions of the Muslim upper classes began to change in some respects. Although the interior remained traditional, the façades of the masonry mansions bore traces of European styles (Çelik, 1986).

Over time, the upper class Ottomans started to adapt European, especially French culture in domestic space, too. Adaptation of European culture did not transform the domestic space completely, immediately but it aroused a cosmopolitan environment. Modern and traditional culture existed eclectically in that transition period (Bozdoğan, 2002, pp. 212-213). The introduction of European-style furniture in Ottoman houses coincided with the eighteenth century but the first Ottomans who had these objects were the upper-class non-Muslims. The Muslims adopted them in the second half of the nineteenth century. Mattresses laid on the ground were replaced with bedsteads; the candlesticks, which were used to illuminate the houses for centuries, were replaced with gaslights. The new furniture types became widespread in İstanbul houses in the late nineteenth century (Bozkurt, 2015.) The modern domestic objects became the symbol of social status and ‘westernization’ for upper-class Ottomans. The piano, for example,

was not only a functional object but remarkable furniture of status (Işın, 1985, p. 552; Gürel, 2016, p. 458).

Not only had the physical features of domestic space been modified, but also the social ones. There was a tendency for individualization of family relations; patriarchal authority was gradually disappearing (Işın, 1985, p. 556). The family structure, such as the husband and wife relationship, the way of raising children, and thus the domestic roles and the tasks of the parents started to change which had been crucial indicators of modernization of the family in Turkey (Bozdoğan, 2002, pp. 212-213). The nuclear family type was internalized in domestic culture before the proclamation of the Republic. The houses did not separate as *haremlik* and *selamlık* anymore (Bozdoğan, 1996a, pp. 313-314).

The very popular topic of the narratives about changing domestic culture was the collapse of life inside the great mansions (*konak*). The collapse actually symbolized the traditional domestic culture, family structure and even the empire itself. Abdülhak Şinasi Hisar described the houses in İstanbul in the late nineteenth and the early twentieth century. There were three types; one was mansion (*konak*) and two of them were *yalı* and *köşk* which were used in summers. *Konaks* were described in Tanzimat novels as big houses which show the statutes of the owner and they included so many rooms and people like many relatives and servants. However, they lost all crowded habitants one by one with the modernization and also because of economic conditions. Mainly, the lifestyle in konaks started with the Tanzimat and collapsed after the proclamation of the second constitution in 1908 (Gürani-Arslan, 1998). Tanyeli (2004, p. 62) says that the way of thinking, which triggers the demolition of mansions and the replacement of the apartments, was the 'modern.'

In fact, it was mentioned in the Chapter 2.2 that the Second Constitutional Era also prepared the Republican revolutions in the context of modernization. This period was a process in which social modernization and Turkish nationalism escalated. Eclecticism, which developed under the influence of European styles throughout the nineteenth century, began to attract the reaction of some Turkish architects in this period. In particular, Architects Kemalettin and Vedat Bey defended the spread of a nationalist architecture nourished by Turkish culture and based on the lifestyle and way

of thinking of the society. Completed in 1922 by the architect Kemalettin, Harikzedegan Apartments were designed to suit the changing lifestyle of Ottoman society. Reflecting this collective and common life, the project pointed to a new privacy order for the Ottoman family (Yıldırım, 1976).



Figure 3.1 Harikzedegan Apartments (Source: SALT)

Since the modern nuclear family was idealized, the modern house where this family lived became the popular discourse of the Republican regime. The Republican house was the single-family dwelling in which a modern lifestyle continued. Although, as a result of modernization, Turkish women became more visible in public and worklife, the idea that women's focus should be on home and family was emphasized. Girls' Institutes were established at the end of the 1920s to educate women for rationalized domestic work. Taylorist principles that emerged in the West were the primary resource for these institutes' curriculum. Efficient and rational methods in domestic work and housing planning were the modern house theme of the period, and this approach was reflected in the Republic of Turkey. In this context, comparing the new and old houses, the Ottoman house kitchen was described as unclear and untidy, the new rational kitchens were affirmed (Bozdoğan, 2002). *Süs* magazine published an article entitled "The Housewives in America." that mentioned about how the housewife

was cleaning her house without tiredness. Some drawings showed the housewife using house appliances like the washing machine and vacuum cleaner (Figure 3.1).



Figure 3.2 The Housewives in America (*Süs*, 1923, 2)

The family and woman magazines started to popularise the modern housing concepts before the architectural periodicals. Those included the articles about how modern houses should be, and they published Western houses. The projects were various: from modernist ones as Le Corbusier's Villa Savoye to neo-classical houses. All defined the modern as Western lifestyle independent of the house style (Bozdoğan, 2002).

Yedigün (Seven Days), one of the most popular periodicals of the time, did not only settle for foreign examples but also included the Turkish architects' designs since the mid-1930s (Bozdoğan, 2002). House design became an essential field for Turkish architects because foreign architects have been hired to construct Ankara as a modern capital and design other public projects since the Republic's first years. Turkish architects saw themselves as educators about modern and Western lifestyles while practicing house design. They took the responsibility to teach the ones who ate, sat, and slept on the ground in the traditional houses how to use modern furniture like chairs, beds, or tables (Gürel, 2016).

The modern furniture and functional design were recognizable in upper-class houses designed in the 1930s. Modern concepts like functionality, sanitary, healthy spaces, comfort were emphasized in these houses. The houses consisted of functional areas such as a living room for the family activities, a dining room, bedrooms, a workroom. The architects designed large windows in the way of the Modern Movement,

and those windows made the house a healthier environment by letting the sunlight in the house. The houses were designed with electricity and hot water plumbing to provide modern comfort conditions (Gürel, 2016).

In the first half of the twentieth century, some initiatives should be mentioned in housing production, apart from single-family houses. The housing cooperatives established in the mid-1930s would play an essential role in the following years. Although the cooperatives aimed to provide housing ownership affordable, they could not appeal to the middle classes until the 1950s (Alkan & Uğurlar, 2015). For example, most of the houses in Bahçelievler Housing Comparative, the first housing cooperative in Turkey and designed by Hermann Jansen, were single houses alongside row-houses and double houses. Thus, it became a low-density settlement for the high-income groups (Akcan, 2009, p. 154).

The banks became another actor in housing production in Turkey at the end of the 1940s. Lottery houses distributed to the account owners have somewhat met the housing need. The lottery houses were designed as two-story single houses until the mid-1950s. The houses designed by Abidin Mortaş for İş Bank and the accents on the advertisement posters show that larger detached houses were offered during this period. However, since the mid-1950s, the form of bank lottery houses switched from detached houses to apartment buildings. The apartments were minimal and economical, designed to accommodate the small and nuclear families (Şumnu, 2014) (Figure 3.2).

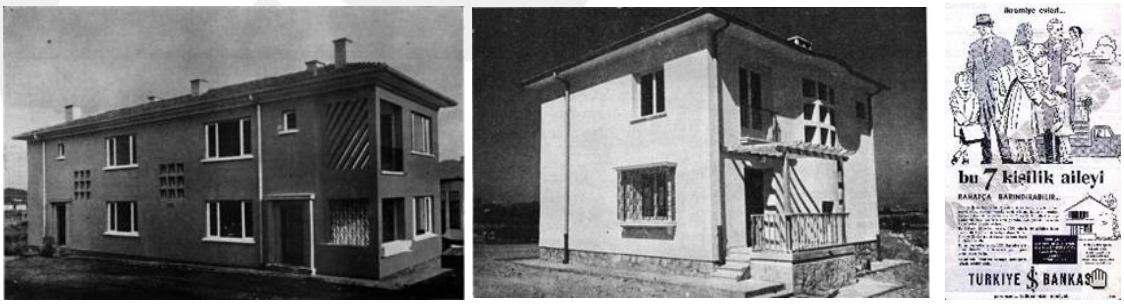


Figure 3.3 Isbank Lottery Houses (*Arkitekt,* 1949, 3-4; *Arkitekt,* 1950, 1-2), and Turkey Isbank Lottery House Advertisement (Source: https://usumnu.wixsite.com/ikramiye)

Although Turkey did not attend the Second World War, the wartime conditions had remarkable effects on Turkish economy. During the war years, the expenditures required to equip the army and keep it ready, albeit for preventive purposes, forced the people economically. Increasing prices, interrupted investments, and high tax rates

caused reactions from various social classes. After the end of the war in 1945, social pressure and the victory of the democracy front triggered the transition to the multi-party process in Turkey (Yücel Batmaz & Erdem, 2016).

Urbanization became the prominent term of the period after the Democrat Party came into power in 1950. The agricultural reform, which took place depending on the government's economic policies, changed the population structure of the rural and urban areas. While mechanization in agriculture developed in favor of large landowners, working peasants began to create a surplus of labor in the countryside; thus, internal migration from rural to urban emerged. Another development was experienced in the trade and service sectors of the cities in favor of the commercial bourgeois. On the other hand, this development became a force of attraction that triggered the migration from the rural to the city (Yücel Batmaz & Erdem, 2016). In the period of urbanization, the population growth rate in cities increased due to migration to the city and decreasing death rates after the war (Tekeli, 2012). Keleş (1978, as cited in Koca, 2015, p. 24) says that while the population growth in cities was 20.1% between 1940-50, it was 80.2% in the next decade. The inability to meet the housing, infrastructure, and transportation demands arising from the rapid population growth in the cities has created a severe housing and settlement problem.

In the 1950s, the private sector was predominantly an actor in housing production. Builder contractors, private sector investment cooperatives, banks; all increased the city's housing stock in the form of apartments or mass housing (Koca, 2015, p. 25). While high bureaucrats preferred housing cooperatives in the early republican period, they became a form of dwelling for the middle class in the 1950s (Alkan & Uğurlar, 2015, p. 38).

The professional organization was also provided with the establishment of the Chamber of Architects in 1954. At the same time, this period was when architectural offices started to emerge in Turkey. The offices, which did not tend to be corporatized and generally in the form of bilateral partnerships, contributed to the economization of the design. *Birleşmiş Mimarlar* (United Architects), Baysal-Birsel, Tekeli-Sisa partnerships can be given as remarkable examples (Tanyeli, 1998). This period was a process in which architects progressed along the lines of modernism in housing designs.

The effort to produce national and domestic architecture in the 1940s leaves its place in the international style. Modernist elements can even be seen in the residence designs of Sedat Hakkı Eldem, who pioneered the Second National Architecture movement. Haluk Baysal and Melih Birsel, who formed a partnership in the early 1950s, followed the modernist style consistently throughout their careers (Erkol Bingöl, 2018).

The influence of American culture in Turkey since the 1950s because the USA and Soviet Union separated as two opposing great powers after the Second World War and Turkey chose a position close to the USA. While the capitalist consumption culture of the USA gained popularity in Turkey through the media, its effects were seen especially in the daily life of the upper classes. These influences would shape the domestic material culture and lifestyle. Domesticity, the nuclear family ideal, and modern life praise, which were mainly constructed over the image of women, are seen in the popular media of the period. It was typical for the "American dream" that affects the upper and middle-upper class in Turkey to be presented as a detached house with a garden, which is the ideal of America's new middle class (Karamullaoğlu & Sandıkçı, 2020).

Since the 1950s, American culture has shown its effects through magazines like *Hayat* and *Resimli Hayat* (Life Illustrated). The articles, advertisements, and news in these magazines were the tools to domesticate women and define consumer identity. While the modern Turkish woman established her identity with material elements, domestic material culture had also gained importance with her role as a housewife. The fact that furniture and home decoration had become showcase had greatly affected the decor and use of the living rooms (Gürel, 2016). The living room was no longer allowed for the household's daily usage, but it had become a way of showing modern to the individuals outside the house, namely the guests. However, it was criticized by Turkish modernist architects, the design of the living room as a showpiece had continued. The showcase room, usually the largest one in the house, was decorated with Western furniture. The living rooms, which were ready to host the guests, had always been kept tidy and clean and had existed in the upper and upper-middle-class residences as an isolated place with a closed door. However, the small apartments that appealed to the lower and middle classes in the 1960s made it difficult for this segment to organize an isolated living room that would not be used in daily practice (Nasır et al, 2019).

As well as home decoration, living in modern houses that provided contemporary comfort conditions became one of the women's desires. The imagined apartments included central heating, a kitchen with modern equipment, and a bathroom. Contemporary home technology tools were also becoming the symbol of the modern home. Although the apartments' kitchens were relatively small until the mid-1950s, they began to expand in this period to the extent of providing space for the refrigerator. A modern kitchen with a refrigerator imported from America had become one of the ideals in modern houses (Gürel, 2016).

The period of 1960-80 is generally considered as a single period in the context of design in Turkey (Elmalı Şen et al, 2014; Tanyeli, 1998). Urbanization increased after the war, and the housing problem continued in the 1960s. Increasingly, slums and apartments have become dominant housing types in the urban fabric. Three important legal regulations in the mid-1960s made a difference in housing production. The first of these was the Public Housing Standards determined in 1964. Others are Flat Ownership Law (*Kat Mülkiyeti Kanunu*) enacted in 1965 and the Slum Law (*Gecekondu Kanunu*) of 1966.

While transitioning to the planned period after the 1960 military coup, there were two main principles in the housing part of the First Five-Year Plan. These principles were to enable more houses to be built without increasing the investments too much, reduce the construction of luxury houses, and accommodate a large population by building cheap public houses suitable for health. The public housing, the standards of which were determined by this arrangement, were examined in two parts as minimum quality and medium quality. The standards specified the space sizes, door/window dimensions, installation rules, rules to be considered in disaster areas, the properties of the building materials to be used, and the technical drawing requirements (Resmi Gazete, 1964, n. 11664). The arrangement was a significant development for the proper design of the houses in terms of health and comfort.

Until 1965, the problems experienced in using different parts of a single house building independently were tried to be solved by joint ownership agreements. However, since joint ownership was a limited practice, it did not guarantee users' rights

properly (Balamir, 1975). On the other hand, Flat Ownership Law was a development that accelerated the construction of apartments in Turkey and provided the production of housing that the middle classes could afford economically (Gürel, 2009, p. 704). Standardization began to be seen in floor plans after 1965, with the change of process in apartment construction (Faiz Büyükçam, 2018, p. 74).

The Slum Law was enacted in 1966 to solve the problem of slums came after urbanization and rapid population growth. According to the law, some slums could be fixed, but those that could not be improved had to be removed (Sey, 1998, p. 288). This proposal did not solve the problems, but slum settlements with poor housing conditions and lack of infrastructure began to turn into neighborhoods with decent and low-density infrastructure in the late 1970s (Şenyapılı, 1998, p. 311).

3.3.1 The Emergence of Family Apartments

When he was abroad as Ottoman ambassador in Paris and London, Mustafa Reşid Pasha, who was the author of the Tanzimat decree, wrote a letter and gave some suggestions about city planning for Istanbul. He offers an iron-grid system for streets in order to reduce fires. Mustafa Reşid had also some ideas about dwellings and comprised the house types of Paris and London. According to him, the apartments in Paris were not appropriate for Ottoman families' living style because of privacy issues, but the single family houses in London could be preferred. Nevertheless, the apartment buildings had got more approval later on (Bilsel, 2015. p.500; Öncel, 2010). According to Balamir (1994) the emergence of the apartments in Turkey was the consequence of the practical reasons and the conditions altered the way of thinking of the society.

The apartment buildings emerged in the nineteenth century Istanbul, especially in Beyoglu where non-Muslim population was high. Population increase in Beyoglu entailed the construction of apartments but also the people living there had economic and technical power to provide them (Faiz Büyükçam, 2018, p. 69). The urban reforms of Tanzimat made the district available to develop with business opportunity, modern transportation and new buildings. While Beyoglu became a growing and modern area, the new construction technics also supply to raise multi-storey apartments. The apartments were one of the new building types of the nineteenth century Istanbul and became the symbol of modernisation and Westernization. Although the apartment

buildings indicated new lifestyle for Ottomans, the first examples of the apartment buildings could have been organized in accordance with traditional Ottoman houses (Öncel, 2011, p. 27).

There were also other collective housing types apart from apartment buildings that were built in the nineteenth century. In the Goad maps[7], there were two types of collective house types: *Appartements* and *Habitations.* The former was the apartment building that had non-common flats on each storey. The *Habitations* were built before 1876 and did not have single wet area for each flat so this type could be family house. However some examples of Habitations examples which had single wet area on each storey existed before 1858. Most of these examples had separated entrance or stairs. One with two entrances can be as that the house had separated area as *haremlik-selamlık* but also the extra entrance can also be added later (Figure 3.3). The separated entrances were representation of privacy need. Another example had also non-common flat on each storey but the stairways did not separated from the sofa properly. The flats probably used by different families of an extended family. Hence these examples could be transition type from the traditional houses to modern apartments (Öncel, 2010).

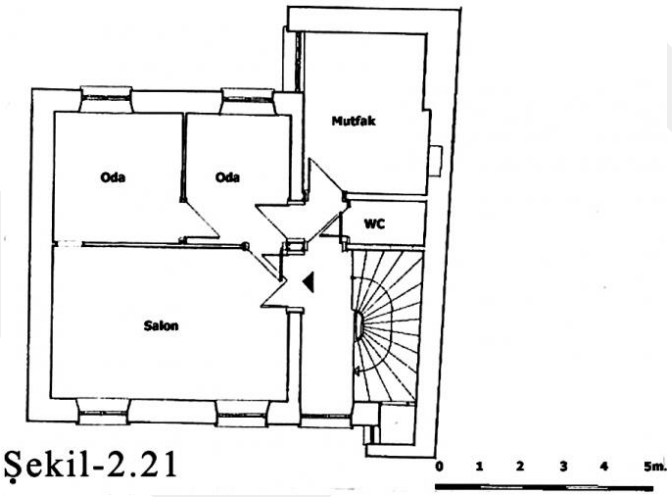


Figure 3.4 The plan of an apartment built between 1858 and 1872 (Source: Öncel, 2010)

Some features the apartment buildings had excluded from the earlier examples. Those were built in the late nineteenth century with new materials and techniques. Comfort conditions were considerable as defining apartment buildings as modern. The features of modern apartments made them potential investments, so another difference

[7] The insurance maps which were drafted by E. Goad in 1905.

between apartments and previous collective house types was the owner's economic conditions (Öncel, 2010). However, the main reason to have an apartment was not income; they developed the owner family's position with the modern symbol as an apartment. The family life in apartment buildings also changed for these upper-classes at first (Işın, 1986, p. 555). Besides, the families who lived in apartments in Galata, were not the owners of them. Öncel (2010), described them as 'petit bourgeois'; middle class civil servants, artisans or merchants. These middle class families were probably the ones who also lived in transition type apartments. Nearly all of the tenants were also non-Muslim so we can say that again the modernisation of domestic culture became popular among the non-Muslim Ottomans at first.

Although the apartment buildings symbolised the modernisation, domestic culture and the planning of the flats showed some traditional characteristics. Sofa, which was the multi-functional common place of the traditional house, still existed in most of the apartment plans. The function of some was still the same as the traditional one; the sofa provided to connect other rooms. It was also used as a living room, dining room or the entrance hall in the apartments. Not only the function but also the place of the sofa in the flat could differ from the traditional types. There was also a corridor connected with it in some apartment buildings so the sofa and corridor shared the connection function. The plan types without a sofa also had corridors to connect rooms despite the doors between rooms also existed. The transition doors between rooms should be the effect of Western arrangements in planning houses. We can see night-day division of the rooms in a number of apartments so the sofa connected two parts of the house, but it was different from the haremlik-selamlik partition. One another different use of the sofa in the apartments was that it connected two similar parts of the house. Two parts could have been used by the two units of an extended family. Although only three examples answered the description of that type, it is important for traditional familial living (Figure 3.4) (Öncel, 2010).

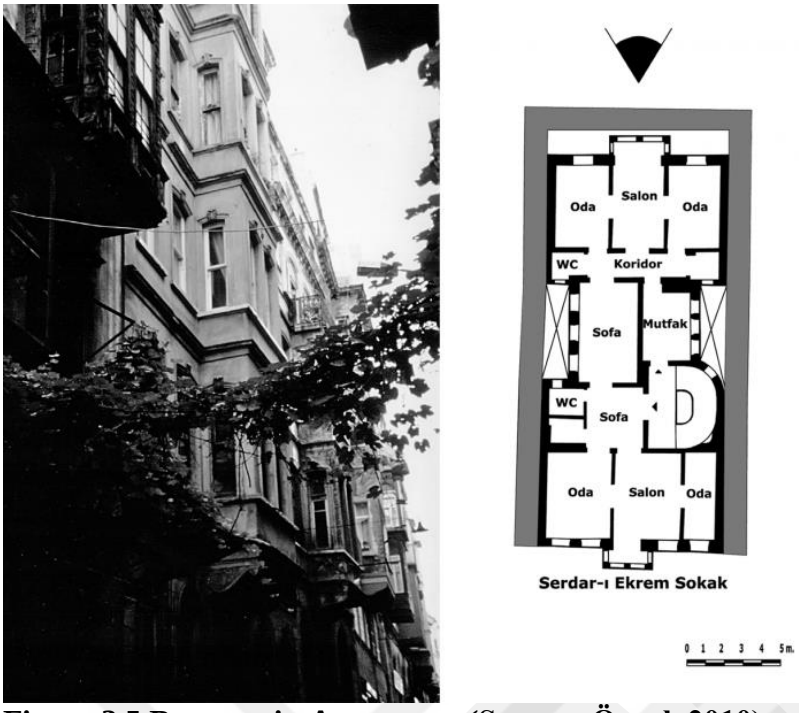


Figure 3.5 Braunstein Apartment (Source: Öncel, 2010)

The problem with apartment buildings had been the absence of property ownership law until the second half of the twentieth century. Renting a flat could be undesirable because of the invasion of privacy. Therefore, the apartment became the house of an extended family (Pulat Gökmen, 2011, p. 13). Öncel (2010) says that the apartment buildings built in Galata in the last twenty year of the nineteenthe century were seen as a source of income. However, the family apartments did not disappear after the nineteenth century. For example, Orhan Pamuk[8], in his novel "İstanbul", narrated his family apartment where the relatives lived in different flats of the building. Over time, this situation was observed in other cities where apartments were built. Especially in the cities on the Black Sea coast, there were apartments where close relatives lived and apartments were not rented or sold to foreigners (Pulat Gökmen, 2011, p. 13).

The incidents of the first decades of the twentieth century could have speeded up apartment living. The war affected all of society economically. The collapse of konaks resulted in the rise of apartments as mentioned above. Many writers like Ahmet Mithat Efendi narrated that the great mansions were destroyed by fire or destruction. Some of them lost their function and spirit even if they could survive. The owners became unable

[8] Orhan Pamuk narrates his childhood and youth memories so their family apartment belonged to 1950s İstanbul.

to maintain the household including the family, relatives and numerous servants so the crowded structure was falling. Some owners found the solution to rent the rooms or parts of their houses. The apartments were built in place of konaks or the households moved to new apartment flats. For example in *Cevdet Bey ve Oğulları (Cevdet Bey and His sons)*, the great mansion was demolished and the family lived in a new apartment that was built on the same ground. *Kiralık Konak,* which was published in 1922 by Yakup Kadri Karaosmanoğlu, became the most popular in this theme. The old owner of the konak, Naim Efendi lived with his daughter, son-in-law and granddaughter. However, the younger generation preferred modern life so they moved to one of the new apartments in Şişli which had the modern comfort conditions like electricity and bathroom (Gürani-Arslan, 1998).

The apartment buildings were seen as an income source in the early Republican period. The owners built them in order to rent flats so the apartments were called *'kira evi'* (rental house) until the property ownership law (Görgülü, 2016; Faiz Büyükçam, 2018; Balamir, 1994). The apartment buildings were criticised because of the social and architectural values in the period. The apartment owners raised doubts because the society thought how they could afford these buildings in that environment of poverty. The source of the apartment critics could differ; some architects complained about the unhealthy conditions, some thought that living in the apartment building symbolized the temporality and rootlessness. The other reason was the worry of losing social and familial values (Balamir, 1994). An article that was published in 1925 said that smallness of the apartments limited the family size (Duben & Behar, 2014).

At the end of the 1920s, new apartments were built in İstanbul in spite of population decrease after leaving of many non-Muslim citizens. Architect Servet wrote about an emerging problem in İstanbul in the architectural periodical *Mimar/Arkitekt*. He criticised the apartment construction with any necessity. According to him, investors sought to increase their own profits and the upper classes were satisfied with living in the apartments thanks to the increasing comfort demands (Servet, 1931). However, Ankara had allowed immigrants since the establishment of the republic; the accomodation problem was obvious (Aslanoğlu, 2010, p. 40). As a new capital, the newcomers were the bureaucrats and the government officials; so these middle and upper classes lived in new settlements of Ankara. Although apartment construction was

fewer in the new settlements where the single-family houses were built in this period, the apartment buildings also rose in Ankara in the 1920s. Thus, the apartment entered into the physical environment of the new capital as a modern building type. Some of them could still be handled as transition types because of the plan organisation. Sofa use did not disappear but it was mostly organized with corridors and the spaces were determined by functions. Nearly all included modern facilities like electricity, gas or elevators (Avcı Hosanlı, 2021).

As a result of the developments in the 1950s, building production increased with urbanization. The Building Incentive Law enacted in 1953 triggered apartment building, and apartment building became the dominant form of housing in Turkey (Koca, 2015, p. 25). These apartments were of different sizes and qualities to appeal to a wide socio-economic segment living in the city. Contrary to rental apartments built by landowners with high income in the early republican period, apartment buildings appealed to middle-income people after 1950. The regulations that prepared condominium ownership in the mid-50s increased the construction of apartment buildings (Alkan & Uğurlar, p. 38). After the 1965, apartment buildings boomed with the enactment of Flat Ownership Law. In the cities, old, low-rise houses with gardens were demolished, and apartments were built in their place. One of the fast apartment production actors had been the build-and-sell (*yapsatçı*) contractors. The for-profit housing production decreased the aesthetics and the construction quality of the new apartments (Pulat Gökmen, 2011). At the same time, the plans of the flats made in the few decades after the enactment of the law had become the standard apartment typology, which was divided into daily life and private spaces (Faiz Büyükçam, 2018, p.70).

3.3.2 The Ideal of Detached Houses with Gardens

The life started to exceed the city boundaries in İstanbul since the eighteenth century. A new suburban culture emerged as a result of the summer residences built by the ruling class and the upper class in places outside the city center and the migration to these regions in certain seasons. Summer house settlements were first formed in areas closer to the city center. With the development of transportation in the nineteenth century, new settlements began to emerge. Over time, these areas turned into suburban areas with the formation of permanent settlements. The healthy house type with gardens, which was emphasized in the Republican period, was also seen as villas built

by upper-class families in these regions. The mansions, which are the elements of the new summer house culture, as well as the detached villas with gardens as the residence of the ideal nuclear family, are examined under this heading, as they reflect the modernization.

During the reign of III. Ahmed (r. 1703-1730), Kağıthane was reorganized as a result of the French palace gardens' effect. In this arrangement, the stream was rehabilitated and various structures connected to the palace were built. In time, mansions belonging to statesmen were built in this region (Batur, 1983). Therefore, starting from the eighteenth century, the people in Istanbul, who began to cross the boundaries of the neighborhood, started to experience different places in the city (Tanyeli, 2012). The summer house culture first emerged in the regions close to the city center (Yazıcıoğlu Halu & Kuru, 2020, p. 343). In this period, there were summer houses around the palace in Kağıthane and Golden Horn (*Haliç*) region, where the people also used them as recreation areas (Kara, 2019).

In the nineteenth century, the influence of the summer house culture increased, and summer houses were built where the upper classes migrated seasonally. Especially the Bosphorus coasts, Adalar and Yeşilköy, were the regions where these summer houses were seen (Işın, 1985, p. 554). The development of transportation vehicles and networks affected the spread of summer houses to new settlements (Yazgan, 2018, p. 423). Before the *Şirket-i Hayriye* was established in 1851, boats provided transportation. In the nineteenth century, the number of boats increased considerably, and in response to this density, ferries began to be used for sea transportation (Kara, 2019). Transportation became more accessible in the second half of the century, and the Bosphorus coast became prominent as the summer house settlement (Yazıcıoğlu Halu & Kuru, 2020, p. 344). While the old districts were expanding in the Bosphorus, where zoning movements had increased since the eighteenth century, new ones were also forming (Koçu, 1961, p. 2855). For example, Tarabya was one of the first examples of summer house settlements as a region where foreign embassies built their summer residences (Işın, 1986, p. 554). Other developments in the transportation network were the Sirkeci-Florya, and Haydarpaşa-Gebze suburban railway lines put into service in 1872. Like the effect created by the ferry lines, the opportunities provided by the railway also increased the number of summer house settlements (Yazıcıoğlu Halu &

Kuru, 2020, p. 344). At the beginning of the twentieth century, the development of vehicles for road transportation in the city led to more frequent use of these areas (Kara, 2019).

This culture, which firstly appeared in the upper class, created new lifestyles and habits. Independence from the district and expansion into the city can be seen as a luxury; therefore, it was natural that country culture emerged in the upper class (Tanyeli, 2012, p. 36; Yazıcıoğlu Halu & Kuru, 2020, p .343). In addition to the economic conditions, the bourgeois also impacted this development because they invented new luxuries that other classes may see as waste and corruption (Tanyeli, 1999, p. 188). In the second half of the nineeteenth century, going to the suburbs became desirable for all segments of the population because this movement promised freedom and a new lifestyle to people. Yet mostly the wealthy ones could afford to live in the new suburban settlements. Especially the non-Muslim upper classes adopted a lifestyle similar to the garden house settlements in Europe in their preferred new settlements (Salah, 2013).

Seaside mansions (*Yalı)* and mansions (*köşk*) built in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are known as summer house types with unique characteristics. Especially the ostentatious summer houses with gardens of the upper classes reflected the new architectural styles (Ertuğrul, 2009, p. 302). These were usually wooden structures with several floors and shared the form and spaces with the traditional Ottoman residence. Still, the formal similarities with Western summer houses were striking (Zeylan, 2009, pp. 42-43). Many houses built in the summer resorts at the beginning of the twentieth century showed European and American house style of the period. The news in the magazines about the architecture in America and England seem to have influenced the construction of Victorian Age style wooden dwellings (Kalafatoğlu, 2009).

The summer house life, which was interrupted during the First World War, continued in the Republican period by changing (Kara, 2019). With the construction of modern beaches, villa-type summer residences were built near these beaches. New masonry villas replaced the destroyed wooden mansions (Kara, 2019; Yazıcıoğlu Halu & Kuru, 2020). The villas of wealthy customers in Istanbul were located in areas that

had developed as summer resorts in previous decades. These detached single family residences were the ideal modern house of the early Republican era, both in style and in the lifestyle they promised (Bozdoğan, 2002).

The ideal of houses with a garden was also encountered in the zoning and housing problems of Ankara after being the capital city. The concept of the garden city, which emerged as a solution to the problems brought by urbanization after the Industrial Revolution, responds to the need to live in a healthier environment. During the planning of Ankara, the residential areas were resolved in accordance with this understanding. The first plan of the new capital was drawn by the Berlin architect Lörcher in 1924. However the plan proposed by Herman Jansen in 1932 was the first city plan implemented in Ankara. The approach of both designers to residential areas has been associated with the concept of the garden city. Low-density, one- or two-storey houses with gardens show the emphasis on living in a healthy environment (Gülbahar Tuncel & İlerisoy, 2016).

3.3.3 Mass Housing and Standardization of Domestic Space

Mass housing production emerged as a solution to the problems in industrialized cities in the nineteenth century. The poverty and low living standards of the lower classes living in the city threatened the middle and upper classes, both in terms of health and social corruption. The desire to be protected from these threats triggered the construction of sanitary housing, where the living standards of the lower classes would rise (Glendinning, 2021, p. 11). Other factors that sparked mass housing production were standardization and the paternalist state. The mass production method also enabled the architectural structures to be produced more economically and quickly depending on the industrial construction techniques. On the other hand, it was instrumentalized for the state to offer equal living conditions to all its citizens (Urban, 2012).

Row houses were the first type of housing produced collectively and as a standard 'type' in Turkey (Gür & Dülgeroğlu Yüksel, 2019, p. 95). It was only one of the modernization practices imported from the West as a form of modern housing in the nineteenth century. The London row houses that Mustafa Reşid Pasha suggested instead of the apartments as mentioned in Chapter 3.3.1 seemed more suitable for the lifestyle of people in Istanbul (Yücel, 2004). As well as sharing a common wall contrary to the

traditional single houses separated by garden walls, parcel-building relationship, being produced as a type (Batur et al, 1979, p. 193), the functionally differentiated spaces in these houses were the features that defined it as a modern house (Yücel, 2004, p. 102).

Rent Houses (*Akaretler*) was an essential example among the mass houses produced in the form of row houses. Its size in scale, the fact that it was built with the palace's support and for the palace officials distinguishes it from other row houses. The residences in Akaretler consisted of two main types and their similar variations. One of the main types was planned for a single-family and included room(s) connected to a middle space and service spaces within the house. The second main type had an apartment-like use with two flats on each floor (Sağdıç, 1999).

Harikzedegan Apartments, designed by Architect Kemalettin, were among the important housing projects built at the beginning of the twentieth century. The houses built for the families who lost their homes in the great fire in 1918 were constructed in 1922. The housing complex, which consisted of four blocks, differed from traditional houses by suggesting the common lifestyle of social housing. Each block built with six floors had the same plan scheme (Batur, 2008, pp. 34-35). In the houses designed with three, four, and five rooms, the service areas were positioned to face the inner courtyard and the rooms on the street facade (Yavuz, 1981, pp. 271-272).

A housing problem arose in the new capital city, Ankara, whose population increased rapidly during the Republican era. Established to provide housing to low-income civil servants, *Emlak ve Eytam Bankası* (Real Estate and Orphans Bank) (later called *Emlak ve Kredi Bankası*-Real Estates and Credit Bank) was the first and leading actor of mass housing production in Turkey until the 1980s (Doğusan Alexander, 2013). It was first established to provide long-term and low-interest housing loans, manufacture and trade building materials, and build and sell housing (Sey, 1998, p. 285). One of the important projects undertaken by the bank was Saraçoğlu Neighbourhood which was built because of the decrease in the purchasing power of civil servants' salaries during the war and especially for the housing needs of low-income civil servants (Doğusan Alexander, 2013). Saraçoğlu Neighborhood, whose residences were designed by Paul Bonatz (Doğusan Alexander, 2013) and completed in 1946, had been criticized for design and cost (Tekeli, 2012, p. 86). In the articles of

Orhan Alsaç in *Mimarlık* (1945) and Zeki Sayar in *Arkitekt* (1946) on the Saraçoğlu District, the plans of the houses were especially criticized (Altınay & Nalçakan, 2021).

Another critical mass housing initiative of the bank was the Levent Neighborhood established in Istanbul. The first phase, designed by Kemal Ahmet Aru and Rebii Gorbon (Doğusan Alexander, 2013), consisted of low-rise single or row houses that appealed to the middle-income group. The construction of the project started in 1947 and was completed in 1950. However, the first stage residences were built in size above the social housing standards (Sey, 1998). The other three phases were completed by 1958. However, the owners criticized the prices requested for the Fourth Levent Neighbolords. Zeki Sayar also said that this mass housing initiative did not suit the principles of cheap housing and that the residences were in the luxury building class (Doğusan Alexander, 2013).

Since the mid-1930s, cooperatives were also identified as a method for mass housing production. In this context, the first housing cooperative established in 1934 was Bahçeli Evler in Ankara (Doğusan Alexander, 2013). The garden city settlement, drawn by Hermann Jansen, was the reflection of the dream of detached houses with gardens, far from the city, in Turkey, in the footsteps of the anti-urbanist movement in Europe (Kansu, 2009). After the war, the number of building cooperatives increased; fifty-five building cooperatives were established between 1945 and 1950 and 744 between 1950 and 1960. Although the purpose of the establishment of cooperatives was to build cheap and adequate houses, their costs were above expectations due to their large design to be described as luxury and the preference for detached, single houses. Since the mid-1950s, housing cooperatives had produced housing at less cost by building apartment blocks. For example, the Güzel Konut Building Cooperative, founded in 1954 and whose project was drawn by Seyfi Arkan, had nine, five, four, and two-story blocks (Doğusan Alexander, 2013). Etibank residences, completed in 1975, consisted of two blocks with thirteen floors and one with five floors (Koç Aytekin, 2019).

Chapter 4

Children’s Domestic Spaces in Turkey

In this chapter, the formation of the concept of modern childhood and the modernization of the house, which are examined under the two main headings above, are discussed together, and the child-housing relationship is analyzed at different levels. The first two parts will focus on the criteria observed in the design of children's rooms. Early examples of children's rooms are studied on plan drawings from the beginning of the twentieth century until 1945. The residences, most of which belong to upper-class families, show us the common spatial features of the children's rooms in this period. Some projects for which a ‘children’s room’ is not yet defined in the housing plans are also discussed within the scope of this section because these examples also reflect the plan schemes that include functional spaces and individual rooms contrary to the traditional residence. We can assume that one of the bedrooms belongs to the children in house projects if there is more than one bedroom but none was explicitly defined as a child's room. In the context of the second subtitle, apartments and mass housing projects built between 1945-1980 and most appealing to the middle class are examined.

In addition to analyzing the design criteria of children's rooms through the plans, it is also necessary to discuss how the designers and experts of this period approached to children’s room. In the publications reviewed within the scope of the research, it is seen that the architects do not directly address this issue. Except for a few articles published in *Arkitekt* magazine, I encountered no texts were discussing the design of children's rooms. Çakırer Özservet (2015) also states in her research that studies on children, housing, and interior design started in the early 1980s. One of the articles published in *Arkitekt* magazine on the child and housing relationship is the text of Behçet Ünsal's conference named "Kübik Yapı ve Konfor" (Cubic Building and Comfort). The speech published in the magazine in 1939 focuses on the actual modern architecture, and when describing such a modern house, he mentions about the children's room. According to Ünsal (1939), children's rooms should be flexible and suitable for their size. For example, if the beds used at night can be stored, an empty area is provided where

children can play all day. This approach proposes a flexible, functional space for the children's rooms to meet their needs. The flexible design approach in children's rooms is mentioned in Chapter 4.6, which is the conclusion part of the fourth chapter.

Ekrem Olğuner's article "Çocuk ve Mimar" (Child and Architect), published in *Arkitekt* in 1963, examines the relationship between child and architecture and discusses what architects should consider when designing any space for children. He concludes that Turkish architects mostly neglected emphasizes the spatial needs of the child, and claims that this situation should change. Buildings for children must first be protective. In addition, Olğuner draws attention to the child's need for play and advises choosing the suitable play material and not ignoring playing function in the design of the child's room. While the architect is responsible for the basic decisions of the children's spaces, he also emphasizes the parents' responsibilities in designing and furnishing the rooms (Olğuner, 1963). It can be said that this text is a significant intellectual threshold because it includes so much detail on the design of children's spaces by drawing attention to the social importance of children.

The Public Housing Standards (Resmi Gazete, 1964, n.11664), which were determined a year after the article mentioned above, aimed to provide a healthy accommodation for all segments of the society and therefore, it was an important development in terms of standardizing children's rooms. While the standards were examined as the minimum and medium quality, six groups were formed depending on the number of household users, starting from the family without children to the family with five children, in the definition of residential users. It was mentioned that ventilation –windows- plays an important role in ensuring a healthy environment in the house. The regulations suggested minimum and maximum window sizes depending on the floor area. Accordingly, the largest minimum openings with a ratio of 1/8 are recommended for the living room and children's bedrooms—minimum 1/10 for the parents' bedroom and kitchen and 1/12 for other spaces. The reason why the ventilation and sun exposure conditions are highest in the living group and the children's rooms is probably the high frequency of use of both spaces during the day. This standard is essential because it shows the importance of healthy and multifunctional children's rooms.

Apart from this, the standards set for the number of rooms should also be considered in terms of children's rooms. While it is not imperative to have a bedroom for the family without children in the minimum quality residences, only the parent bedroom is suggested for the families with one child, and the children's room is not compulsory. Due to the lack of space in this type of dwelling, it may be envisaged that the living space can be used for the sleeping function as well. For families with two or more children, there must be at least one room, the size of which varies according to the number of children. On average, the square meter per child varies between two and a half and four points one, regardless of the number of rooms. In medium-quality public residences, a seven square meter children's room is recommended for families with one child. Although the number of households increases, the area per child decreases; it does not fall below four square meters.

The Chamber of Architects, which took part in determining the Public Housing Standards, also made a statement on this subject. In this statement published in *Mimarlık*, they mentioned that the main issue is the housing problem of the low-income and that the problems of these families living in unqualified houses resulting from slums should be resolved. Since the residences examined below appeal to the middle and upper classes, it is not necessary to investigate the conditions in the Public Housing Standards comparatively. However, careful handling of children's rooms, even in houses where living conditions are kept at a minimum, is important in showing that the child-housing relationship has gained importance in Turkey.

4.1 Early Formation of Child Rooms in Houses

"Cemal altı yaşına girmişti. Pederi Cezmi Bey tarafından mektebe verildi. Lakin Cemal hiçbir şey öğrenemedi. Binaenaleyh hocaları kendisinin mektepten alınmasını pederinden istediler. (...) Ertesi günü bir çehre-i cazibedare, bir sada-yı letafet, idaye-i malik bir adam Cemal'in pederine takdim olundu. "Oğlunuzu görmeyi arzu ediyorum." dedi. Bunun üzerine bu adam Cemal'in dairesine sevk olundu ve Cemal'i görünce cebinden iki küçük yaldızlı oyun topu çıkarıp birini Cemal'e verdi. (...)"[9]

Ali Nihad (1898)

[9] Ali Nihad (1898), "Cemal", *Çocuklara Mahsus Gazete*, 131, pp. 2–3 cited in Küre (2016).

The passage above, taken from a text in *Çocuklara Mahsus Gazete*, (Special Newspaper for Children) mentions that, six-year-old Cemal had a room of his own. The paragraph taken from the story about a boy who was unsuccessful in school. Cemal's father met a private teacher. The teacher who demanded to see Cemal was taken to the boy's room. It is not surprising that the exictence of a child's space in the house is found in one of the children's periodicals that started in the modernisation period when the interest in understanding the nature of childhood and the development of children increased. As mentioned in Chapter 2, since the second half of the nineteenth century, decreasing child mortality and drawing attention to the modern education of children triggered the child to gain a more prominent place at home. The text above was included in the periodical to explain the importance of the child's education. Hiring a teacher who can provide private lessons at home for an unsuccessful child at school is a situation typically seen in upper-class families in the same period.

In this chapter, I will define and examine children's relationship with the spaces in the house by referring to several archival materials. Even if the designer defined the spaces in the house during the design process, it is clear that there may be differences during its occupation by the users. Likewise, we know that the housing design was not always the practice of an architect. Especially in the pre-modern period; the house was built with traditional construction techniques, in line with the needs of the time and in a flexible way – sometimes by the owner himself/herself. For this reason, we cannot expect the spaces in the house to be clearly defined at all times, depending on the housing production and usage processes. However, as seen in the previous sections, the multifunctional units of the pre-modern residence do not allow for the customization of any space. For this reason, it is apparent that it is difficult to talk about a child's room when we cannot define a room as someone's among the household. In other words, in this chapter, the relationship between the child and the house will be emphasized during the modernization process of the house in Turkey.

The emphasis on children and nuclear family, which increased at the beginning of the twentieth century, continued to be discussed over the house design in the early Republican period. Modern houses of the modern Republic were presented in the image of a small family consisting of parents and one or two children. The mother/woman figure was the modern housewife who cared for her home and family in this period.

However, this woman must have organized her home with rational and scientific methods. For this reason, periodicals targeting women educated Turkish women by including topics such as housework, decoration, and child-rearing (Baydar, 2002). Especially since the 1930s, magazines for women had provided essential data on the decoration of children's rooms.

In the 1930s, we came across spaces defined as "children's room," "children's bedroom," "children's playroom" in house projects. These examples were published in the journal *Mimar/Arkitekt*, which started its publication life in 1931. Therefore, the earlier examples may not be presented due to the lack of any long-lasting periodical before the publication of this periodical. Besides, there were specialized wet areas such as kitchens and bathrooms in the early twentieth century houses, which were examined using secondary sources. In some examples, other spaces are defined as 'rooms'; and there are specialized functions such as sitting, bed, and eating in some projects. In these projects, the places likely to be children's rooms will be discussed, based on the studies about modern houses in Turkey. Then, I will examine the children's rooms in the houses of the 1930s and the first half of the 1940s in the *Arkitekt* magazine. The housing production of this period mostly included detached houses with gardens and summer villas belonging to the upper classes. For this reason, the children's rooms in these resident projects are included in the plans, general trends, and differentiating examples in children's room design will be discussed. Various residential projects such as family apartments, rental houses, and type project trials for middle-class families built in the same years will also be examined in the same context.

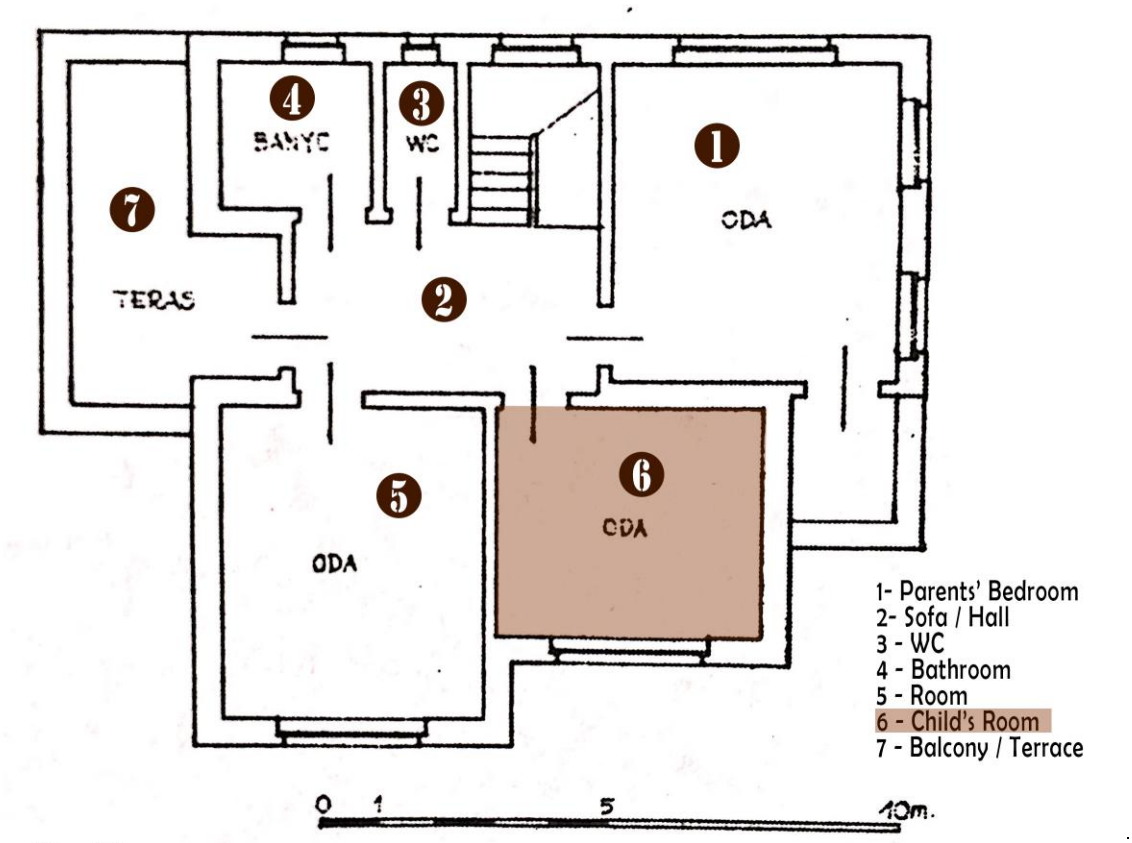


Figure 4.1 The upper floor of the house in Milli Müdafaa Street, Ankara (Source: Aslanoğlu, 2010)

The first project example above was designed as a single-family house with a garden in the 1920s. It was one of the first residential buildings of the Republic in Ankara. Living rooms and a kitchen are located on the ground floor of the two-story building, while bedrooms, a bathroom, and a toilet are located on the first floor (Aslanoğlu, 2010, p. 305). Thus, we can say that the two floors reflect the public-private duality in the house. All spaces on the upper floor are entered through a hall, accessed by stairs. The most important clues that the plan provides us are space sizes and openings. The largest space on this floor, which has openings on both sides, can be considered the master bedroom. A small niche in the corner of the room can be a washing place or a closet. However, considering that the second bathroom (or master bathroom) appeared later in the houses, this area is more likely to be a closet. One or both of the other two bedrooms can be children's bedroom. It is also possible that one of these two with equal openings belongs to the guest bedroom or a grandparent's bedroom. In this case, in the context of privacy patterns, the small space close to the parent bedroom is more likely to be considered as a child's room.

The examples in Deniz Avcı Hosanlı's doctoral thesis on Ankara residences built in the 1920s also provide clues about the design of early children's rooms. There are plan schemes in which traditional, modern, or both are seen in the residences of this period. On the other hand, children's rooms are seen in houses with specialized functional spaces depending on the modern lifestyle. The Children's Protection Agency Rental Apartment built in 1926, is one of the examples where functional spaces can be read (Avcı Hosanlı, 2018).

There are four independent flats in the typical floor plan of The Children's Protection Agency Rental Apartment (*Himaye-i Etfal Kira Apartmanı*) (Figure 4.2) designed by Arif Hikmet Koyunoğlu. Similar-sized flats fit two types of plans. In two and three bedrooms plan types, the location of the bathrooms is the most important clue to define these rooms more clearly. Access to the bathroom in all apartments is from one of the bedrooms. This usage does not fit the definition of the master bathroom mentioned in the previous example because it is the only bathing space in the apartment. For this reason, the design of the houses suggests a use specific to the nuclear family. The room where the bathroom is located can be defined as the master bedroom. Thus, other sleeping units are like children's bedrooms. At the same time, in the three-bedroom plan type, it is seen that there is a transition between two of these rooms. Therefore, the master bedroom and the other bedroom accessed from here can be defined as a single unit, even if there is a door between them. This condition strengthens the claim that the small bedroom belongs to the child. Two small bedrooms are also designed with balconies. As will be examined in detail in the following sections, it is expected that children's rooms establish a strong spatial relationship with open spaces such as balconies, terraces, or gardens. Therefore, the relationship of the two bedrooms with the open space also strengthens the idea that these rooms are children's rooms.

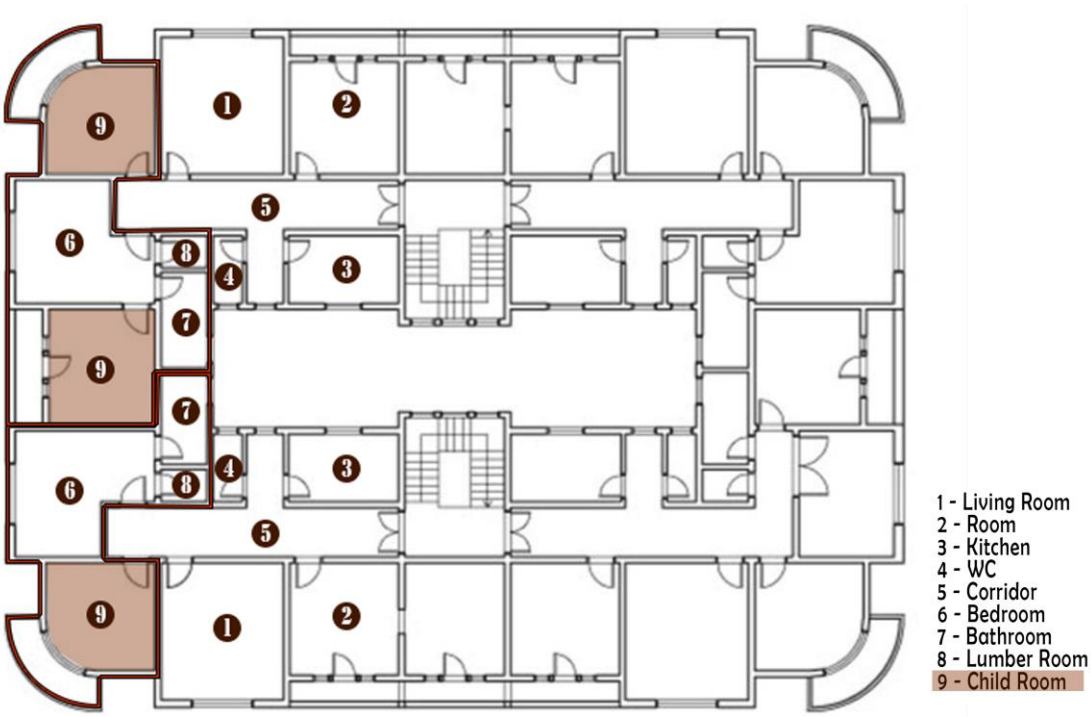


Figure 4.2 The regular floor plan of Children's Protection Agency Rental Apartment, Ankara (Source: Avcı Hosanlı, 2021)

Park Apartment in Nişantaşı, which was published in the first year of the *Mimar*, is the first example in this study in which a children's room is defined clearly on the plan (Figure 4.3). It was designed by Engineer Ahmed İhsan. The ground floor plan of the five-flat apartment built in 1930 is in the seventh issue of the periodical. Since the owner and users of the building are not mentioned, and it is not known whether all floor plans are the same, the child's room can only be discussed on the ground floor plan. It may be planned as a rental house, or the apartment owner may also be residing in this building. In other words, the children's room may be specialized in the plan since the owner and his family will use the ground floor.

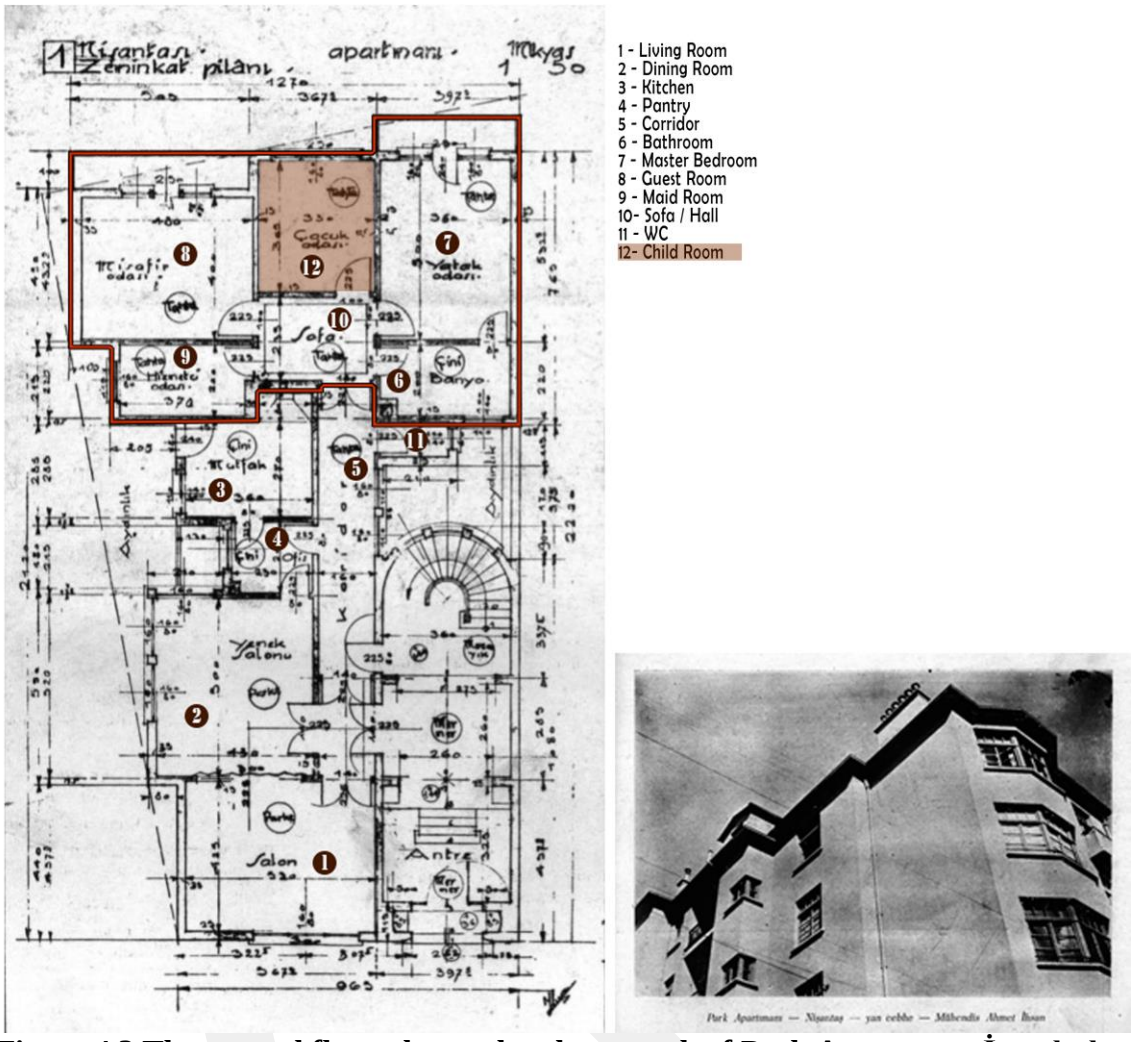


Figure 4.3 The ground floor plan and a photograph of Park Apartment, İstanbul (*Mimar,* 1931, 7)

The day-night distinction seen in modern apartments can be clearly recognized on the ground floor plan. The sofa, which opens the bedrooms and bathroom, is separated by a door from the corridor connecting the other spaces. Still, the private part cannot be considered a private unit for the nuclear family due to the maid's room and the guest room. However, the close location of the children's room and the parents' bedroom shows that family privacy is observed. The child's room in this private part of the house is arranged on the same facade as the other bedrooms. Thus, it can be said that it provides similar comfort conditions with other bedrooms. However, we do not know how many children the room is planned for, as the plan does not include furnishings, and we do not know the household size of the user.

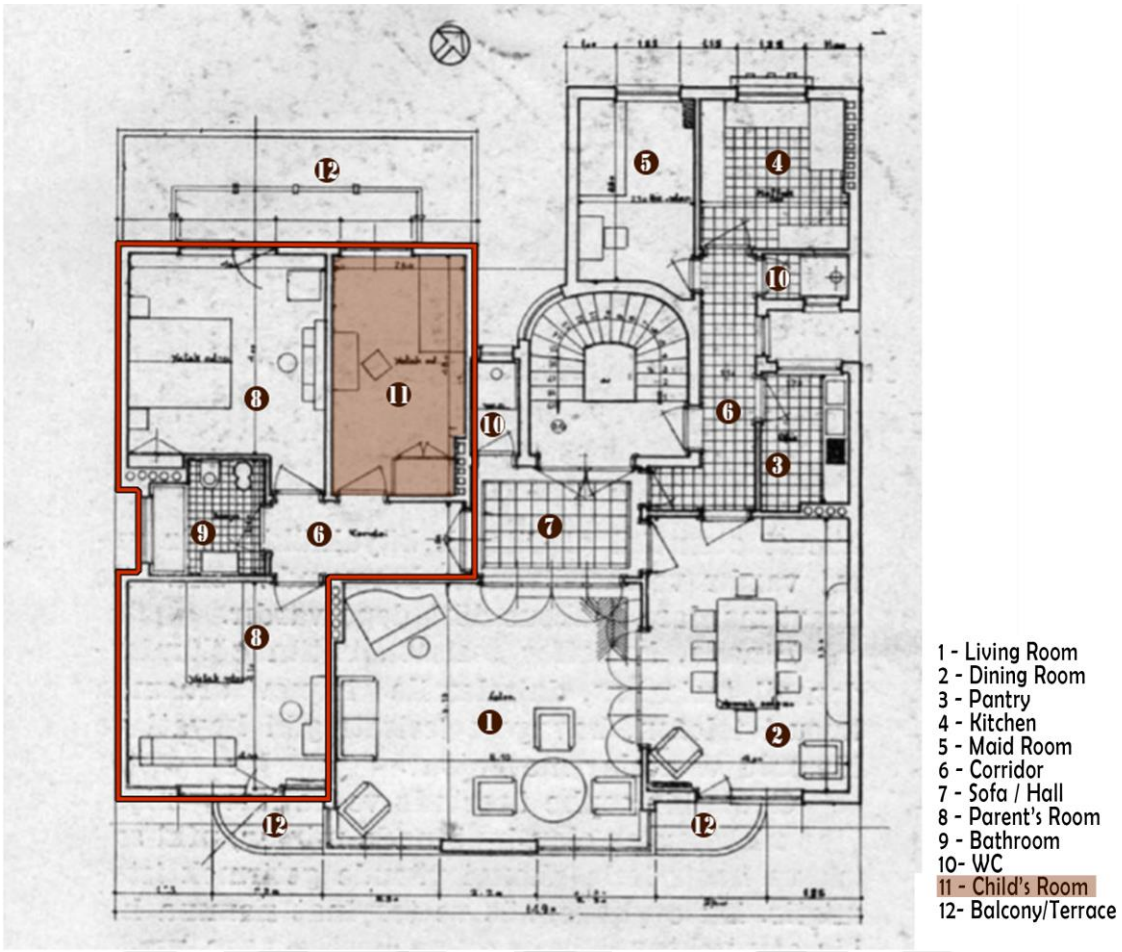


Figure 4.4 The regular floor plan of Röntgen Apartment, İstanbul (*Mimar*, 1933, 8)

Another example of the 1930s apartments is the Röntgen Apartment (Figure 4.4). It has been planned in three parts as residence, reception, and service spaces. The corridor where the residence units open is separated from the entrance hall by a door. In this section, there are three bedrooms, one of which belongs to a child, and a bathroom. Since this apartment keeps the employees' rooms separate, the residence part is a private unit for the nuclear family. It is said that the two large bedrooms belong to the man and the woman, but it is not clear whether there are separate bedrooms for the two or if there are two separate rooms for their common use. It is an uncommon example for both cases. It can be said that it was designed for an only child, considering the child's room's furniture. The room with a bed, desk, and wardrobe is likely to be used for different functions such as working, sleeping, and playing. The fact that the front of the children's room is located in the northwest is not an appropriate design decision because it is often recommended in the publications of this period that the children's rooms, which are expected to be a healthy environment, should receive daylight.

The two detached houses below, which were designed during this period, are differentiated from the upper-class villas. Architect Seyfettin Nasıh proposed cheap houses in Ankara in 1933 (Figure 4.5). These are houses with gardens, planned as separate row houses, suitable for nuclear families. The plan is designed in three parts: living space, residence, and service spaces. In the residence part, there is a master bedroom and a children's room, and a bathroom in the middle of the two rooms. Two built-in wardrobes were added to the children's bedroom. Although the children's room does not open directly to the garden, the window overlooking the side garden offers a view to the children.

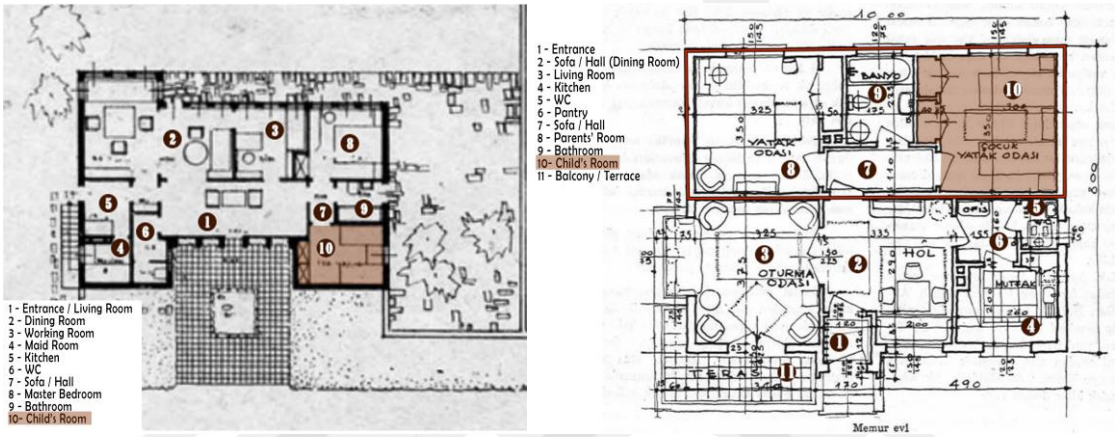


Figure 4.5 (left) Cheap Family House Types in Ankara (*Mimar,* 1933, 6) and (right) Civil Servant's House Type Project (*Mimar,* 1944, 1-2)

The residence section of the design that Abidin Mortaş called the civil servant house type project in 1944 has a similar spatial configuration (Figure 4.5). There are children's and parents' bedrooms around a night hall, which is separated from the other house areas, and a bathroom is placed in the middle of the rooms. This project is one of Abidin Mortaş's spatial solutions to the housing problem in the country in the 1940s. At the same time, the architect emphasizes that what is suitable for 'our' life is a single house with a garden. It is designed as a single story and without a basement, economically. These residences, designed for middle-class families, require a different plan solution than villas, which are almost entirely designed as two-story and sometimes with a basement. Thus, all the necessary spaces in the house are separated and grouped by a corridor or a hall. As seen in the plans of the apartments, a night hall emerges, which collects the spaces such as bedrooms and bathrooms that are private to the family (parent and child) and connects to the common hall. The two-person children's rooms and the master bedrooms occupy a similar area; thus, the residence section reveals a

symmetrical plan. Built-in wardrobes also provide sound insulation in Abidin Mortaş's project. Mortaş, in his comments about the children's room, states that besides the beds, it is sufficient with its size that can be placed on nightstands and chairs. However, it can be said that there is not enough space, for example, for the desk in both projects.

In the detached houses with gardens or in the summer villas, which were predominant in the housing production of the 1930s, the dwellings usually consist of two floors. The ground floor contains daily life and hospitality spaces such as a living room, lounge, dining room, and kitchen. It has been observed that the kitchens, the maid's room, and other service areas are located on this floor, sometimes on the basement floor. On the other hand, bedrooms are located on the upper floor and may include the guest bedroom, grandparents' bedroom, or sometimes the maid's room, as well as the master bedroom and the child's room. Some of these examples show that the maid is still seen as a family member. Although the use of the second bathroom is quite rare, it is arranged for guests or employees in cases where it is seen. But a shared bathroom for parents and children is always in the plan. As in the villas seen below, children's rooms are usually designed with large windows and balconies (Figure 4.6).

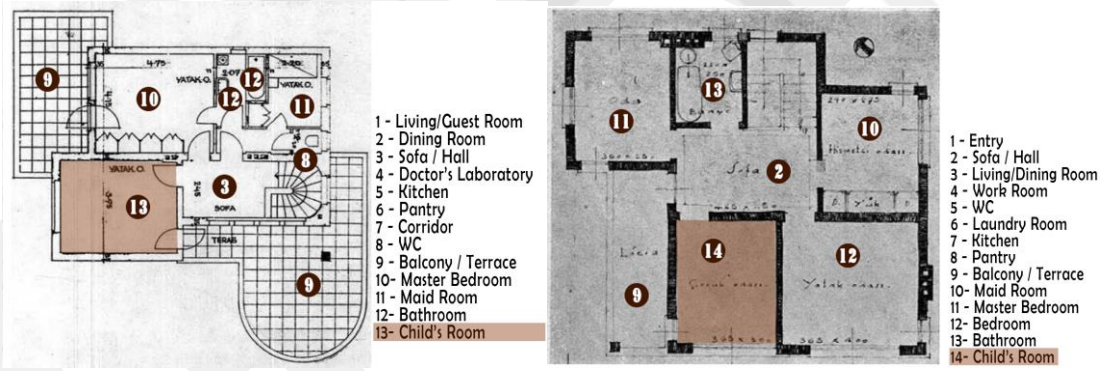


Figure 4.6 (left) The upper floor plan of Dr. Celal House, Ankara (*Mimar*, 1932, 10); and (right) the upper floor plan of Mrs. Feride House, İstanbul (*Mimar*, 1933, 1)

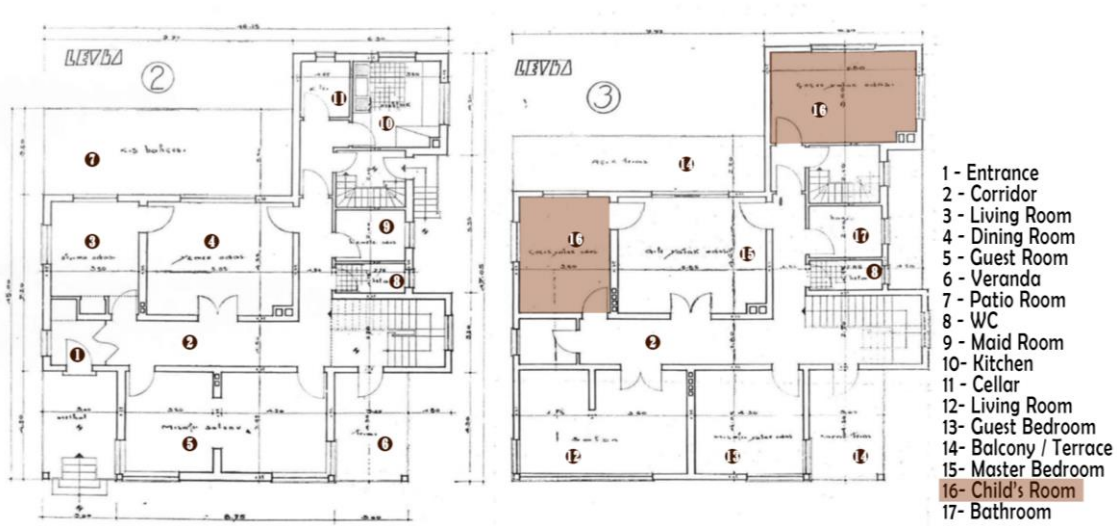


Figure 4.7 The ground and first floor plans of a house in Feneryolu, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1936, 2)

An unusual plan scheme is seen in the house project designed by Architect H. Adil in Feneryolu (Figure 4.7). The two children's rooms on the first floor are also exceptional examples. There is a transition between one child's room and the master bedroom. The other child's room is arranged as a separate unit. It is passed through a separate hall, and there is also a door between the hall and service stairs. These arrangements were made because the upper floor is planned to be rented in the future. The architect uses a similar plan scheme to separate the ground and the first floor as detached flats. Therefore, the child's room above the section where the service spaces are located on the ground floor is extremely isolated.

The transition between the living and dining room on the ground floor is repeated on the upper floor, so a door has emerged between the child's and parents' bedrooms. For this reason, the arrangement of child's rooms in this project must be kept separate from other projects examined in the research. Nevertheless, it is possible to comment on the distribution decisions of the upper floor functions. First, it is reasonable for the two rooms with a door between them to be bedrooms of nuclear family members. While it may be preferable to use these rooms for children, the reason for choosing the parent bedroom is possibly about the size of the room. Secondly, according to the data we have, replacing the isolated child's room and the guest room would have been a more preferred arrangement. However, the child may prefer a place isolated from the rest of the house at his own request; or the users want the bedrooms on the facade exposed to sun light; or they want to avoid the guest bedroom being close to the service staircase.

In the projects examined, it was observed that the homeowners had one, two, or three children. In families with two children, siblings usually share the same room. It is seen that there are different preferences in families with three children. There are two spaces defined as children's bedrooms in the plan in Figure 4.8. However, in the text describing the project, it is understood that the room with three beds is for children, and the single bedroom next to it is the governess room. If a comment is made by looking at the spatial program of the house, it can be thought that it is preferable not to make more than one room for the children. It is said that the living room, located on the same floor as the bedrooms, is suitable for functions such as a children's playroom or sewing room. Thus, the three children's rooms were not possibly multifunctional, as in other examples, but were designed only as a bedroom.

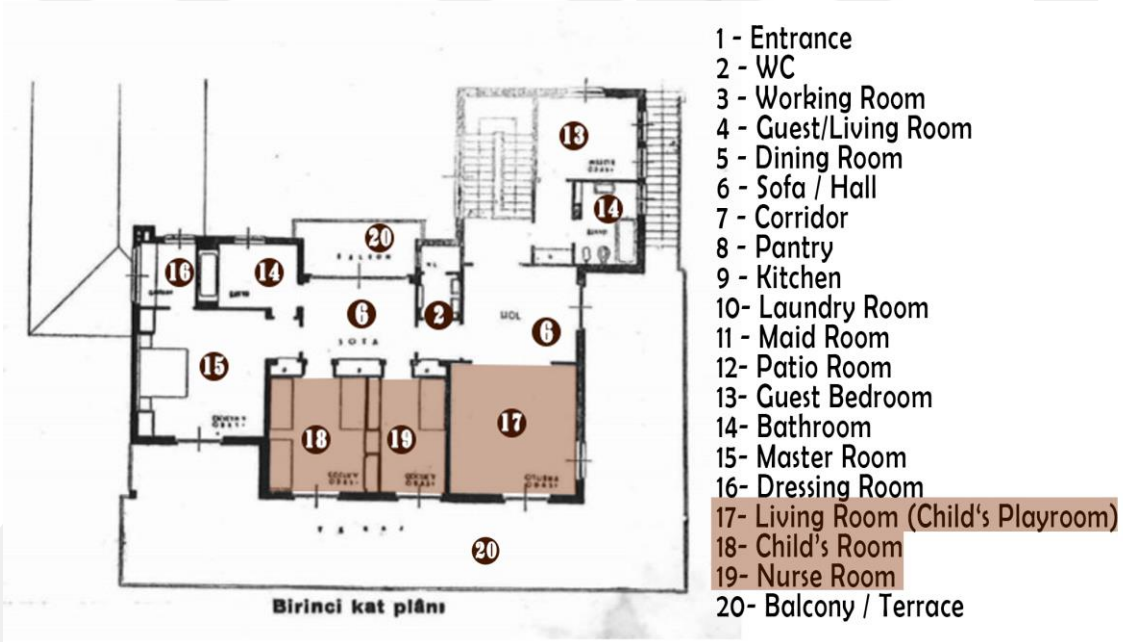


Figure 4.8 The upper floor plan of a villa in Göztepe, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1941-42, 7-8)

In many houses of families with three-children, there are two rooms for children. The use of the rooms can be shaped according to the gender or age of the children. In House Project on the left in Figure 4.9, the single child room is for a girl, and the double bedroom is for two small children. In this project, children's rooms are arranged separately depending on both age and gender. The Mansion Project in Figure 4.9 is an alternative to the house project for a different place. A similar approach was followed in the allocation of children's rooms. The use of built-in wardrobes between the rooms saves space and gives the impression that the two rooms are designed as a whole. The

children's rooms on the southeast façade also have access to a terrace. The terrace, which is emphasized as 'sunbath' in the House Project, is designed for children's needs for outdoor spaces. The large terrace area can also be a place that allows children to do many activities here. The terrace in the Mansion Project is designed as half-open to protect from the wind. Thus, children can sleep here in a cool and healthy way at night. Based on this, terraces and balconies are designed especially for children's use.

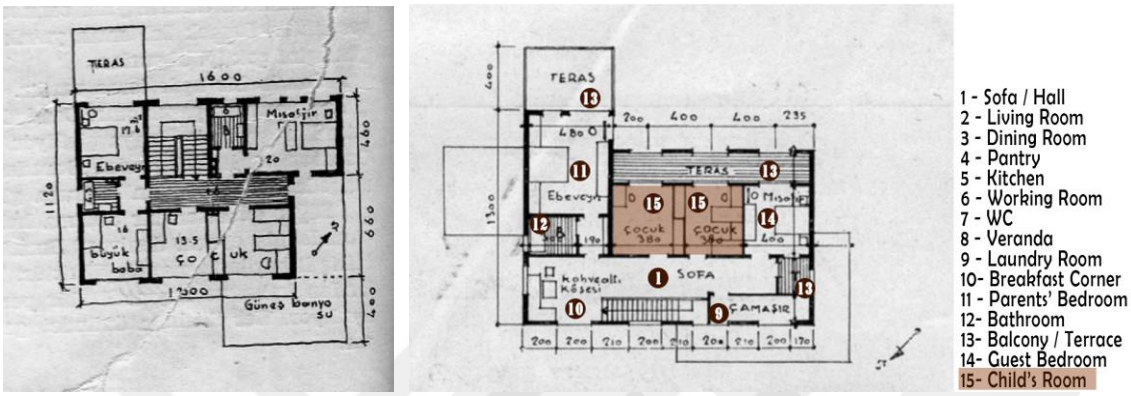


Figure 4.9 (left) The upper floor plan of a house project (*Mimarlık*, 1933, 7) and (right) the upper floor plan of the Mansion Project (*Mimarlık*, 1933, 8)

Similarly, in the last example, the single bedroom is for the girls, and the double room is for the boys (Figure 4.10). The common approach in all projects with two children's rooms is that the rooms are positioned side by side and separated by built-in wardrobes instead of using a dividing wall between them. In the Mansion Project (above), it is stated that there is no need for a partition wall between the children's rooms. It may have been assumed that the requirements such as privacy, comfort, sound, and smell isolation provided by partition walls between other spaces are not valid among children. A similar situation is present in Figure 4.8, dividing the children's room and the governess room provided by the wardrobes. Even if the children's rooms and associated spaces are separated, they are designed with a holistic approach.

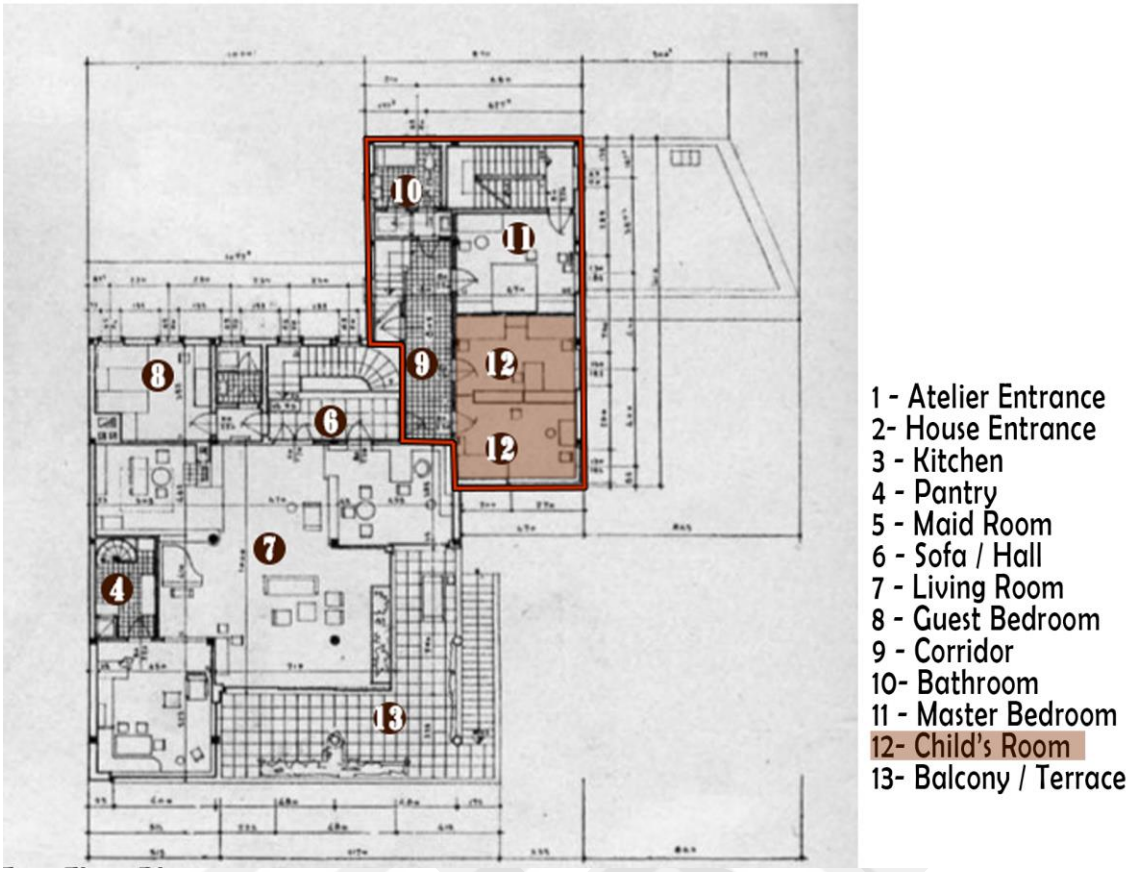


Figure 4.10 The first floor plan of a beach house (*Mimarlık*, 1933, 11)

Information about the children's rooms examined in this section is summarized in the table below[10]. Detached upper class residences predominate the other types under examination. Most of them are designed as two floors and bedrooms are placed into upper floor. Since the child's room is located on this floor, it can be concluded that it is basically designed as the child's bedroom. It is seen that child's rooms in these houses are usually opened to balconies or large terraces. The reason for this is the sensitivity for the health of child spaces and the fact that detached houses have the character of a summer resort. In single-storey detached houses and apartments, it has been observed that the floor is functionally divided into groups. The area defined as the private zone in this grouping includes the bedrooms and the bathroom. The children's room is also designed to remain in the private area.

[10] For all houses examined within the scope of the thesis, see the Appendices.

PROJECT INFORMATION					CHILD'S ROOM INFORMATION				RELATED SPACE				FURNITURE		
NO	DATE	NAME	ARCHITECT	CITY	TYPE	ROOM NUMBER	CHILD NUMBER	LOCATION	ORIENTATION	BALCONY	GARDEN	BABYSITTER ROOM	OTHER	BED	TABLE	CLOSET
2	1920s	A HOUSE	N/A	ANKARA	DETACHED	Undefined	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
3	1926	CHILDREN'S PROTECTION AGENCY RENTAL APT	ARİF HİKMET KOYUNOĞLU	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1 & 2	-	Private Zone	NE; SW	+	-	-	MASTER BED.	N/A	N/A	N/A
4	1930	PARK APT	ENGINEER AHMET İHSAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
6	1932	DR. CELAL H.	İLYAS ZADE ARİF HİKMET		DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
7	1933	MRS FERİDE H.	ENG. FİKRİ; AR. ABİDİN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	SW	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
8	1933	CHEAP FAMILY HOUSES	SEYFİ NASIH	ANKARA	TYPE HOUSE	1	2	Private Zone	S	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
9	1933	A MANSION	BEHÇET SABRİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	SE	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
10	1933	RÖNTGEN APT	ZEKİ SALAH	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	1	Private Zone	NW	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
11	1933	BEACH HOUSE	BEHÇET SABRİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	S	-	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
18	1941/1942	A VILLA	EMİN ONAT	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	3	Private Zone	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
19	1944	SIVIL CERVANT TYPE HOUSE	ABİDİN MORTAŞ	N/A	TYPE HOUSE	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN

Table 4.1 List of house samples analyzed in Chapter 4.1

4.2 Evolution of Child Room in Mid-century

In the chapter "Early Formation of Children Space in Houses", we saw that the child's room began to take place in the residences of upper-class families. In this part, with the increase in housing production after the Second World War, examples of children's spaces in housing types such as apartments, mass housing, and social housing designed for the middle and upper-middle classes will be discussed. In addition to these, the children's spaces in the summer houses or detached houses with gardens in the city will be compared with the early republican period examples; the changes in the process will be discussed.

The economic difficulties caused by the war period negatively affected the practice of architecture, especially in terms of housing projects. The housing problem had been concentrated in Ankara. The capital had been receiving immigration and housing civil servants since the 1920s. However, the housing stock did not answer the need of most people living in the city. For this reason, architects sought ways to build cheap housing in this period. In the 1940s, the understanding of that everyone should have their own house with a garden continued. Accordingly, designers suggested small, inexpensive housing examples as typical projects. However, this type of housing production would not be sustainable due to the speed of urbanization and increasing housing needs. For this reason, after the 1950s, the number of apartments and mass-produced houses increased. Since the housing production after the Second World War is mainly not aimed at a significant user, typical projects and standard plans come to the fore. The presence of child's rooms in such houses is the sign of the placement of the children's space in the housing design program. In this context, the student competition held in 1945 is an appropriate example of this development.

The incentive competition organized by the Turkish Master of Architects Association (*Türk Yüksek Mimarlar Birliği*) in 1945 among the students of the Istanbul Academy of Fine Arts is vital in terms of the content of the residential design program. The program given to the students is a house project in one of the eastern provinces, which includes a living area (living, dining, guests), a parent bedroom, a child's room, kitchen, pantry, toilet, Turkish bath, wood and coal storage and laundry room. The jury's decision determined four projects, but since none of them reached the desired goal, two

of them were awarded the second prize, the others the third and fourth. Although the project of İzzettin Bolat, who shared the second prize, is appreciated in terms of the construction system, the plan scheme is generally criticized. The criticism is about the layout of the bedrooms allocated made on the front facade. The general attitude towards the plan of Mübin Beken's project, the other winner of the second prize, is positive. Both projects are far from the plan schemes we encountered during the early republican period, hence the children's room layout.

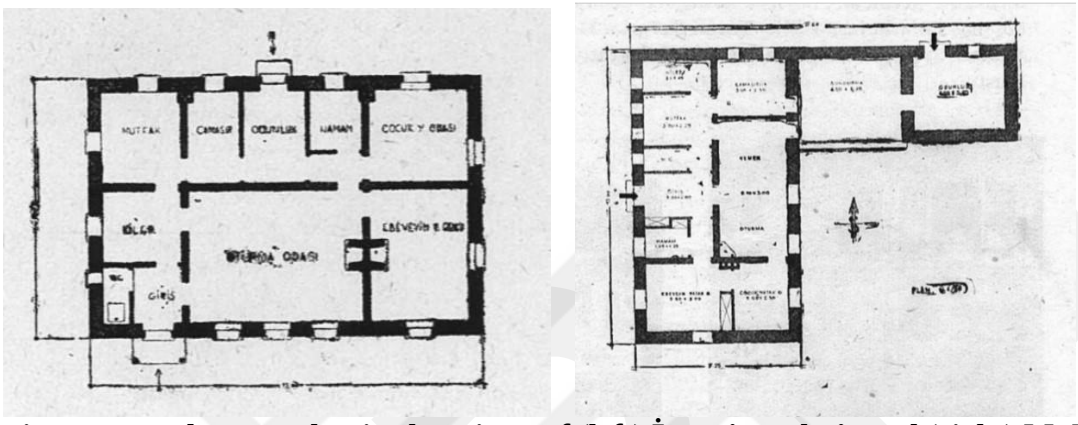


Figure 4.11 The second-prized projects of (left) İzzettin Bolat's and (right) Mübin Beken's (*Arkitekt,* 1945, 1-2)

Lütfi Erdağ's Project (Figure 4.12) received the third prize is similar to the modern housing planning of the 1930s and 1940s in terms of the bedrooms' relation with other spaces and each other. The parent and child bedrooms, accessed by a corridor passed through the entrance hall, form a more special section related to the bathroom. The appearance of a shady corridor in the part of the bedrooms was described as negative in the jury report. In Turgut Tuncay's Project (Figure 4.12), the direct connection of the bedroom and the bath was criticized. The fact that the bath is the only bathing place in the house must have given rise to this criticism. The location of this space is not suitable because of the child's room's weak connection with it.

When we evaluate the competition projects in general, it can be said that architecture students do not have enough knowledge about residential design. There is a general tendency to group private spaces, common areas and service spaces. Although a common approach to designing children's rooms has not yet been formed, the children's room is placed on the south and southeast facades in all projects. All the award-winning projects have a common shortcoming. Although the Turkish people's interest in the

garden was remarked in the program, the relations of the houses with the garden remained weak.

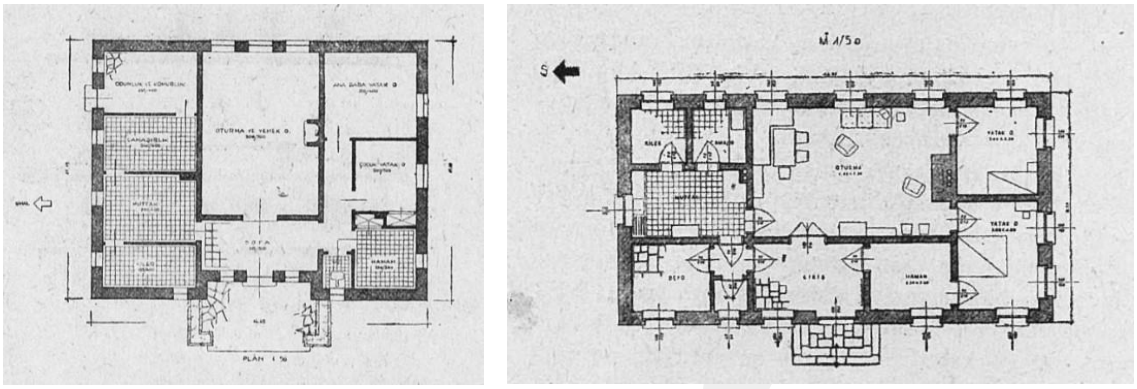


Figure 4.12 (left) Third-prized Lütfi Erdağ's project and (right) forth-prized Turgut Tuncay's project (*Arkitekt,* 1945, 1-2)

Architect Abidin Mortaş, one of the founders of Arkitekt magazine, had published many articles on the housing problem since the mid-1930s. Focusing on the issue of building economic and sanitary houses, Mortaş has designed İşbank lottery houses since 1949 with the knowledge and experience he has accumulated over the years (Şumnu, 2014). The two house projects he designed in Büyükada in 1950 are successful despite the small size and unsuitability of the land (Mortaş, 1950, p. 12). The living-dining areas are located on the ground floor in the two-storey lottery houses, while the bedrooms are located on the upper floor. In the house in the example, it is seen that the upper floor is a private part of the family. The children's and parents' bedrooms are approximately the same size and are located on the street front; It can be said that the two spaces were designed with similar concerns, at least with these features.

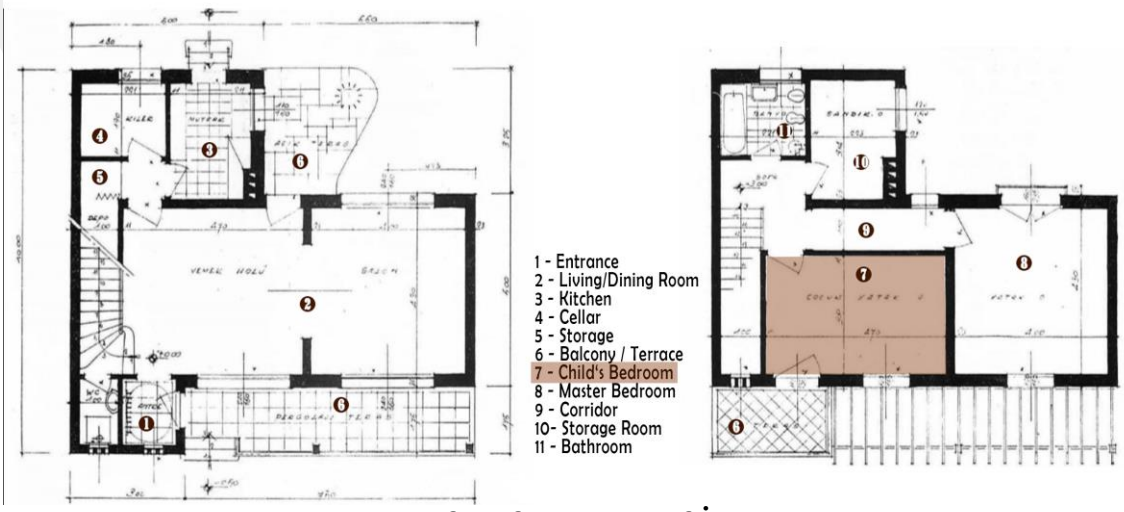


Figure 4.13 The ground and the first floor plans of İşbank Lottery House in Büyükada, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1950, 1-2)

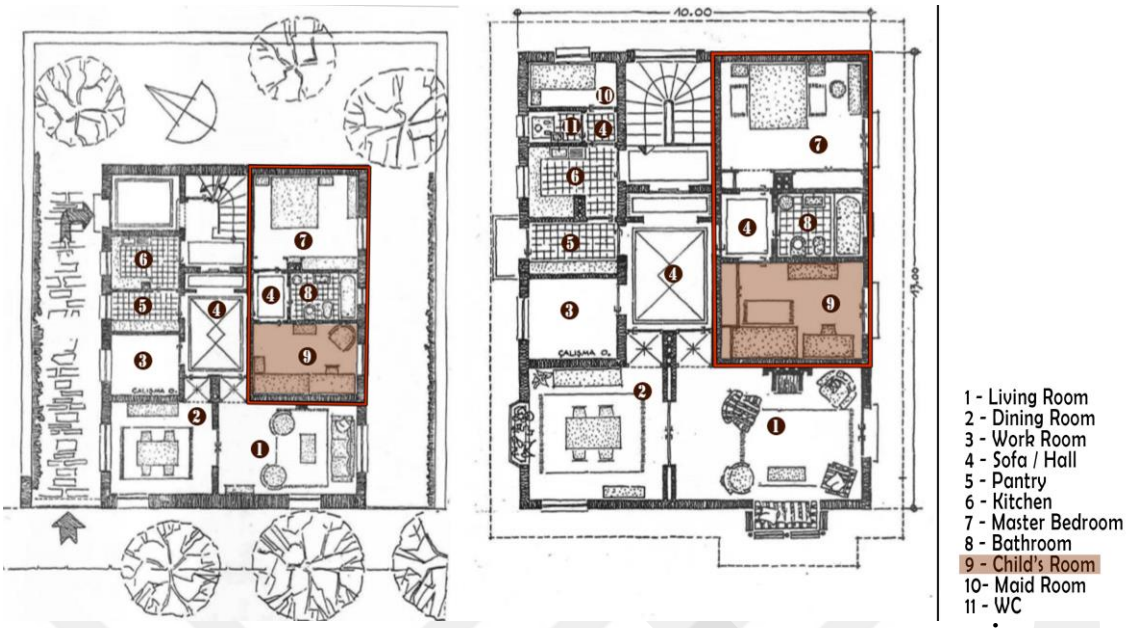


Figure 4.14 The ground and the first floor plans of Birgiler Apartment, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1950, 7-10)

Leyla and Ferzan Baydar designed Birgiler Apartment (Figure 4.14); and built it in İstanbul-Moda in 1948. The first two floors are designed to be rented out, while the upper floor is designed for homeowners. There is no remarkable change in the location of the living and sleeping parts of the floors. Although space definitions are not included in the plan, the image below clearly shows the existence of the child's room (Figure 4.15). As can be seen predominantly in the projects examined, in this project, the parent bedroom, child's room and bathroom are considered as a private part around a night hall. The child's room on the upper floor, which belongs to the owner, was furnished in more detail. Furnishings are functionally placed in the ground floor plan to be rented, but apparently, the architects designed the upper floor furniture. The wardrobe, bed and bookcase of the child's room are designed as a single unit in one corner of the room. The desk and the dresser placement also show that the room is trying to be a spacious place. Thus, the large and empty space defined in the room provides a potential area for the child to play or engage in physical activities. The location of the children's room is on the southeast facade, following the general approach.



Figure 4.15 The drawing of the child's room in Birgiler Apartment (*Arkitekt,* 1950, 7-10)

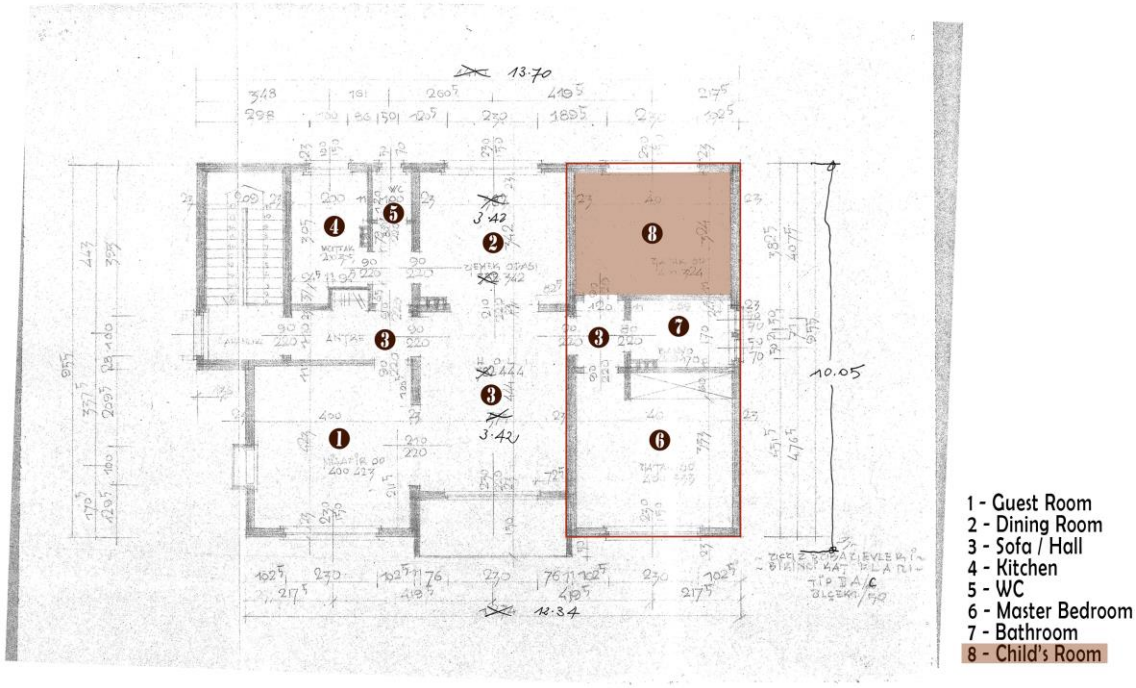


Figure 4.16 The regular floor plan of Military Officer's Houses, Ankara (Source: VEKAM, SMB025_plan_03)

Military Officer's Houses Building Cooperative (Figure 4.16) was constructed in 1952 as a settlement consisting of 179 houses. Master Architect Ali Mukadder Çizer drew the projects of the residences in Ankara (Bayraktar et al., 2014). There is a long hall and dining room in the center of the house, which are similar in form and function to the interior sofa in a traditional Turkish house. The guest room and the kitchen are located on one side of this center, while the sleeping area is on the opposite side. The private residence part consists of two bedrooms and a bathroom located in the middle of

the two. The room with the built-in wardrobe and slightly larger should be the parents' room, and the other should be the child's room. It is possible to infer this by looking at the child's rooms in the plan settlements examined in this chapter. The children's room has similar conditions to the master bedroom in terms of size and openness. Although the orientation of the building is not clear in the plan, it can be said that one of them is located on the east and the other on the west side, based on the fact that the two bedrooms are located on opposite facades with large windows. In this case, considering the climatic conditions of the children's room, it is positioned to provide appropriate comfort conditions.

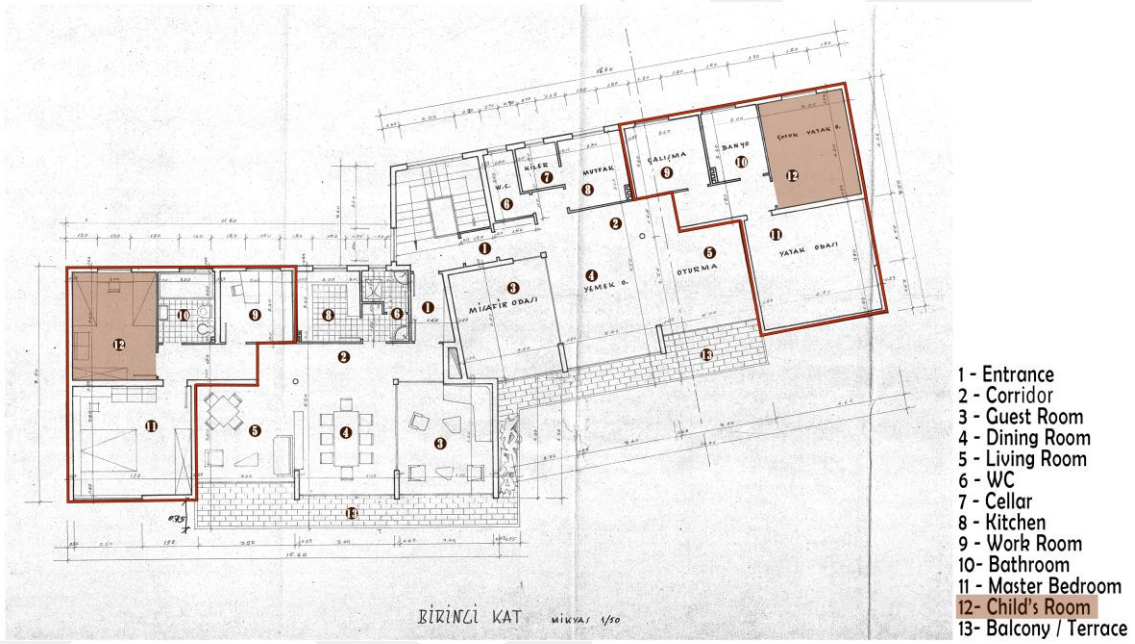


Figure 4.17. The first-floor plan of Muammer Aksoy and Relatives' House, Ankara (Source: VEKAM, SMB154_plan_02)

The architect Muzaffer Vanlı's project Muammer Aksoy and relatives' house was designed in Ankara in 1954 as a family apartment for the high-income group. While the basement is used for servant rooms and warehouses, there are two flats on each floor (Bayraktar et al., 2014). The children's room is located close to the master bedroom and bathroom in the private unit of the house. The room size is furnished enough for two children. The living spaces and the large bedroom are placed on the west facade facing the main street, while the children's room opens on the east facade where the wet areas are located (Bayraktar et al., 2014). While the spaces on the western façade have wide openings, the opening ratio in the children's room is small compared to other projects.

Levent District was built by Emlak Kredi Bank, and the construction of the first neighborhood, which started in 1947, was completed in 1950 (Aru & Gorbon, 1952). It is one of the areas where modern urban planning principles are used for the first time in İstanbul. The settlement, which was completed in four stages, is also considered one of the first mass housing examples that take care of social opportunities and are meticulously produced at every design stage. While the houses in the first three stages are designed as low-rise detached houses, both apartments and detached houses are in the fourth stage (Sadıkoğlu & Özsoy, pp. 207). In Levent Fourth District, different types of residences were designed, from two-story units with gardens to eleven-storey apartment blocks.

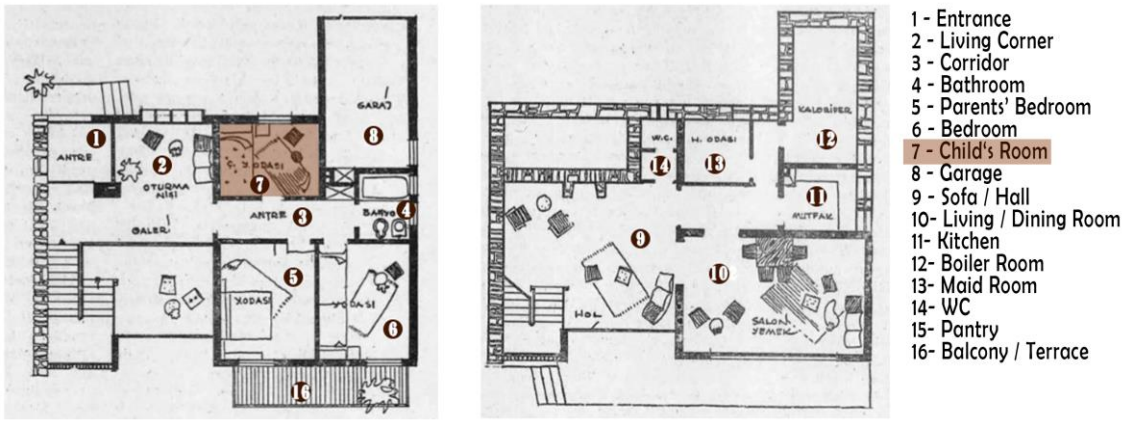


Figure 4.18 Levent Fourth District, İstanbul - L Type plan (*Arkitekt,* 1956, 3)

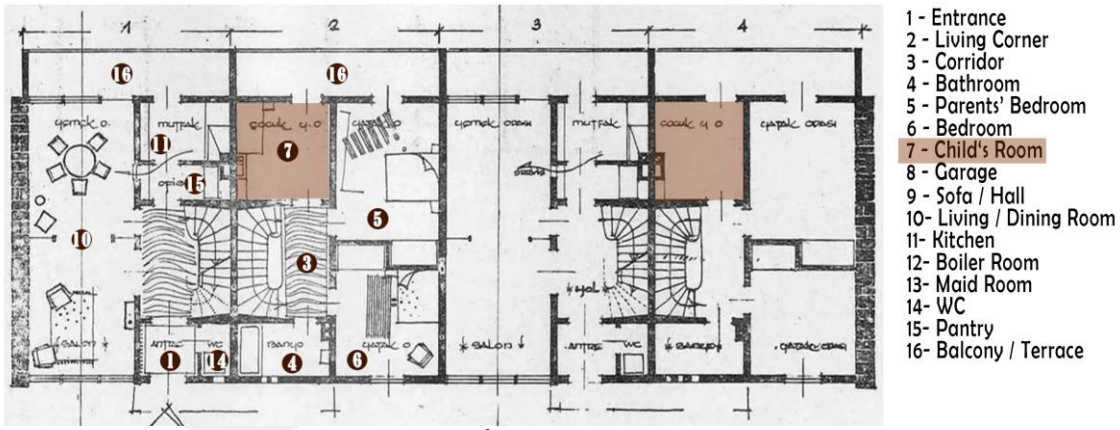


Figure 4.19 Levent Fourth District, İstanbul - E Type plan (*Arkitekt,* 1956, 3)

Interestingly, the E and L types, which contain a child's room, are designed as two-story houses with a garden. It demonstrates that the discourse on a modern, bourgeois nuclear family home with a garden still continues. In L type, the ground floor is designed as the public face of the house, and the upper floor is designed as the family's private living space. Child's and parents' bedrooms are planned closer to the

living part, which is the common area of the family. Therefore, despite the third bedroom, the upper floor can be considered as a nuclear family residence. The living spaces are located on the ground floor in the E-type residence, while the upper floor is completely reserved for bedrooms. The child's bedroom has a balcony that it shares with the master bedroom. While the other two bedrooms have built-in wardrobes, it seems that the furnishing of the children's room has not been adequately inspected. In addition to the small size of the room, the chimney causes the space to narrow, and it becomes challenging to place furniture.

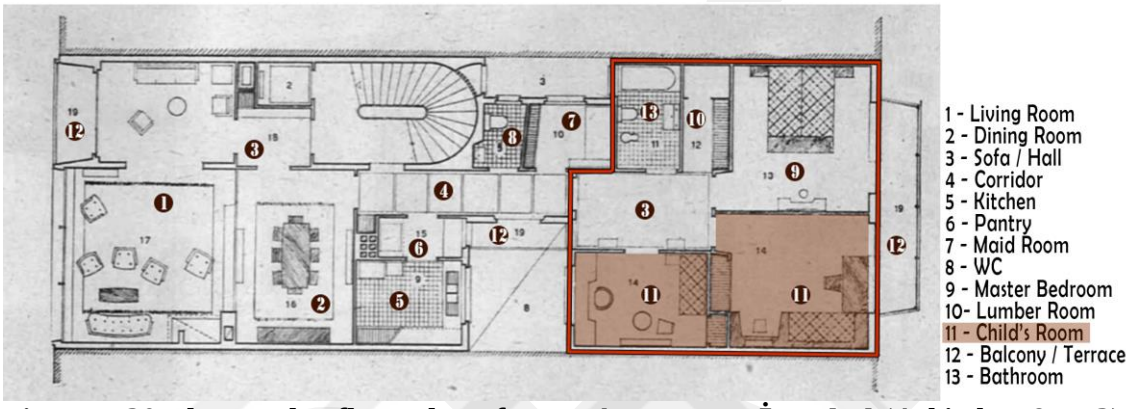


Figure 4.20 The regular floor plan of M.K. Apartment, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1957, 3)

There are two types of plans with similar spatial configurations in the MK Apartment (Figure 4.20; Figure 4.21), which was built in the first half of the 1950s. While there are two child's rooms, number 11, in the typical floor plan, there is another child's room on the attic floor due to the floor size narrowed by the terraces. However, in the photograph (Figure 4.21) where we see the front facade of the building, it is observed that the front facade of all floors conforms to the typical floor plan. In practice, it is as if the front terrace of the roof was abandoned during the implementation of the project. Since it is not possible to comment on the rear facade, some information may be collected from the floor plan. In the typical floor plan, the parents' bedroom, child's rooms, and bathroom are placed around the night hall to protect the family's privacy and are separated from the corridor that connects to the daily spaces of the house. Another detail that shows the family's privacy is that the maid's room was left outside the night hall. Similarly, the parent and child bedrooms, bathroom, and toilet are accessed from a corridor separated from the entrance hall in the attic. The plot conditions allow for a long, narrow, two-sided open plan, as in the first apartments in Istanbul's Beyoğlu district. For this reason, in the typical floor plan, one of the child's

rooms cannot be opened to the façade and faces the light, which is not a situation encountered in the projects examined so far. The child's room facing the rear, on the other hand, has similar comfort conditions with the parent's bedroom as the size, balcony relationship, window opening. At the same time, the furnishings seen in the plan of this room evoke special production and built-in furniture. In addition to a built-in wardrobe arranged larger than the other child's room, the furniture that continues along the wall both creates a make-up-like accessory and then turns into a bed niche. A large table was designed in front of the window facing the light in the other child's room. Although the furniture is not very detailed in the attic-story plan, unlike the master bedroom, there is a built-in wardrobe fitting along the wall in the child's room.

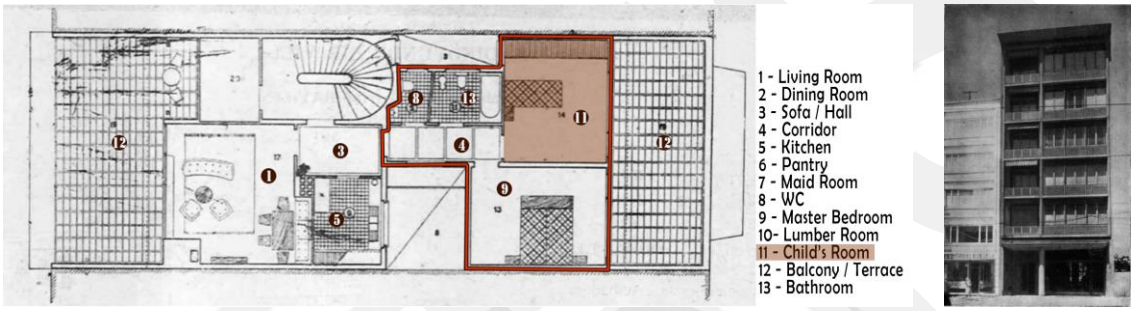


Figure 4.21 The attic floor plan of M.K. Apartment and a photograph (*Arkitekt,* 1957, 3)

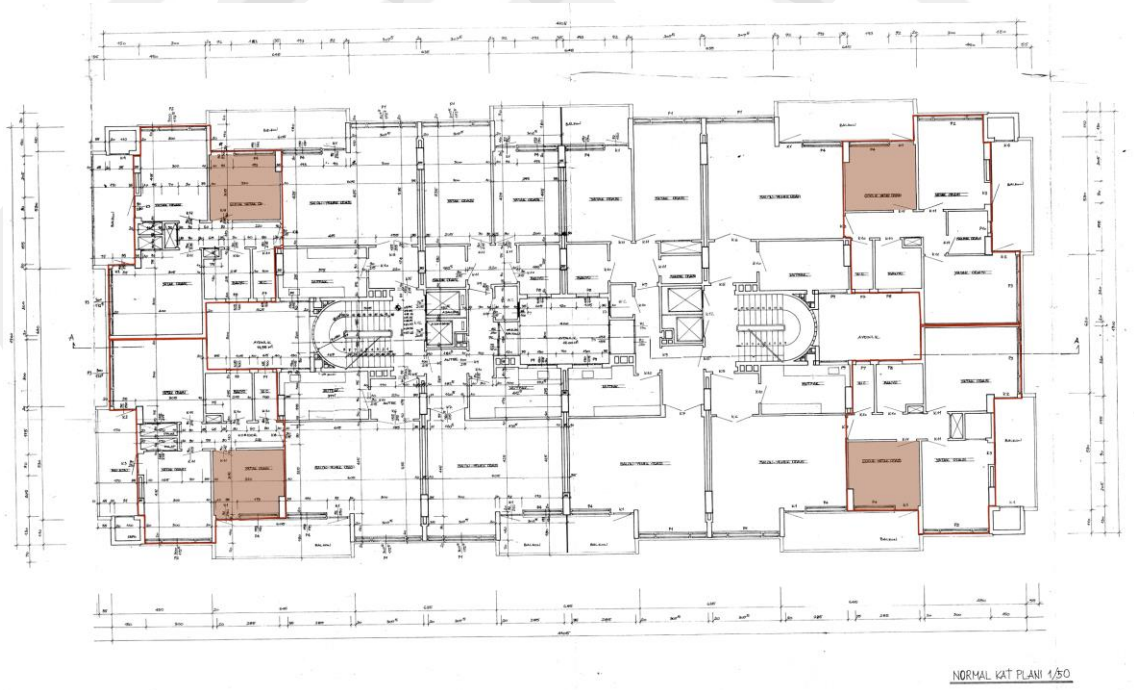


Figure 4.22 The regular floor plan of Ilbank Residences, Ankara (Source: VEKAM, SMB259_plan_02)

The Ilbank residences (Figure 4.22) were built as high-rise apartment blocks. The project was drafted by architect Fatin Uran in 1957 (Bayraktar et al., 2014). There are two underground floors and eight or nine typical floors above the high ground. In the block type seen in the figure above, there are four flats on the floor arranged symmetrically. There is a kitchen at the flat's entrance, and the common area is accessed from the residential area. All three bedrooms are designed with openings to a balcony. The two large bedrooms open onto a shared balcony, although the smaller child's room shares the balcony with the living room-dining room. Since the circulation area is a living space, the corridor from which the bedrooms open is separated from this common area by a door.

Similarly, Murat Apartment (Figure 4.23) consists of a large living area, a kitchen, three bedrooms, one for a child, and a bathroom. There are two flats on each floor. Faruk Noyon drew the projects of the five-story building and the basement. The living and residence parts are clustered on the two sides of the flat and are separated from each other by a partition. It is possible to pass directly to the bedrooms part from the entrance hall. All bedrooms are associated with a balcony. A wide opening was on the narrow side facade in the rectangular children's bedroom. Built-in wardrobes are used in the parent and child bedrooms.

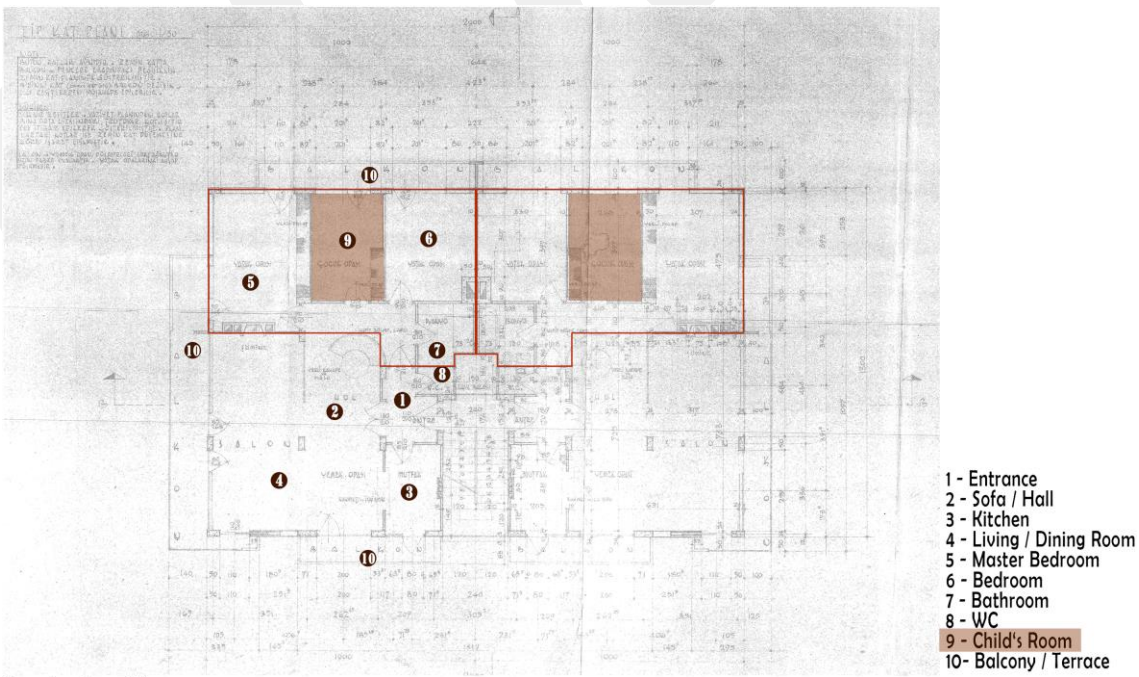


Figure 4.23 The regular floor plan of Murat Apartment, Ankara (Source: VEKAM, SMB171_plan_03)

The formation of a night place with bedrooms and bathrooms has become a standard plan solution in the mass housing estates whose numbers have increased since the 1950s. Examples of this scheme can be seen above in İlbank Residences and Murat Apartments. A similar day-night or public-private distinction was also found in the early detached houses. However, this separation was resolved on different floors in single residences, which usually consisted of two floors. Although the examples in Chapter 4.1 and 4.2 contain similar functional spaces, more diverse and specialized spaces can be designed in single dwellings. The mass housing projects examined in this section, on the other hand, approach a standard scheme with a large living-dining room, kitchen, wet areas and bedrooms varying in number from two to four. However, among them, the plan solution of Cinnah 19 Apartment in Ankara stands in a different place than the others.

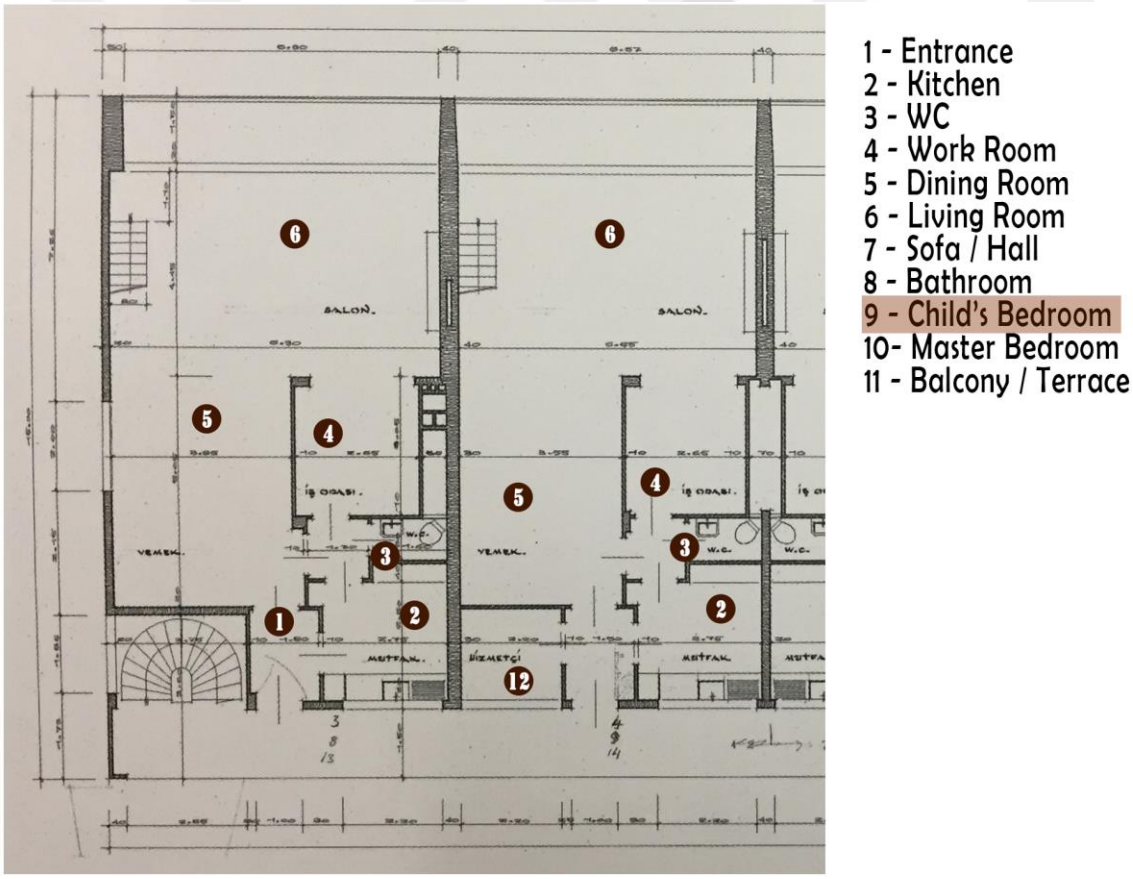


Figure 4.24 The lower floor plan of Cinnah 19 Apartment, Ankara (Source: Bancı, 2021)

Cinnah 19 is a cooperative building designed by Nejat Ersin for architects and engineers. There are two one storey flats and fifteen two-storey flats in the building. The two-story flat plan scheme in an apartment block, the design of the common areas by giving importance to the collective life style are some of the reasons that make this

project important in terms of architecture and social life (Cengizkan, 2002). The usage of the flats is similar to the two-storey single family houses. On the lower floor, there are open-plan dining and living rooms as well as service spaces. The upper floor is reserved for only the bathroom and bedrooms. A balanced approach is observed in the design of parent and child bedrooms. They are spaces with equal openings, built-in cabinets and close to each other in size.

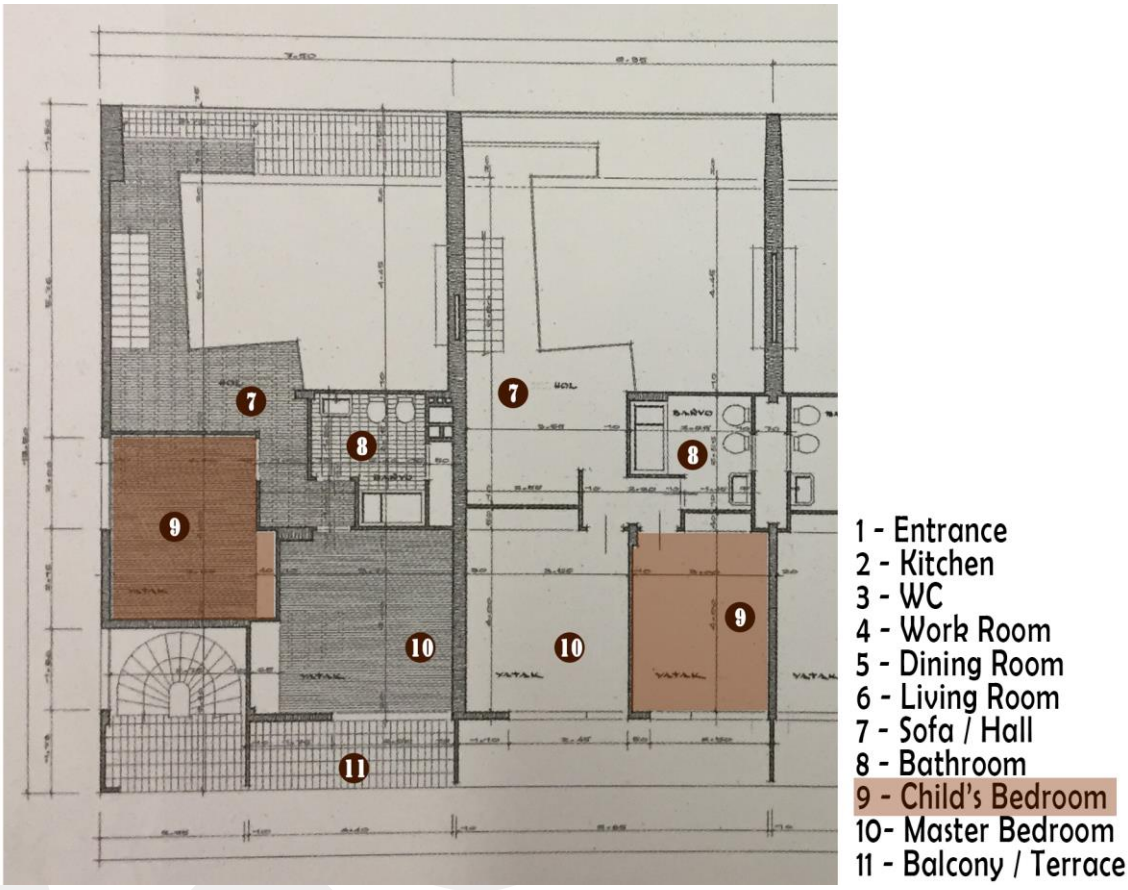


Figure 4.25 The upper floor plan of Cinnah 19 Apartment, Ankara (Source: Bancı, 2021)

In addition to the small-scale mass housing projects of the 1950s, Ataköy Residences, whose first phase was completed in 1957, was the largest housing initiative in Turkey before 1980s ("Toplu Konut Sayısı Üzerine", 1978). Ataköy Zoning Bureau Chief Ertuğrul Menteşe, in his report on settlement in *Arkitekt* magazine, describes the new understanding of urbanism as the creation of small cities, as in the Ataköy example. These settlements are not only built for the needs of accommodation, but also contain many public activities such as bazaars, schools, entertainment and sports centers (Menteşe, 1958). Various variations of more than ten plan types have been drawn by

more than one architect. The residential units in the first phase of completion have features that can be considered as luxury houses. Maid's rooms, three and four bedrooms and the fact that the smallest of the apartments in this section is 110 square meter and most of them are over 200 square meter (Ataköy Sitesi, 1958) put these houses in the luxury house category. However, new plan types, which are more modest, were added in the ongoing process. Smaller housing units with two and three bedrooms will be examined so that they can be evaluated on a similar scale with the sample projects discussed in this chapter.

One of the modest housing units in Ataköy Site is H type houses (Figure 4.26). Consisting of two bedrooms, a kitchen and office, and a living and dining area, the program of the residence reflects the needs of a middle-class nuclear family. The separate place for bicycles and baby carriages on the ground floor of the apartment block (Emlak Kredi Bankası) shows that these residences are designed for nuclear families with children. The circulation area of the house is the small entrance hall. From here, it is passed to the daily living space of the house, namely the interconnected living-dining section and the kitchen-office section, and a small corridor to which the bedrooms and bathroom are opened. Although the day-night separation is defined, the fact that the bedroom corridor is located opposite the entrance door is not a preferred situation in terms of privacy. Compared to other plan types, it can be seen that the furnishings in H type are not considered in detail. Due to the small dimensions of the bedroom designed for two children, it is debatable whether it can fulfill the expected functions in the design of the children's rooms. Therefore, in this plan, it can be said that the children's room is considered only as a bedroom. However, the characteristics of the living space show that this spacious area is suitable for the common use of the family. While the dining table is placed in the corner of the room, the seating units take up less space in the room. L-shaped furniture designed on the wall of the room can be thought of as a bookcase and table. All these features allow the living space to be defined as the common space of family members, which can also meet the children's play and study needs. As a result, due to the small size of the housing unit, the children's room seems to be designed only for the sleeping function. However, it can be said that there is a potential to reach the areas that children may need in their rooms, in the common parts of the house.

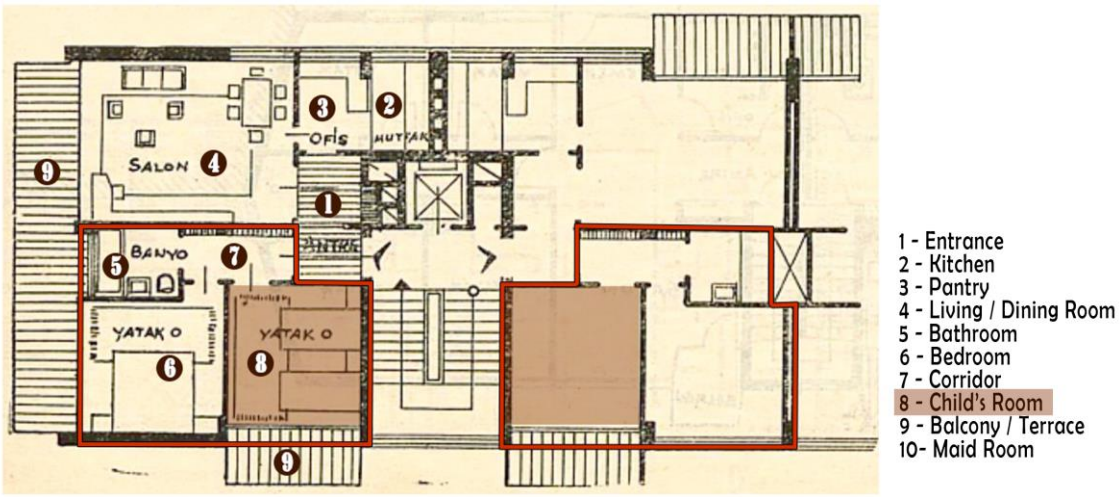


Figure 4.26 Ataköy Residences, İstanbul, H Type Plan (Source: Edhem Eldem Collection, The image is accessible on SALT Research)

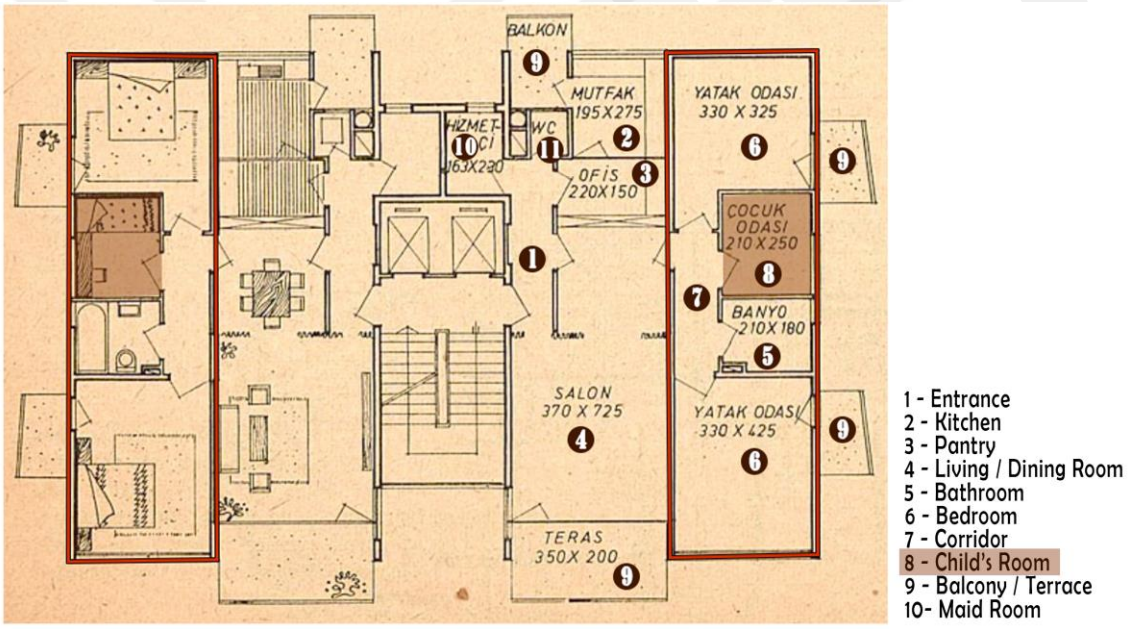


Figure 4.27 Ataköy Residences, İstanbul, R Type Plan (Source: Edhem Eldem Collection, The image is accessible on SALT Research)

It is seen that the R plan type (Figure 4.27), there is an extended spatial program compared to the previous example. While the corridor at the entrance separates the living and service areas, the private area where the bedrooms are located is arranged around another corridor. The area where the living room and dining room are separatable by a folding screen provides the passage to the night corridor. As seen in the standard schemes, the three bedrooms and the bathroom are solved in a single private volume. The child's room, which is also a small space, is directly defined in this plan. The furnishing of the room designed for a single child consists of a bed and a table. Despite the dimensions of the space, there is a layout that allows effective and

functional use. Yet it is rare for the child'sroom to be kept this small compared to the two large bedrooms. Also, unlike the other two bedrooms, the children's room does not have a balcony. These features of the plan indicate that the child's room is not considered as a critical issue in the design of the house as in other examples.

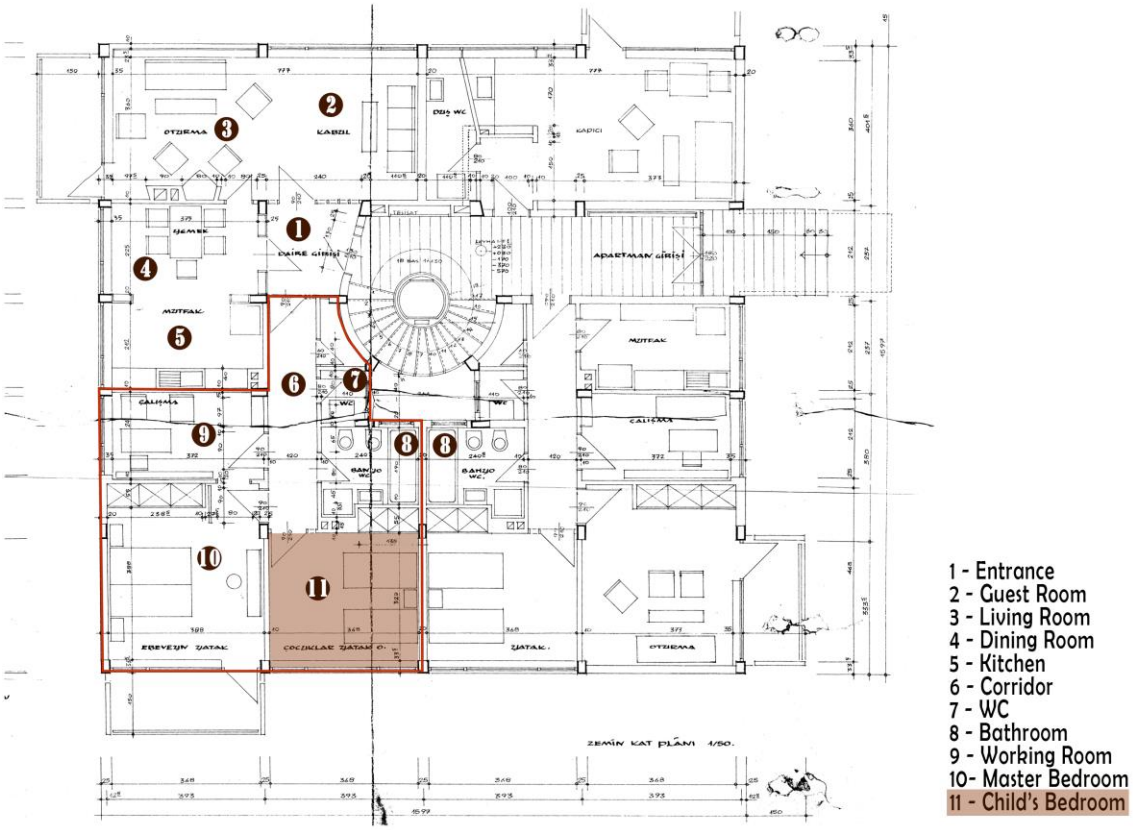


Figure 4.28 The regular floor plan of Press Residences, Ankara. (Source: VEKAM, SMB255_plan_04)

Press Residences (*Basın Evleri*), whose project was prepared by Vedat Dalokay and Nejat Tekelioğlu and approved in 1960, was a cooperative settlement established by journalists in Ankara. A single plan type is seen throughout the site (Bayraktar et al., 2014). The plan scheme consists of the kitchen, living and sleeping rooms, which are accessed through the entrance hall. Among the plans examined in this study, a new configuration is observed for the first time. The dining table is located in the kitchen while the living space consists of a single volume and consists of furnishings clustered in the form of daily seating and guests. Thus, the kitchen area has expanded significantly compared to the previous projects shown in the research. In the other part of the flat, there is a study room in addition to the bedrooms, bathroom and toilet. The room intended for two children seems quite spacious. The wardrobes were solved as

built-in so that no space was lost. Although not included in the furnishings, the room has an area where children's study tables or other furniture can be placed. As in the other rooms, the window openings are kept large in the children's room.

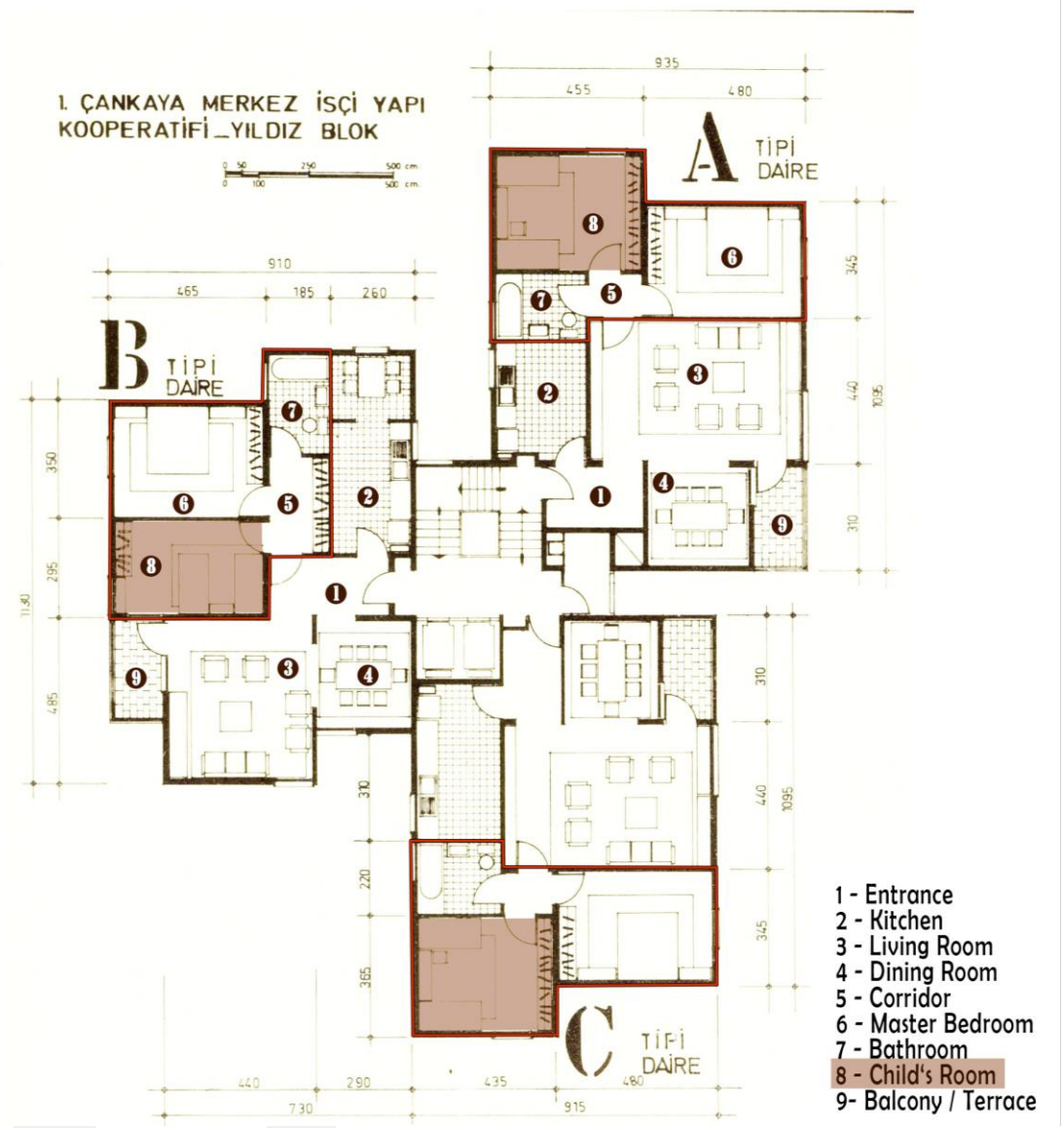


Figure 4.29 The regular floor plan of MESA Çankaya Residences, Ankara (Source: VEKAM, SMB263_plan_03)

MESA Çankaya Residences, the first phase of which was built in 1970, belongs to the First Çankaya Central Workers' Cooperative. There are three types of plans in the project prepared by Uğur Erken and Aykut Mutlu (Bayraktar et al., 2014). The programs of all three types are close to each other and there are slight differences between them. There is a similar approach for all types of plans for children's rooms.

The rooms for two children, together with the master bedroom and bathroom, are located in the private night part. The rooms are arranged in a way that allows functions other than the sleeping. The children's room in symmetrical A and C types has two facades and has a non-wide opening on only one facade. In type B, the children's room is both smaller in size and has a single facade where is an opening in other types of dimensions.

In the mass housing examples examined above, the design of child's rooms has started to be standardized. However, there were various approaches to the child's rooms in the detached houses designed after the Second World War. These residences were generally designed as two floors, and the children's rooms were on the more private upper floor, where the bedrooms were located. However, in single-storey detached houses, it is seen that there is a special bedroom section, which is different from the standard scheme in mass housing.

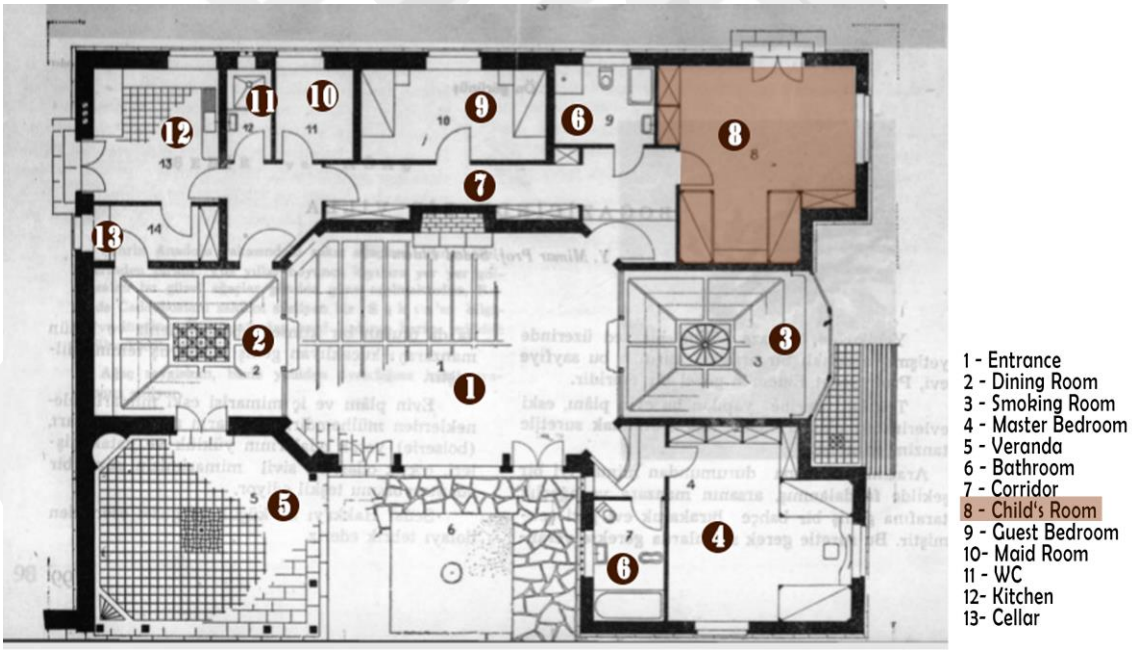


Figure 4.30 The ground floor plan of a villa in Bosphorus, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1946, 5-6)

A summer house (Figure 4.30), which Sedad Hakkı Eldem designed, was built in Bosphorus in 1940s. The planning scheme of the house, which was designed with inspiration from the old house tradition, reminds the houses with sofas. Although the space #1 is defined as a hall, it also functions as a *sofa* since it also functions both as living and circulation space. The children's room is separated from the centre of the plan

by a corridor from which the guest bedroom and service spaces are opened, so it can be said that privacy is ensured. The arrangement of the master bedroom as a single unit with a separate bathroom allows for privacy within the family. The children's room was designed with built-in furniture like other spaces and was interpreted as “a beautiful adaptation of our civil architecture” in the project's text. In the photo below (Figure 4.31), it is possible to see the traces of the traditional house in the ceiling design of the children's room. A horizontal element on the ceiling separates the section with two beds. Thus, it may have been desired to visually insulate the part that functions as a night bed and the area where daily work will continue. It can be thought that the placement of built-in wardrobes or closets is also aimed at providing comfort. Providing sound insulation by placing cabinets on the shared wall of the children's room with the bathroom has also been presented as a solution in different projects. Being a summer residence requires a program that is intertwined with nature and has intense garden relations. The direct connection of the children's room to the backyard is compatible with the view that children need to spend time in nature and get fresh air.

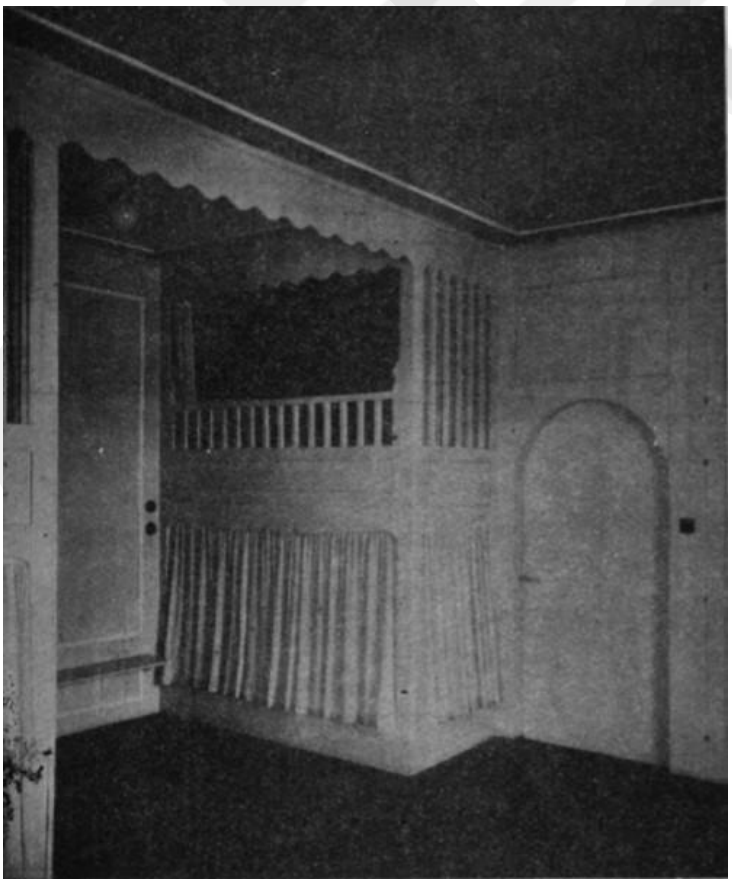


Figure 4.31 The children’s room in a villa in Bosphorus, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1946, 5-6)

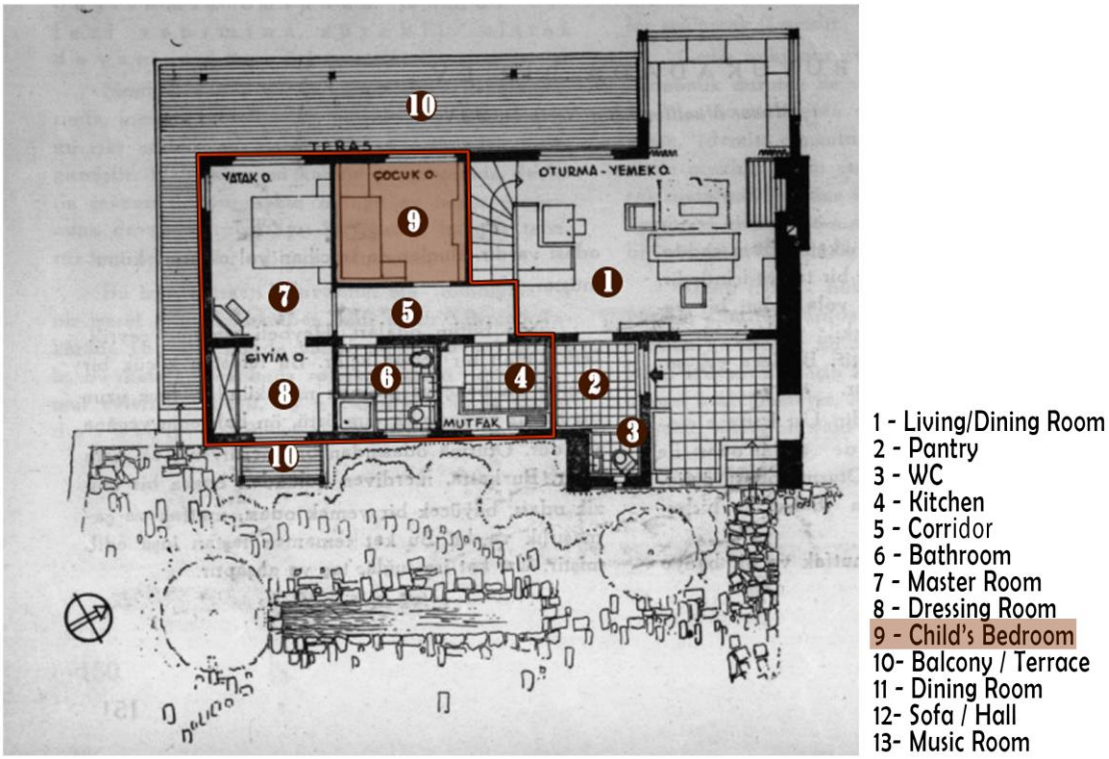


Figure 4.32 The first floor plan of a house in Büyükada, İstanbul (*Arkitekt*, 1946, 7-8)

The house (Figure 4.32) designed by Emin Necip Uzman in Büyükada is a modest example in terms of architectural program and size. Since the ground floor of the two-story house consists of the music room, dining room, and service volumes, it may have been thought for the guest. Because the first floor, with its bedrooms, living space, and second kitchen, is planned like a floor private to the nuclear family. It is a common practice that the living room is separated from the night hall by a door, but opening the kitchen to the night hall confirms the judgment in the previous sentence. As in the previous example, the child's room is a specially designed space with furniture. Similar to the children's room design in Birgiler Apartment (Figure 4.14), the furniture is designed holistically and as fixed. Thus, a very free space is provided in the children's room.

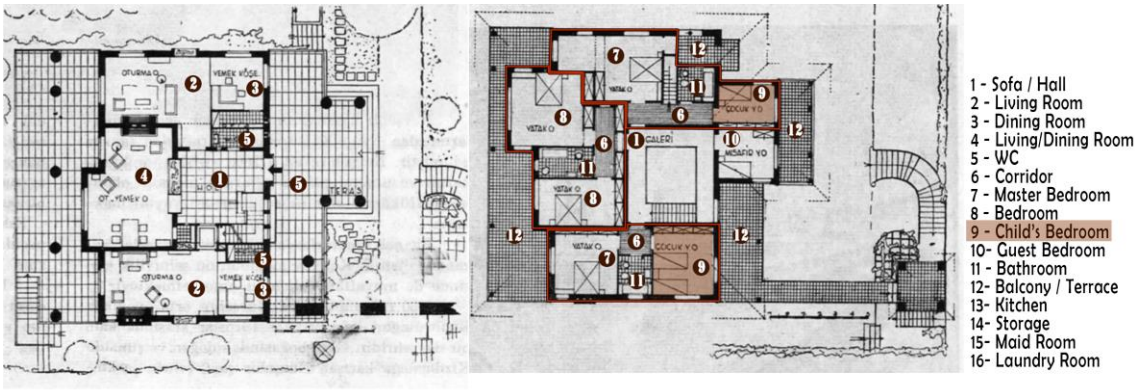


Figure 4.33 The ground and first floor plans of a House in Büyükada, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1946, 9-10)

This house (Figure 4.33), which belongs to a large family, is a respose to a different life setting and proposes a unique design setup. It provides the solution of the programs planned for three families in a single structure. Although it was built as a large and single structure, it was divided into three separate units in the plan. There are separate living and dining areas arranged around a hall on the ground floor. The service areas are arranged in three parts on the basement floor, and a different unit serves each family. The common staircase in the hall leads to the upper floor, where the bedrooms are located. Again, the sleeping places are grouped within themselves and isolated from the others. The sleeping areas with two bedrooms and a bathroom for each unit are accessed from a corridor. The passage preserves privacy from the central hall where the gallery is located to the corridors. It is seen that the bedroom designed for two children is the same as the parent bedroom in terms of size and equipment. However, the other child's room was kept smaller than the guest room, which is smaller than the other bedrooms. In the design of children's rooms, factors such as the number of children, the size of the house, user needs, and different criteria may have been taken into account.

In another example (Figure 4.34), it is seen that a separate room is planned for children. As mentioned before, despite the decisions taken during the design phase, it is usual to have changes when the house is occupied by the owners. In a photograph of E. Elagoz's house, two beds were placed in one of the rooms, defined as a child's room and furnished with one bed (Figure 4.35).

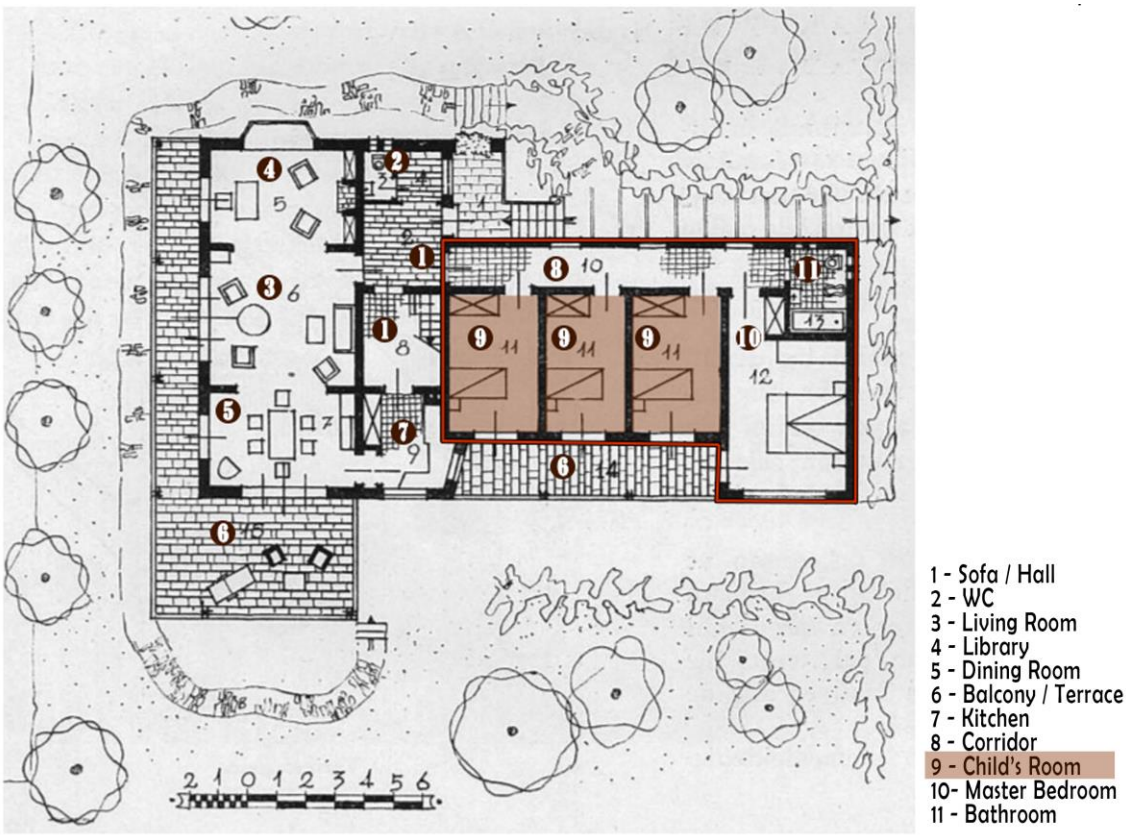


Figure 4.34 The ground floor plan of E. Elagöz House in Ortaköy, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1947, 7-8)



Figure 4.35 A photograph of the child's room in E. Elagöz House in Ortaköy, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1947, 7-8)

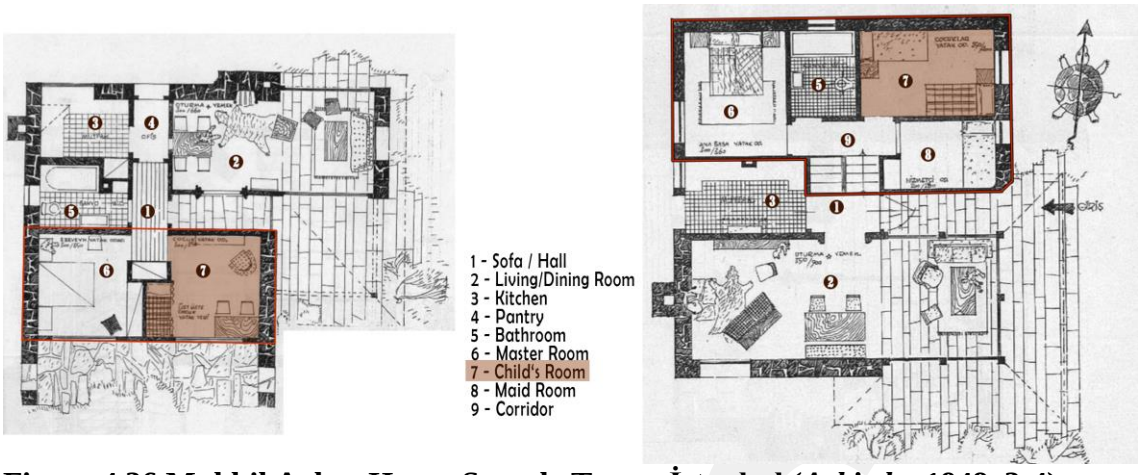


Figure 4.36 Mukbil Aykut House Sample Types, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1948, 3-4)

Different spatial solutions were used for the children's room in the sample projects designed as a summer house for Mukbil Aykut (Figure 4.36). In the plan on the left, it is seen that the children's and parents' bedrooms are kept in equal dimensions. However, the addition of tables and chairs for children in the furnishing narrowed the space. A solution with bunk beds was adopted. The children's room seems to be planned only as a bedroom in the other project.

In this section, children's rooms in apartments and mass houses, whose construction increased after the Second World War, were examined. The decisions of the placement of child's rooms in the early Republican period were the predecessors for the houses built in this period. As mentioned above, child's rooms were located in a private area and were designed as bedrooms. However, there was a tendency for standardization in the housing plans examined in this section. In the detached houses built in this period, it was observed that different solutions were used depending on the size and program of the house.

PROJECT INFORMATION					CHILD'S ROOM INFORMATION				RELATED SPACE				FURNITURE		
NO	DATE	NAME	ARCHITECT	CITY	TYPE	ROOM NUMBER	CHILD NUMBER	LOCATION	ORIENTATION	BALCONY	GARDEN	BABYSITTER ROOM	OTHER	BED	TABLE	CLOSET
20	1946	A VILLA	SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	-	-	-	+	-	-	BUILT-IN	-	BUILT-IN
21	1946	A HOUSE	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	1	Private Zone	NW	+	-	-	-	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN
22	1946	A HOUSE	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	WE; SE; SW	+	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
23	1947	E. ELAGÖZ H.	HALİT FEMİR	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Private Zone	SE	+	-	-	-	+	-	+
24	1948	MUKBİL AYKUT H.	SAMİM OKTAY; DEMİRTAŞ KAMÇIL	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	Private Zone	E	-	-	-	-	BUNK BED	+	+
25	1950	ISBANK LOTTERY H.	ABİDİN MORTAŞ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
26	1950	BİRGİLER APT	LEYLA BAYDAR; FERZAN BAYDAR	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	1	Private Zone	SE	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
27	1952	MILITARY OFFICER'S H.	ALİ MUKADDER ÇİZER	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
29	1953/1954	M.K. APT	H. İRFAN BAYHAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	2; 1	2; 1	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN
30	1954	LEVENT 4. DISTRICT	KEMAL AHMET ARU	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	1	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
31	1954	MUAMMER AKSOY AND RELATIVES APT	MUZAFFER VANLI	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
38	1957	MURAT APT	FARUK NOYON	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
39	1957	İLBANK BLOCKS	FATİN URAN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
40	1957	CİNNAH 19	NEJAT ERSİN	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
42	1957/1962	ATAKÖY BLOCKS	BARUTHANE PROJE BÜROSU	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	1; 2	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-
44	1960	PRESS RESIDENCES	VEDAT DALOKAY	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
58	1970	ME-SA ÇANKAYA RESIDENCES	UĞUR ERKEN; AYKUT MUTLU	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+

Table 4.2 List of house samples analyzed in Chapter 4.2

4.3 Domestic Mobility of Child (or Child's Relation with Domestic Space)

"Çocuk yatak odalarında çocuğun misafiri için dahi yer düşünmelidir. Çok defa çocuğun yatak, oyun ve çalışma yeri aynı odadadır. Bu takdirde bu odanın plândaki yeri önemlidir. Çocuk odaları kapıları mümkünse bahçeye veya avluya açılmalı, mutbak yanında olmalı.[11] "

Ekrem Olğuner (1963)

After examining the domestic spaces specially designed for children in the previous sections, the relations that children establish with other spaces of the house will be discussed in this section. Although the concept of the children's room is mostly associated with the child's bedroom in the design of the house, this room can also be considered as a multifunctional "children's space" that can be used for working, playing, and hosting friends. Here, the question is whether is it possible to define the spatial boundaries between children's spaces and adult's spaces and try to find if there is any hybrid buffer zone between these two. The method in this chapter is to examine the relationship between children's and adults' spaces and common areas in the residential projects. In addition to this, I will also take the interpretation of the texts on the child-housing relationship in periodicals into account.

Considering the projects examined within the scope of the thesis, it was observed that two main themes came to the fore while answering the questions above. The first is the relationship of children's rooms with open spaces such as gardens, balconies, and terraces. It can be said that the level of interaction is very high. The second theme is the separation of child-parent zones. As I will demonstrate, this spatial segregation is thought to increase in time. My main argument is that, there existed special parts in the house for children, which were the multi-functional and therefore, the relationship between master bedroom and children room changed significantly. The became completely separated units with separate bathrooms and toilets. At the same time, the

[11] Children's bedrooms should be even considered for the child's guest. Frequently, the child's bedroom, playroom and workplace are in the same area. In this case, the place of this room in the plan is critical. If possible, the doors of the children's rooms should be opened to the garden or the courtyard, and they should be next to the kitchen.

areas reserved for the guests in the house turn into an element of presentation. This situation results in the parents' tendency to keep their children away from these spaces.

Ekrem Olğuner, who wrote an article called "Child and Architect" in *Arkitekt* periodical in 1963, mentioned how to think about the child in residential design. He confirms that children's rooms are designed as multifunctional and draws attention to the room's relationship with the outside. Child health, which has been considered as an essential issue in Turkey significantly since the early republican period, is also shaped through residential design. Another article on child's health in *Ev-İş* magazine focuses on children's need to fresh air. It is recommended that the child be taken outside if possible, but if it is not possible, it is recommended to provide fresh air on the balcony for a while (Gündoğdu, 1942). Also, the emphasis that modern nuclear family residences should have a garden and detached confirms this theme.

For most of the time, the children's room is directly connected to the balcony or terrace in the projects examined. Especially for summer houses, it is expected that all bedrooms have a balcony or terrace. However, it is obvious that there is a spatial arrangement only for the children's room in some projects. For example, children's rooms open onto a large private terrace in the project below (Figure 4.37). There is also a very interesting arrangement in this house, considering the relationship that the children establish with the other spaces of the house. The service areas on the top floor of an apartment were re-planned for similar use to a two-story villa. However, contrary to the common usage in two-story houses, the upper floor was designed as a special area for children; other volumes such as living spaces, kitchen, master bedroom are located on the lower floor. This usage is the highest example of the parent-child distinction among the projects examined within the scope of the thesis. The nurse's and maid's rooms, along with the children, are also located on this floor. Yet, the fact that there are two separate bathrooms shows that the bathrooms are also separated into child-employee.

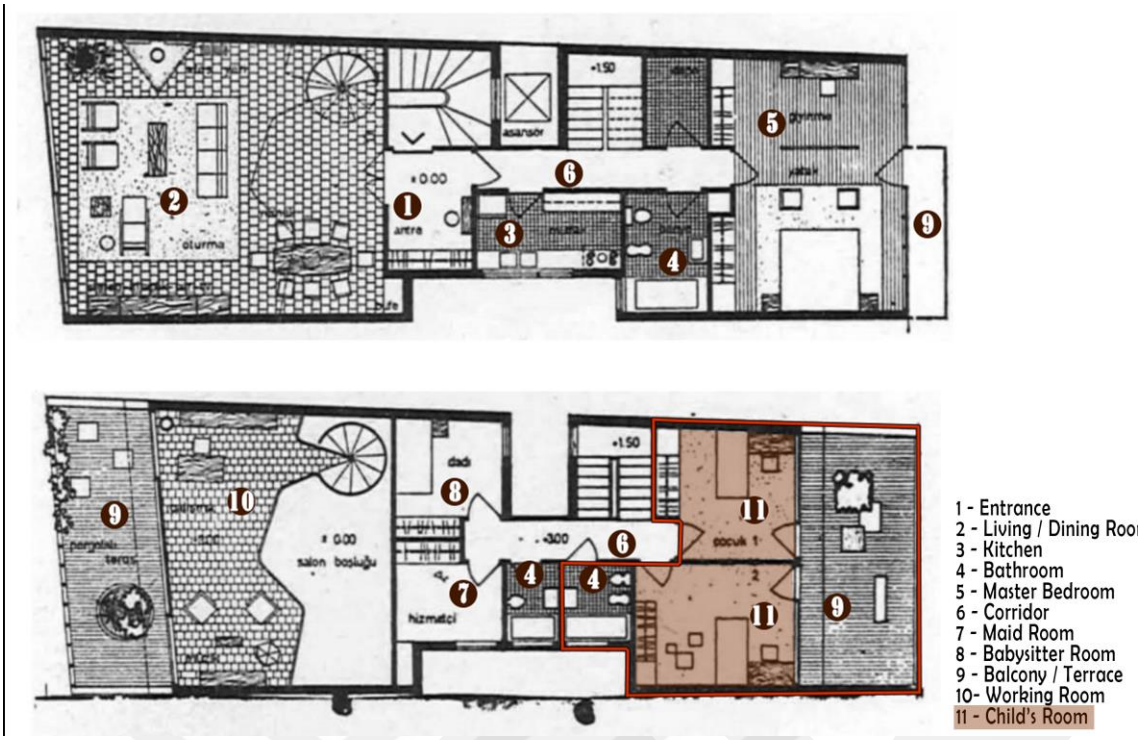


Figure 4.37 The plans of Nuri Bey Apartment, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1968, 2)

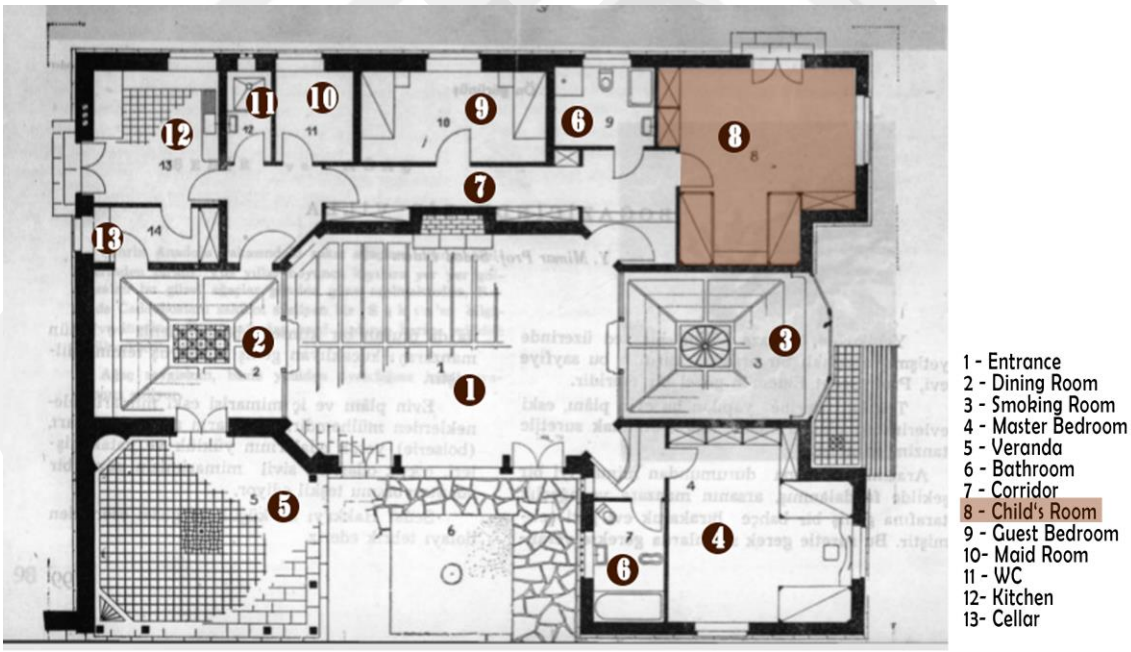


Figure 4.38 The ground floor plan of a villa in Bosphorus, İstanbul (*Arkitekt,* 1946, 5-6)

There is an example in which the child's room is directly connected to the garden (Figure 4.38). The villa designed by Sedad Hakkı Eldem has a large front garden. Although it is not clear where the rear façade opens, the door of the children's room opening to the outside suggests that a small garden share was left here as well. It is

possible that the living room, connected to the dining room, was a place where daily life took place and also intended to host guests. For this reason, it may have been thought that children should be able to access the garden without using the guest distribution space. The master bedroom is designed as a separate unit with a bathroom and is as far away as possible from other bedrooms and service spaces. There is a very different solution from the family's private spaces, which are planned around the usual night hall.

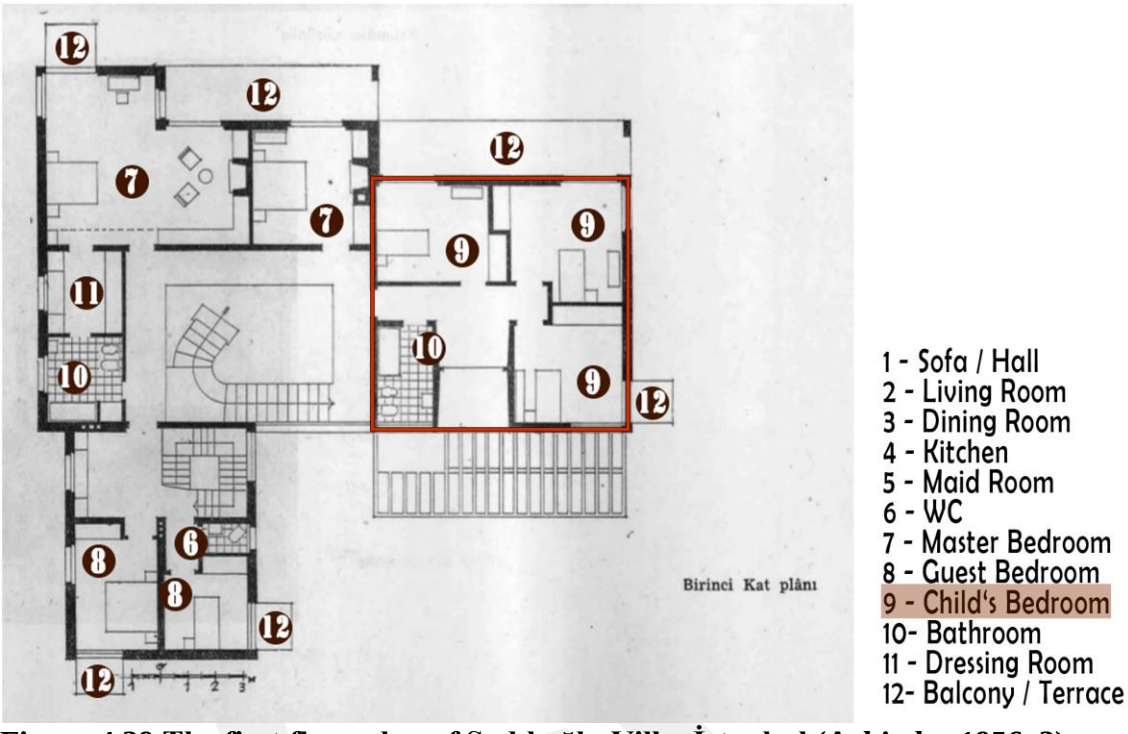


Figure 4.39 The first floor plan of Sadıkoğlu Villa, İstanbul (Arkitekt, 1956, 3)

Sadıkoğlu Villa, whose architect is Emin Necip Uzman, is another example of a unique children's spaces. It is stated that the upper floor consists of three parts: the parent, children, and guest bedrooms. Although the names of the places are not written on the plan, we can make comments by checking the location and furnishings of the rooms. The room to the left of the circular staircase, including the study, dressing room, and bathroom, should be the master bedroom. Also, the room on the right of this section could be other bedroom for one of the parents. It is thought that the rooms in the separate mass in the lower left part of the plan are the guest bedrooms because they are separated from the parts belonging to nuclear family members. The other three rooms on the right of the plan should be the children's rooms. This part, designed separately for each child and has a separate bathroom, is a private unit containing children's spaces. Another assumption is that the two volumes with a shared balcony are the children's room, and the other room in the same unit may be the nurse's room. The use of different

furnishings and the fact that it has a separate balcony supports this option. The master bedroom is quite large in terms of functional richness and size in this project. It is also an example of a high level of privacy within the family.

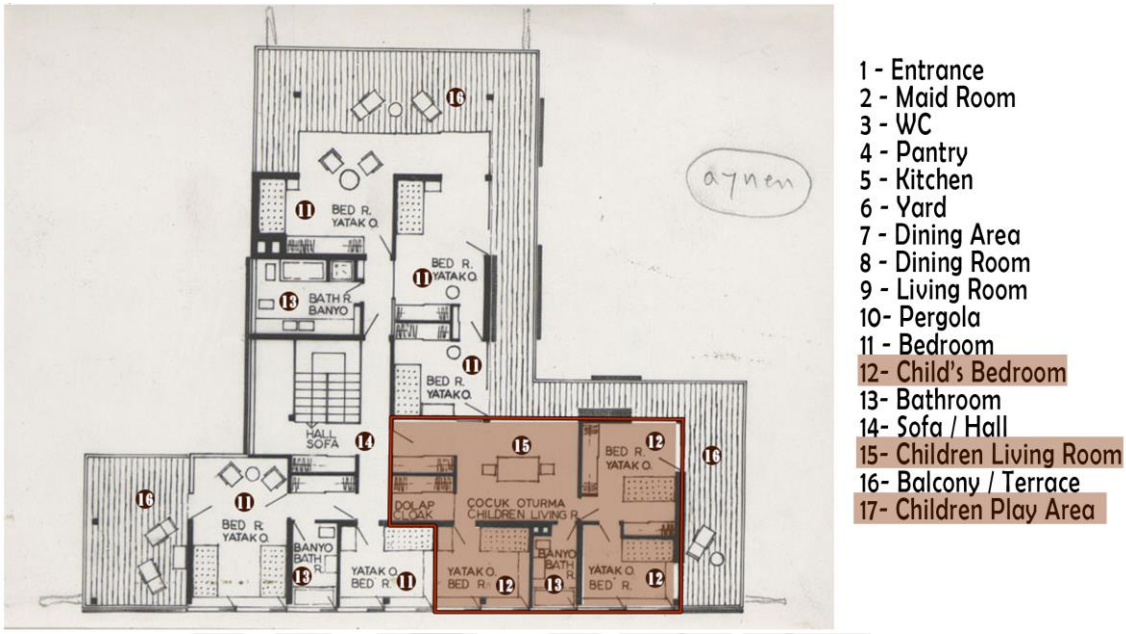


Figure 4.40 The first floor plan of Rıza Derviş House, İstanbul (Source: Edhem Eldem Collection, The image is accessible on SALT Research)

Rıza Derviş House (Figure 4.40), designed by Sedad Hakkı Eldem, is an example where it is challenging to interpret the arrangement of bedrooms by comparing with the previous projects. However, a particular common area for children suggests that the bedrooms planned around this area would be used by the children. One of the three corridors separating from the upper floor hall turns into a children's living area. The two rooms on the facade, where the terrace is located, are planned to be transition from one to the other. Similar passages between the other bedrooms in the plan show that the user may have preferred this unusual usage. Fixed furniture designs, which the architect focuses on in his Turkish house works, appear here like in his other projects. Rıza Derviş House is the first example of a children's space other than children's bedrooms in this research. The children's sitting area, which can be used both in the distribution to other rooms and in the daily life of the children, is like the sofa of the children's part.

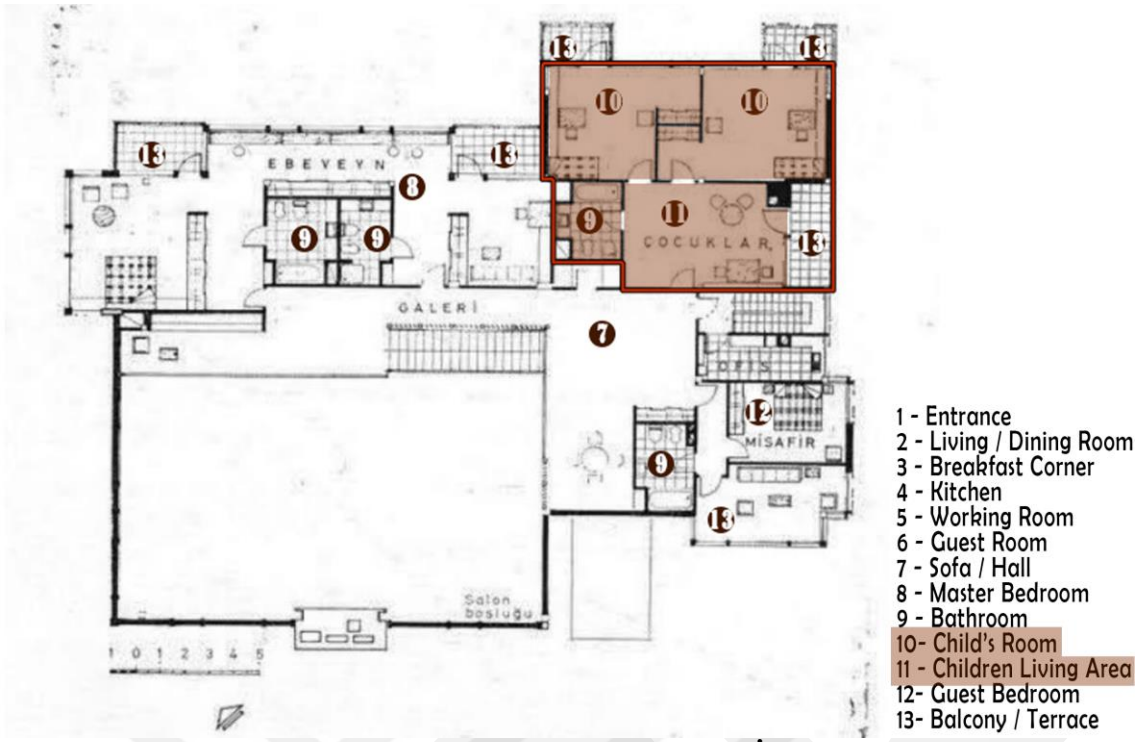


Figure 4.41 The first floor plan of a villa in Bosphorus, İstanbul (*Arkitekt*, 1974, 2)

In the villa design by Emin Necip Uzman (Figure 4.41), the personal areas of parents, children, and guests are arranged as separate units. Similar dual (parent-child) or triple (parent-child-guest) physical separations are encountered, especially in villas designed in the 1970s. In this project, apart from the separate bedrooms, there is even a common area that can meet the functions of living, working, and playing that children can use together. This usage is similar to the Rıza Derviş House. Although the children's rooms have separate balconies, it is noteworthy that the common area also has another balcony.

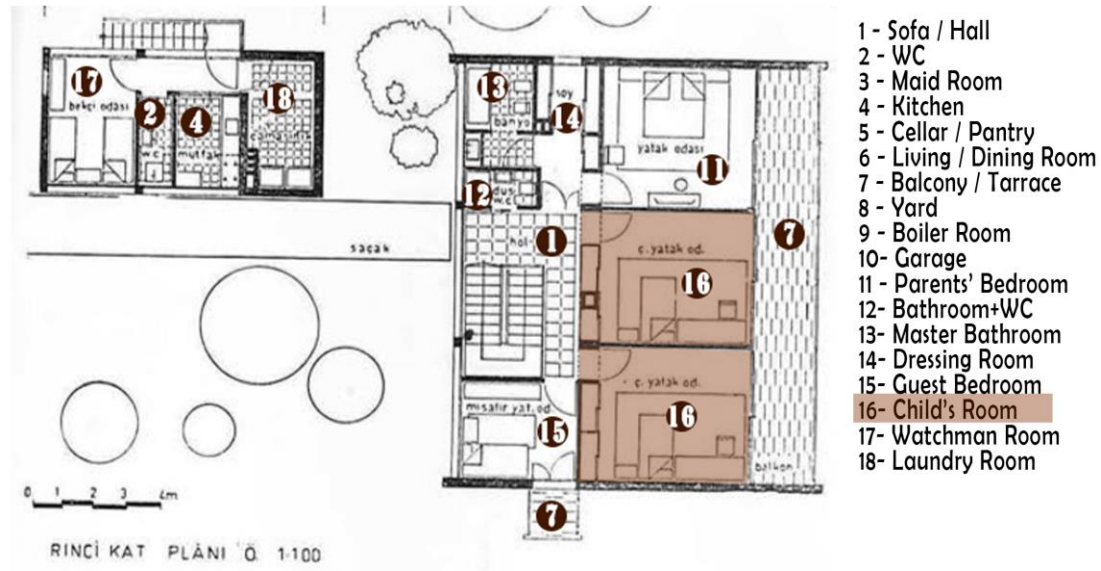


Figure 4.42 The first floor plan of Özgür Villa, İstanbul (*Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)

Traces of the separation of parent-child spaces are found in the house owned by Özgür family (Figure 4.42), one of the two villa projects of by Muhteşem Giray in 1967. Although there is no clear-cut division in this project, it can be thought that the master bedroom constitutes a more private life. While a very large area is reserved for the bathroom in the large bedroom, there is a narrower common bathroom and toilet space for children and the guests. It can be said that the parent and child bedrooms have similar comfort conditions due to their allocation, access to terrace, and being on the same facade.

Apart from the projects above, a few examples were encountered in the early 1930s, where parent and child spaces were planned separately. In the house project of Selim Zeki below (Figure 4.43, Figure 4.44), although the first floor is completely reserved for bedrooms, the children's room is designed in the attic. There is a maid's room and a toilet on this floor. Another project in which the children's room is located on a different floor from the parents' bedroom or the residence floor is designed by Sedad Hakkı (Eldem) in 1932. Although the plans are not included, there is information that the children's room is located on the ground floor according to the descriptive text published in *Arkitekt*. The living room, dining room, office, and master bedroom on the upper floor show that this floor is planned as the guest reception area for adults. On the other hand, the children's room is kept separate from this area and placed on the floor where the sofa, guest room, and working bedrooms are located.

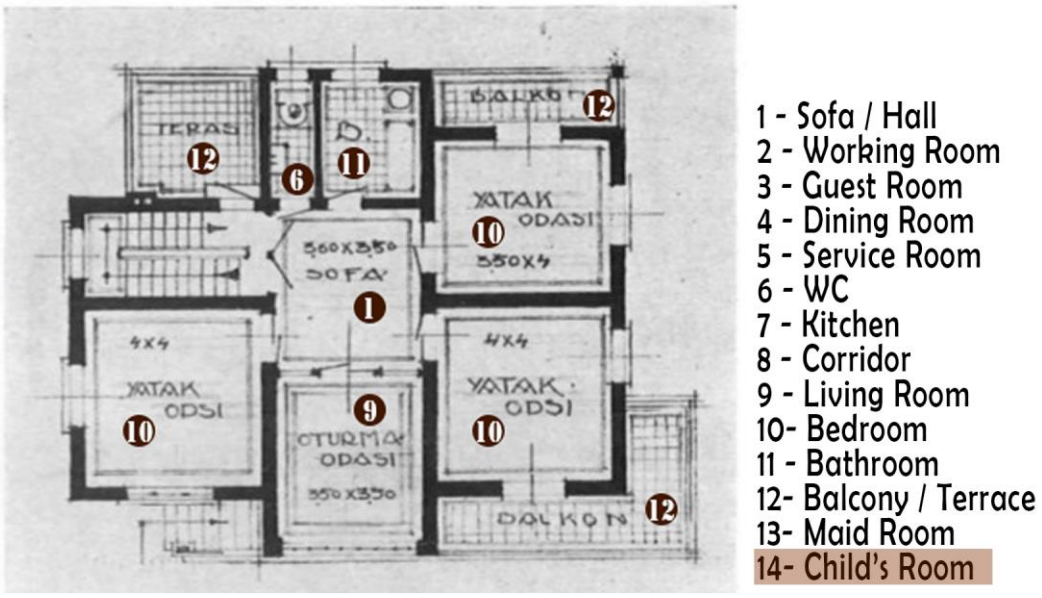


Figure 4.43 The first floor plan of a house by Selim Zeki, İstanbul (*Mimar, 1932, 3)*

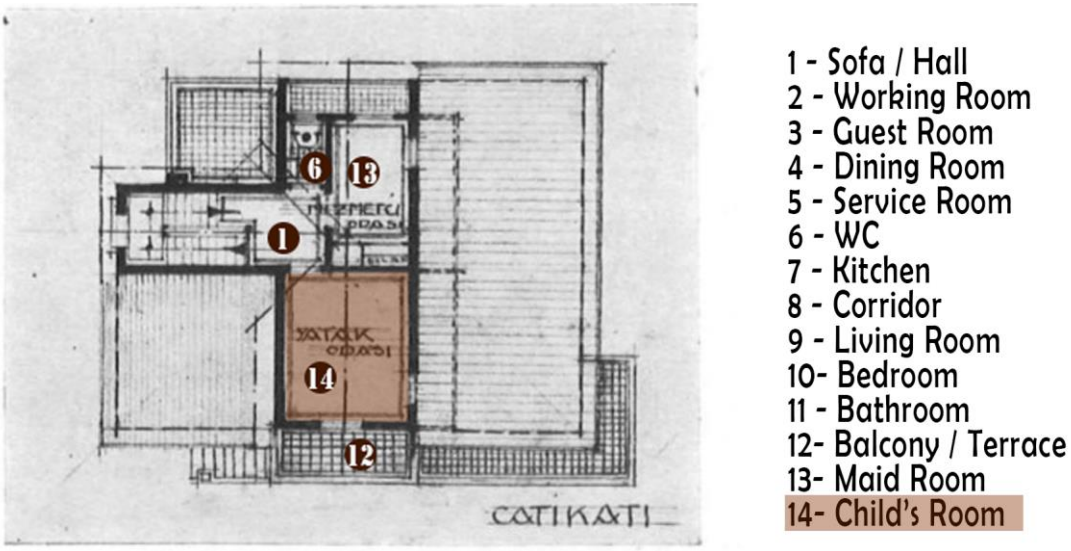


Figure 4.44 The attic floor plan of a house by Selim Zeki, İstanbul (*Mimar, 1932, 3)*

All examples examined in this section, where parent and child spaces are separated, are detached residences. Only Mr. Nuri Apartment is an exception (Table 4.3). However, as mentioned above, this plan is not a standard apartment flat, but rather arranged like a two-story villa. The standard plan scheme in apartments, mass housing, or more modest detached houses can be formulated as volumetric units where the parent and child bedrooms are located around a night hall along with a bathroom and toilet. At the same time, there are very rare examples in which children's spaces are separated among the houses that are examined as early examples. In the second half of the twentieth century, the frequency of the parent bathrooms has increased. Therefore, this has led to a significant spatial difference: the segregation of the child and parent spaces. Concurrently, common spaces such as the playroom and living room for the different needs of children have started to take place in residential projects. From this point of view, it can be said that children's spaces are designed as more and more private and separate sections, and this trend is seen much more explicitly and frequently in villa-type residences. The fact that children's rooms are associated with open areas such as gardens and balconies/terraces has been encountered in many projects throughout the entire period. In some projects, terraces are designed for children to play, spend time and even sleep and are specially designed for children.

PROJECT INFORMATION					CHILD'S ROOM INFORMATION				RELATED SPACE				FURNITURE		
NO	DATE	NAME	ARCHITECT	CITY	TYPE	ROOM NUMBER	CHILD NUMBER	LOCATION	ORIENTATION	BALCONY	GARDEN	BABYSITTER ROOM	OTHER	BED	TABLE	CLOSET
5	1932	A HOUSE	SELİM ZEKİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	1	Seperated	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
20	1946	A VILLA	SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	Seperated	-	-	+	-	-	BUILT-IN	-	BUILT-IN
33	1956	SADIKOĞLU VILLA	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Seperated	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
37	1956/1957	RIZA DERVİŞ H.	SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Seperated	-	+	-	-	LIVING R.	+	-	BUILT-IN
53	1967	ÖZGÜR VILLA	MUHTEŞEM GİRAY	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Seperated	SW	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
56	1968	MR. NURİ APT.	ENİS KORTAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	2	2	Seperated	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
62	1974	A VILLA	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Seperated	NE	+	-	-	LIVING R.	+	+	BUILT-IN

Table 4.3 List of house samples analyzed in Chapter 4.3

Contrary to the close connection of children's spaces with open areas, there are also places where children are specially kept away. Since the 1950s, a *salon* (guest room or drawing room) as a showpiece has been one of them. As the public face of the house, the salons decorated with modern furniture and objects, which should always be kept clean and tidy for the guests, were kept locked to keep the children away (Nasır et al., 2019, p. 70). However, after the 1970s, *salon* began to turn into a daily living room due to the presence of television. Thus, it became a place where both parents and children spent time together (İnce Güney, 2005, p. 163).

4.4 Materiality of Children's Domestic Spaces

With the increase in production capacity after industrialization, more diverse and accessible goods have been produced for all individuals. Consumption culture in the field of home and decoration has created a special category dedicated to children's spaces. Thus, thanks to parents' increasing interest in childhood in modern times, a unique material culture has emerged that considers children's mental and physical development, needs, and tastes (Jenkins, 1998). Forty (1986, cited in Jenkins, 1998) remarked that:

> Only at the very end of the century were there entire ranges of nursery furniture that were different from those for adults, not only in scale but also in form and appearance. Some of these new articles, such as the purpose-designed toy cupboards, specially filled children's needs, some offered the advantage of being hygienic and easy to clean, while others were decorated with pictures of animals or with colours that were particularly appropriate for children. (p. 104)

This part will focus on what kind of objects take role in shaping of children's domestic spaces and what kind of objects children demanded in time. Domestic materials of children can be grouped into three: furniture, decoration items, and various tools (toys, books, etc.). I examined many objects intended for the use of the child at home, by studying the furnishings of the house plans and associated the images of the children's room when available. I also refer to textual descriptions and other

supplementary pieces that are encountered in popular periodicals that address children, home decoration and women. *Ev-İş* magazine, which started publication in 1937 with the slogan of "Turkey's First Home, Practice and Women's Newspaper"(Ev İş, 1937) basically undertook an educational mission for women. For this reason, suggestions are given for the child's care and the design of their living space, as well as the useful recipes, society life, husband-wife relations. *Ev Kadın* magazine, published between 1945-50, similarly includes fashion, home, wool knitting, child care, stories, and other articles (*Ev Kadın*, 1945, p. 1). *Hayat* magazine, published by Şevket Rado since 1956, has a wide variety of topics but mainly targets female readers and focuses on housework, fashion, and childcare. It is an important source for this research, thanks to its publication continuity from the 1950s to the end of the 1970s. Also, *Hayat* was one of the journals with the highest circulation in this period.

In these publications, which focus on the role of women in shaping the relationship between home and child, issues such as the sanitary conditions of children's rooms, the way they are decorated, the production of decorative objects, and the choice of toys come to the fore. The materials obtained from these visually rich publications will be examined in terms of the messages given in the magazines, and the visuals will be interpreted with various themes. Chronological order will be followed starting from the late Ottoman period to observe the changes in the process. Thus, it is possible to see how developed thoughts about childhood have affected the child's housing space.

Although publications on women-home-family issues began to appear earlier, namely in the first decades of the twentieth, these magazines lacked the visual richness of the 1930s. The first visual example of the pre-Republican era was encountered in a reading book published in 1909. Drawings of household items are on a printed on a page (Figure 4.45). Duben (2014, p. 218), who mentions about the introduction of European-style items into homes with modernization, explains the reason of the inclusion of this image in the book in two ways: these items are seen as ideal and are widely used in practice. Even though such items began to be used during the reign of Abdülhamit II, the middle class practiced them at the beginning of the twentieth century.

In addition to the dining room, kitchen, bedroom furniture, children's furniture is also included. What is remarkable here is that only children's equipment is presented with a picture of the child user. Perhaps for readers aware of the use of other objects, children's furniture was not yet very popular, and the creator(s) of the image also painted children's users, needing annotations. There is a baby with a toy in his hand in the lower-left image and a cradle in the same frame. However, it was a common practice to have babies who sleep in the same bed with their parents in homes where comfort conditions are not good. Therefore babies usually die by drowning (Perrot, 2018). In the image below, the cradle is among modern household items with its design, ensures the child's safety, and has swinging feet for sleeping. Although the use of cribs dates back to ancient times, it may have become widespread due to modernization and the special arrangement of children's spaces at home. In the other image, a child is depicted sleeping in his bed. Although a place that can be a child's room is not directly visualized, it is thought that a space belonging to the child is personalized with his belongings. It can be said that these two visual representations indicate that children of different ages need different equipment.

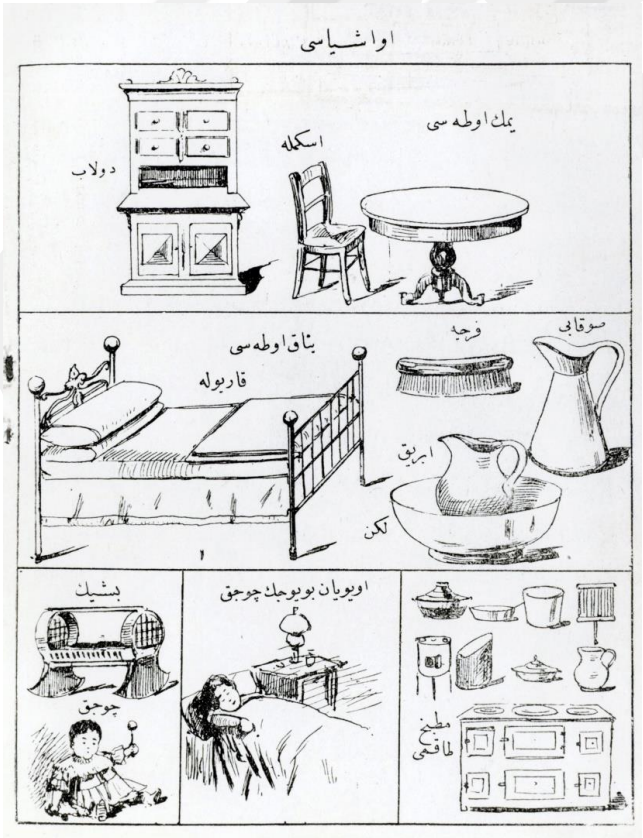


Figure 4.45 Home furnishing in a reading book in 1909 (Source: SALT)[12]

[12] also cited in "Duben, A., & Behar, C. (2014)"

By cross reading of the furnishings of the children's rooms, and the plan drawings of the previous sections, we can generate some proposals about evolution of children's furniture. The furnishings used in most examples are the ones that allows this space to be defined first and foremost as the child's bedroom. Children's rooms generally include a single bed and a wardrobe, and built-in furniture is used in the children's rooms as in other parts of the house. However, it is not possible to know the size, shape, style, and color of children's furniture on the plan drawings. For this reason, children's furniture will be examined by using other visual materials. The definition of a special place for children in homes can be seen as a development that is highly related with the availability of special furniture for children. Children's furniture has become increasingly diverse, depending on the understanding of the child's nature and needs, as well as the developing industrial production.

While children's furniture will show differences according to the period's popular style, it will also show differences depending on the child's development process. Cribs or beds with side barriers are preferred for babies and small children. According to an article titled 'House Order' published in 1945, the author states that the goods can be easily moved in the modern house of that time. In modern houses, it is stated that baby cots are wheeled like other items. Thus, the bed can be easily taken to where the sun comes from. In these years, the importance of sunbathing for the child's health was frequently emphasized, and the importance of changing the place of children's beds were stressed ("Ev Düzeni", 1945). However, no visual expression of the wheeled children's cots was found in these magazines so far.

In the images below (Figure 4.46), models similar to baby cots, whose drawings were featured in the *Ev-Kadın* published in 1950, can be found in an issue of *Hayat* magazine published towards the end of the same decade. In this period, when the child's sleep and protection from diseases are the main issues of child care, there were also some nets covering the baby's cribs to protect them from mosquitoes and other insects. However, in the image's content on the left, only the function of decorating the bed is mentioned. The photos in the middle and on the right are taken from a material that presents clothing models for women who will become mothers. In these two photographs, the woman stands near the cradle to emphasize her role as a mother.

Although the mother figure is not depicted in the left image, the use of furniture can be read in connection with the woman's child-rearing duty. Chairs attached next to baby beds can be read as the presence of a mother nearby, who sings a lullaby or reads a fairy tale to put her child to sleep according to these articles.

Although the cradle is a children's furniture that has been used since pre-modern times, it has lost its rocking function for the child to sleep in new and modern models. Kemalettin Tuğcu, who wrote about child care in an issue of *Ev İş* magazine published in 1942, advises mothers under the title of "Child and Sleep." The author, who mentions that it is customary for us to rock the child to sleep, admits that the mother or nanny is obliged to do this but emphasizes that the child is stunned, and therefore the child falls asleep uneasily (Tuğcu, 1942).



Figure 4.46 Cradle models (*Ev Kadın*, 1950, 62; *Hayat,* 1957, 22)

Baby beds –the cribs, encountered in the 1960s and 70s, are in plain and simple rectangular form, and missing ornaments, unlike the previous models (Figure 4.47). In addition to wicker and wood materials, metal is also used to build cradles. At the same time, the sides of these beds are arranged in the form of railings. Thus, the child is prevented from falling out of the bed, and the child and the parent can see each other more easily. The fact that the beds have vertical depth allows children to spend time in bed safely apart from sleep; For example, it helps them stand up and play. It is also recommended that the child spend time in bed in this way and for children who do not want to sleep to get used to the bed (“4 Sorun 4 Cevap”, 1973).



Figure 4.47 Crib models (*Hayat,* 1960, 10; *Hayat,* 1974, 10; *Hayat,* 1973, 15)

Apart from the beds with fences, cage-like items with bars were also used to allow small children to play safely. This furniture, called ‘ Baby Park,’ creates a physical space for the children and creates a playground for them in his room (Figure 4.48). A safe and functional space is created for toddlers starting to crawl and walk. The child's mini-playroom is also isolated from the unhygienic flooring of the house, as it is an area where only the child is present (“Çocuk Yalnız Oynamalıdır!”, 1967). For older children, single beds, which we see in the children’s room furnishings, are used. However, some models seem to have barriers for safety (Figure 4.49).



Figure 4.48 The ‘Park’ and the crib example (*Hayat,* 1961, 32; *Hayat,* 1967, 24)



Figure 4.49 The children beds examples (*Ev Kadın*, 1946, 21; *Ev Kadın*, 1949, 57; *Ev İş*, 1938, 3)

Sometimes bunk beds are used in the children's rooms shared by siblings to use the space efficiently. In Figure 4.36, it was seen that such a solution was made because

the children's room was small in the Master Engineer Muhbil Aykut House. Due to space constraints, beds stacked on top of each other enable families with more than one child to easily organize their children's rooms. Thus, both children are provided with areas to play and work in their rooms. According to the photo's description at the bottom left, especially boys love bunk beds (Figure 4.50). This practical furniture solution seems to turn into more of an entertainment element for children. Maybe it makes them think that their room has a feature that makes it different from other children's rooms, increasing their ties with the space that belongs to them.



Figure 4.50 Bunk beds in children's room (*Hayat,* 1959, 18; *Hayat,* 1976, 14)

It was mentioned that children's rooms are not only bedrooms but also multifunctional places for children. Multifunctional furniture was also used to enable children to use their rooms for various purposes. The sofas, used instead of beds, are a common element in children's rooms as they provide both seating and sleeping options. An article in the Cumhuriyet newspaper in 1938 deals with the design of the young girl's room and draws attention to the multifunctional rooms (Figure 4.51). Considering the room's multifunctional use, the author explains that a young girl can host her guests in her room, and this place will turn into a bedroom at night. In the article, the author also includes a room suggestion for young girls, the importance of using the space in different ways ("Evlerimizi nasıl döşiyelim?", 1938). Such practical solutions, especially for tiny houses, provide more efficient spaces ("Genç Kızlar İçin Pratik Bir Oda", 1969). The sofa seen on the right of the photo is a piece of furniture that can easily be turned into a bed at night. Similar suggestions are given in an article in *Hayat*

magazine (“Kardeşlerin Odası Nasıl Düzenlenmeli”, 1971) about the arrangement of the children's room belonging to two siblings. The bed by the wall can be transformed into a sitting unit with pillows (Figure 4.52).



Evlerimizi nasıl döşiyelim?

Şık, güzel ve pratik bir genc kız odası

Bugün ev döşemeğe kalkanların takib ettikleri zihniyetle bundan on, on beş sene evvel eşya almak için çarşıya çıkmış olanların gayesi arasında çok fark vardır. Dün, faydadan ziyade şıklık ve gösteriş nazarı dikkate alınırdı. Bugün ise zariflikle birlikte pratiklik de aranmaktadır. O zaman kat kat yük - selen konaklarda, evlerde oturulur, her hususa ayrı bir kısım tahsis edilirdi. Halbuki şimdi, bir oda veya salon bir kaç işe birden tahsis edilmektedir. Eskiden kendimiz başka türlü ömür sürer, misafir geldiği zaman onlara büsbütün başka bir hayat tarzı gösterirdik. Bugün olduğumuz gibi görünmek mecburiyetindeyiz. Ekserimiz yemek yediğimiz veya oturduğumuz odada, salonda yabancıları kabul etmek mecburiyetindeyiz.

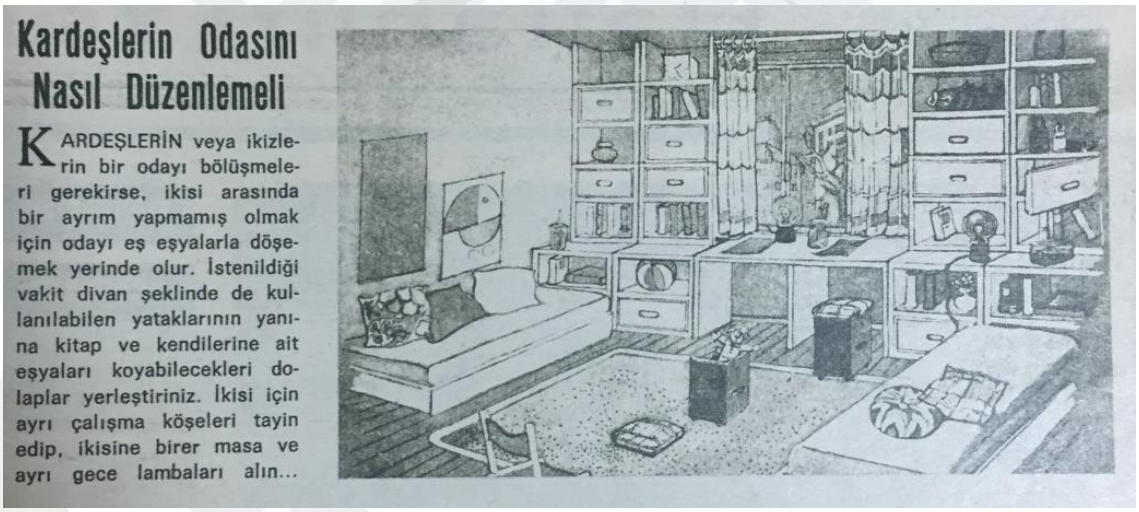
İşte size bir genc kız odası ki, sahibi burada hem yatar, hem oturur, hem çalışır hem de pekâlâ misafirlerini kabul edebilir. Kenardaki divan geceleyin pek kolayca bir yatak haline gelmektedir. Yazıhanesi ise çok pratiktir. İcabında büsbütün kapanıp bir dolab manzarasını arzedebilir. Alt kısmı pekâlâ çamaşır ve saire koymağa yarıyabilir. Masası, lâmbası, tabloları, hiçbir şeyi eksik değildir. Az masrafla da vücude getirilebilir. Nasihatimizi dinleyip vücude getirecek olan güle güle otursunlar.

GENÇ KIZLAR İÇİN

PRATİK BİR ODA

Bir ev hanımı evini tanzim ederken odalardan en iyi şekilde istifade edebilmeyi ön plana almalıdır. Bunun için pahalı eşyalar almak şart değildir. Ev halkının ihtiyaçları düşünülerek hareket edilmelidir. Bu da planlı tanzimle mümkün olabilir. Özellikle ayrı oturma odası olmayan küçük evlerde bu, çok daha önemlidir. Genç kızlara ayrılan odaya sade yatak odası havası verilmemelidir. Oda, genç kızın içinde zevkle oturup aynı zamanda çalışabileceği şekilde tanzim edilirse, içerden üç ayrı şekilde istifade etmek mümkün olur.

Figure 4.51 Practical Rooms for Young Girls (*Cumhuriyet,* 1938-04-19; *Hayat,* 1969, 5)



Kardeşlerin Odasını Nasıl Düzenlemeli

KARDEŞLERİN veya ikizlerin bir odayı bölüşmeleri gerekirse, ikisi arasında bir ayrım yapmamış olmak için odayı eş eşyalarla döşemek yerinde olur. İstenildiği vakit divan şeklinde de kullanılabilen yataklarının yanına kitap ve kendilerine ait eşyaları koyabilecekleri dolaplar yerleştiriniz. İkisi için ayrı çalışma köşeleri tayin edip, ikisine birer masa ve ayrı gece lambaları alın...

Figure 4.52 “How to organize siblings’ room” (*Hayat,* 1971, 13)

Due to the shrinking size of houses in time, different multifunctional furniture has come to the fore. It is right to consider this type of furniture's practical and inexpensive solutions, especially for children's rooms. In this case, as children grow, their changing needs and wishes will require these items to be changed. In this way, unnecessary expenses are avoided, and the narrowing of the spaces with furniture in houses is prevented. One of the most common practical solutions is to use the space under the beds. For example, in the children's bed model below, a space for toys is created by removing the mattress. The free space under the furniture can also be a storage area (Figure 4.53).



Figure 4.53 Practical solution for space by removing mattress (*Hayat,* 1966, 44)

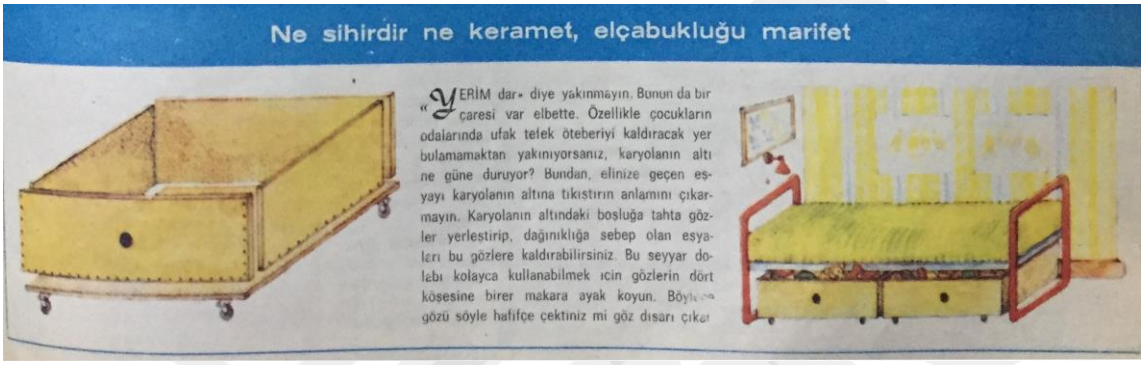


Figure 4.54 Storage space with drawers (*Hayat,* 1974, 9)

In the 1974 issue of the same magazine, evaluating the bottom of the beds by emphasizing the children's rooms is presented as a solution proposal for narrow spaces. Other reasons for making such practical solutions, especially for children's rooms, are the narrowness, the lack of space due to shared by more than one sibling, and the easier distribution of children's belongings. In the room below, intended for a young boy, the sofa as mentioned above is used. Also, the bottom of this sofa turns into a storage area with drawers (Figure 4.55).

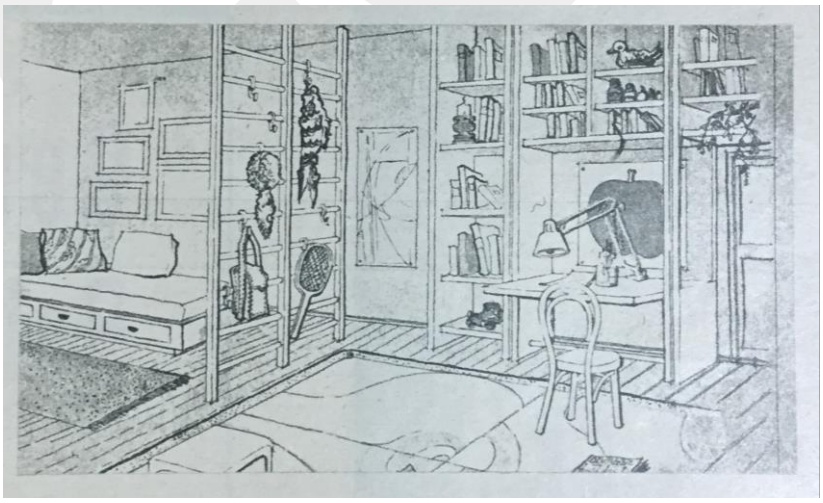


Figure 4.55 Sofa-bed in a boy's room (*Hayat,* 1971, 11)

In the 1960s and 70s, the child's education, studying and gaining the habit of reading, came to the fore. Experts attribute the child's success at school to the attitude of the family and the conditions of the child at home ("Çocuğunuz Çalışmıyor mu?", 1963). It is said that it is important to have a study corner at home, and if it is possible and there is a place for it at home, a small study room will positively affect the child's study. The chair in which s/he sits should be comfortable, and the light should come in such a way that it does not disturb the eyes ("Çalışma Köşesi Nasıl Olmalı?", 1970). Choosing suitable books and making book corners for the child is recommended to endear reading habit for the child ("Okuma İsteğini Nasıl Aşılıyabilirsiniz?", 1964). Due to the increasing concerns about the child's education, the study desk's location in the children's rooms, the comfort, and the design of the study corners have gained importance. The following examples focus on the characteristics of the workplaces to be organized for children.

In the example on the left below, a large desk was chosen as the siblings shared the workspace; therefore, it is preferred in large rooms. The foldable table shows that this suggestion is applicable in small spaces in the image on the right. The direction of the sunlight is as important as the lighting elements that provide an artificial light source. It is even reminded that the angle should change depending on which hand the child uses. In both examples (Figure 4.56), there are a few tools on the table only for study use. Books, decorative items, and other gadgets are placed on cabinets and shelves. These storage areas are designed close to the work desk, ensuring that the items are easily accessible, and they do not allow any distracting clutter on the desk. In addition to being comfortable, study corner furniture should be adjustable depending on the child's growth over time. In a table prepared by experts, suitable measurements for the height of the seat, the workplace's height, and the surface are given for children aged 7, 12, and 16 ("Çalışma Köşesi Nasıl Olmalı?", 1970). Such a table is an essential step in determining the standards of children's furniture in Turkey.



Figure 4.56 Study areas for children *(Hayat,* 1960, 29; *Hayat,* 1970, 5)

Study corners for children are also considered in the content that emphasizes the arrangement of the common areas used by the family in narrow apartments to serve different family members. These work areas should be in a far corner of the room, away from noise (“ ‘Yerim Dar’ Demeyin...”, 1973; “Oturma odanıza dahil etmek istediğiniz bölümler”, 1977). The following image shows how different individuals can use the living room multifunctionally. In the text, it is mentioned that the position of the table placed for the child's study is appropriate so that the child will not be disturbed. The position of the desk on the room’s circulation axis does not seem to be the quietest corner of the room. However, opening two doors to the living room can eliminate this undesired situation. Since the door on the dining table side is connected to the kitchen, the child in the working corner will not be disturbed during meal preparation. Since the door on the left provides direct access to the sitting area, it can be thought that the axle at the work table level is not used much. A play corner for the small child is also considered in this context. Thus, the child will be able to play safely under the mother's supervision, and the mother will be able to do her work while keeping an eye on the child.

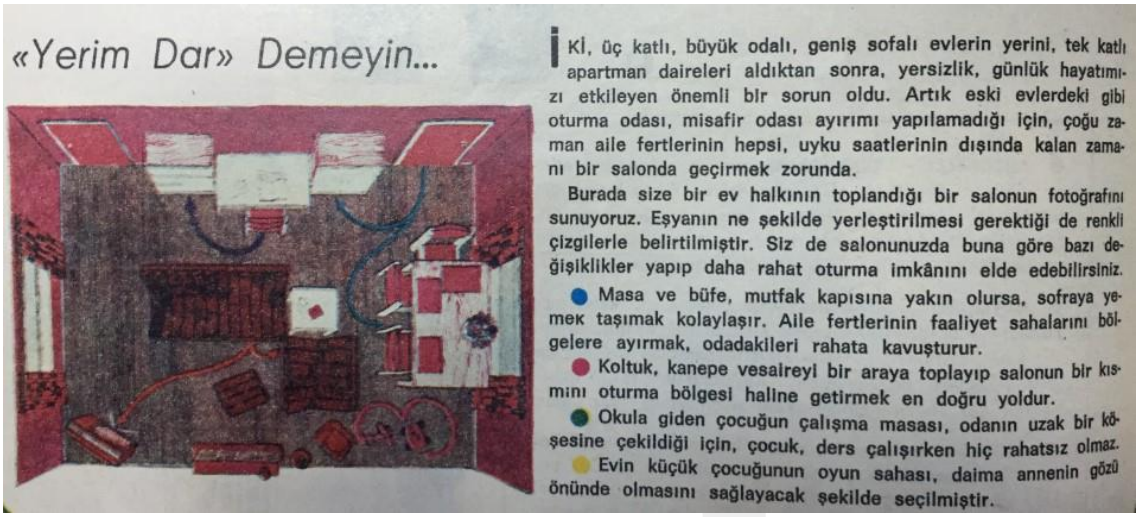


Figure 4.57 Multi-functional use of living space (*Hayat,* 1973, 9)

Wardrobes in children's rooms are usually designed as built-in components during the design phase, as seen in the plans. Considering that most of the images in the examined child's rooms contain suggestions about the arrangement of the room, the absence of a wardrobe in these images also supports the previous statement. However, the decrease in the use of built-in furniture in the design phase of the house will cause the wardrobe in the children's room to turn into a separate piece of furniture. Room sets produced for children also include a wardrobe (Figure 4.58).

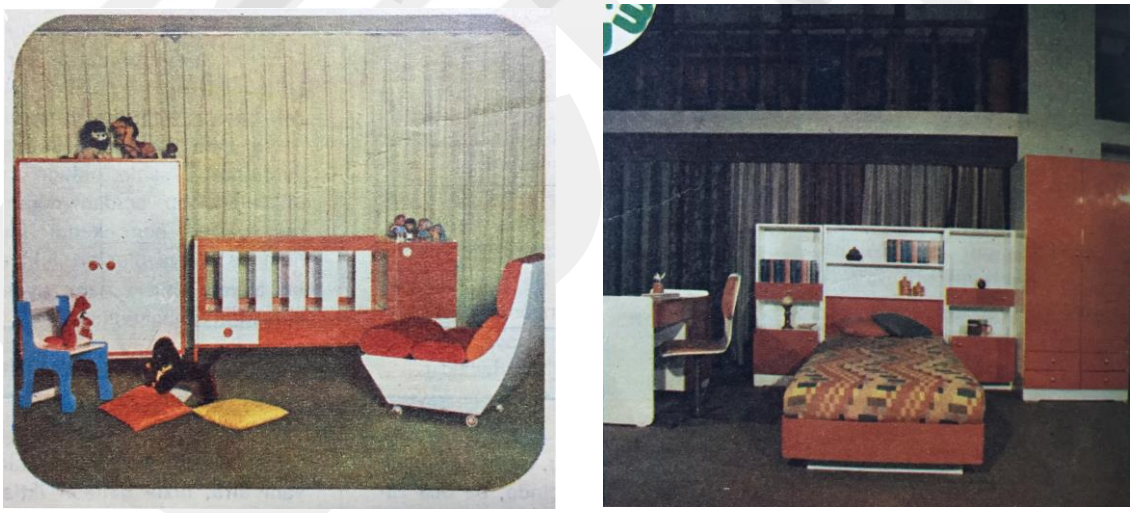


Figure 4.58 Room sets for children's rooms (*Hayat,* 1974, 1; *Hayat,* 1975, 18)

There are also closed cabinets, bookcases, and shelves used for storing tools other than clothes in children's rooms. The two examples below (Figure 4.59) include cabinets where small children's toys can be stored. However, as discussed above, practical solutions that can be used as storage areas are produced with the shrinking of houses and rooms. For this reason, toy cabinets were probably used in children's rooms in larger houses.

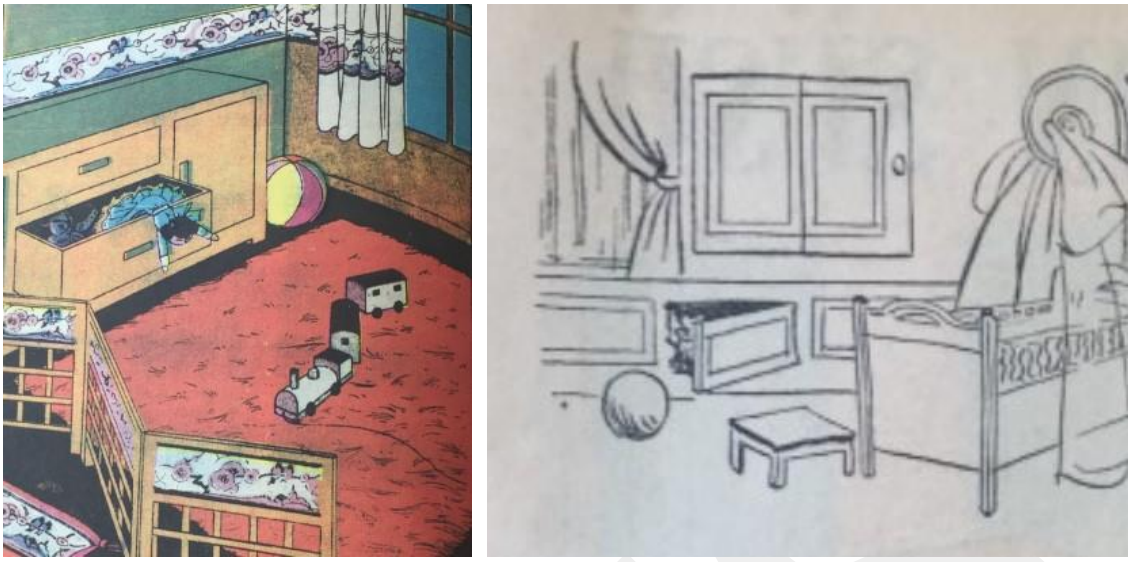


Figure 4.59 Toy cabinets in children's rooms (*Ev Kadın*, 1945, 5; *Ev Kadın*, 1950, 62)

For rooms without a toy cabinet, it is recommended to use toy boxes or bags produced at home. Such handicrafts are also decorated, and ornament elements are placed in the room. The visual appeal of the children's room is increased by using fabrics with patterns, colors, and fun figures (Figure 4.60).



Figure 4.60 Decorated toy bags (*Hayat*, 1977, 22; *Hayat*, 1974, 7; *Hayat*, 1969, 47)

Items such as toys, books, and study tools that need storage space in children's rooms are also decorative items. Many toys and books are displayed on wall-mounted shelves or in open cabinets like a bookcase. The visibility of these items offers clues about both the tastes and age of the child. Books replace many toys in small children's rooms over time, but some of these toys are kept as decorative items (Figure 4.55; Figure 4.56). We can assume that these are valuables that the child has a moral bond with or wants to keep as a memory item.

The content about the importance of colors used in decorating children's rooms increases over time. According to an article dated 1963, the effect of colors on human psychology is taken into account in space design in Europe. For example, when pale blue is used in baby rooms, it is observed that children sleep more comfortably ("Evinizin döşenişinde nelere dikkat etmelisiniz?", 1963). In the 1970s, more emphasis was placed on the meanings of colors, which colors would be compatible with each other, and the effects of color selection on the space. In this period, it is seen that warm colors such as orange and red dominate in children's rooms. In the article published with in 1978, it is recommended to use red and white colors. These colors make the children's room a warm and cheerful environment (Figure 4.61). The use of old and dark furniture is a behavior to be avoided ("Çocuklar için canlı renkler", 1978).



Figure 4.61 A Children's Room with warm colors (*Hayat,* 1978, 8)

Although the history of the toy is almost as old as the history of humanity, the meaning of the toy and the way it is used were not always the same every time. Many toys and similar objects have been found in archaeological sites of the ancient civilizations. These were vehicles for children to enter the world of adults. At the same time, there were objects or souvenirs with religious and spiritual meanings that were not related to children's games (Niemann, 1991). There were different perspectives towards games and toys in pre-modern Ottoman society. Despite the view that the game was useless, some believed it relieved mental fatigue. The purpose of play and toys was primarily to prepare the child for adult roles (Araz, 2013, pp. 135-137).

When we look at the history of toys in Turkey, toy shops located in Eyüp district have a significant place. In 1635, Evliya Çelebi wrote in his travelogue about 100 toy shops in Eyüp (*Geleneksel*, n.d.). The toys produced in these shops were generally wooden objects with wheels, small household items such as cradles, and moving and sound toys with materials such as nails, wire, and tin. The many toy shops, almost were destroyed by a fire at the beginning of the twentieth century, and the remaining ones could not compete with the tin toys imported from Europe (Geleş, 2015).

At the beginning of the twentieth century, new and exciting toy shops were opened in Beyoğlu after opening to European markets. However, those whose childhood coincided with the first half of the twentieth century, especially the war and post-war poverty, often spoke of the shortage of toys. Aydın Kunt wrote that buying toys for children was a luxury for a family of civil servants in the post-war years. Doğan Hasol also mentions that children without toys is also common even for wealthy families. Toys for children of this period were usually simple objects made of any material they could find. Girls played with dolls they sewed together with their mothers (Onur, 2009).

On the below left below, examples of cloth toys made at home are given in the *Ev-İş* magazine. The text states a different and solid choice of toys for children who are "tired of their dolls, cars, trucks, and toys." However, as seen above, handmade toys produced at home were more of a necessity than an option at that time. In the example on the right, a toy model can be made from sewing materials at home. Niemann (1991) state that animals are always important among children's toys. Looking at the materials examined, we see that this situation was also valid in the twentieth century.



Figure 4.62 Cloth toys which can be made at home (*Ev İş*, 1947, 3; *Ev Kadın*, 1950, 63)

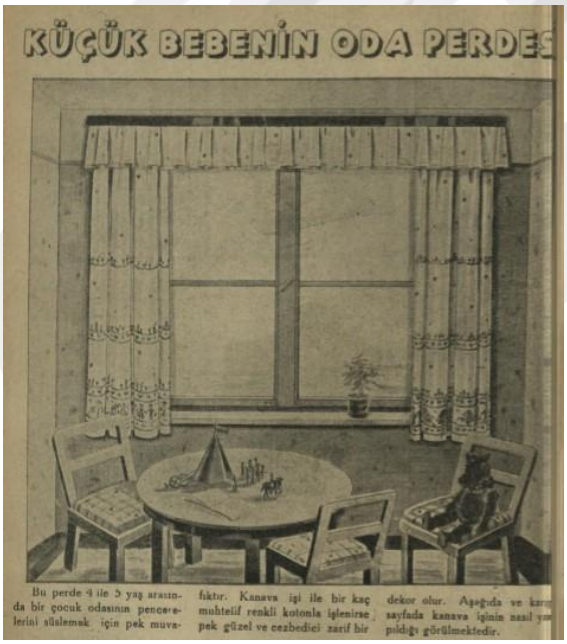


Figure 4.63 Tin soldier toys in the war-period (*Ev İş*, 1941, 2)

The toys in the 1940s show how children's games and toys were affected by the conditions of the war period. The war-themed toys depicted in detail on the table are arranged as if a game plot has been established (Figure 4.63). During the Second World War, the theme of war in children's plays is also mentioned in Altan Öymen's memories.

The author explains that he did not have many toys but a tin soldier team with many soldiers and he claims that this was the most up-to-date toy of the time (Öymen, 2002, p. 101). Talking about their childhood in the early 1940s, both authors mention that they had tin soldiers (Onur, 2009, p. 303). Although children's access to toys was difficult for economic reasons until the 1950s, the images in the magazines give an idea about the potential toy diversity of this period. Dolls, balls, plush toys, wooden cars, and trains are frequent objects in children's room descriptions. There is no gender-based differentiation in these images.



Figure 4.64 Kinds of toys before 1950 (*Ev Kadın*, 1949, 57; *Ev Kadın*, 1948, 45; *Ev Kadın*, 1946, 21)

In the second half of the twentieth century, the toy industry was triggered by economic and technological developments in Turkey. After the 1960s, the toys owned by children both increased in number and diversified. Contrary to the war period children, the children of this period seem to have many toys. So much so that,

depending on the increase in automobile models, toy car manufacturers have to follow this increase because children demand new trends when buying toys.



Figure 4.65 A cartoon showing the child's room full of toys (*Hayat,* 1966, 1)



Figure 4.66 Toy car models (*Hayat,* 1964, 35)

The toy industry, which also followed the scientific and technical progress of the period they were produced, started to produce electric cars and trains in this period. However, in the same period, such toys began to be criticized for damaging children's creativity (Figure 4.67). The concerns about how children's toys were in increase in the 1960s. Understanding the effect of toys on child psychology and child development has been effective in addressing the importance of choosing right toys for children. At the same time, the decoration of the windows of the toys aimed at influencing the

purchasing behavior of parents and children with their interesting appearance rather than being useful shows that the toy has turned into a consumption object. The toy, which is an object of consumption, has been subjected to criticism by pedagogues and these criticisms have been found in the literature of advice. It is recommended to buy toys that will develop children's creativity and be chosen according to their age ("Çocuklarınıza Faydalı Oyuncaklar Almıyorsunuz", 1963).

According to the recommendations on the choice of toys, cloth dolls or animals that make noise or that attract them visually are suitable ones for babies. As the children grow, they like to play with toys that develop creativity to make and break and build structures. At the age of 4-5, the period of imitation begins, and the toys that boys and girls are interested in start to change. Girls like dolls and miniature household items; on the other hand, boys prefer toys such as cars, airplanes, and horses ("Çocuğunuzun Oyuncağı", 1962; "Oyuncak Seçerken", 1964).



Figure 4.67 The child who is bored of playing with the electric train and the child who enjoys playing with the wooden train (*Hayat,* 1963, 3)

The age factor, which is essential in the selection of toys, shows both the physical and mental development of the child. Changing toy choices for girls and boys, on the other hand, aim to prepare them for gender roles. This attitude also shows itself in advertisement images. For example, an advertisement of Halıfleks[13]is about children playing on the floor. It used the photographs of a girl playing with a baby and a boy playing with a train in the show card (Figure 4.68).

[13] A firm name, marketing wall to wall carpet



Figure 4.68 Gender roles of children in an advertisement (*Hayat,* 1973, 13)

In an article published in 1966, this situation is criticized by saying that the newly released toys are of the kind that encourages children to be great. Toys that evoke violence have diversified and increased, and dolls that evoke sexuality have become widespread. While the disarmament race has been entered globally, it is determined that the opposite is the case in toys. Newly released dolls are made to resemble a real woman's body, and even for these dolls, trendy hairstyles and clothes are imitated. For children, toys are objects that they prepare for their future roles and vehicles with which they come face to face with the world of adults themselves. Consumption culture and the fashion industry play a role in these developments.

The general attitude in choosing a toy is that it is bought by the parents or close relatives and given to the child as a gift. However, an article published in *Hayat* magazine in 1973 draws attention to the consideration of children's ideas for choosing the toys (Figure 4.69). Pedagogues, psychologists, and educators recommend that the child plays with the toy that interests him/her. Because the children can only benefit from a toy that they like, in this case, adults need to discover the toys that the child is interested in and make sure that they are not harmful.



Oyuncak Seçmek de Bir Sanattır

HER anne ve babanın üzerinde önemle durması gereken bir konu da, çocuğa oyuncak seçmektir... «Acaba, çocuğunuza nasıl bir oyuncak alalım?» Pek az aile, çocuğun gelişmesinde rol oynayan bu soruya gereken önemi verir... Bunun dışında, genellikle çocuk eğlensin, oynasın ve hoşça vakit geçirsin diye, gelişi güzel oyuncak alınır. Meselâ; geçtiğimiz yıl Amerikalılar, yarısından çoğu Yılbaşında olmak üzere, çeşitli oyuncaklara tam 3,5 milyar dolar (52,5 milyar TL.) sarf etmişler. Bu, Türkiye bütçesine yakın bir rakamdır.

Aileler, oyuncağa böyle avuç dolusu para dökerler, ama anne, babaların acaba kaçta kaçı «Bu oyuncak çocuğuma faydalı mıdır, yaşına uygun mudur?» diye düşünür...

Oysa, bazı pedagog, psikolog ve eğiticilere göre, çocuk oyuncağa ilgi duymazsa, ondan hiç bir şey öğrenemez. Demek ki, faydalı oyuncak her şeyden önce çocuğun ilgi duyduğu oyuncaktır. İşte ana, babaya oyuncak alırken çifte görev düşer: Hem çocuğun ilgisini çekecek, hem de zararlı olmayan bir oyuncak seçmek ustalığını göstereceklerdir.

Şimdi, çocuğumuza hangi yaşta, hangi oyuncağı alacağımızı hep birlikte gözden geçirelim:

0 AYLIĞA KADAR: Bebeklik çağının ilk 5 ayında oyuncak seçerken dikkat edeceğiniz husus «değişiklik» olmalıdır. Devamlı hareket eden, sesli, yürüyen, zıplayan, renkli oyuncaklar seçmeli. Bunlar, çocukların minik dünyalarına canlılık ve hareket kazandırır. Ama oyuncakların cam gibi kırılacak türden olmamasına dikkat etmelidir.

10-11 AYLIK: Çocuk artık hareket halindeki oyuncakları kontrol ve idare edebilecek hale gelmiştir. Düğmesine dokunduğu zaman yürümeye başlayan bir bebek, kurulduğu zaman zıplamaya koyulan bir hayvan, onu pek güzel oyalar.

1,5 İLÂ 3 YAŞINA KADAR: Bu çağdaki çocuklar, koşarlar, sıçrarlar, tırmanırlar, velhasıl yerlerinde duramazlar. Artık onlara, evin içinde veya dışında tırmanacakları, kayacakları, üstünde sıçrayacakları cinsten oyuncak almanın zamanı gelmiştir. Çocuğun yapıcı yönü bu devrede gelişir. Çocuk, bu devrede küçük araba, kamyon, bebek, basit müzik aletlerine ilgi duymaya başlar.

OKUL ÖNCESİ, 3 İLÂ 6 YAŞINA KADAR: Çocukların hayal gücünün ve yönetici ruhunun gelişmeye başladığı bu devrede, onlara monte edilmemiş, kurulmamış oyuncaklar alarak meydana getirme ve yaratma yeteneklerinin gelişmesine yardım edin. Meselâ oyuncak evler, mutfak ve ev aletleri, elbiseler, doktor kıyafetleri...

OKUL DEVRESİ, 6 İLÂ 10 YAŞINA KADAR: Bu çağdaki çocuklar, özellikle erkekler sporla ilgili oyuncaklara düşkündür. Çocuk bedeni gücünü ortaya koymaktan, kuvvetini göstermekten son derece hoşlanır. Ayrıca, bütün aile fertlerinin çocuklarıyle beraber oynayabileceği oyunlar da, bu fasla girer.

Anneler, babalar! Oyuncaklara kendi gözünüzle değil, çocuğunuzun gözüyle bakınız. Önemli olanı, sizin ilginiz değil çocuğunuzun ilgisini çekecek oyuncakları seçmektir. ■

Figure 4.69 An article, title is "Choosing toy is an art" (*Hayat,* 1973, 03)

4.5 The Child Room as a Personalized Space

Hygiene and health have been essential factors that triggered the separation of children's furniture and spaces from adults in homes. Over time, the child's psychological state and pedagogical development have become an important issue that is emphasized along with the physical health of the child. The child's mental and psychological state when he was growing up was related to his life and place in the home. Issues such as decoration, the colors used, the way the room is used have become the elements considered in the design of children's rooms.

Öymen Gür (1997) states that children never have a completely special place, but they manage to create it themselves. The design of children's spaces is shaped by the ideas of many adults such as architects, parents, experts. However, as the children grow up, they tend to adopt, shape, and change that space depending on their tastes and create physical environments to define themselves in the home.

In this section, I will examine how children define and change a space, that is, how they affect it somehow, with the help of Simon Unwin's book "Children as space-makers." In his book, Unwin (2019) emphasizes the intuitive side of architecture and argues that there is an architect inside every child. Many activities, such as a castle made of sand and a simple tent made with blankets at home, aim to create space. Children intuitively construct spaces and define them with boundaries. For this reason, although the children are not seen as actors in design, they shape all the natural-artificial, open-closed spaces they are in according to their own intuition and desire.

It is recommended that the children have a room of their own at every age. However, the importance of the children's room in the context of privacy emerges with the adolescence period. The child's relationship, defined as a teenager, with his/her room begins to change. It is said in *Ev İş* magazine that every young girl is very attached to her bedroom or a corner where she sleeps ("Genç Kızlar için Yatak Odası Takımı", 1945). In this period when they start to emerge from childhood, the young child needs a space where he/she feels like her own and can isolate herself from the outside world. Having a room of its own becomes important to meet its needs, such as being alone, privacy, and socializing. The children's rooms described as young are arranged in a way that allows them to host their friends. Again in *Hayat* (1978) magazine, in the series of articles examining the child's development according to different ages, it is stated that the child aged 11-13 should have a private room due to the need to be alone ("Bir Çocuk Yetiştiriyoruz", 1978). Now, the stages of childhood are supported by scientific studies and made in more detail; thus, new views on the child's relationship with his/her room are emerging. Since scientific studies examine what happens in the transition from childhood to youth and why it is so, the subtleties of the children's world are better understood. Thus, the changing spatial needs of the child will be answered correctly.



Figure 4.70 The young children's needs of a special place (*Hayat* 1971, 11; *Hayat,* 1978, 13; *Hayat,* 1969, 5)

The method children use to shape their rooms is decoration. As explained in more detail in the previous section, many toys find a place in the children's room as a decorative item, as children like to exhibit their objects (Unwin, 2019).

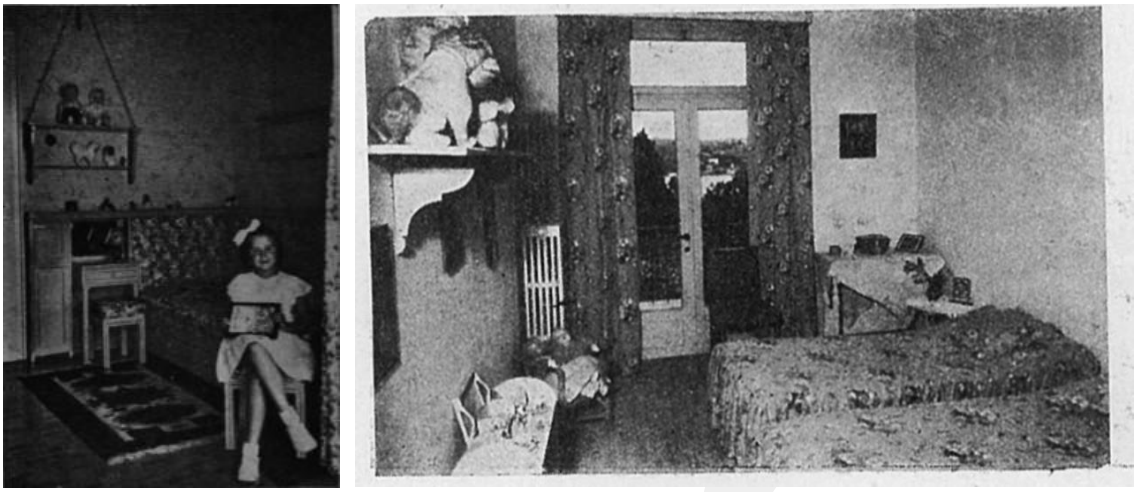


Figure 4.71 The photographs of child's rooms (*Arkitekt,* 1946, 7-8; *Arkitekt,* 1947, 7-8)

At the same time, their touch to the room with the things they produce can be interpreted as the children's desire to express themselves. By leaving a trace in the place, the child can identify and show his/her own existence (Unwin, 2019). Therefore, children like to paint the walls of their rooms. In children's rooms, the authors suggest leaving the walls blank so that children can hang their paintings and adding whiteboards to the walls (Olğuner, 1963). In the child's rooms below, the walls are surfaces designed by the children (Figure 4.72). On the left, a chalkboard was added to one side of the wall so that s/he could write and draw freely. Also, the wall is decorated with ornaments of his/her own production. By looking at the image, it is possible to notice the adult's supervision in the child's touch on the room. The wall behind the child's writing desk is used as an exhibition board in the photo on the right. The child decorates his room with the pictures he draws on his desk and finds the opportunity to exhibit his works.

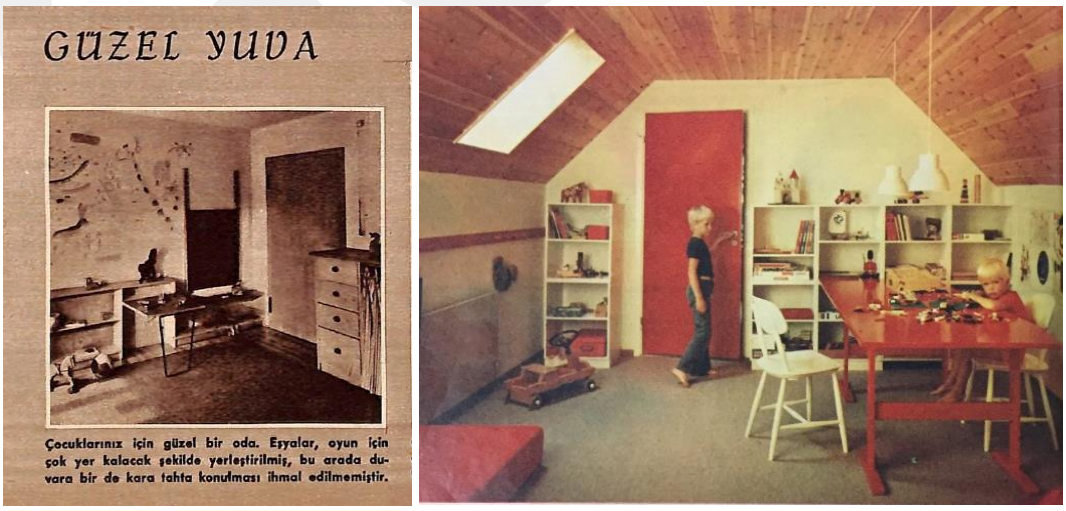


Figure 4.72 The wall ornaments in child's rooms (*Hayat,* 1959, 18; *Hayat,* 1978, 8)

Experts mentioned the way the children's room is decorated to the child's adoption of the room. After the 1970s, the effect of the colors used in the space was better understood. Although specific color palettes for children's rooms are not yet common in this period, the use of color in children's spaces has become an increasingly important issue. For example, it is said that the colorful baby room below will cheer the child up. In addition to all the color variety, blue and white colors come to the fore in the room. Thus, a relaxing and peaceful environment was also provided. The letter fashion, which was fashionable in 1974, was also considered suitable for children's rooms. Having pillows with initials in the children's room increases the likelihood of adopting those objects (Figure 4.73). The child has the chance to make his presence visible in the room with a decorative item that she/he can show as his own. The room's furnishing is also an important factor in the child's connection with the space. In children's spaces, furniture should be selected on a suitable scale for the child's dimensions (Olğuner, 1963). The small-sized furniture gives the child the freedom to access objects and control over the room on their own; the tendency of the children to see their room as a personal and private space increases.



Figure 4.73 Decoration ideas for child's rooms (*Hayat,* 1974, 10; *Hayat,* 1974, 8)

The ties that the children establish with their toys helps them to own a place. It is recommended that children with sleep problems play with toys in their beds ("4 Sorun 4 Cevap", 1973). Examined materials show that children especially see babies or plush toys as friends. While sleeping, playing games, or engaging in any activity, the toy with which the child establishes an emotional bond accompanies him (Figure 4.74).



Figure 4.74 The toy on the place (*Hayat,* 1963, 37; *Hayat,* 1962, 12; *Hayat,* 1974, 14)

Since the role of play in the child's development has been understood, having an area where s/he can play freely has also been one of the issues emphasized—having a playroom other than the bedroom is a rare case in the homes of wealthy families. For this reason, the children's room must meet more than one function, especially to create an area where the child can play. Families sometimes provide this space by delimiting an area of the room with various physical barriers (Figure 4.75).

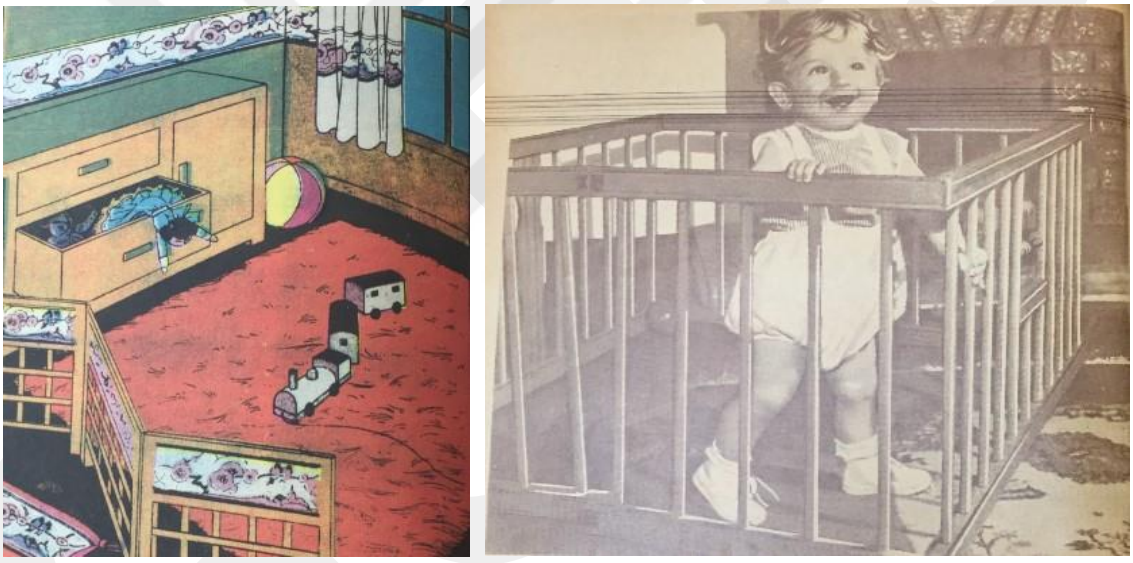


Figure 4.75 Play spaces (*Ev Kadın*, 1945, 5; *Hayat,* 1961, 62)

Although the children do not have a specialized place to play, their world with games and toys allows them to define a playground. While playing, children temporarily create physical or imaginary boundaries. Sometimes they define the space repeatedly by arranging their toys in specific ways, changing their positions, or children playing together draw a physical activity limit with their bodies. Thus, whether it is his/her room or a different part of the house, the child creates a playground in a corner, in an imaginary circle created on the floor of the space, or in the area delimited by the ground cover (Figure 4.76).



Figure 4.76 The child defines space (*Hayat,* 1967, 23; *Hayat,* 1971, 3)

4.6 An Overview: Changing Themes in Children's Domestic Spaces

The design and decoration of children's spaces in the house, household objects belonging to children, and the child's relationship with the domestic spaces were examined under four main headings. All these analyses revealed some remarkable themes in the process of the research. These themes, which include formal, psychological, and cultural concerns in the design of children's spaces, are closely related to the economic and social conditions of the period and the level of conscious about childhood.

Health and Hygiene

Child health, which has been tried to be improved by state policies since the nineteenth century, has been the most fundamental issue throughout the first half of the twentieth century. The effect of the conditions of the home environment in which the child lives has been understood to reduce child mortality and provide healthy child growth. There are several texts on child health published in the Women's Newspaper and the Children's Newspaper at the end of the nineteenth century. The article in the 110th issue of Women's Newspaper, published in 1897, is important to understand the impact of child health on the importance of children's indoor spaces and materials. It is recommended that infants and little children be placed in their bassinet or bed because children who sleep in the same bed with their parents are in danger of being crushed and suffocated every night. The danger of death by drowning was seen as an important problem in Turkey and the West in pre-modern times. For this reason, we can say that

an important factor that triggers the making of separate spatial definitions for children at home is child health and safety.

Physical activity, nutrition, fresh air, and sun are important elements for a child's health. As seen in the previous sections, during the first half of the twentieth century, the ideal residence of the nuclear family was the houses with gardens outside the city. The relationship with nature and the open air is especially recommended for the health and development of the child. In the same direction, it is a beneficial habit for the child to go to the summer resort for families living in the city. M. Cahit Gündoğdu (1942), in his article titled "Clean Air," draws attention to the importance of fresh air for the child and had practical suggestions for families living in apartments in the city. Gündoğdu (1942), who knows that mothers are very busy with housework during the day and that it is difficult for them to take the child out without a helper, suggest using balconies. However, in this case, it is necessary to pay attention to the city's polluted air. Behçet Ünsal (1939), while talking about how modern housing should be, says that apartment terraces will allow children to play outdoors like a garden. In the design of the children's rooms, attention was paid to ensure that the room is associated with areas such as the garden or balcony that can be directly accessed outdoors. Large terraces have been built for the children's rooms, and these areas can also be used as playgrounds and sleeping places in summers.

Depending on the importance given to children's health, creating a healthy environment is seen in the planning of children's rooms. Offering suggestions under the title of “Raising Sturdy Child” in *Ev Kadın* magazine, Dr. İclal Ataer's article on children's rooms, she says that child deaths and illnesses are related to the home. Children from low-income families get sick very quickly because they live in tiny houses, and there is a room in the house that serves many functions. The importance of the guest room among the Turks also causes the bedrooms to be unhealthy. However, the child's room should be a well-lit, airy space. It is recommended to be located on the south or east facade, especially since it is important to receive the morning sun. Children's rooms are planned mainly by this orientation in the projects examined. The place of the child's bed in the room should also be chosen appropriately. The bed should not be positioned close to the stove or door to preserve proper temperature. The dimensions of the room windows should also be two meters wide and tall to ensure

adequate air intake (Ataer, 1946). All these recommendations are very important in showing how important the relationship between children's health and the conditions of the children's room is taken into account.

It has been frequently emphasized that the way of protecting children from diseases is through hygiene, which is a health condition. The house must be clean, especially since children often play on the floor and put the objects in their hands into their mouths. Preferring easy-to-clean materials in the design of children's rooms is recommended both in architectural publications and popular publications (Olğuner, 1963; "Çocuğunuzun yatak odası", 1958). Technological developments in house-cleaning also focus on the relationship between children and hygienic environments. The child theme has been widely used in newly released cleaning tools and products.



Figure 4.77 Easy-to-clean materials in the design of children's rooms (*Hayat,* 1958, 11)



Figure 4.78 The child theme in vacuum cleaner advertisements (*Hayat,* 1969, 18; *Hayat,* 1967, 6)



Figure 4.79 The child theme in cleaning product advertisement (*Hayat,* 1971, 29)

The Dangers in the House and Child's Safety

After the 1960s, new problems started regarding the child's safety at home. Since children are curious and want to play with every object they can reach, families are warned of potential dangers. With the widespread use of electricity in homes, sockets, cables, and light switches have become a threat to children. It is recommended to turn off the sockets or move them to a level out of reach of children to protect children from the danger of electricity.



Figure 4.80 Warning for parents about electiricty (*Hayat,* 1962, 49)

An article, published in 1967 with the title “Deadly Houses,” said that the dangers for women and children at home are as great as the outside dangers. Accidents such as burning and poisoning are seen in modern houses as well as in old houses. Kitchens are the most accident-prone place due to their minimal design. Stairs are especially dangerous for children, and adults should use non-slip materials and close handrails to prevent them from falling (“Dikkat! Evler Ölüm Saçıyor!”, 1967).

Developmental Psychology

The definition of childhood and the categorization of childhood stages have varied in different societies and ages. The increasing interest in childhood in the modern age has provided a better understanding of its changing needs at different ages. The stages of childhood have been one of the essential factors in designing a child's room. Children's rooms are designed more flexibly, considering the tastes and needs that will change as they grow up. It is recommended that baby rooms should not be kept small as more oversized furniture will be needed in the future (“İdeal Bir Çocuk Odası”, 1960). Children's toys seem to be the subject that draws the most attention depending on the child's age. Some toys are kept as ornaments as the children grow, while most toys are replaced with lesson tools and decorative items. As the objects change depending on the child's physical development, the use of the space also differs by age. While providing a playground for small children is necessary, it becomes crucial to have a study area after the child reaches school age. After girls become young girls, dressing tables, cleaning and make-up items, and ornaments are added to their rooms.

Gender Roles

The definition of gender roles by adults from childhood emerges especially under the material culture of children. Children's toys provide important clues in this regard. The game is seen as a tool for the child's upbringing, education, and preparation for adulthood, so dolls and miniature household items for girls, and cars and balls for boys are preferred. This distinction can be traced back to pre-modern toys. In the visual materials of the pre-war period, different toys were not found depending on gender roles. Still, it can be said that the situation is not much different based on the expressions of the authors who describe their childhood memories. Since the 1960s, the

gender roles coded for children have become more visible with consumer culture and advertisements.

Since the nineteenth century, women's and men's spaces, which became evident in the footsteps of the middle-class nuclear family ideal, began to be coded from childhood. Even though women started to work in time, the house and related works continued to be under the responsibility of women. When we look at the domestic activities of children, it is possible to see that girls are prepared for the role of housewives of the future. There is a tendency towards an equalitarian attitude in writings about teaching housework and encouraging children to be curious about housework. However, the visuals supporting these articles emphasize that domestic work is a girls' activity and learning space.



Figure 4.81 Little girls doing housework (Hayat, 1974, 14; Hayat, 1963, 3)

Multifunctionality

One of the essential themes of children's rooms has been multifunctionality. Although it is possible to arrange a play, study, and sitting area for the child in large houses, this is a rare situation. The children's rooms are usually designed to meet their various needs. To meet many functions such as bedroom, game room, study room, guest room, care is taken in both the arrangement of the room and the selection of furniture.

The shrinking of houses over time has led to the spread of flexible furniture designs and practical solutions not only for children's rooms but also for all spaces of the house. For example, in the children's rooms, where it is impossible to add a separate sofa, the beds are made in the form of sofas, and the bottoms of these beds are used as storage areas. It has become difficult for families with many children to provide room for their children. In this case, small but special units were created by dividing the rooms, or it was ensured that the children shared the same room with solutions such as bunk beds.



Figure 4.82 Solutions for making rooms of children in small flats (*Hayat,* 1978, 25)

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Future Prospects

5.1 Conclusion

The twentieth century can be qualified as the 'Children's Century' because the concepts about children are affected by developments in fields such as science, human rights, and pedagogy and witnessed changes (Sağlam & Aral, 2016, p. 45). All these developments had emerged in direct or indirect connection with modernity. Therefore, in Europe, we can follow modernity to trace the approaches and thoughts about childhood. In Turkey, the concept of childhood and the approach to children began to show itself in the nineteenth century with the modernization process. These changes started with the regulations in health and education and showed their spatial aspects over time.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, the ideological and social weight of the family concept has also reshaped the childhood notion perception. The projects of the Unionists of the Constitutional period (after 1908) to raise 'strong and healthy' generations also inspired the reformers of the Republic. In this context, it was aimed that the modernization in the social field would affect the private sphere by emphasizing the nuclear family frequently in the Republican period. In this context, raising the modern child has become the crucial responsibility of the parents in the modern nuclear family. Therefore, raising educated mothers was perceived as a priority. In this context, although the mother has more responsibility for raising the child, it is aimed that the father is in a closer relationship with his children compared to the old family life. As this model shows, the concept of modern childhood developed together with the modern nuclear family.

The idea that children have individual needs from adults as a different entity has been an essential factor affecting the development of children's spaces. The changes

experienced in the housing architecture during the modernization process have also enabled the children's domestic areas to be handled individually. Contrary to the multi-functional and non-individual spaces of pre-modern houses, the formation of private spaces for household members in modern houses has led to the spread of children's rooms with the definition of the child as an individual in the family.

The high child mortality rate is an issue taken seriously in modern societies, and they made efforts to remedy it. Similar concerns have been observed in Turkey, and since the Tanzimat, developments in the field of health protection have been given importance so that children can live healthier and longer. The advice literature that we saw their first examples in this period also drew attention to the relationship between residence and a child's health. Parents have been trained to ensure that children have a separate room from their parents so that they grow up in a healthy environment and that the children's room provides various comfort and hygiene conditions. Thus, it can be said that the idea that children should have their personal rooms is parallel to the desire to raise a healthy generation throughout the first half of the twentieth century.

I tried to answer how children's rooms were designed in different houses through different media in the chronological scope of the thesis. First of all, the house projects in the architectural publications (*Arkitekt* and *Mimarlık*) and digital archives were examined. During the early Republican period, housing production was limited, and the published houses were mainly for the upper-income group. After World War II, the mass housing and apartment projects appealed to the middle-income group. In the same period, detached houses of the upper class continued to be designed. In all these projects, some examples have a secondary bedroom, which is likely to be a child's room; and some projects directly define the child's room.

There has been some long-lasting trends and some transitions observed in the spatial organization of the child space in different types of houses from the 1920s to the 1980s. First of all, it can be concluded that the child's rooms were arranged similarly in the detached houses of the early Republic period (before 1945) and the residences of the middle classes after 1945. The house is divided into private/public/service zones in these residences, although not with definite borders. While the practice of designing service areas separately in middle-class houses is gradually decreasing, bedrooms are

included in the plan so that they are hidden from the rest of the house. Depending on this separation, the spaces of the nuclear family –parents' bedroom, child's rooms- were designed as a private part with a bathroom. Another common feature is the openings of child's rooms. Considering the dimensions of the room and the opening ratio of other spaces, it can be said that the windows in child's rooms are not kept small. At the same time, openings are predominantly located in the southeast and southwest. Accordingly, it has not lost its importance that children's rooms receive sufficient light and air throughout the examined process.

Houses and therefore child's rooms began to standardize in apartments and mass housing built after the Second World War. As mentioned above, the private area consisting of a child's room, a master bedroom and a bathroom is remarkable in most projects. Especially in the period between 1945-60, it is seen that the private area complies with a very specific standard plan scheme. There is a bathroom in the middle of two rooms (parent bedroom and children's bedroom) that are close to each other and have openings on opposite or same facades.

The most important reason for the differences in the planning of upper and middle-class residences is the power of the upper-income group to afford a large house. House builders have generally been content with minimum dimensions in apartments designed for the middle classes to reduce costs. In some houses built in the 1960s, there are examples where child's rooms are designed quite small compared to other examples. The reason for this arrangement is probably the existence of a third bedroom other than the child and parent bedrooms because these examples are rare. While this third room is designed in the same dimensions as the master bedroom, there was a shortage of space for the child's room. Due to the shrinking spaces, users tend to use their homes more effectively with creative solutions. They tried to save space and provide extra storage areas with multifunctional, movable/foldable furniture. This way of use is often preferred in children's rooms. Although the residential spaces are individualized and functional, children's rooms are arranged to respond to more than one function. Parents, who did not have enough space to study or play for children, could not design the children's rooms only as a sleeping place. At the same time, economical and practical solutions were sought for changing needs, taking into account the developmental process of children. In this context, popular periodicals seem to have undertaken the

function of guiding parents in revealing functional solutions in narrow spaces. Themes such as practical space arrangements, economical solutions, and functional sub-spaces that we frequently encounter in these publications offer solutions to overcome the physical problems in children's rooms encountered.

The number of children's rooms has changed over time in detached houses. Until the first half of the 1950s, the residences mainly had a single children's room. It is seen that the number of children's rooms in villas has increased since the second half of the 1950s. However, especially since the late 1960s, most detached houses contain two or three children's rooms separately for each child. This situation shows that the idea of child's individualization and having a private space of her/his own has developed. Another feature that is seen only in detached houses, although not many, is the design of spaces other than children's bedrooms. These are separate bathrooms, living rooms or games rooms. Although this situation provided more space for children in terms of quality and quantity, it also caused segregation. I have observed that the children's and parents' spaces had begun to be isolated in the upper-class residences.

Within the scope of the thesis, the concept of 'children's room' as the children's special spaces in the house was explored. Also, the children's relationship with the spaces outside their room was comprehensively examined. In this context, the most prominent theme was the children's rooms' connection with the open areas of the house, such as the garden or balcony. Since the nineteenth century, increasing concerns about children's health have resulted in the consideration of fresh air and sunlight for children. As explained in the section on the development of modern housing, the theme of health supported the idea that it is ideal for families with children to live in houses with gardens, away from the city. In popular publications, it was recommended that families living in apartments should go to the summer resort or take the child out to the balcony to breathe. The examined materials confirm that these approaches are taken into account in the design of children's rooms.

The relationship between the child's room and the garden could be observed in detached houses. However, the child's room, which opens directly to the garden, is only seen in the villa designed by Sedad Hakkı Eldem in 1946. However, one of the reasons why detached houses with gardens are ideal for nuclear families is related to the

importance given to children to spend time in the garden. Balconies or terraces, where child's rooms open directly, are frequently seen in detached houses throughout the period. The relation of the children's rooms with the balcony in apartments and housing estates is more common in residences built in the late 1950s and 1960s. After the 1970s, it is rare to add balconies to both children's rooms and other bedrooms. After the Flat Ownership Law (1965), it can be said that the use of balconies has decreased since it is aimed for the apartments to provide maximum profit in minimum conditions.

One of the striking themes in the archival sources, especially in the second half of the twentieth century, is the concept of protecting children from the side effects of technology. Although the emphasis on the child's health and its relation to the house's cleanliness continues through advertisements, attention is drawn to the fact that the main danger is the widespread use of electricity in houses. On the one hand, electrical appliances were praised for making women's work easier and making the house much cleaner; on the other hand, these electrical appliances were presented as sources of danger at home for children. Therefore, it is not surprising that many articles warned parents in magazines.

Besides, increasingly widespread technological devices such as televisions were presented in broadcasts as household items that children can affect mentally. Although the spread of television in the early 1970s was first met with interest, it is noteworthy that parents were frequently warned about the harmful effects of television on children after a while. The harm of television for children was that it disrupted their sleeping hours and watched programs that were not suitable for their age. Despite this, television has been an element that increases the domestic mobility of children since the 1970s.

As can be seen in the design of children's rooms, different approaches have emerged over time, as well as similarities. At the root of the similarities lies the increasing social value of children. Differences arise from developments that directly or indirectly affect children's lives over time. The change of concerns and thoughts about childhood has been an essential factor influencing the design of children's spaces. At the same time, the change in using the spaces in houses is effective in the child's relationship with these areas. Another difference was the economic conditions that could be encountered in every period. Children's spaces cannot be designed under the

same conditions in the residences of families in various economic classes. Nevertheless, it is a remarkable development that over time, the importance of having children's rooms, even in family residences that meet the minimum conditions.

5.2 Societal Impact and Contribution to Global Sustainability

This thesis is linked with the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations, which Abdullah Gül University adopted in its research, education and societal outreach projects. These goals focus on providing social benefits for all. Among these, the targets within the third goal, titled ‘Good health and well-being’, aims to improve maternal and child health and reduce infant and child mortality. The first target is “By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births” (UN Goal 3, 2022). In this regard, this thesis traces the historical background of intensive attempts to provide better living conditions for children in Turkey.

The formation and development of children's domestic spaces in Turkey are closely linked with the increasing concerns for children’s well-being. In this context, public policies have gained importance on the education of mothers, mother and child health, physical and mental training of children, reduction of infant and child mortality and access to qualified education since the late Ottoman period. This thesis is significant for examining the historical background of the UN’s third goal by presenting an overview of these studies, especially the healthy development of children and the spatial changes observed at home as part of education.

This thesis is also closely related to the eleventh goal, Sustainable Cities and Communities, since sustainable urbanization and favourable living conditions can also provide healthy and suitable domestic environments for all children. Some of the targets of this goal are “By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums” and “Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world’s cultural and natural heritage” and “By 2030, provide universal access to

safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities" (UN Goal 11, 2022). In this regard, this thesis provides a material basis for the formation of modern domestic space and the emergence and evolution of children's spaces at home.

In this context, the thesis deals with residential buildings, which are some significant examples of twentieth-century architecture in Turkey. It also presents the cultural and historical value of these buildings in the context of children's spaces. In addition, many of the selected examples are from middle-class houses, which are also significant in terms of presenting affordable house trials in the academic literature. These efforts indicate the possibility of accessing functional and healthy living environments by the majority of the society. As shown in the related chapters, access to green spaces and fresh air was one of the key themes presented in many examples. Concerning the UN's goals, this thesis presents the historical background of this indicator in Turkey.

5.3 Future Prospects

This research sheds light on the history of the design of children's domestic spaces, which has not been explored comprehensively in Turkey until now. Thus, the design criteria of children's rooms developed over time can be read in their social and economic context. Understanding the historical process of design practice will also improve the quality of design today and in the future. I hope this study will provide the researchers and designers with the necessary tools to consider the spatial needs of children and design criteria for children's rooms in a historical context.

This thesis has the potential to be a comprehensive resource for future studies in the context of housing studies, but especially about children's domestic spaces. New approaches and ideas may emerge regarding the themes presented in this thesis with new archival sources in the future. I believe that the efficient use of different sources in this thesis will positively trigger studies in other fields beyond architecture and architectural history. Therefore, this thesis can be a reference for housing research, especially in cultural studies, anthropology, pedagogy, and family studies. I believe that

this paper will be a sound ground for my further publications, including conference papers and articles, soon.

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APPENDIX

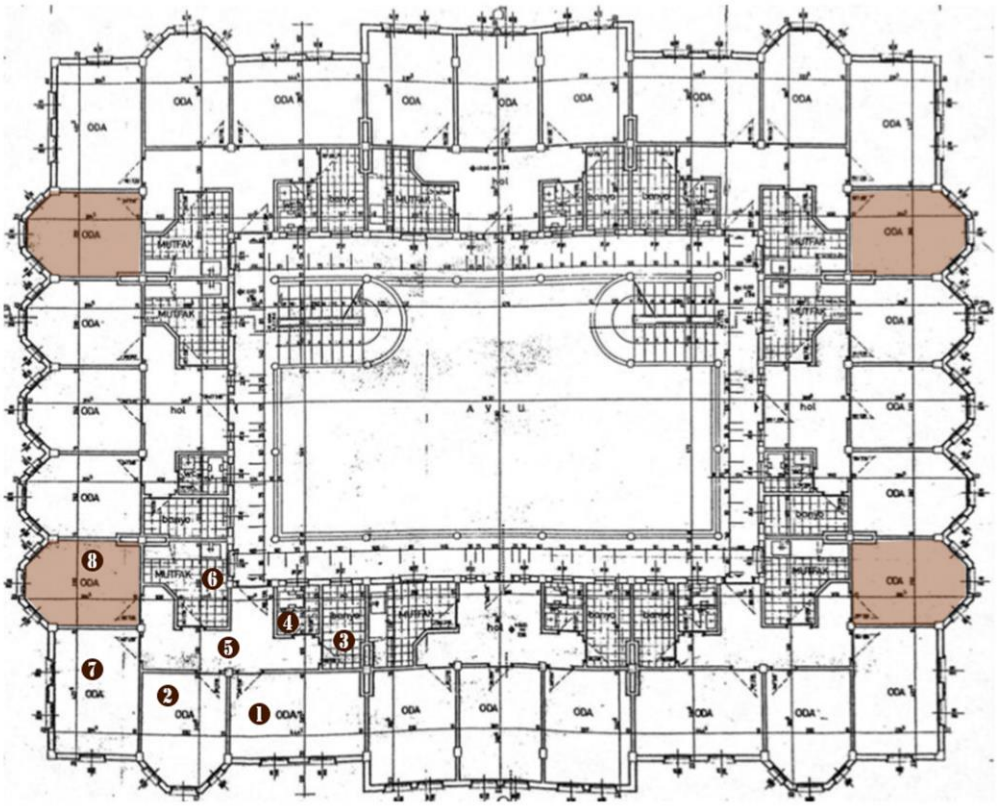
PROJECT INFORMATION						CHILD'S ROOM INFORMATION				RELATED SPACE				FURNITURE			
NO	DATE	NAME	ARCHITECT	CITY	TYPE	ROOM NUMBER	CHILD NUMBER	LOCATION	ORIENTATION	BALCONY	GARDEN	BABYSITTER ROOM	OTHER	BED	TABLE	CLOSET
1	1922	HARİKZEDEGAN APT	AR. KEMALETTİN	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	Undefined	-	Private Zone	E; W	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
2	1920s	A HOUSE	N/A	ANKARA	DETACHED	Undefined	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
3	1926	CHILDREN'S PROTECTION AGENCY RENTAL APT	ARİF HİKMET KOYUNOĞLU	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1 & 2	-	Private Zone	NE; SW	+	-	-	MASTER BED.	N/A	N/A	N/A
4	1930	PARK APT	ENGİNEER AHMET İHSAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
5	1932	A HOUSE	SELİM ZEKİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	1	Seperated	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
6	1932	DR. CELAL H.	İLYAS ZADE ARİF HİKMET		DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
7	1933	MRS FERİDE H.	ENG. FİKRİ; AR. ABİDİN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	SW	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
8	1933	CHEAP FAMILY HOUSES	SEYFİ NASIH	ANKARA	TYPE HOUSE	1	2	Private Zone	S	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
9	1933	A MANSION	BEHÇET SABRİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	SE	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
10	1933	RÖNTGEN APT	ZEKİ SALAH	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	1	Private Zone	NW	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
11	1933	BEACH HOUSE	BEHÇET SABRİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	S	-	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
12	1934	A HOUSE	NİZAMETTİN HÜSNÜ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	Private Zone	SE	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
13	1936	A HOUSE	H. ADİL	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	MASTER BED.	N/A	N/A	N/A
14	1936	A VILLA	A. ZİYA KOZANOĞLU	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
15	1937	A VILLA	ZEKİ SAYAR	İSTANBUL	VİLLA	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	BEDROOM	N/A	N/A	N/A
16	1937	B. VEHBİ HOUSE	AR. REFİK	ANKARA	DETACHED	2	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	BATHROOM	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
17A	1934/1939	GARDEN HOUSES	HERMANN JANSEN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	1	Private Zone	S	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
17B	1934/1939	GARDEN HOUSES	HERMANN JANSEN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
18	1941/1942	A VILLA	EMİN ONAT	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	3	Private Zone	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
19	1944	SIVIL CERVANT TYPE HOUSE	ABİDİN MORTAŞ	N/A	TYPE HOUSE	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
20	1946	A VILLA	SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	Seperated	-	-	+	-	-	BUILT-IN	-	BUILT-IN
21	1946	A HOUSE	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	1	Private Zone	NW	+	-	-	-	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN
22	1946	A HOUSE	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	WE; SE; SW	+	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
23	1947	E. ELAGÖZ H.	HALİT FEMİR	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Private Zone	SE	+	-	-	-	+	-	+
24	1948	MUKBİL AYKUT H.	SAMİM OKTAY; DEMİRTAŞ KAMÇIL	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	2	Private Zone	E	-	-	-	-	BUNK BED	+	+
25	1950	ISBANK LOTTERY H.	ABİDİN MORTAŞ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
26	1950	BİRGİLER APT	LEYLA BAYDAR; FERZAN BAYDAR	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	1	1	Private Zone	SE	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
27	1952	MILITARY OFFICER'S H.	ALİ MUKADDER ÇİZER	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A

28	1952	ETİLER HOUSING COOPERATIVE	KEMAL AHMET ARU	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
29	1953/1954	M.K. APT	H. İRFAN BAYHAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	2; 1	2; 1	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN
30	1954	LEVENT 4. DISTRICT	KEMAL AHMET ARU	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	1	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
31	1954	MUAMMER AKSOY AND RELATIVES APT	MUZAFFER VANLI	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
32	1954/1966	BALMUMCU BEAUTIFUL RESIDENCES	SEYFİ ARKAN	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
33	1956	SADIKOĞLU VILLA	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Seperated	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
34	1956	MUHABANK APT	MUZAFFER VANLI	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
35	1956	KUMRULAR RESIDENCES	ORHAN BOLAK; ORHAN BOZKURT; GAZANFER BEKEN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
36	1956	YEŞİLTEPE-YILDIZTEPE BLOCKS	DEMİRTAŞ KAMÇIL; RAHMİ BEDİZ	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
37	1956/1957	RIZA DERVİŞ H.	SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	3	3	Seperated	-	+	-	-	LIVING R.	+	-	BUILT-IN
38	1957	MURAT APT	FARUK NOYON	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
39	1957	İLBANK BLOCKS	FATİN URAN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
40	1957	CİNNAH 19	NEJAT ERSİN	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
41	1957/1962	İ.E.T.T. BLOCKS	YLA TURGUT; BERKOK İLKÜNS	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1; 2	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
42	1957/1962	ATAKÖY BLOCKS	BARUTHANE PROJE BÜROSU	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	1; 2	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-
43	1957/1964	HAYAT APT.	EMİN ONAT; NEJAT ERSİN	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
44	1960	PRESS RESIDENCES	VEDAT DALOKAY	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
45	1961	A VILLA	UTARİT İZGİ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	BUILT-IN
46	1961/1962	CİHAD GÖKDAĞ AND CO-PARTNER'S APT	N/A	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
47	1962	TEKDAL APT	VEDAT DALOKAY; NEJAT TEKELİOĞLU	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	2	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+
48	1962	ISBANK BLOCKS	KADRİ ERKMAN	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	BUILT-IN
49	1964	RER APT	NEJAT ERSİN	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
50	1966	A VILLA	ERCÜMEND BİGAT	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
51	1967	ARZU APT.	N/A	ANKARA	APARTMENT	1	-	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
52	1967	UZUNOĞLU VILLA	MUHTEŞEM GİRAY	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	3	Private Zone	NE; SW	+	-	-	-	+	+	+
53	1967	ÖZGÜR VILLA	MUHTEŞEM GİRAY	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Seperated	SW	+	-	-	-	+	+	BUILT-IN
54	1962	YELKENCİ VILLA	ENİS KORTAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
55	1968	AN ARCHITECT'S HOUSE AND ATELIER	İRFAN BAYHAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	1	1	Private Zone	-	+	-	-	-	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN	BUILT-IN
56	1968	MR. NURİ APT.	ENİS KORTAN	İSTANBUL	APARTMENT	2	2	Seperated	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	BUILT-IN

57	1969/1970	OR-AN SETTLEMENT	ŞEVKİ VANLI	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
58	1970	ME-SA ÇANKAYA RESIDENCES	UĞUR ERKEN; AYKUT MUTLU	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
59	1970/1973	WORKER BLOCKS	MTM ARCHITECTURE	ANKARA	MASS H.	1	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
60	1972/1974	YAPI KREDI BANK MEMBERSHIP SOLIDARITY AND RETIREMENT FUND FOUNDATION APARTMENT	DOĞAN TEKELİ; SAMİ SİSA	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	1	1	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
61	1972	TURKSAN RESIDENCES	KÖKSAL ANADOL	İSTANBUL	MASS H.	2	-	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	-	N/A	N/A	N/A
62	1974	A VILLA	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Seperated	NE	+	-	-	LIVING R.	+	+	BUILT-IN
63	1980	A VILLA	EMİN NECİP UZMAN	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Private Zone	-	-	-	-	MASTER BED.	+	+	+
64	1980	BALTUTAN HOUSE	CENGİZ BEKTAŞ	İSTANBUL	DETACHED	2	2	Seperated	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+

NO:1 HARIKZEDEGAN APARTMENTS

ARCHITECT: ARCHITECT KEMALEDDIN
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, LALELI
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1922



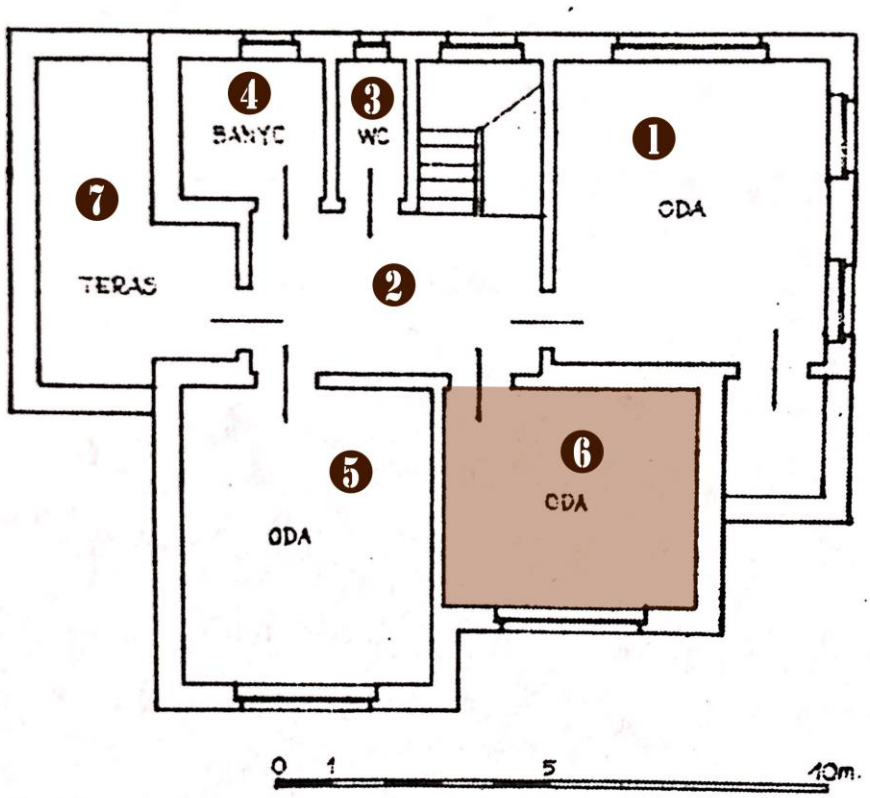
Third Block, Second and Third Floor Plan
(Source: Uzar, 2013)

1 - Room (*Living/Guest Room)
2 - Room (*Dining Room)
3 - Bathroom
4 - WC
5 - Sofa / Hall
6 - Kitchen
7 - Room (*Parents' Bedroom)
8 - Room (*Child's Room)

NO:2 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: Unknown
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, YENISEHIR
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1920s

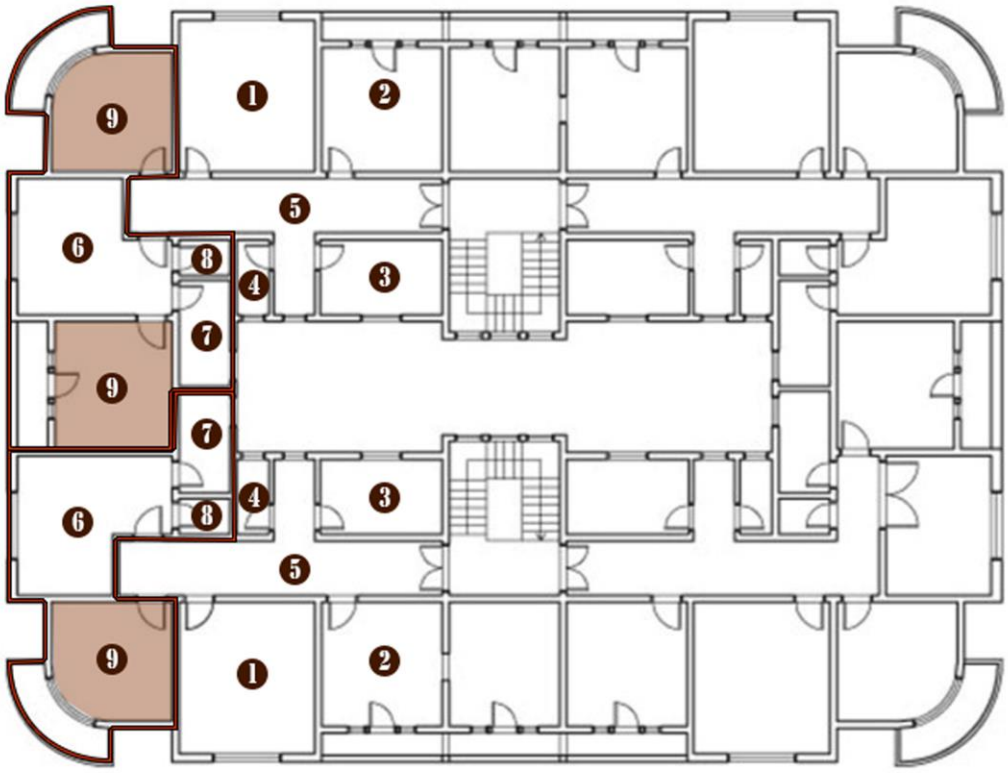


Upper Floor Plan
(Source: Aslanoglu, 2010)

1- Parents' Bedroom
2- Sofa / Hall
3 - WC
4 - Bathroom
5 - Room
6 - Child's Room
7 - Balcony / Terrace

NO:3 CHILDREN'S PROTECTION AGENCY RENTAL APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: ARIF HIKMET KOYUNOGLU
CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
TYPE: APARTMENT
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1926



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Avcı Hosanlı, 2018)

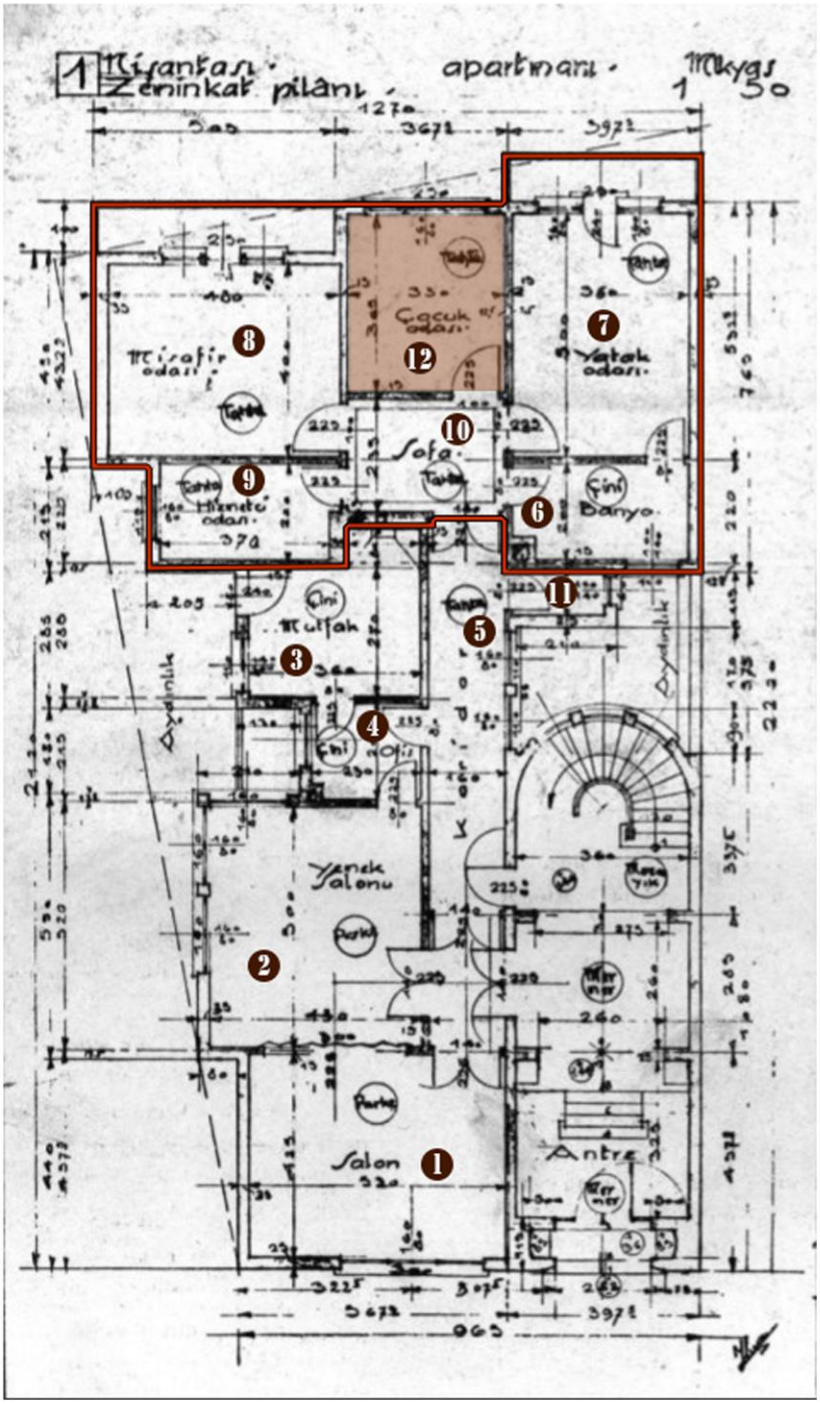
Private Zone

1 - Living Room
2 - Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - WC
5 - Corridor
6 - Bedroom
7 - Bathroom
8 - Lumber Room
9 - Child Room

NO:4 PARK APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: ENGINEER AHMET IHSAN
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, NISANTASI
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1930



Private Zone

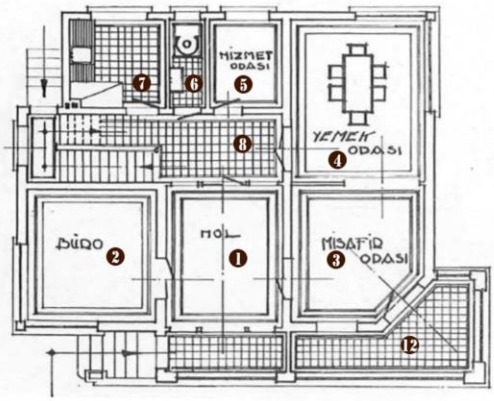
1 - Living Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Pantry
5 - Corridor
6 - Bathroom
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Guest Room
9 - Maid Room
10- Sofa / Hall
11 - WC
12- Child Room

Regular Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1931, 7)

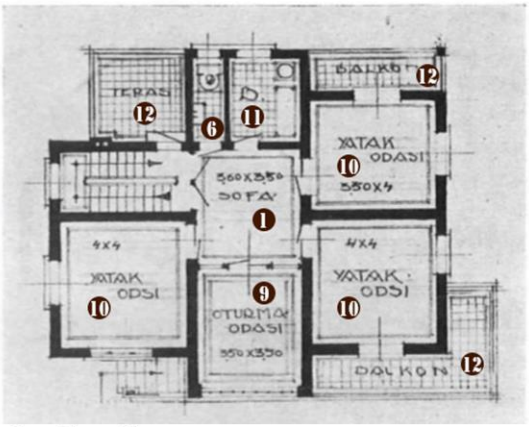
NO:5 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: SELIM ZEKI
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

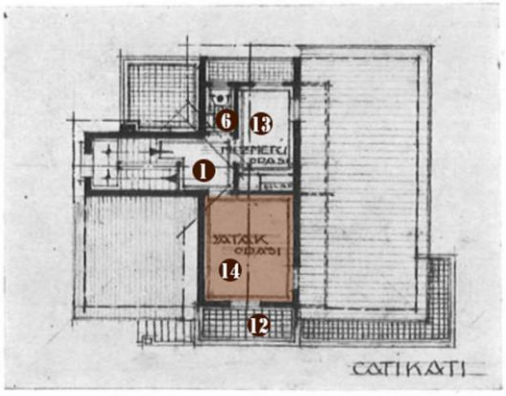
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, FENERYOLU
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1932



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 3)



First Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 3)



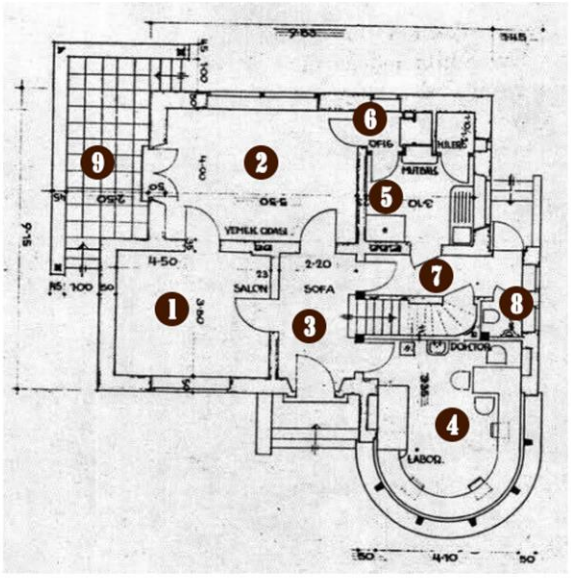
Attic Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 3)

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Working Room
3 - Guest Room
4 - Dining Room
5 - Service Room
6 - WC
7 - Kitchen
8 - Corridor
9 - Living Room
10- Bedroom
11 - Bathroom
12- Balcony / Terrace
13- Maid Room
14- Child's Room

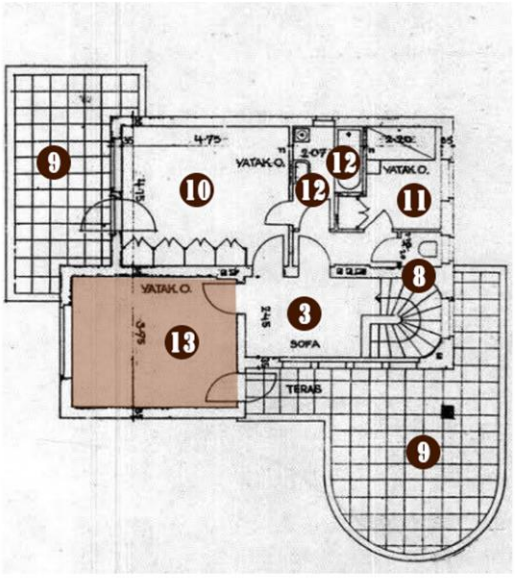
NO:6 DR. CELAL HOUSE

ARCHITECT: ILYAS ZADE ARIF HIKMET
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, YENISEHIR
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1932*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1932, 10)



First Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1932, 10)

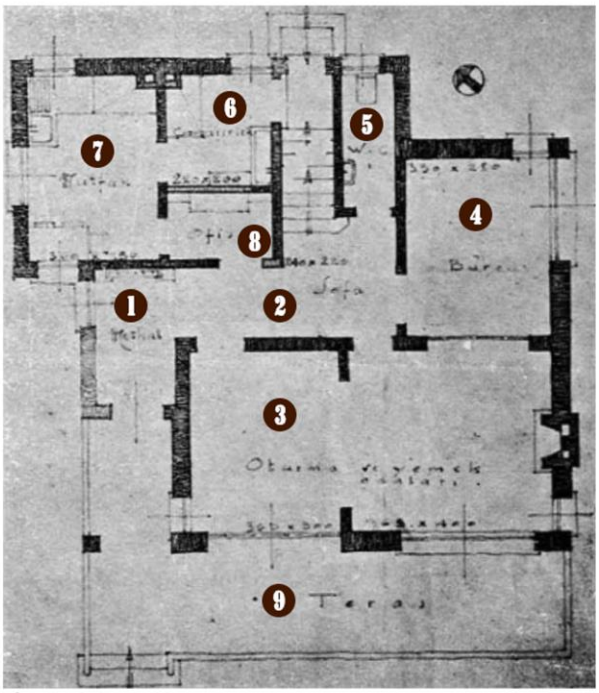
1 - Living/Guest Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Sofa / Hall
4 - Doctor's Laboratory
5 - Kitchen
6 - Pantry
7 - Corridor
8 - WC
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Maid Room
12- Bathroom
13- Child's Room

*Project or construction date is not available. Arkitekt published the project in 1932

NO:7 MRS. FERIDE HOUSE

ARCHITECT: ENGR. FIKRI, AR. ABIDIN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, SUADIYE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1933*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 1)

1 - Entry
2 - Sofa / Hall
3 - Living/Dining Room
4 - Work Room
5 - WC
6 - Laundry Room
7 - Kitchen
8 - Pantry
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Maid Room
11 - Master Bedroom
12- Bedroom
13- Bathroom
14- Child's Room



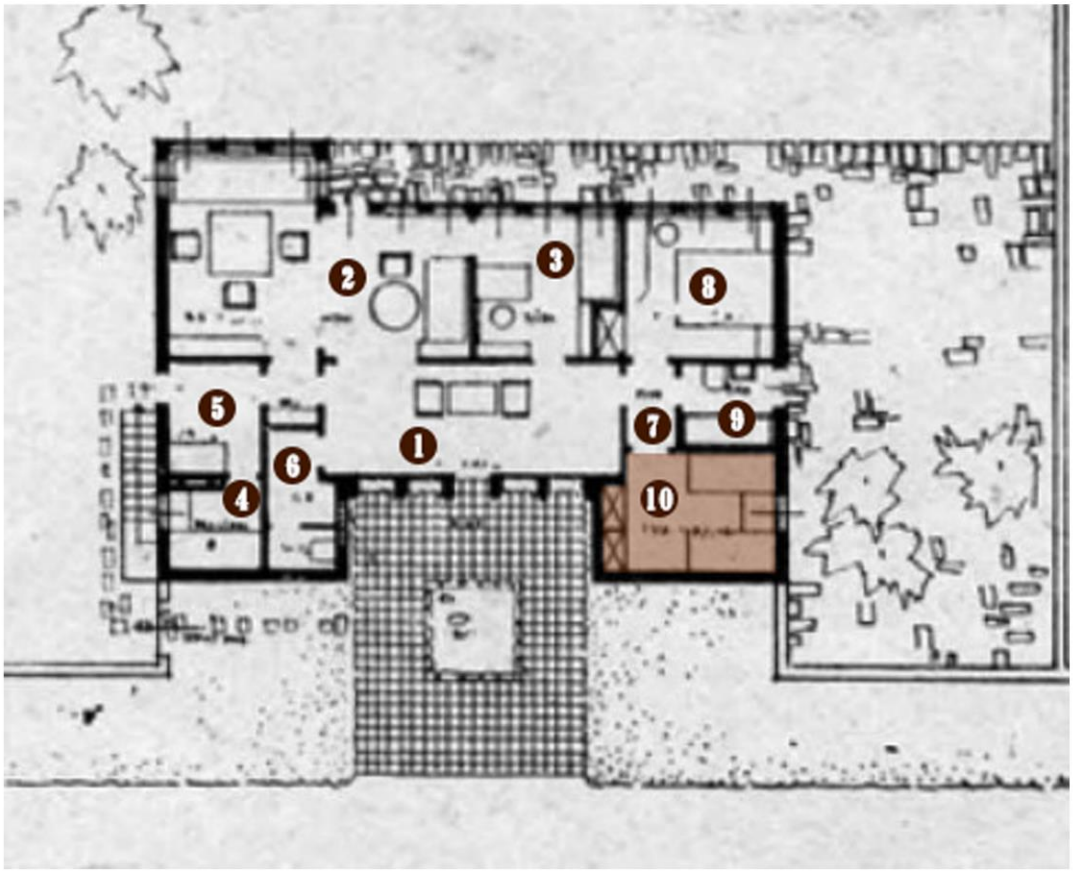
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 1)

*Project or construction date is not available.
Arkitekt published the project in 1933

NO:8 CHEAP FAMILY HOUSES

ARCHITECT: SEYFI ARKAN
TYPE: TYPE HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1933*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 6)

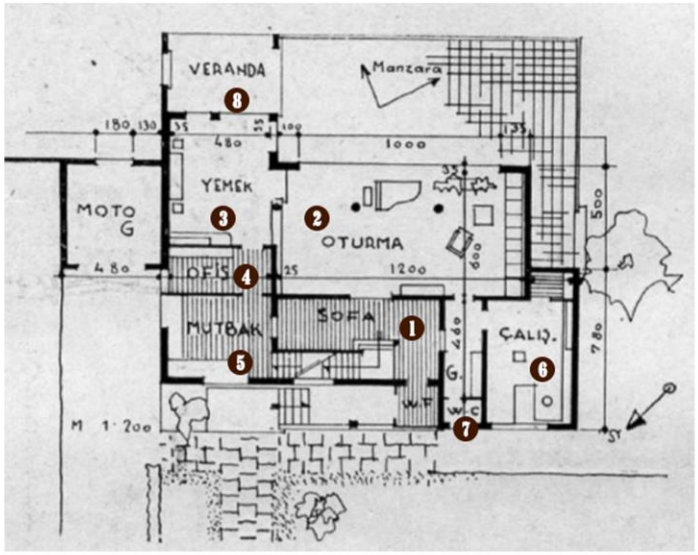
1 - Entrance / Living Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Working Room
4 - Maid Room
5 - Kitchen
6 - WC
7 - Sofa / Hall
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Bathroom
10- Child's Room

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1933

NO:9 A MANSION

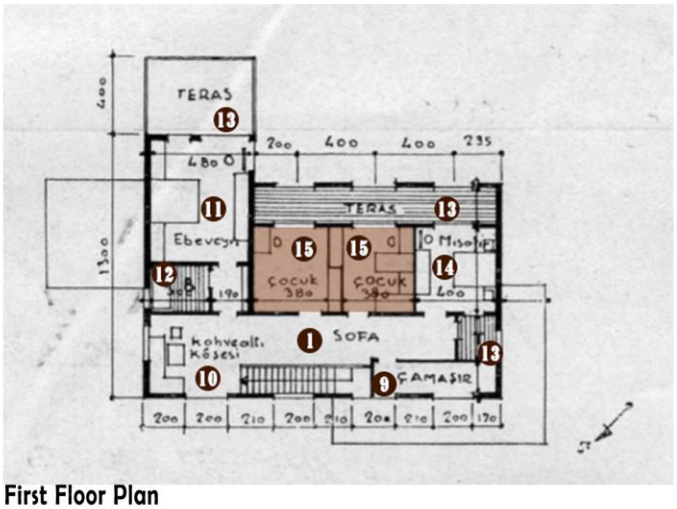
ARCHITECT: BEHCET SABRI
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1933*



1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Pantry
5 - Kitchen
6 - Working Room
7 - WC
8 - Veranda
9 - Laundry Room
10- Breakfast Corner
11 - Parents' Bedroom
12- Bathroom
13- Balcony / Terrace
14- Guest Bedroom
15- Child's Room

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 8)



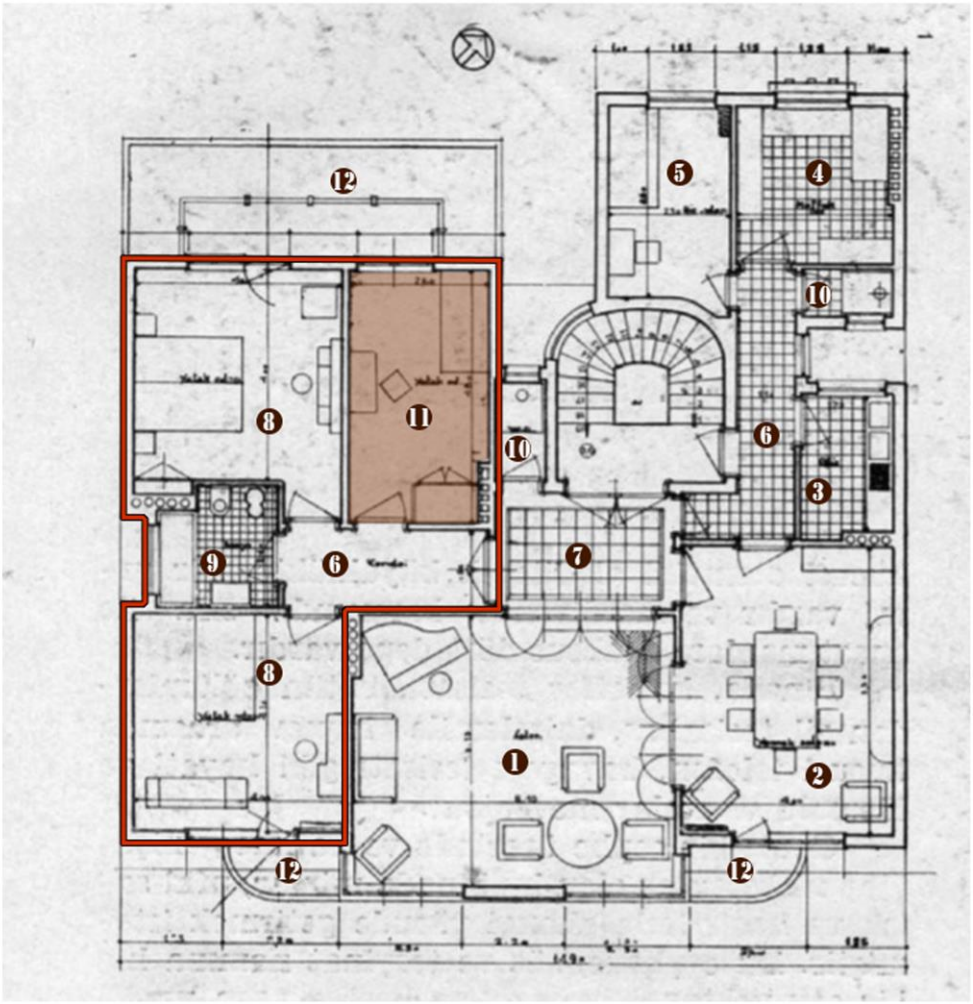
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 8)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1933

NO:10 RONTGEN APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: ZEKI SELAH
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, KADIKOY
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1933



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 8)

Private Zone

1 - Living Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Pantry
4 - Kitchen
5 - Maid Room
6 - Corridor
7 - Sofa / Hall
8 - Parent's Room
9 - Bathroom
10- WC
11 - Child's Room
12- Balcony/Terrace

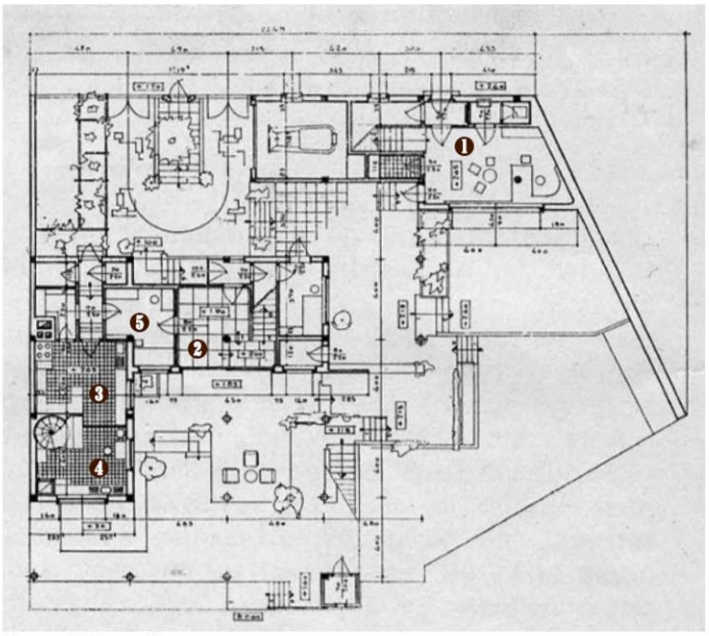
NO:11 BEACH HOUSE

ARCHITECT: BEHCET SABRI

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL

TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

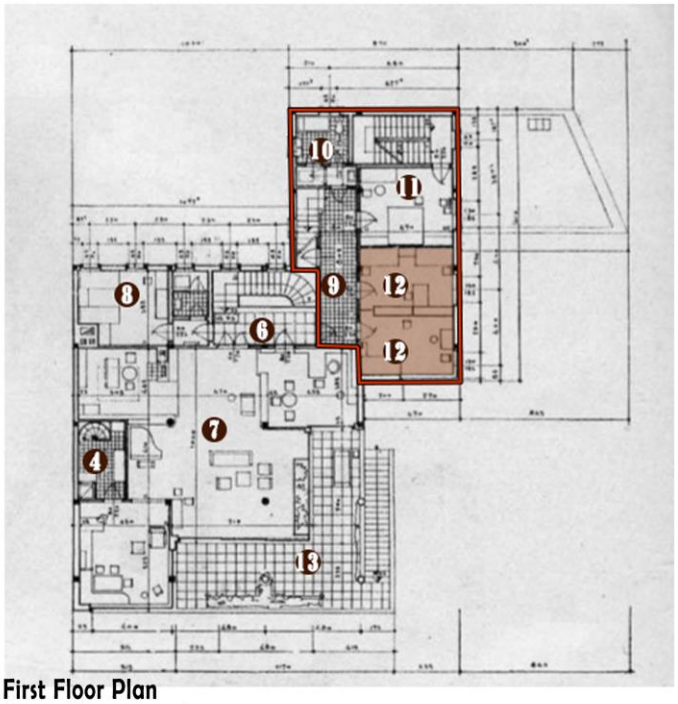
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1933*



Private Zone

1 - Atelier Entrance
2- House Entrance
3 - Kitchen
4 - Pantry
5 - Maid Room
6 - Sofa / Hall
7 - Living Room
8 - Guest Bedroom
9 - Corridor
10- Bathroom
11 - Master Bedroom
12- Child's Room
13- Balcony / Terrace

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 11)



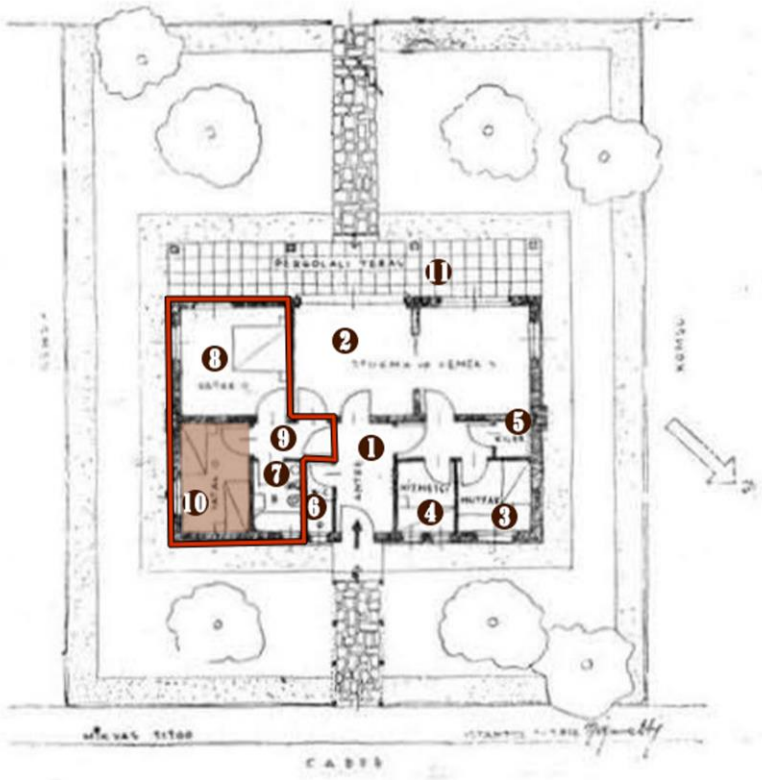
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1933, 11)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1933

NO:12 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: NIZAMETTIN HUSNU
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, ERENKOY
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1934*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimar*, 1934, 3)

Private Zone

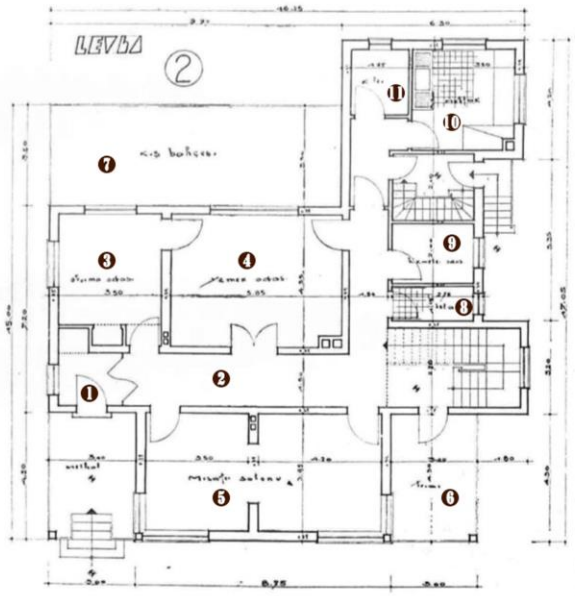
1 - Entrance
2 - Living./Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Maid Room
5 - Cellar
6 - WC
7 - Bathroom
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Corridor
10- Child's Room
11- Balcony / Terrace

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1934

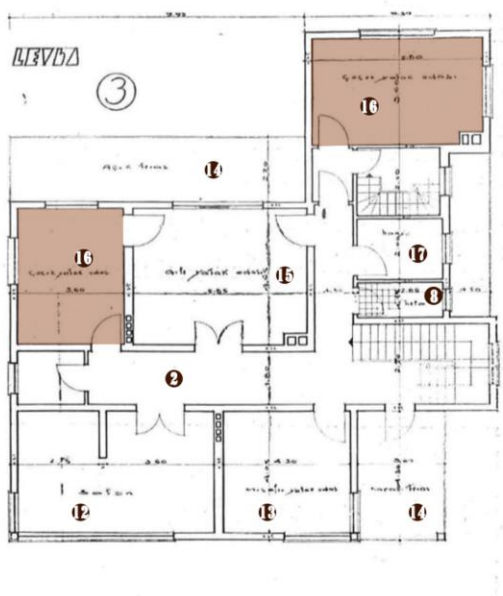
NO:13 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: H. ADIL
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, FENERYOLU
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1936*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1936, 2)



First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1936, 2)

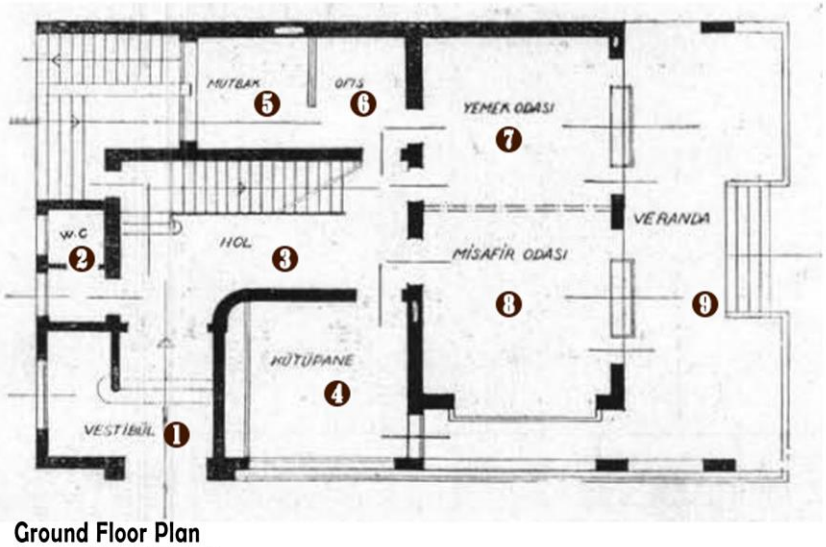
1 - Entrance
2 - Corridor
3 - Living Room
4 - Dining Room
5 - Guest Room
6 - Veranda
7 - Patio Room
8 - WC
9 - Maid Room
10- Kitchen
11 - Cellar
12- Living Room
13- Guest Bedroom
14- Balcony / Terrace
15- Master Bedroom
16- Child's Room
17- Bathroom

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1936

NO:14 A VILLA

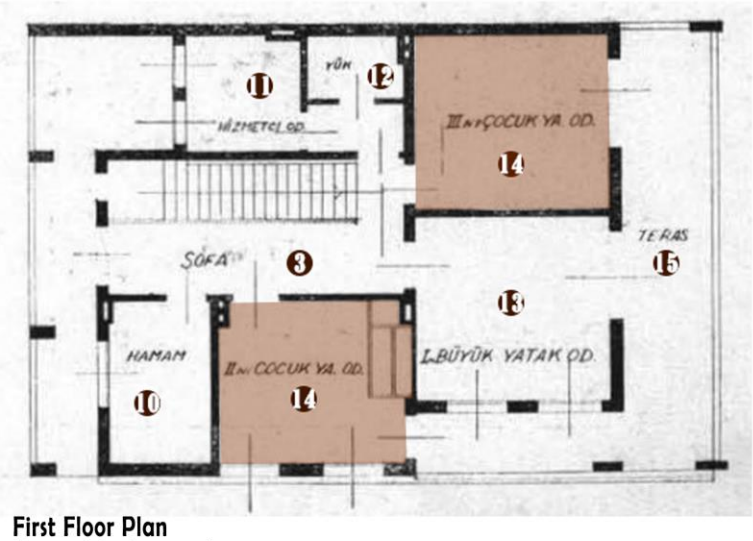
ARCHITECT: ZIYA KOZANOGLU
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, MODA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1936*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1936, 9)

1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Sofa / Hall
4 - Library
5 - Kitchen
6 - Pantry
7 - Dining Room
8 - Guest Room
9 - Veranda
10- Bathroom (*Hamam*)
11 - Maid Room
12- Lumber Room
13- Master Bedroom
14- Child's Room
15- Balcony / Terrace



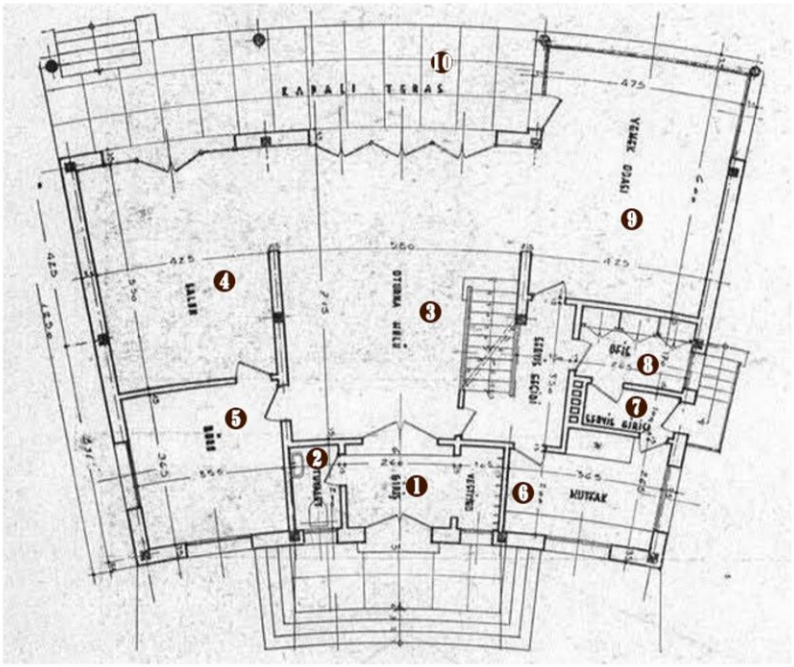
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1936, 9)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1936

NO:15 A VILLA

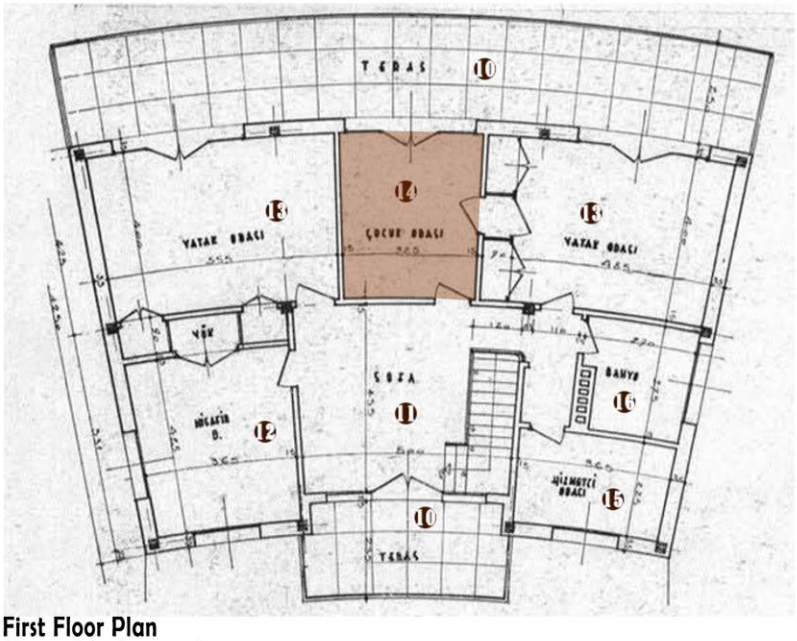
ARCHITECT: ZEKI SAYAR
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, KALAMIS
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1937*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1937, 2)

1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Living Room
4 - Guest Room
5 - Working Room
6 - Kitchen
7 - Service Entrance
8 - Pantry
9 - Dining Room
10- Balcony / Terrace
11 - Sofa / Hall
12- Guest Bedroom
13- Bedroom
14- Child's Room
15- Maid Room
16- Bathroom



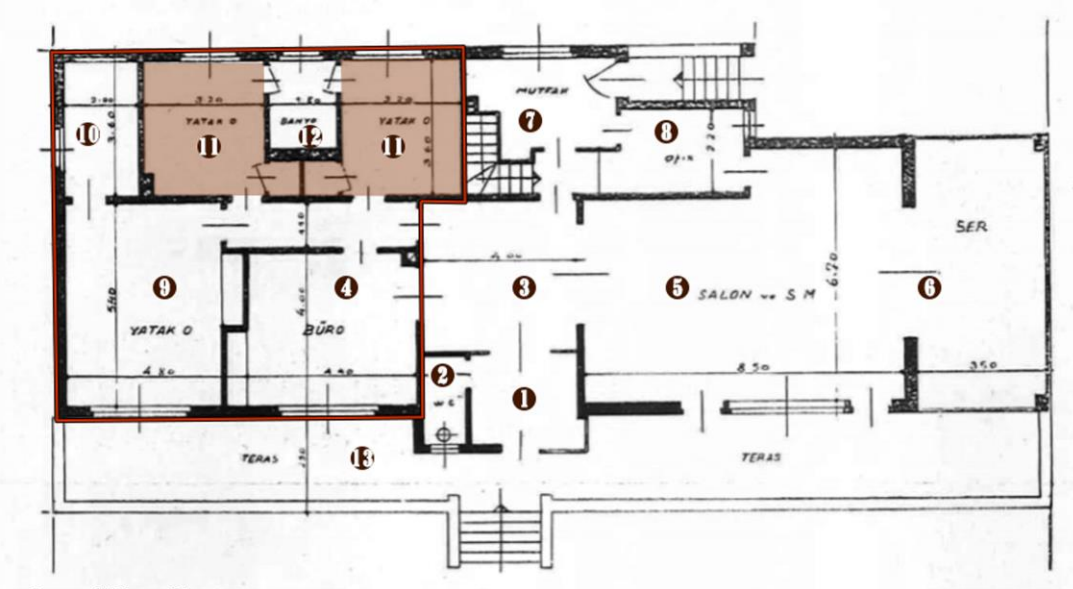
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1937, 2)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1937

NO:16 B. VEHBI HOUSE

ARCHITECT: ARCHITECT REFIK
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, KAVAKLIDERE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1937*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1937, 3)

Private Zone

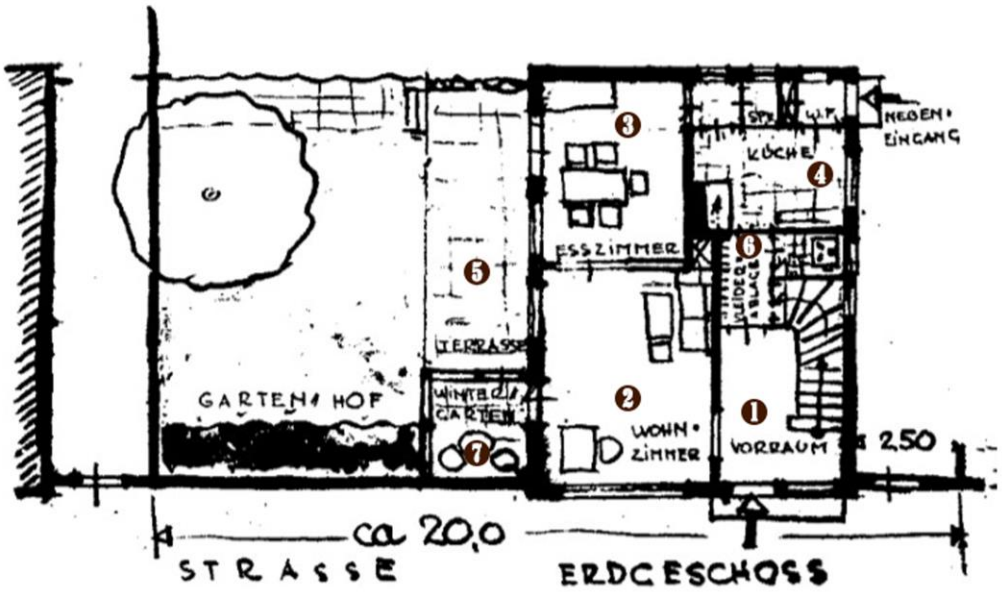
1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Sofa / Hall
4 - Working Room
5 - Living/Dining Room
6 - Patio Room
7 - Kitchen
8 - Pantry
9 - Master Bedroom
10- Dressing Room
11 - Child's Room
12- Bathroom
13- Balcony / Terrace

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1937

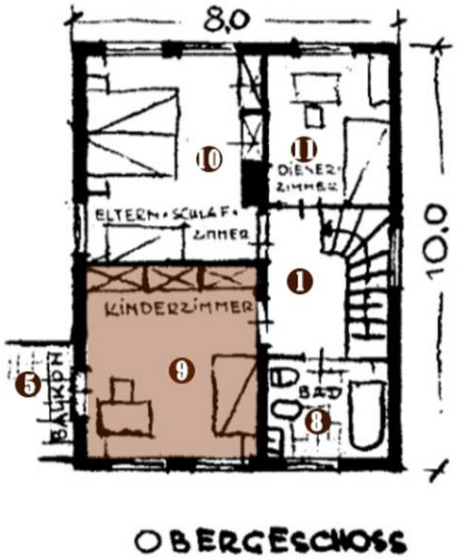
NO:17A GARDEN HOUSES

ARCHITECT: HERMANN JANSEN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1934/39



Type A3, Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Akcan, 2005)



Type A3, First Floor Plan
(Source: Akcan, 2005)

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Balcony / Terrace
6 - Cloakroom
7 - Patio Room
8 - Bathroom
9 - Child's Room
10- Parents' Bedroom
11 - Maid Room

NO:17B

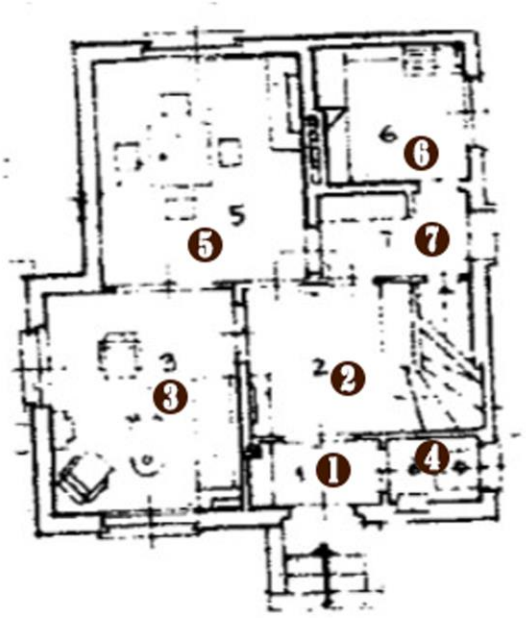
GARDEN HOUSES

ARCHITECT: HERMANN JANSEN

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA

TYPE: MASS HOUSING

PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1934/39



1 - Entrance
2 - Sofa / Hall
3 - Living Room
4 - W.C.
5 - Dining Room
6 - Kitchen
7 - Cellar
8 - Balcony / Terrace
9 - Room (?)
10- Child's Room
11 - Master Bedroom
12- Bathroom

Type B4 (modified), Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Akcan, 2005)

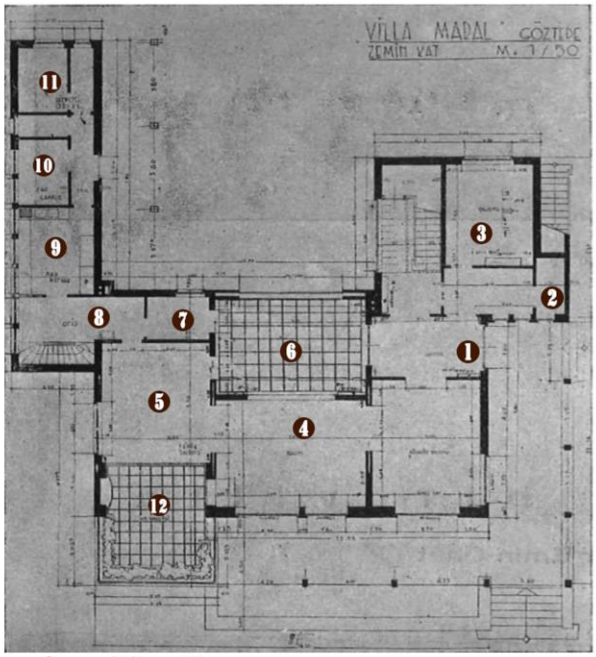


Type B4 (modified), First Floor Plan
(Source: Akcan, 2005)

NO:18 A VILLA

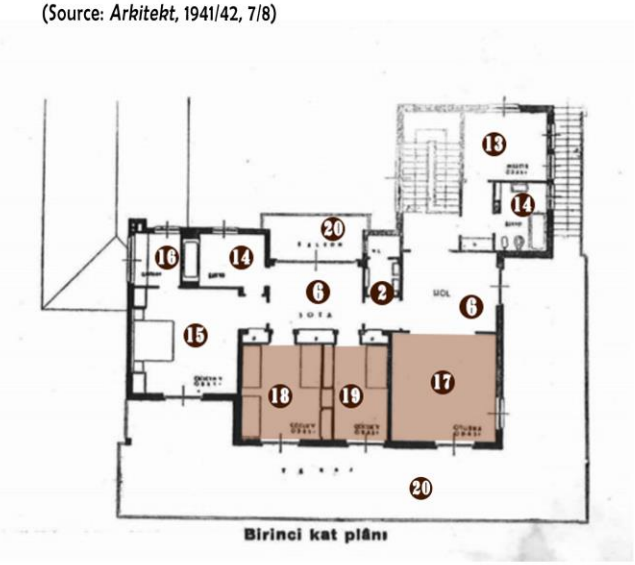
ARCHITECT: EMIN ONAT
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, GOZTEPE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1941/42*



1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Working Room
4 - Guest/Living Room
5 - Dining Room
6 - Sofa / Hall
7 - Corridor
8 - Pantry
9 - Kitchen
10- Laundry Room
11 - Maid Room
12- Patio Room
13- Guest Bedroom
14- Bathroom
15- Master Room
16- Dressing Room
17- Living Room (Child's Playroom)
18- Child's Room
19- Nurse Room
20- Balcony / Terrace

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1941/42, 7/8)



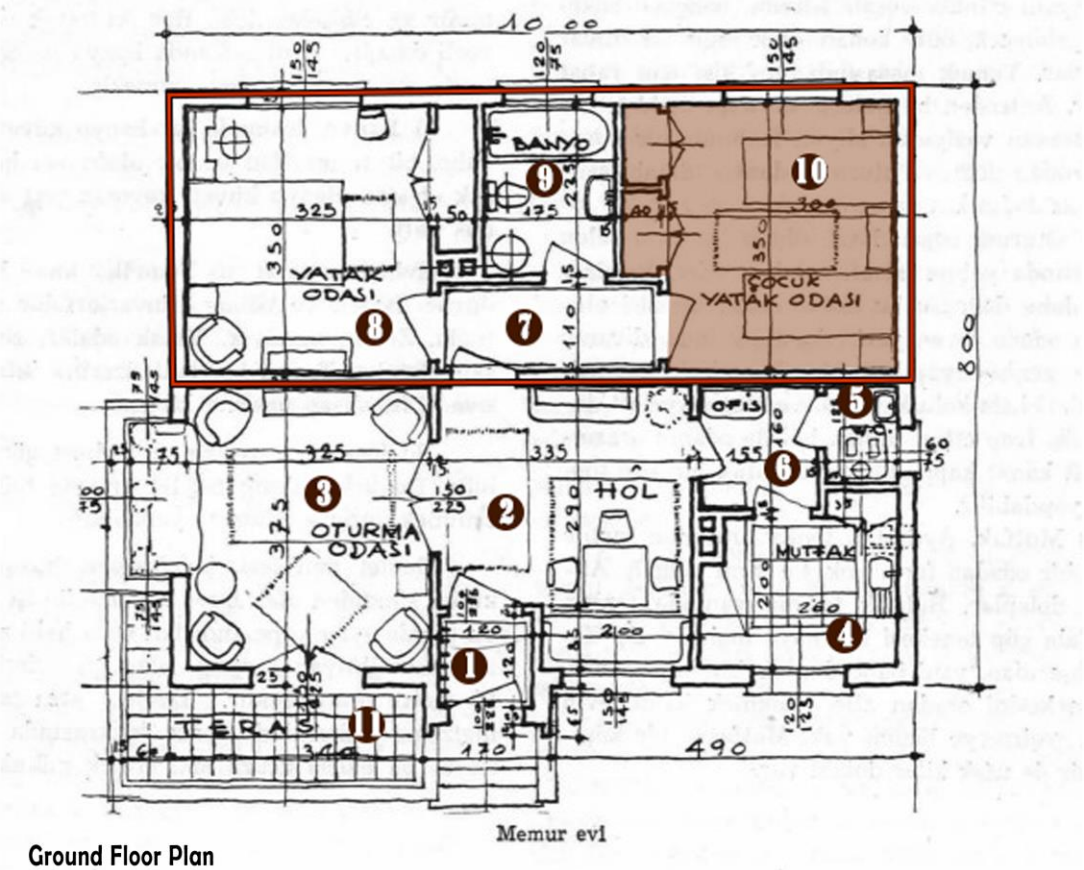
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1941/42, 7/8)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1941/42

NO:19 CIVIL SERVANT TYPE HOUSE

ARCHITECT: ABIDIN MORTAS
TYPE: TYPE HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: Unknown
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1944



Memur evi

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1944, 1/2)

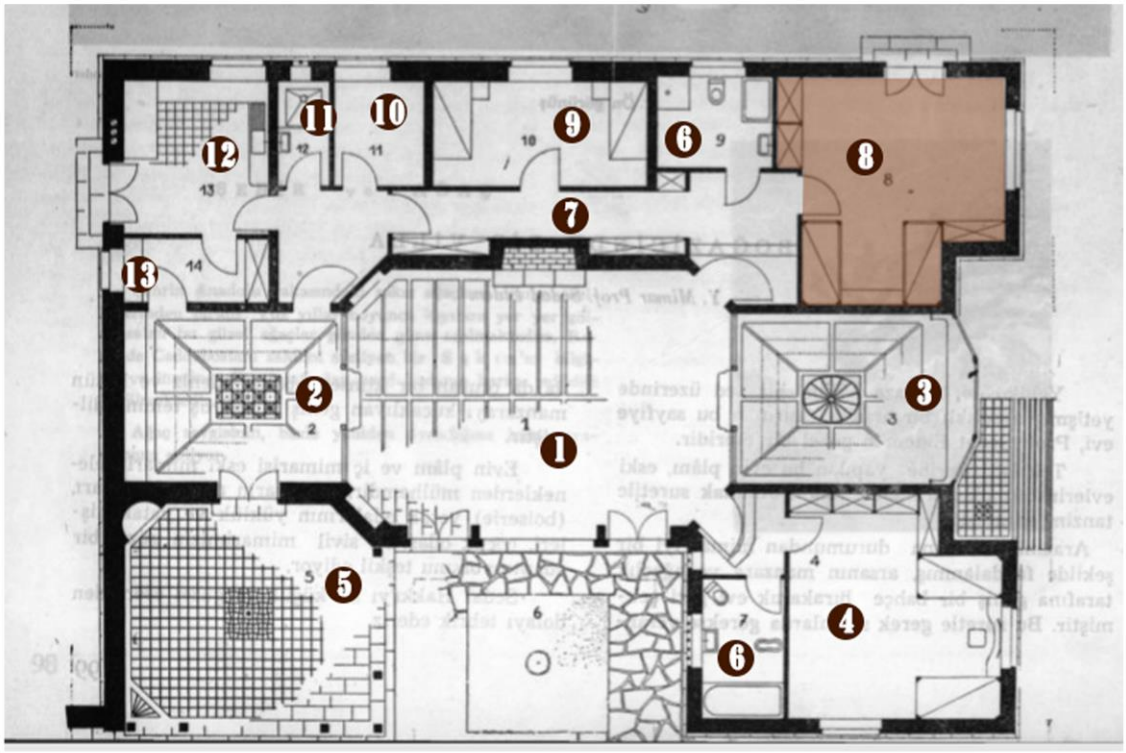
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Sofa / Hall (Dining Room)
3 - Living Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - WC
6 - Pantry
7 - Sofa / Hall
8 - Parents' Room
9 - Bathroom
10- Child's Room
11 - Balcony / Terrace

NO:20 A VILLA

ARCHITECT: SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, YENIKOY
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1946*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 5/6)

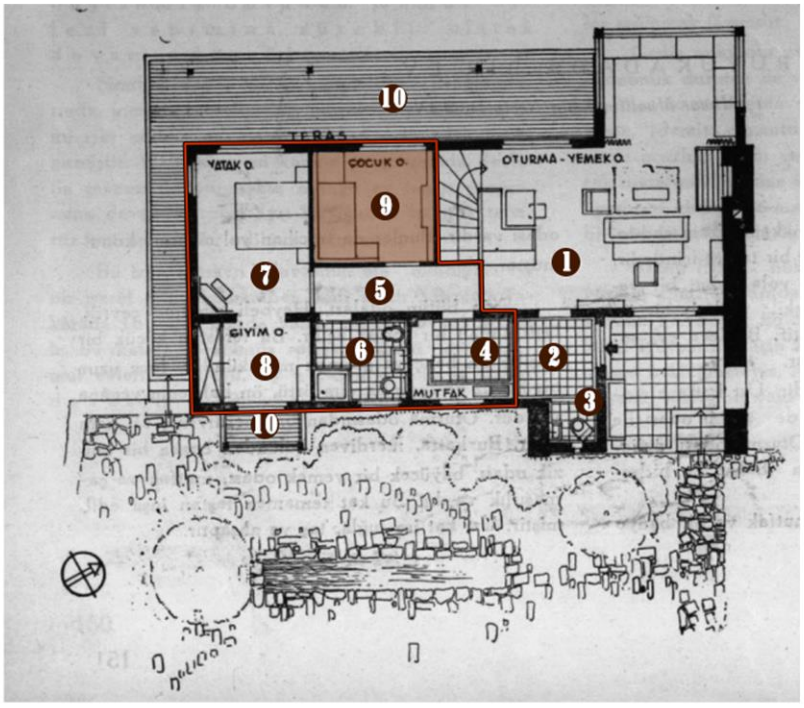
1 - Entrance
2 - Dining Room
3 - Smoking Room
4 - Master Bedroom
5 - Veranda
6 - Bathroom
7 - Corridor
8 - Child's Room
9 - Guest Bedroom
10- Maid Room
11 - WC
12- Kitchen
13- Cellar

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1946

NO:21 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: EMIN NECIP UZMAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

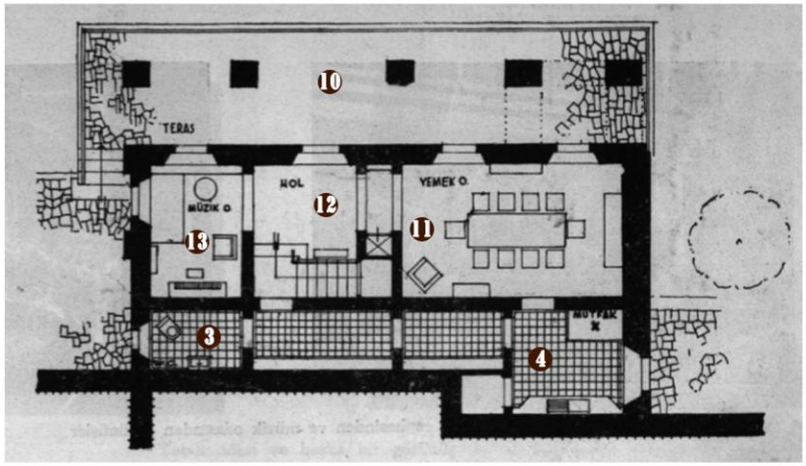
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BUYUKADA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1946*



Private Zone

1 - Living/Dining Room
2 - Pantry
3 - WC
4 - Kitchen
5 - Corridor
6 - Bathroom
7 - Master Room
8 - Dressing Room
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Balcony / Terrace
11 - Dining Room
12- Sofa / Hall
13- Music Room

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 7/8)



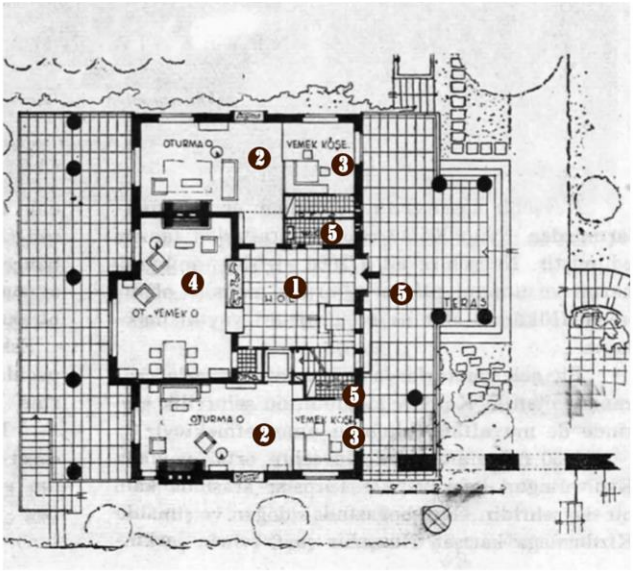
Basement Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 7/8)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1946

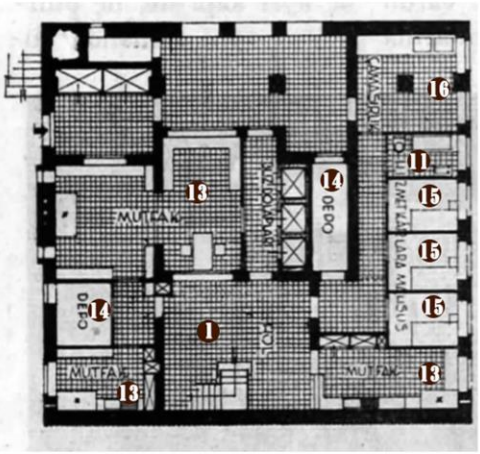
NO:22 A HOUSE

ARCHITECT: EMIN NECIP UZMAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

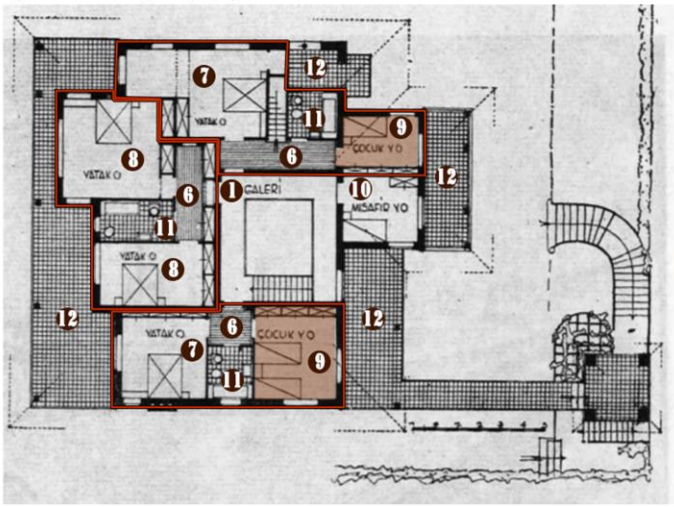
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BUYUKADA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1946*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 9/10)



Basement Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 9/10)



Private Zone

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Living/Dining Room
5 - WC
6 - Corridor
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Guest Bedroom
11 - Bathroom
12- Balcony / Terrace
13- Kitchen
14- Storage
15- Maid Room
16- Laundry Room

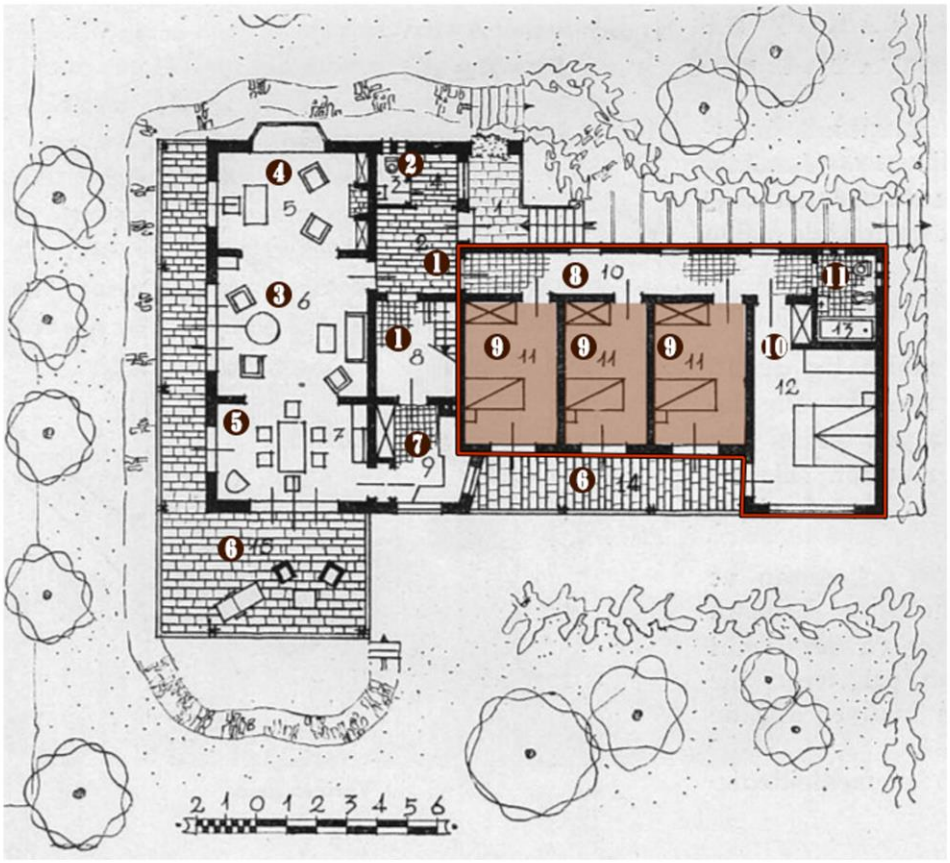
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1946, 9/10)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1946

NO:23 E. ELAGOZ HOUSE

ARCHITECT: HALIT FEMIR
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, ORTAKOY
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1947*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1947, 7/8)

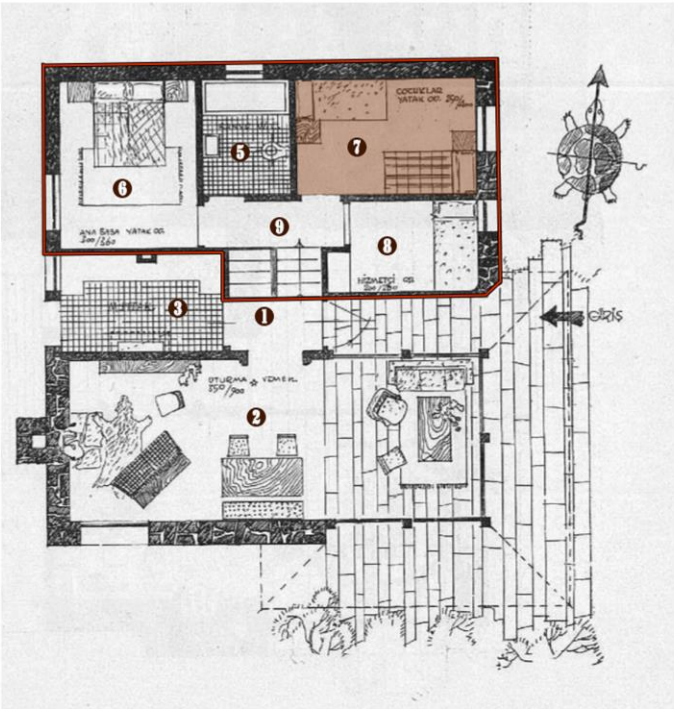
Private Zone

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - WC
3 - Living Room
4 - Library
5 - Dining Room
6 - Balcony / Terrace
7 - Kitchen
8 - Corridor
9 - Child's Room
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Bathroom

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1947

NO:24 MUKBIL AYKUT HOUSE

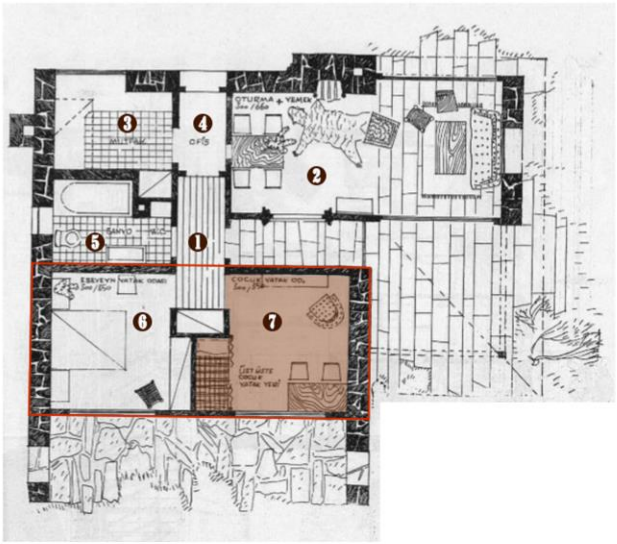
ARCHITECT: SAMIM OKTAY, DEMIRTAS KAMCIL
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, YESILKOY
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1948*



Private Zone

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Living/Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Pantry
5 - Bathroom
6 - Master Room
7 - Child's Room
8 - Maid Room
9 - Corridor

Type 1
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1948, 3/4)



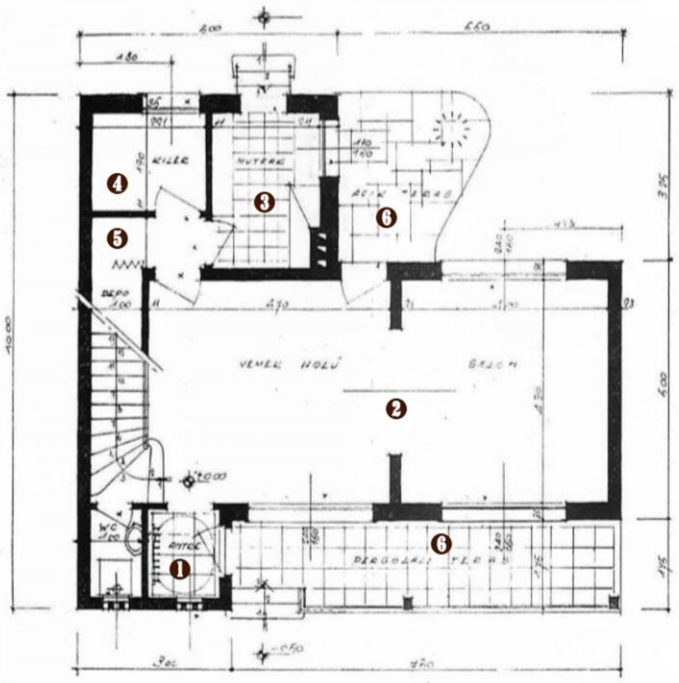
Type 2
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1948, 3/4)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1948

NO:25 ISBANK LOTTERY HOUSE

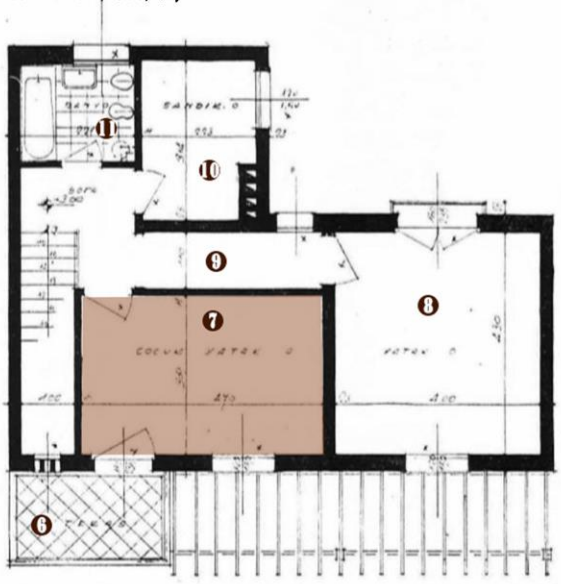
ARCHITECT: ABIDIN MORTAS
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BUYUKADA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1950*



1 - Entrance
2 - Living/Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Cellar
5 - Storage
6 - Balcony / Terrace
7 - Child's Bedroom
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Corridor
10- Storage Room
11 - Bathroom

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1950, 1/2)

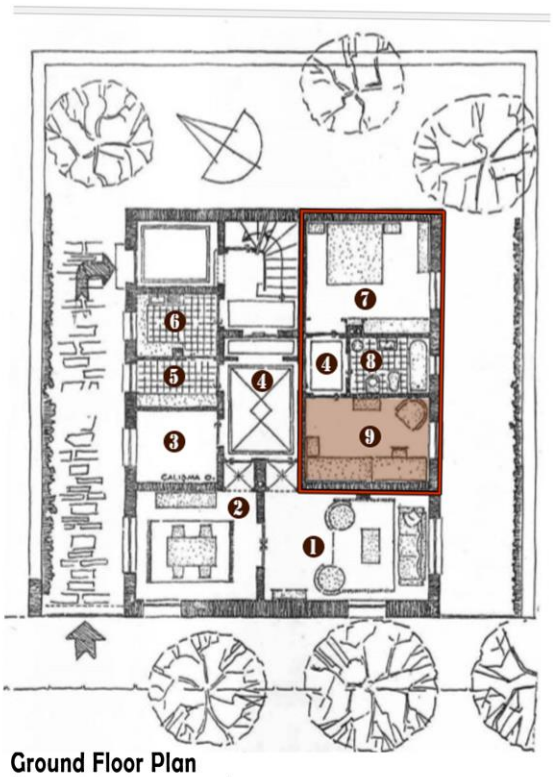


First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1950, 1/2)

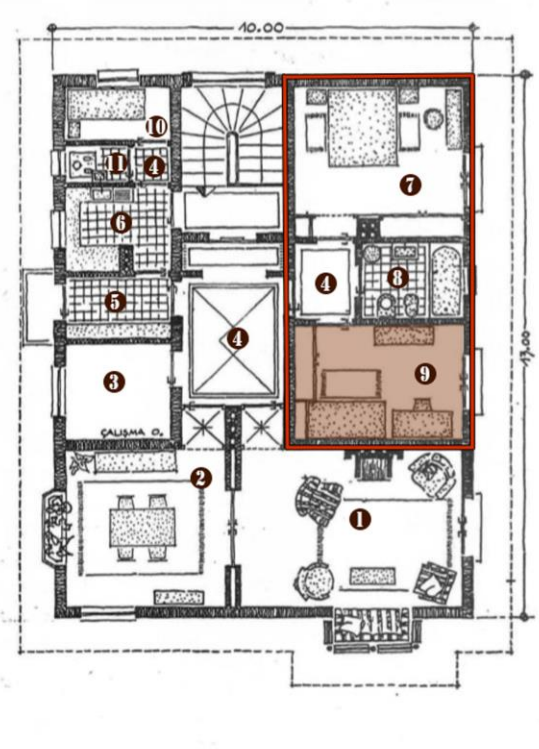
*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1950

NO:26 BIRGILER APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: FERZAN AND LEYLA BAYDAR
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, MODA
TYPE: APARTMENT
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1948



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Arkitekt, 1950, 7/10)



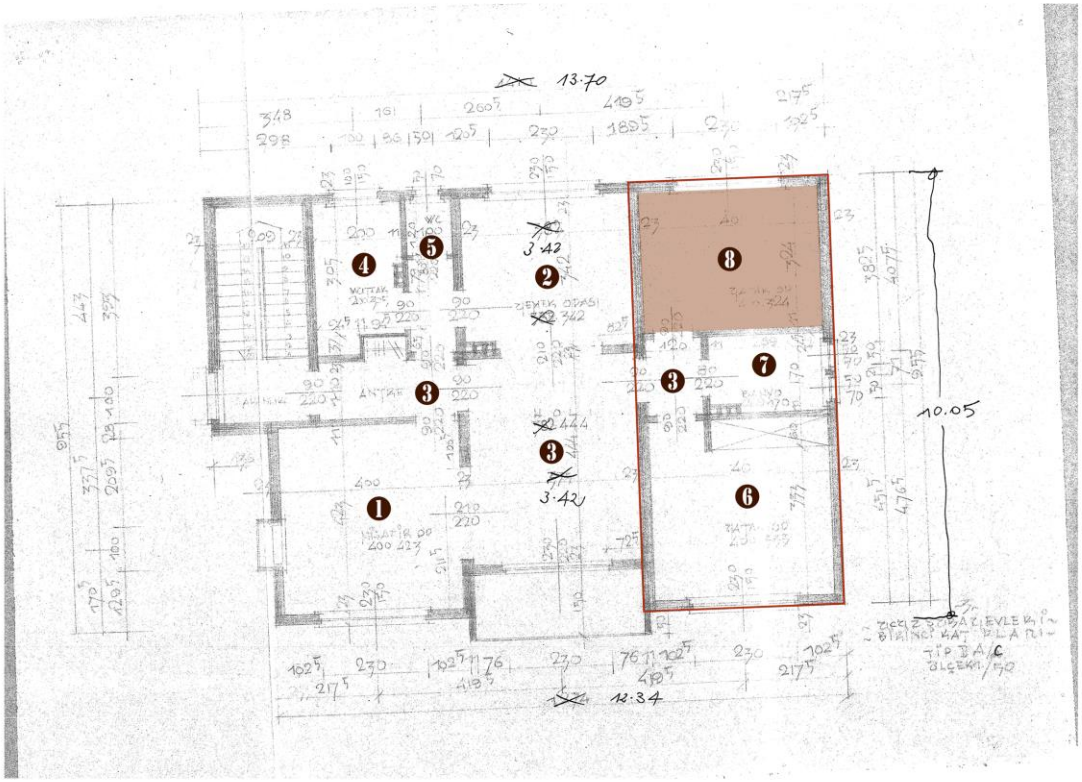
Third Floor Plan
(Source: Arkitekt, 1950, 7/10)

Private Zone

1 - Living Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Work Room
4 - Sofa / Hall
5 - Pantry
6 - Kitchen
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Bathroom
9 - Child's Room
10- Maid Room
11 - WC

NO:27 MILITARY OFFICER'S HOUSES

ARCHITECT: ALI MUKADDER CIZER
CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, KECIOREN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1952

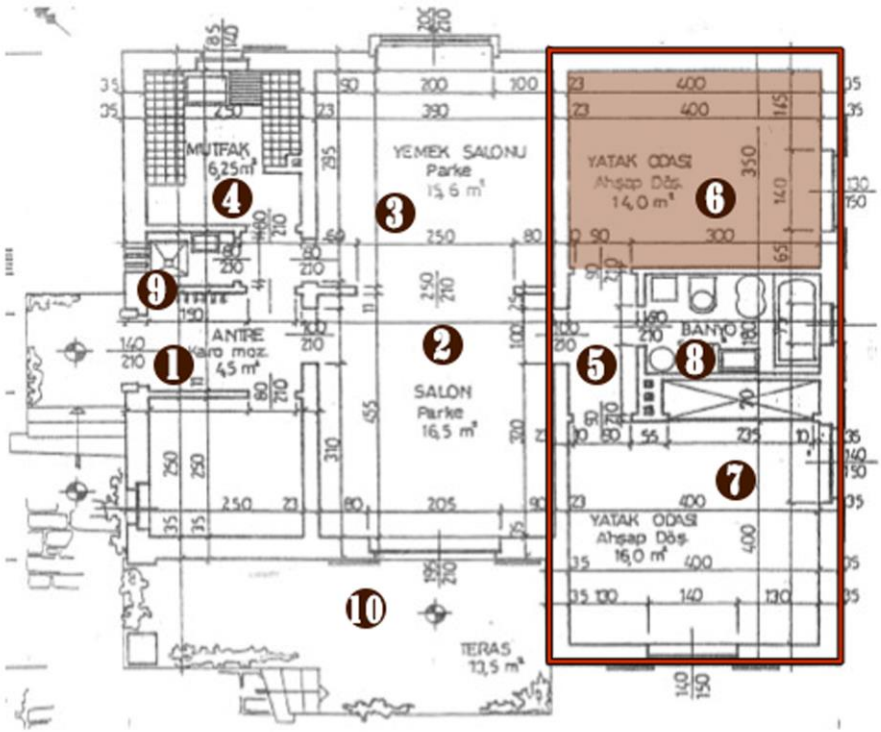


Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

Private Zone
1 - Guest Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Sofa / Hall
4 - Kitchen
5 - WC
6 - Master Bedroom
7 - Bathroom
8 - Child's Room

NO:28 ETILER HOUSING COOPERATIVE

ARCHITECT: KEMAL AHMET ARU
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BEBEK
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1952



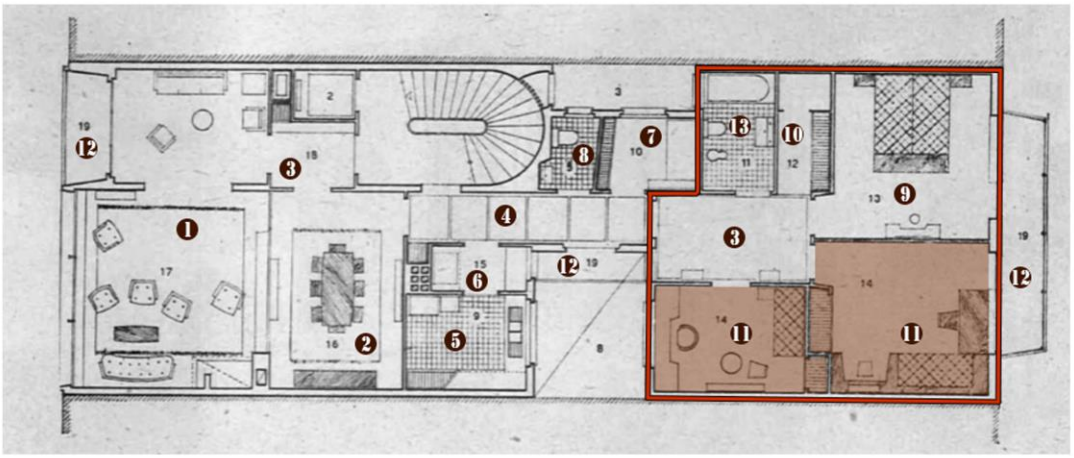
One type of Etiler Cooperative, Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Doğusan Alexander, 2013)

Private Zone

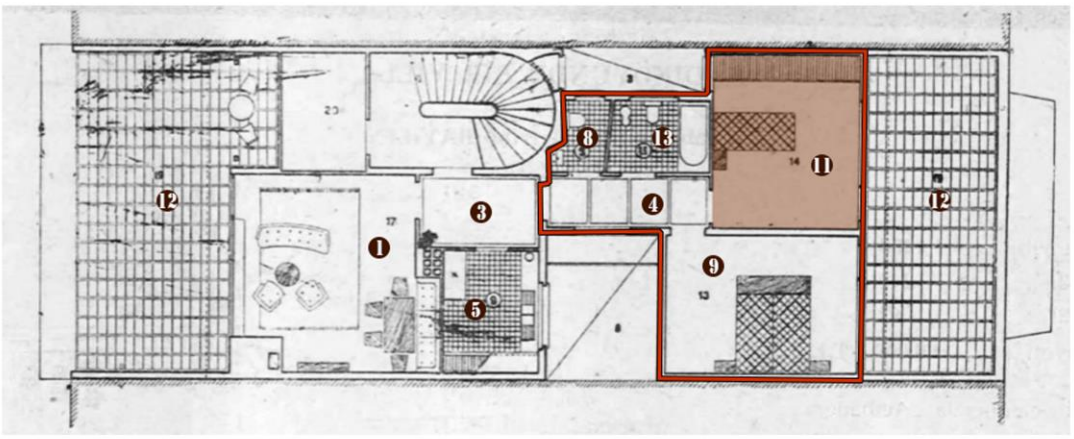
1 - Entrance
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Sofa / Hall
6 - Child's Bedroom
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Bathroom
9 - WC
10- Balcony / Terrace

NO:29 M.K. APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: H. IRFAN BAYHAN
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, HARBIYE
TYPE: APARTMENT
CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1953/54



Regular Floor Plan (Source: *Arkitekt*, 1957, 3)



Terrace Floor Plan (Source: *Arkitekt*, 1957, 3)

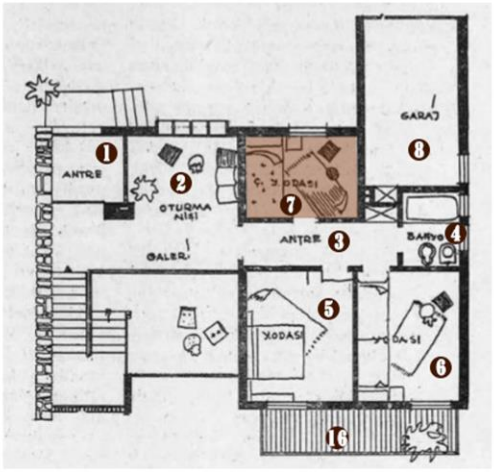
Private Zone

1 - Living Room
2 - Dining Room
3 - Sofa / Hall
4 - Corridor
5 - Kitchen
6 - Pantry
7 - Maid Room
8 - WC
9 - Master Bedroom
10- Lumber Room
11 - Child's Room
12 - Balcony / Terrace
13 - Bathroom

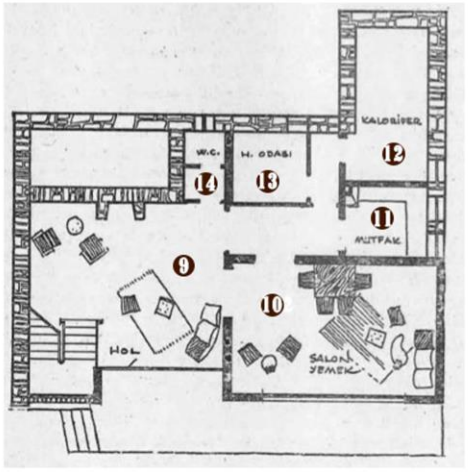
NO:30 LEVENT FOURTH DISTRICT

ARCHITECT: KEMAL AHMET ARU
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

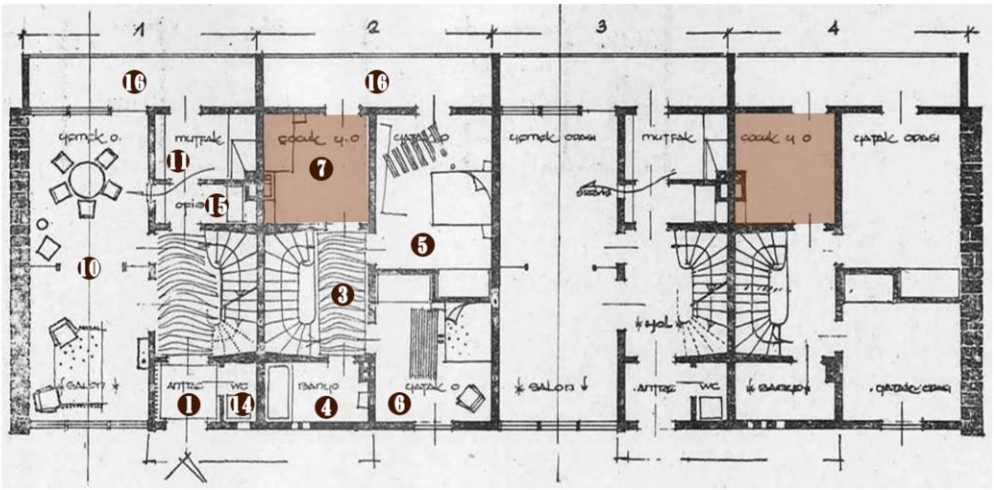
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1954



Type L, Upper Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1956, 3)



Type L, Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1956, 3)



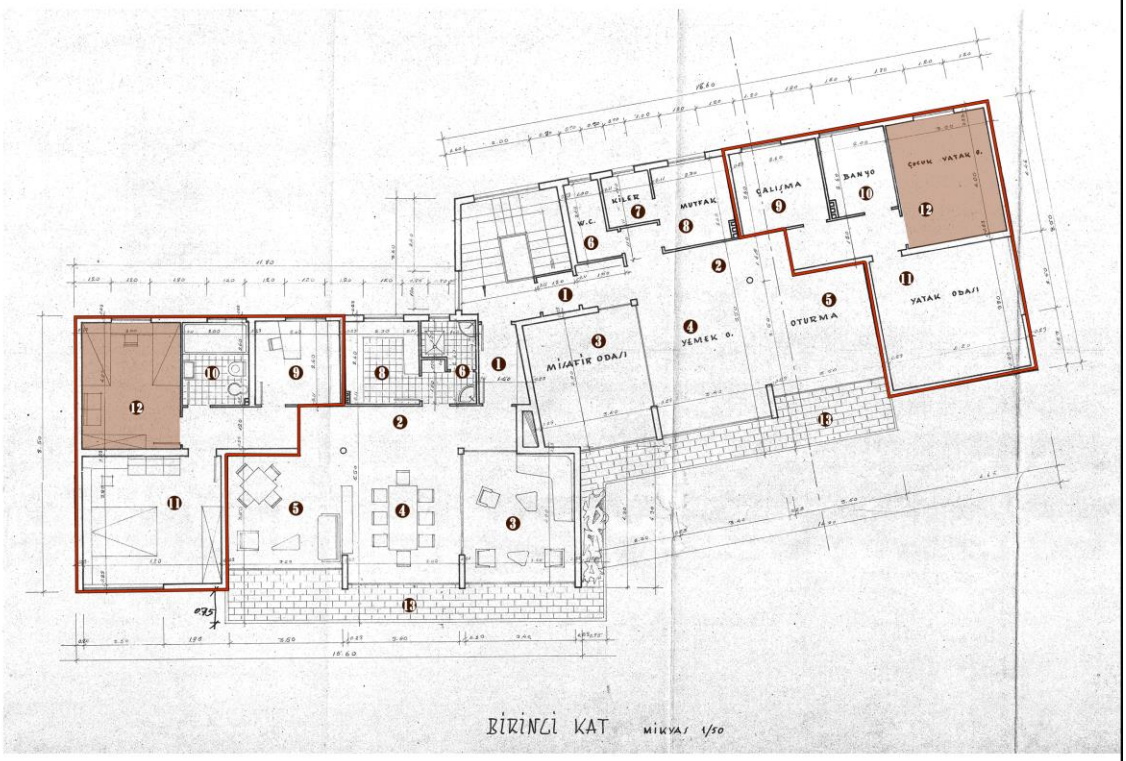
Type E, Floor Plans
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1956, 3)

1 - Entrance
2 - Living Corner
3 - Corridor
4 - Bathroom
5 - Parents' Bedroom
6 - Bedroom
7 - Child's Room
8 - Garage
9 - Sofa / Hall
10- Living / Dining Room
11- Kitchen
12- Boiler Room
13- Maid Room
14- WC
15- Pantry
16- Balcony / Terrace

NO:31 MUAMMER AKSOY AND RELATIVES' APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: MUZAFFER VANLI
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1954



First Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

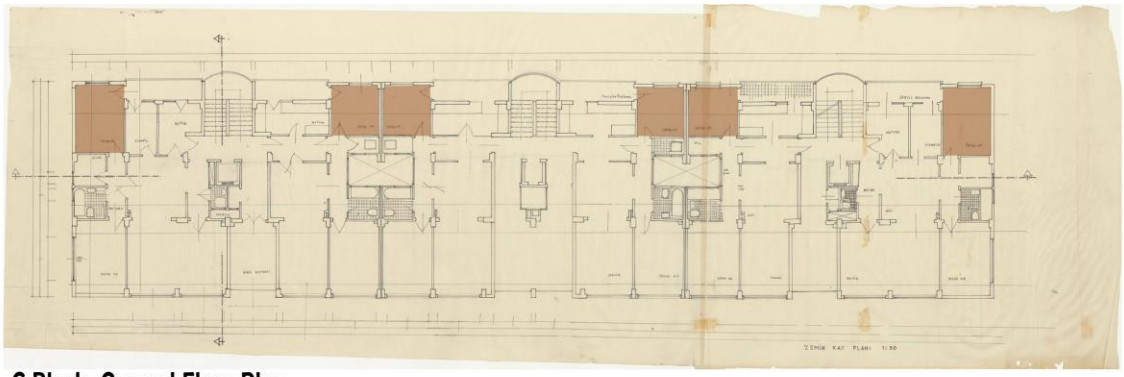
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Corridor
3 - Guest Room
4 - Dining Room
5 - Living Room
6 - WC
7 - Cellar
8 - Kitchen
9 - Work Room
10- Bathroom
11 - Master Bedroom
12- Child's Room
13- Balcony / Terrace

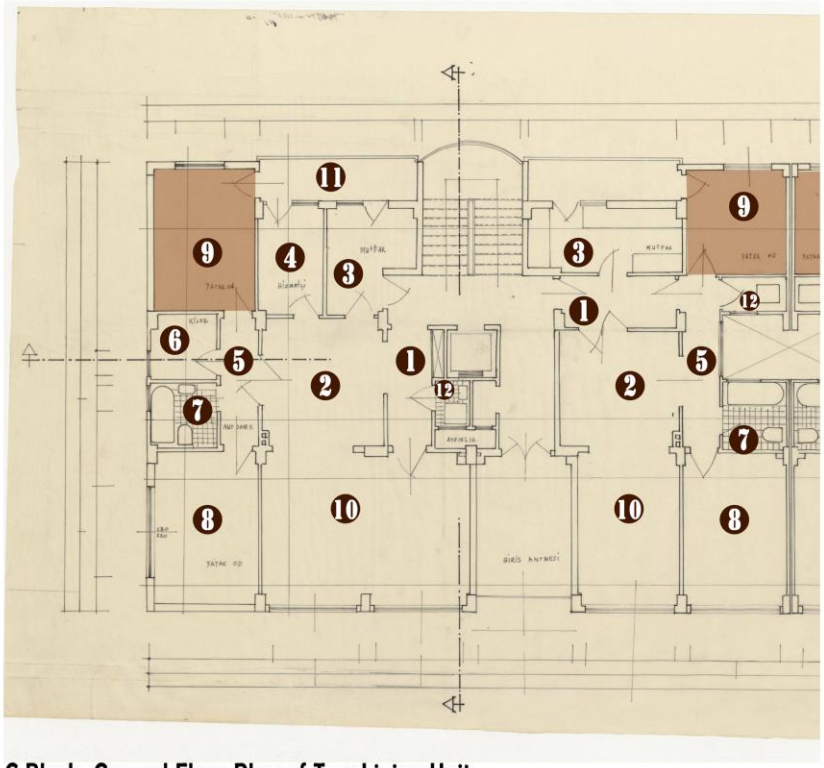
NO:32 BALMUMCU BEAUTIFUL RESIDENCES

ARCHITECT: SEYFI ARKAN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BESIKTAS
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1954



C Block, Ground Floor Plan
(Source: SALT Research, Architecture and Design Archive)

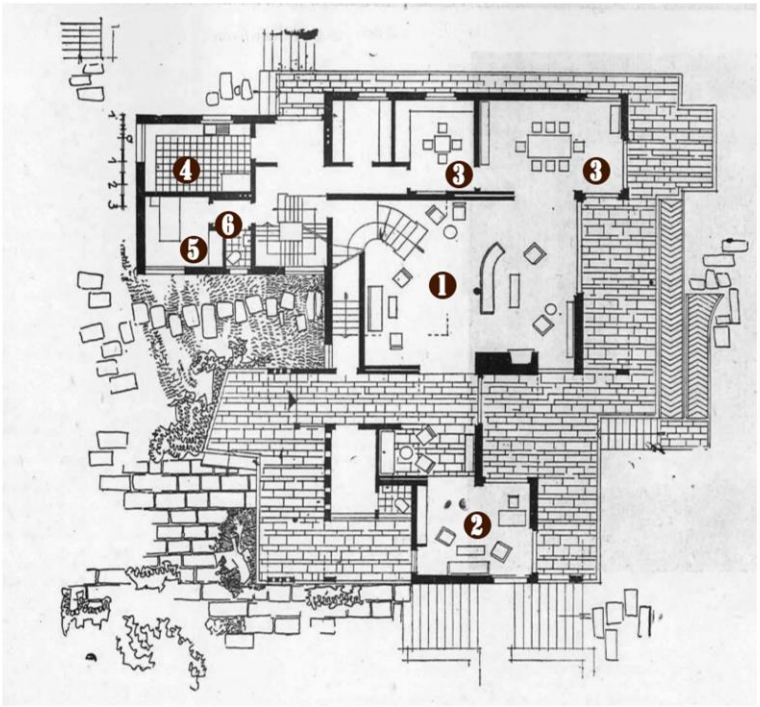


C Block, Ground Floor Plan of Two Living Unit
(Source: SALT Research, Architecture and Design Archive)

NO:33 SADIKOGLU VILLA

ARCHITECT: EMIN NECIP UZMAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

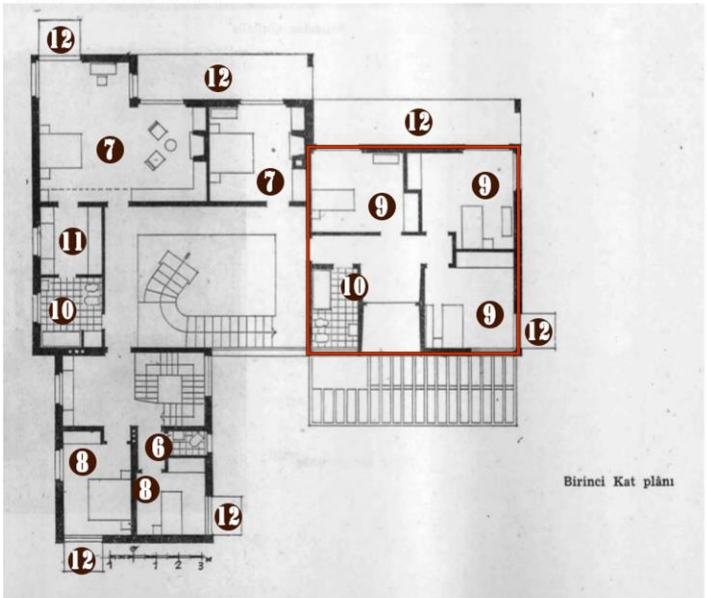
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BUYUKADA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1956*



Children's Private Zone

1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Maid Room
6 - WC
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Guest Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Bathroom
11 - Dressing Room
12- Balcony / Terrace

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1956, 3)



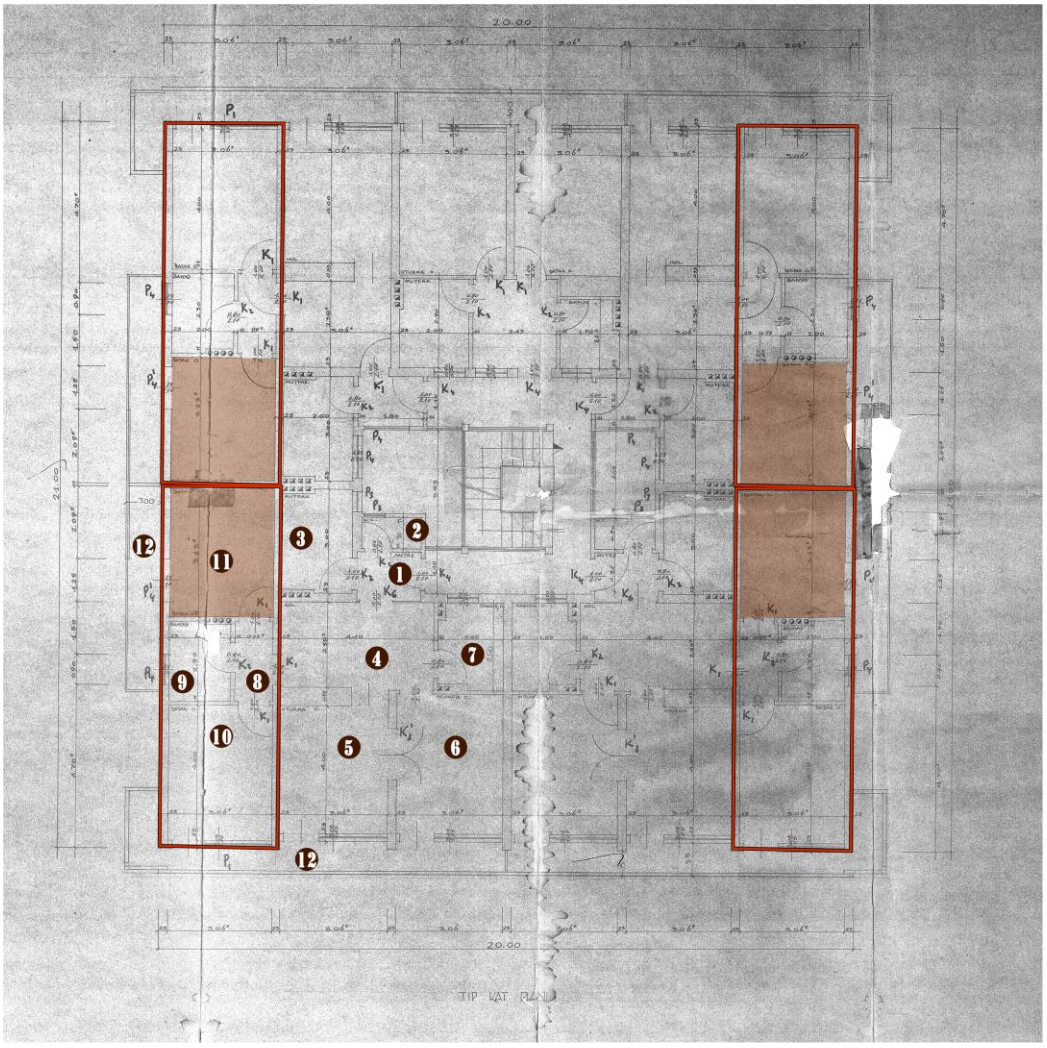
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1956, 3)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1956

NO:34 MUHABANK APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: MUZAFFER VANLI
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, KAVAKLIDERE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1956



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Kitchen
4 - Sofa / Hall
5 - Living Room
6 - Guest Room
7 - Storage Room
8 - Corridor
9 - Bathroom
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Child's Bedroom
12- Balcony / Terrace

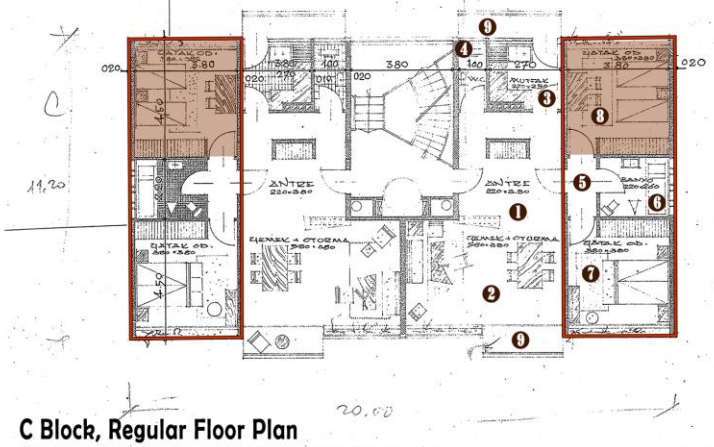
NO:35 KUMRULAR RESIDENCES

ARCHITECT: O.BOLAK, O. BOZKURT, G. BEKEN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, CANKAYA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1956



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)



C Block, Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

Private Zone

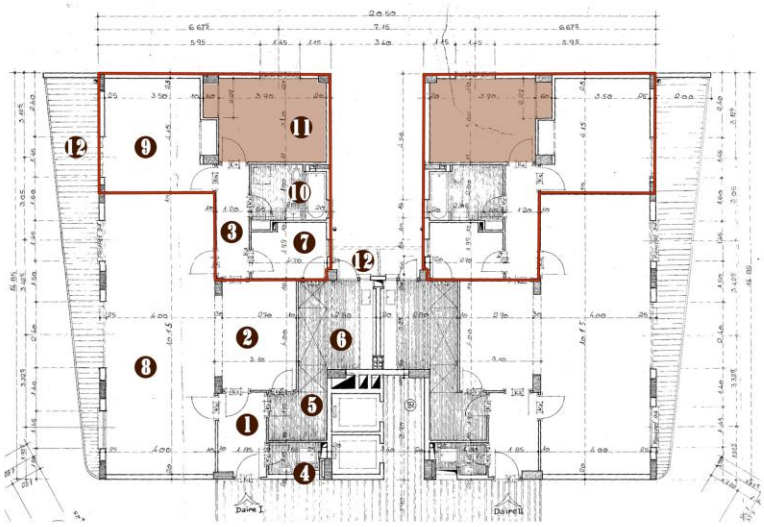
1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - WC
5 - Corridor
6 - Bathroom
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Child's Bedroom
9 - Balcony / Terrace

NO:36 YESILTEPE-YILDIZTEPE BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: DEMIRTAS KAMCIL, RAHMI BEDIZ
CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, EMEK
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1956



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

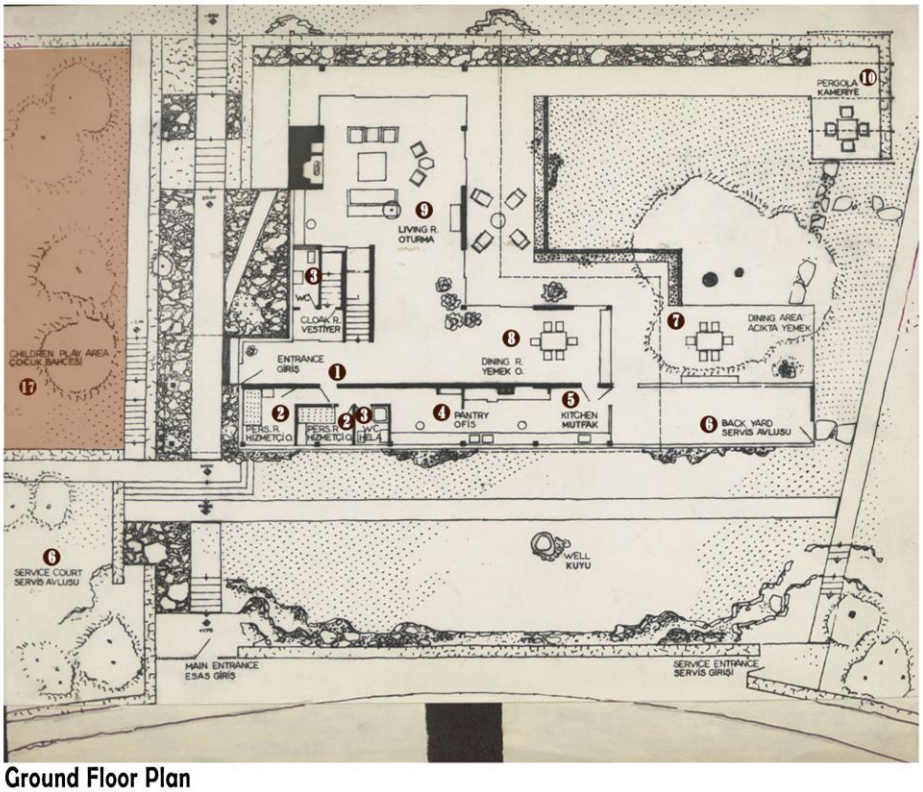


One of the Blocks, Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

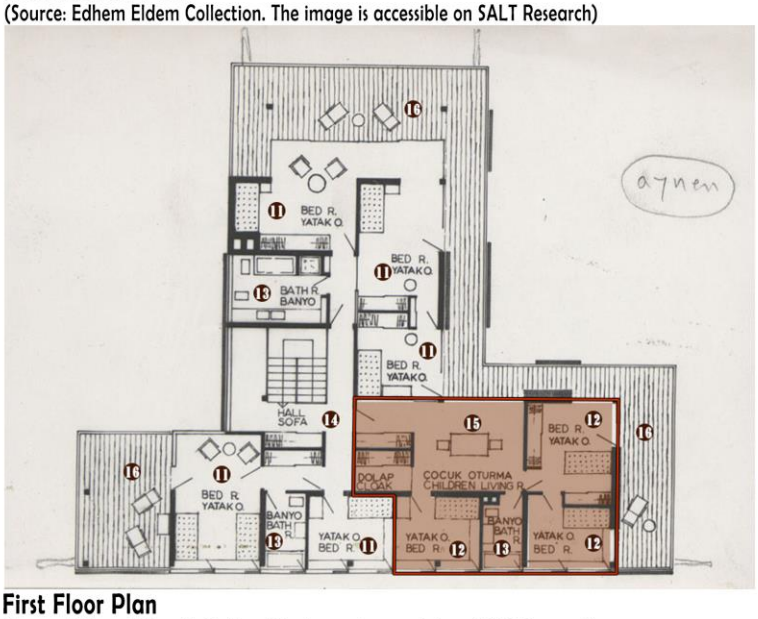
*Possibly, storage room or maid room

NO:37 RIZA DERVIS HOUSE

ARCHITECT: SEDAD HAKKI ELDEM
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, BUYUKADA
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1956/57



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Edhem Eldem Collection. The image is accessible on SALT Research)



First Floor Plan
(Source: Edhem Eldem Collection. The image is accessible on SALT Research)

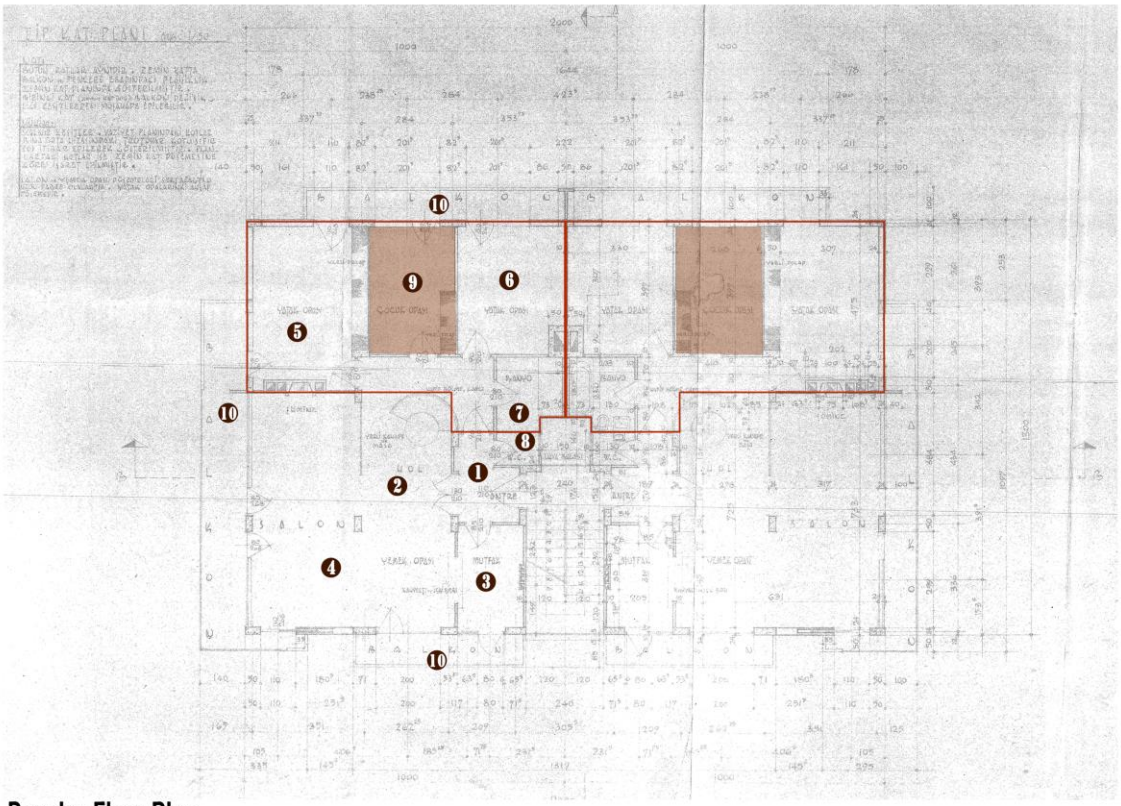
Children's Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Maid Room
3 - WC
4 - Pantry
5 - Kitchen
6 - Yard
7 - Dining Area
8 - Dining Room
9 - Living Room
10- Pergola
11 - Bedroom
12- Child's Bedroom
13- Bathroom
14- Sofa / Hall
15- Children Living Room
16- Balcony / Terrace
17- Children Play Area

NO:38 MURAT APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: FARUK NOYON
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, MALTEPE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1957



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

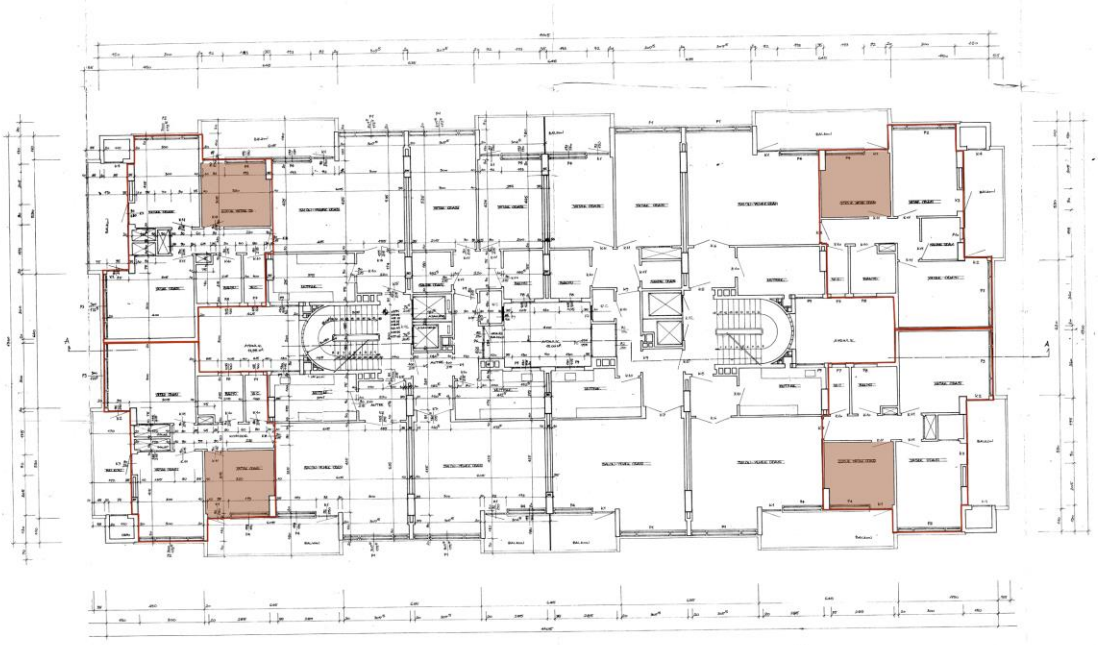
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Sofa / Hall
3 - Kitchen
4 - Living / Dining Room
5 - Master Bedroom
6 - Bedroom
7 - Bathroom
8 - WC
9 - Child's Room
10- Balcony / Terrace

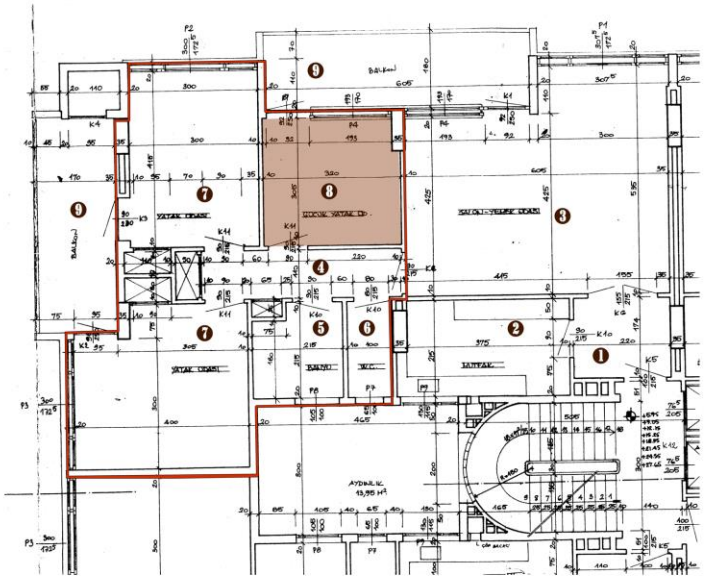
NO:39 ILBANK BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: FATIH URAN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, GOP
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1957



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)



Private Zone

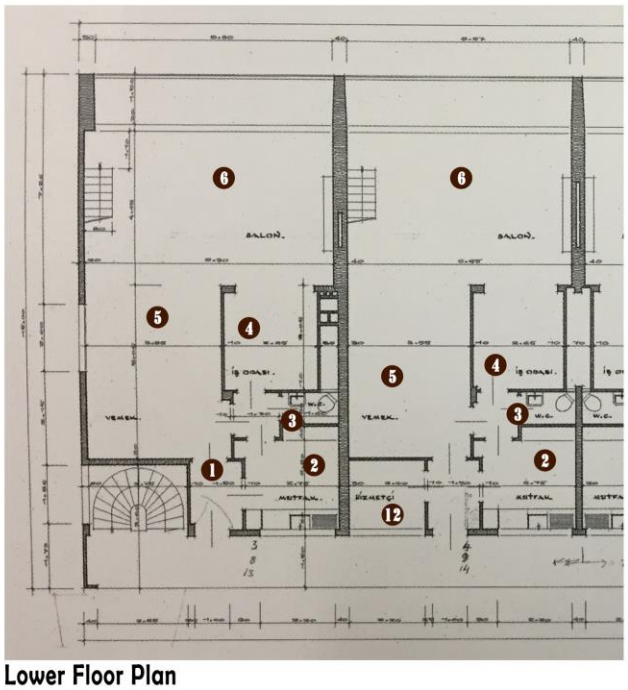
1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - Living / Dining Room
4 - Corridor
5 - Bathroom
6 - WC
7 - Bedroom
8 - Child's Room
9 - Balcony / Terrace

One unit of the blocks, Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

NO:40 CINNAH 19 APARTMENT

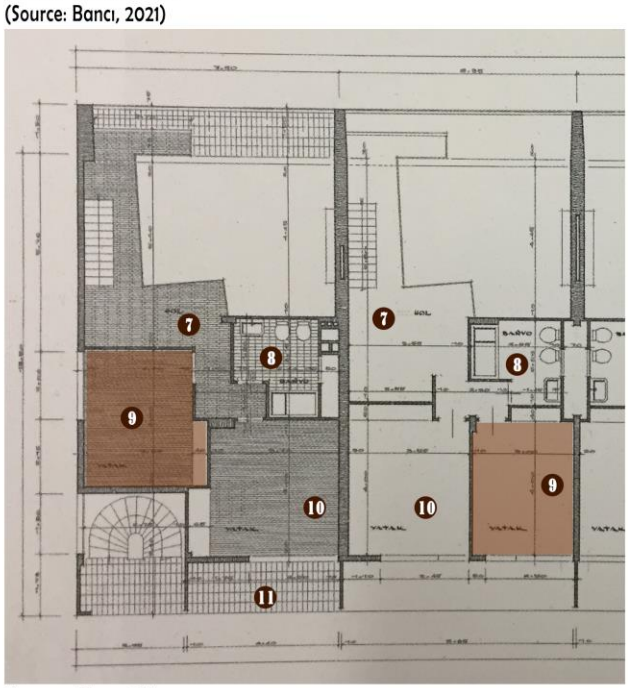
ARCHITECT: NEJAT ERSIN
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, CANKAYA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1957



1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - WC
4 - Work Room
5 - Dining Room
6 - Living Room
7 - Sofa / Hall
8 - Bathroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Balcony / Terrace

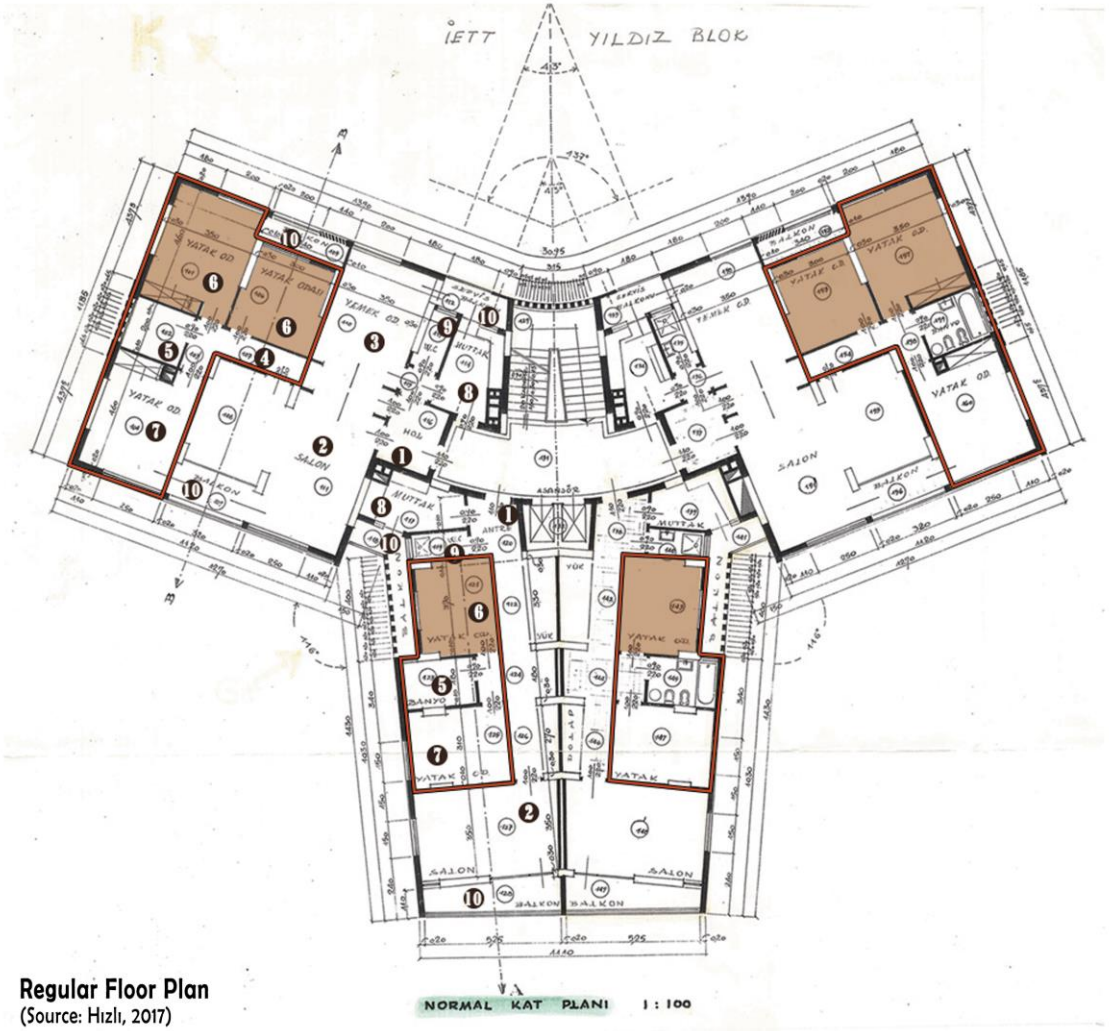
Lower Floor Plan
(Source: Bancı, 2021)



Upper Floor Plan
(Source: Bancı, 2021)

NO:41 I.E.T.T. BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: LEYLA A. TURGUT, BERKOK ILKUNSAL
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, SISLI
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1957/62



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Hızlı, 2017)

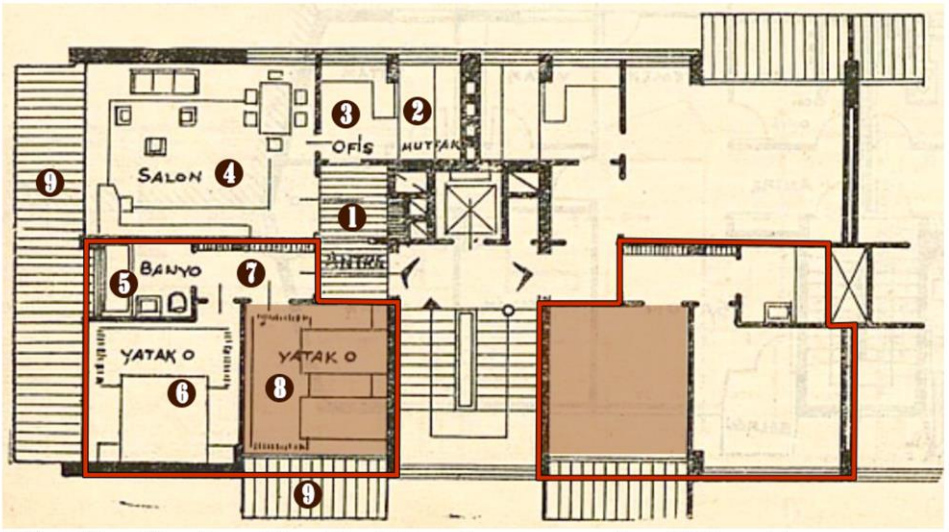
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Corridor
5 - Bathroom
6 - Child's Room*
7 - Master Room
8 - Kitchen
9 - WC
10- Balcony / Terrace

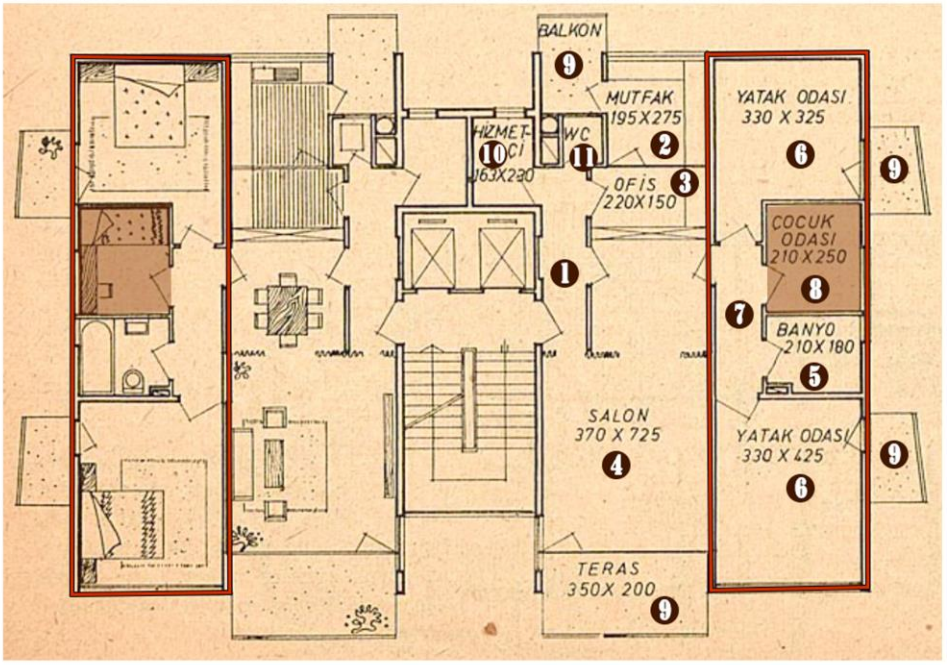
*One or both bedroom can be child's room in the units with three bedrooms.

NO:42 ATAKOY BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: ERTUGRUL MENTESE*
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1962/64



H Type Floor Plan (Source: Edhem Eldem Collection. The image is accessible on SALT Research)



R Type Floor Plan (Source: Edhem Eldem Collection. The image is accessible on SALT Research)

Private Zone

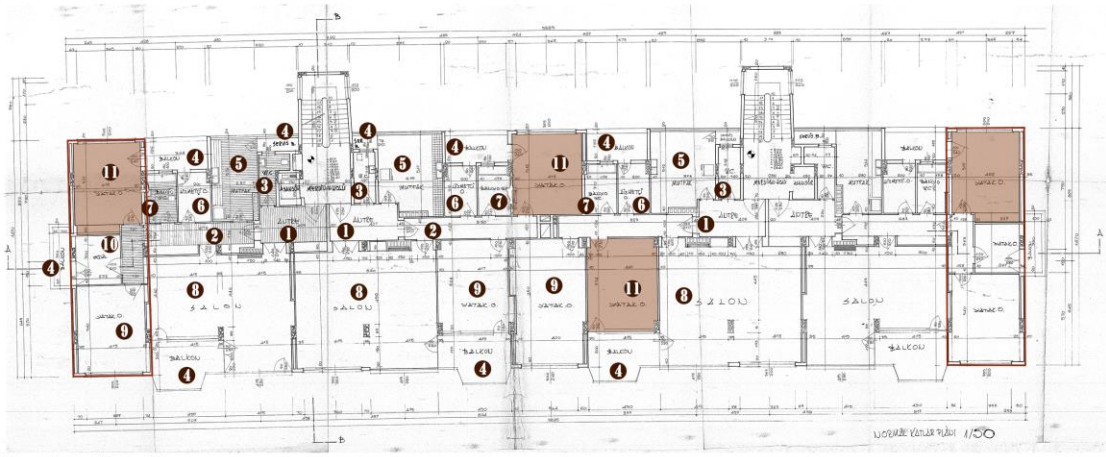
1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - Pantry
4 - Living / Dining Room
5 - Bathroom
6 - Bedroom
7 - Corridor
8 - Child's Room
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Maid Room

*Ataköy Zoning Bureau Chief

NO:43 HAYAT APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: EMIN ONAT
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, BARBAROS
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1957/64



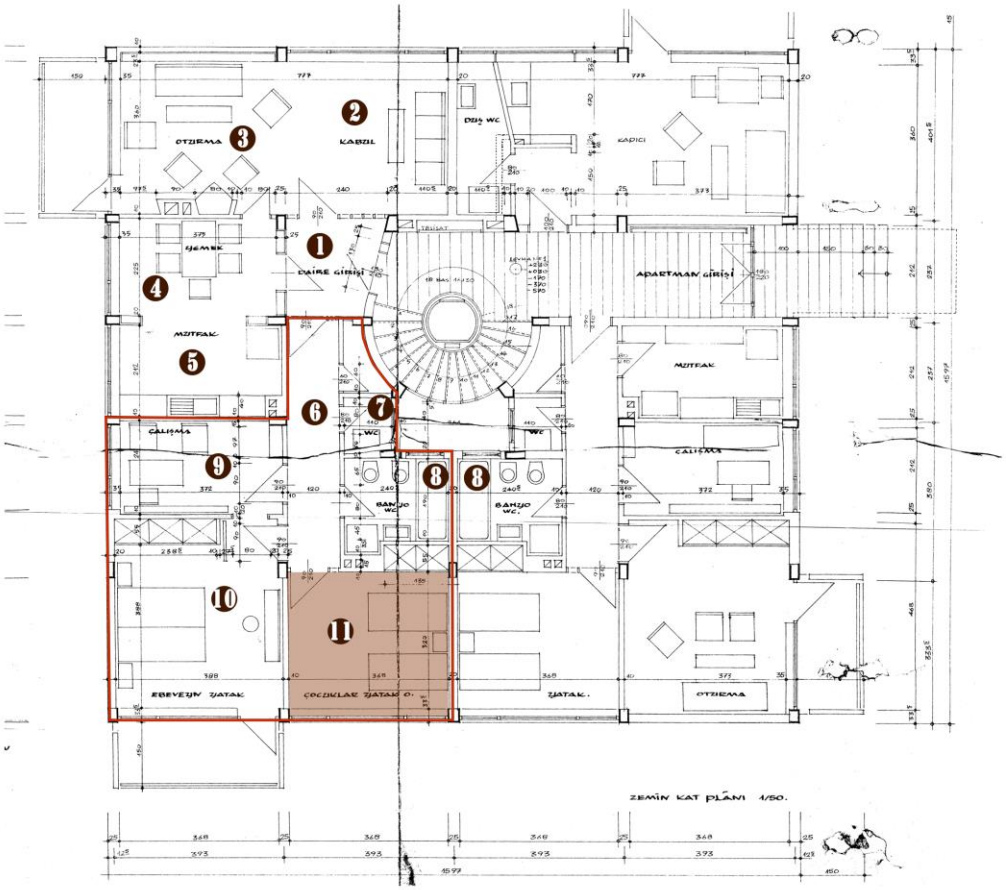
Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Corridor
3 - WC
4 - Balcony / Terrace
5 - Kitchen
6 - Maid Room
7 - Bathroom + WC
8 - Living Room
9 - Parents' Bedroom
10- Room
11 - Child's Bedroom

NO:44 PRESS RESIDENCES

ARCHITECT: VEDAT DALOKAY, NEJAT TEKELIOGLU
CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, AZIZIYE
TYPE: MASS HOUSING
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1960



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

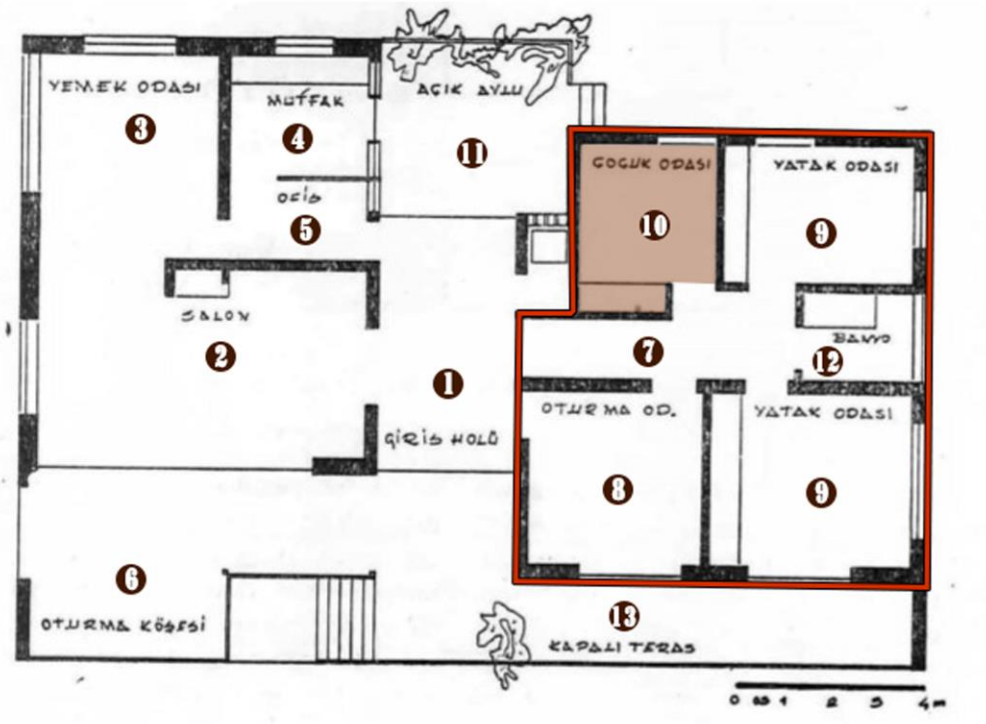
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Guest Room
3 - Living Room
4 - Dining Room
5 - Kitchen
6 - Corridor
7 - WC
8 - Bathroom
9 - Working Room
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Child's Bedroom

NO:45 A VILLA

ARCHITECT: UTARIT IZGI
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, CIFTEHAVUZLAR
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1961*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1961, 2)

Private Zone

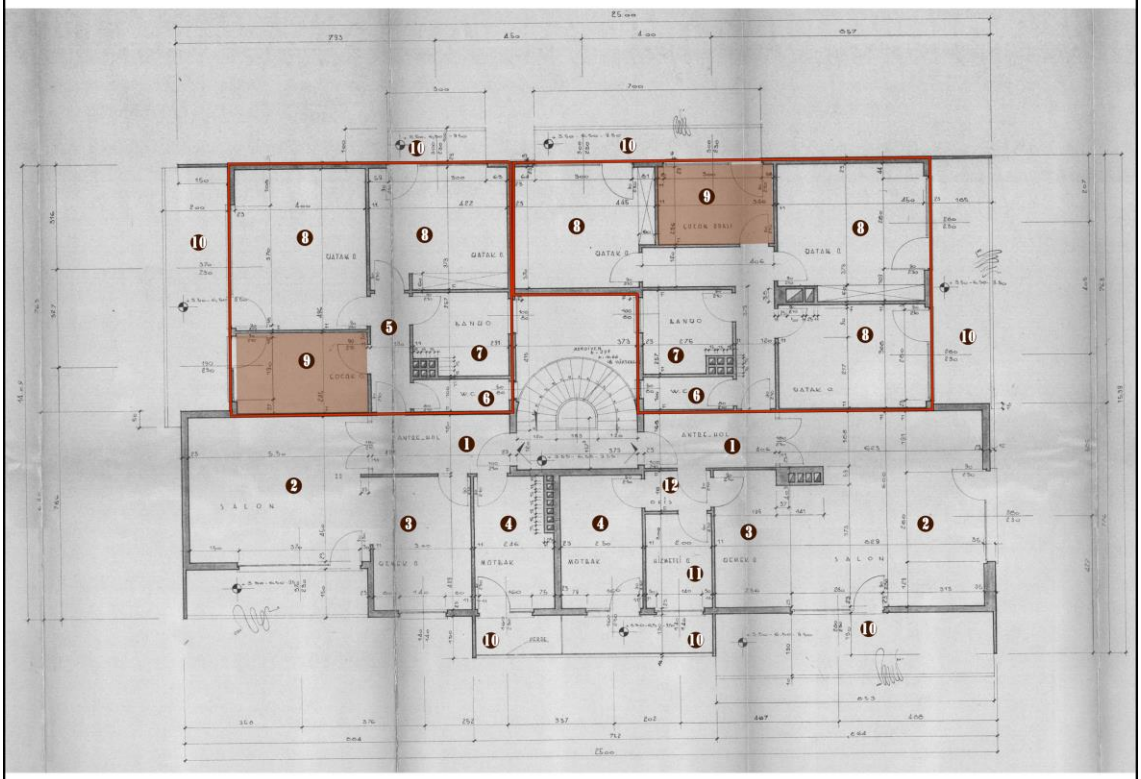
1 - Entrance
2 - Guest Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Pantry
6 - Sitting Corner
7 - Corridor
8 - Living Room
9 - Bedroom
10- Child's Bedroom
11 - Yard
12- Bathroom
13- Balcony / Terrace

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1961.

NO:46 CIHAD GOKDAG AND CO-PARTNER'S APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: Unknown
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, CANKAYA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1961/62



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

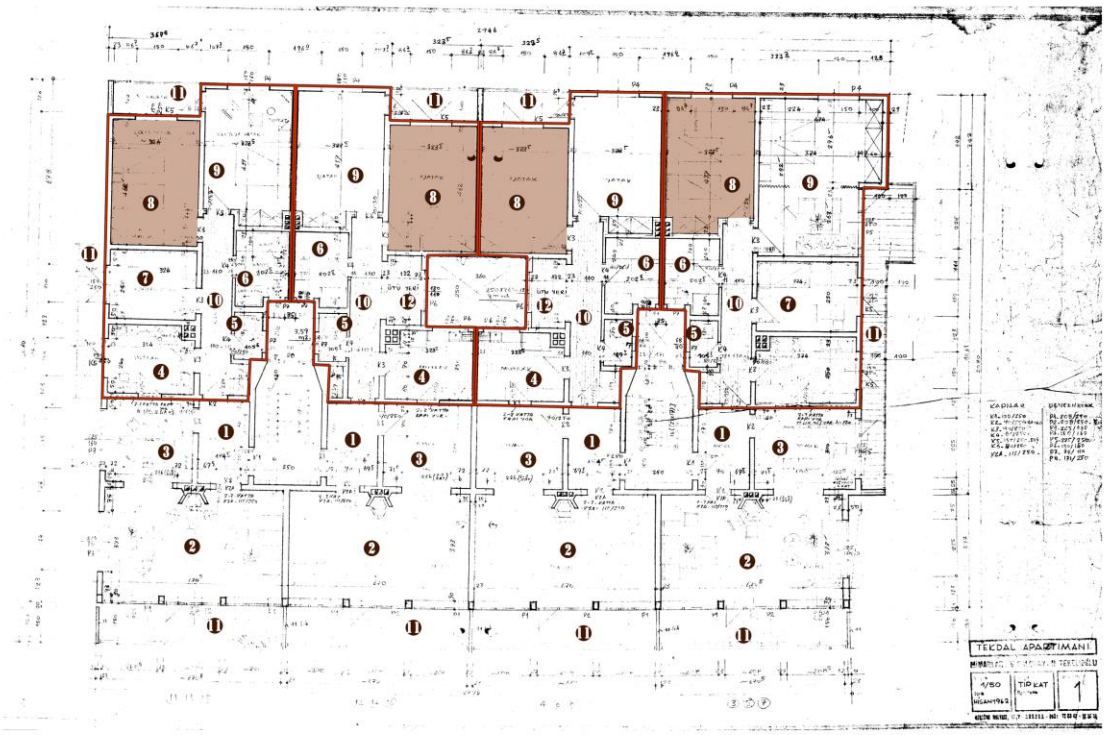
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Corridor
6 - WC
7 - Bathroom
8 - Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Balcony / Terrace
11 - Maid Room
12- Pantry

NO:47 TEKDAL APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: VEDAT DALOKAY
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, CANKAYA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1962



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

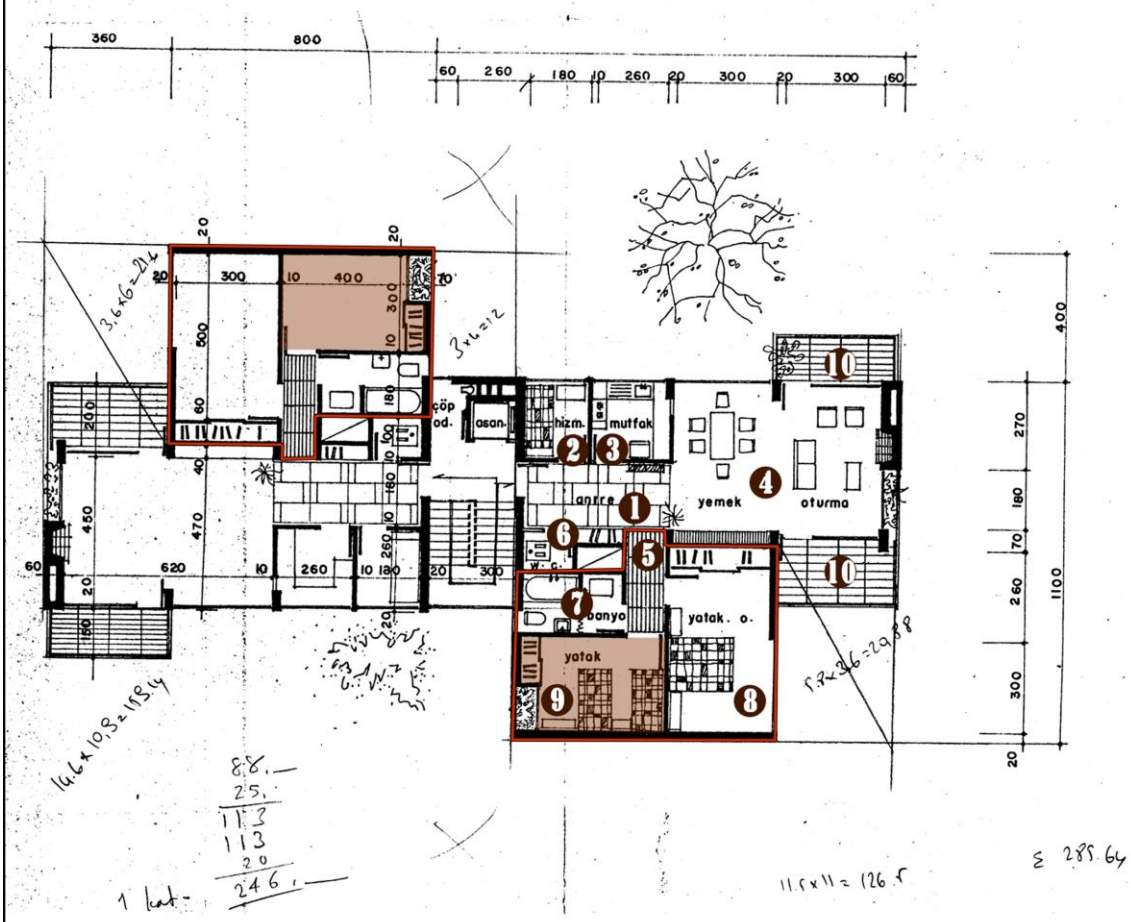
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living Room
3 - Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - WC
6 - Bathroom
7 - Maid Room
8 - Child's Bedroom
9 - Master Bedroom
10- Corridor
11 - Balcony / Terrace
12- Ironing Place

NO:48 ISBANK BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: KADRI ERKMAN
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, GUZELTEPE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1962



First Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

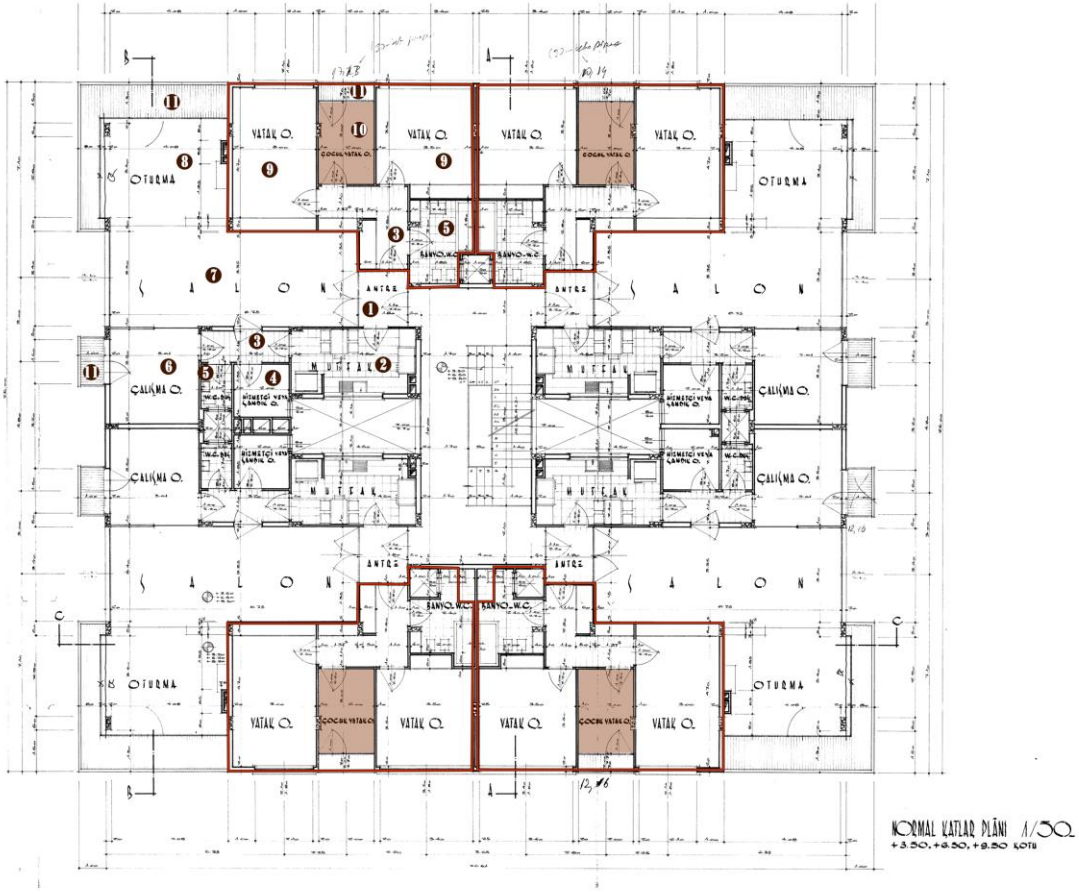
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Maid Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Living / Dining Room
5 - Corridor
6 - WC
7 - Bathroom
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10 Balcony / Terrace

NO:49 RER APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: NEJAT ERSIN
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, GUVENEVLER
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1964



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

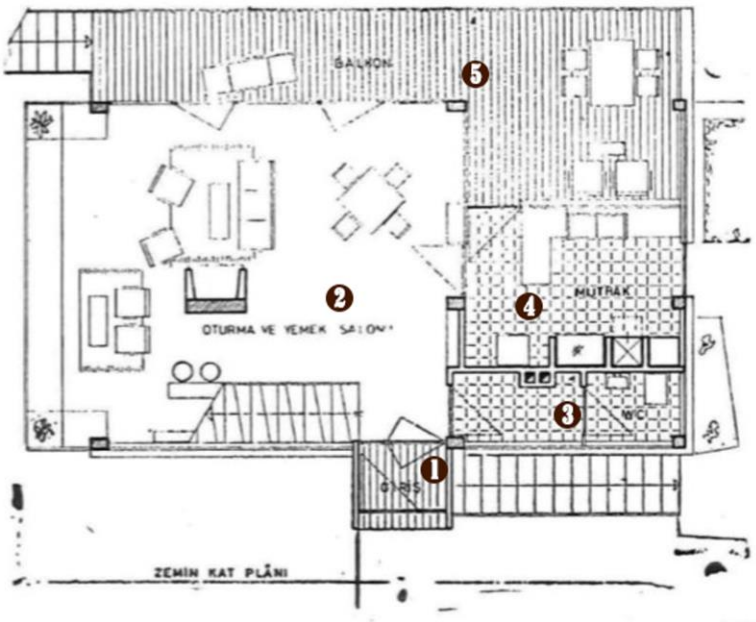
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - Corridor
4 - Maid Room / Storage Room
5 - Bathroom + WC
6 - Work Room
7 - Guest Room
8 - Living Room
9 - Parents' Bedroom
10- Child's Bedroom
11 - Balcony / Terrace

NO:50 A VILLA

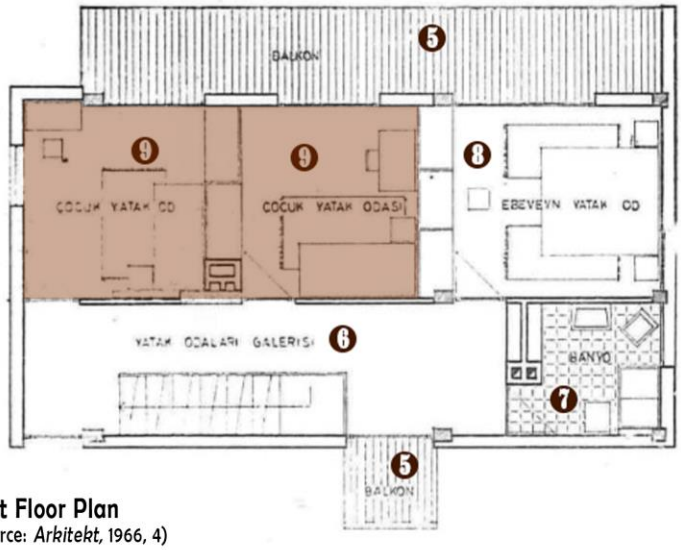
ARCHITECT: ERCUMEND BIGAT
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, ORHANTEPE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1966*



1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - WC
4 - Kitchen
5 - Balcony / Terrace
6 - Sofa / Hall
7 - Bathroom
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1966, 4)



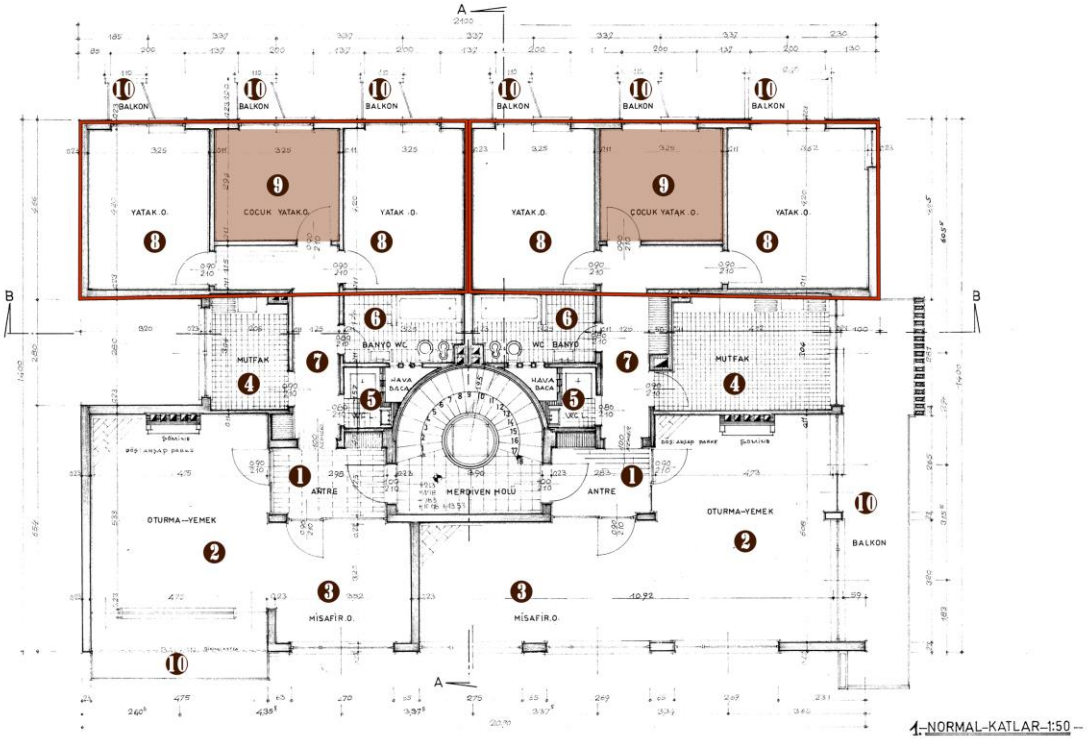
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1966, 4)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1966.

NO:51 ARZU APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: Unknown
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, KULTUR
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1967



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

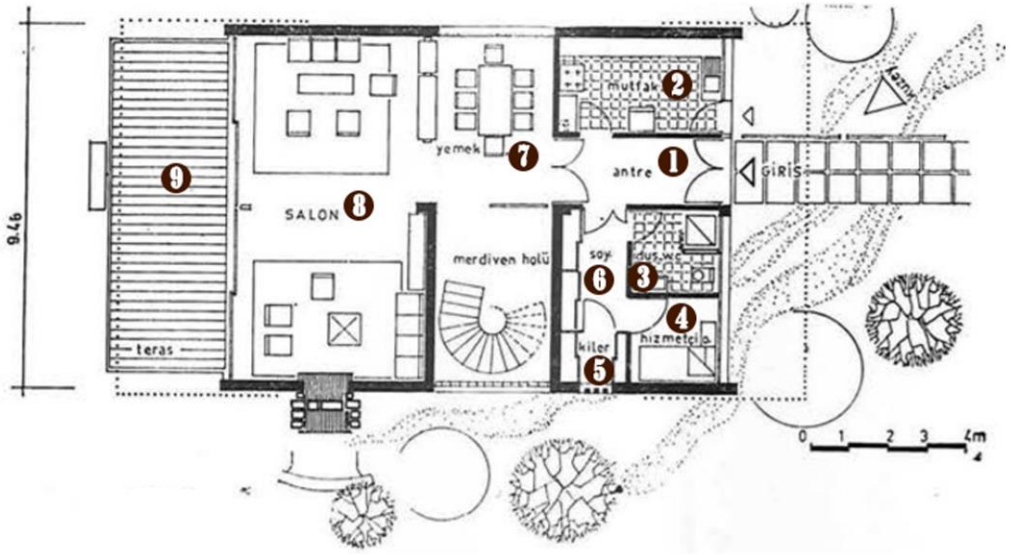
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - Guest Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - WC
6 - Bathroom
7 - Corridor
8 - Bedroom
9 - Child's Bedroom
10- Balcony / Terrace

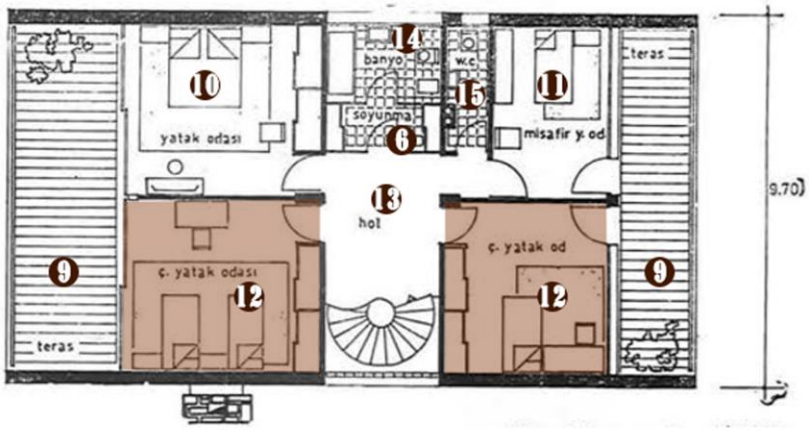
NO:52 UZUNOGLU VILLA

ARCHITECT: MUHTESEM GIRAY
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, KUCUKYALI
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1967*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)



1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - Bathroom+WC
4 - Maid Room
5 - Cellar
6 - Dressing Room
7 - Dining Room
8 - Living Room
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Guest Bedroom
12- Child's Bedroom
13- Sofa / Hall
14- Bathroom
15- WC

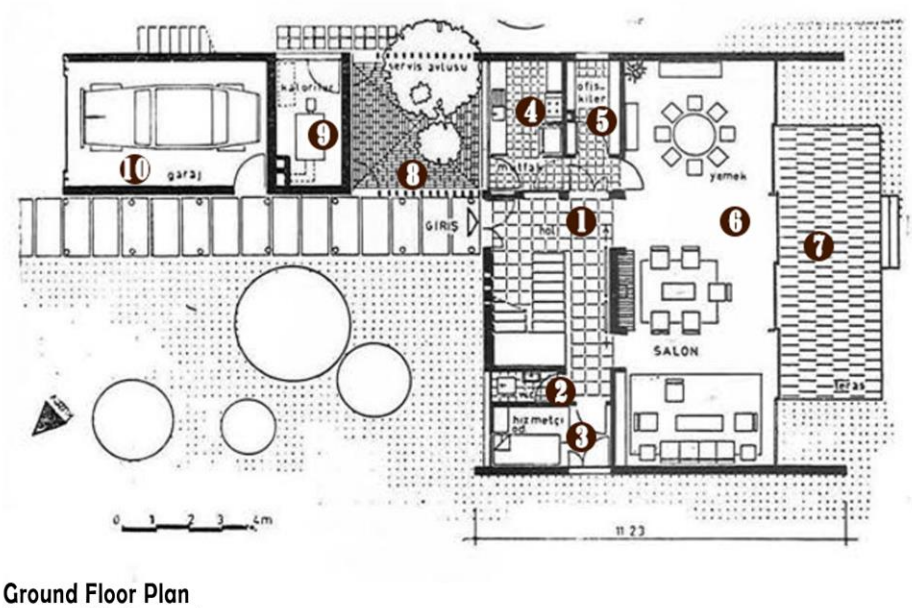
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1967.

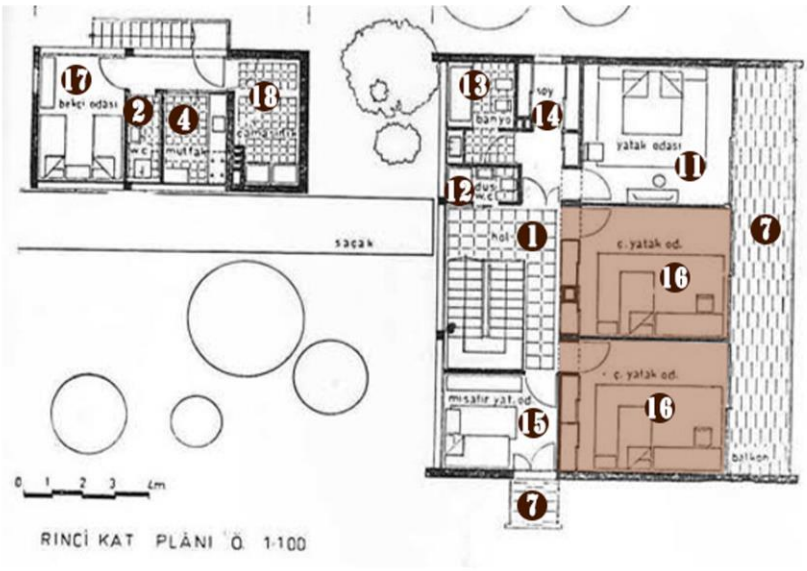
NO:53 OZGUR VILLA

ARCHITECT: MUHTESEM GIRAY
TYPE: SINGLE FAMILY HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, KUCUKYALI
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1967*



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)



1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - WC
3 - Maid Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Cellar / Pantry
6 - Living / Dining Room
7 - Balcony / Tarrace
8 - Yard
9 - Boiler Room
10- Garage
11 - Parents' Bedroom
12- Bathroom+WC
13- Master Bathroom
14- Dressing Room
15- Guest Bedroom
16- Child's Room
17- Watchman Room
18- Laundry Room

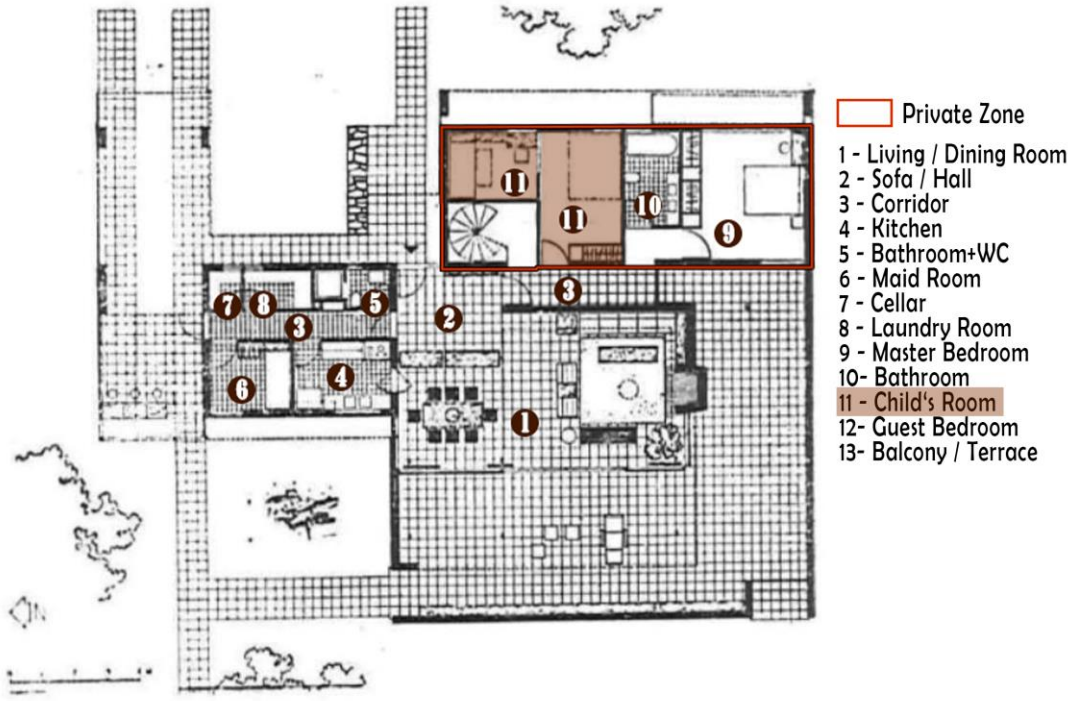
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1967.

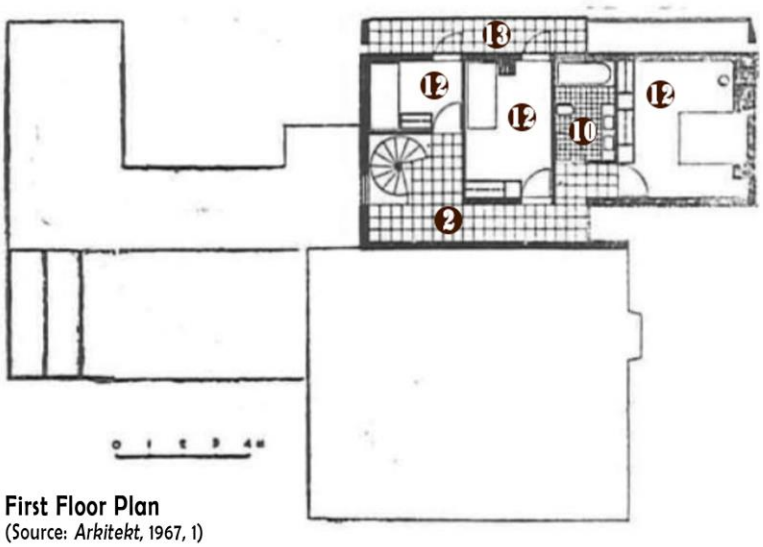
NO:54 YELKENCI VILLA

ARCHITECT: ENIS KORTAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, TUZLA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1962



Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)

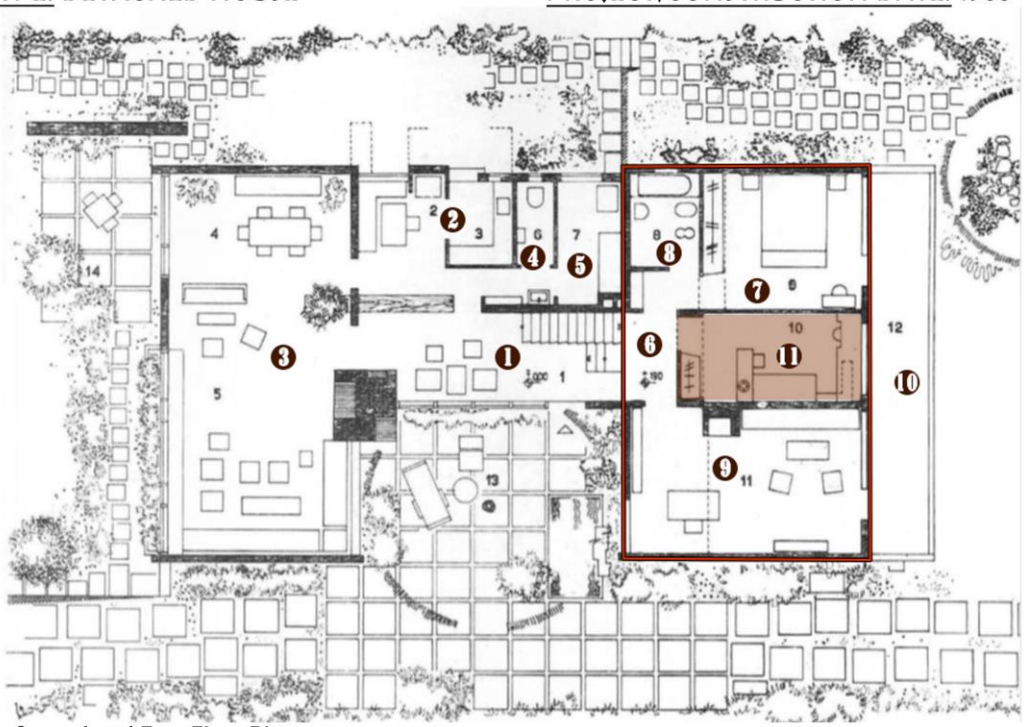


First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1967, 1)

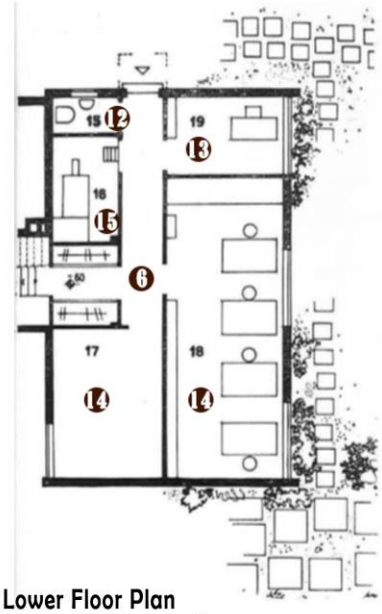
NO:55 AN ARCHITECT'S HOUSE AND ATELIER

ARCHITECT: IRFAN BAYHAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, FENERYOLU
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1968*



Ground and First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1968, 2)



Lower Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1968, 2)

Private Zone

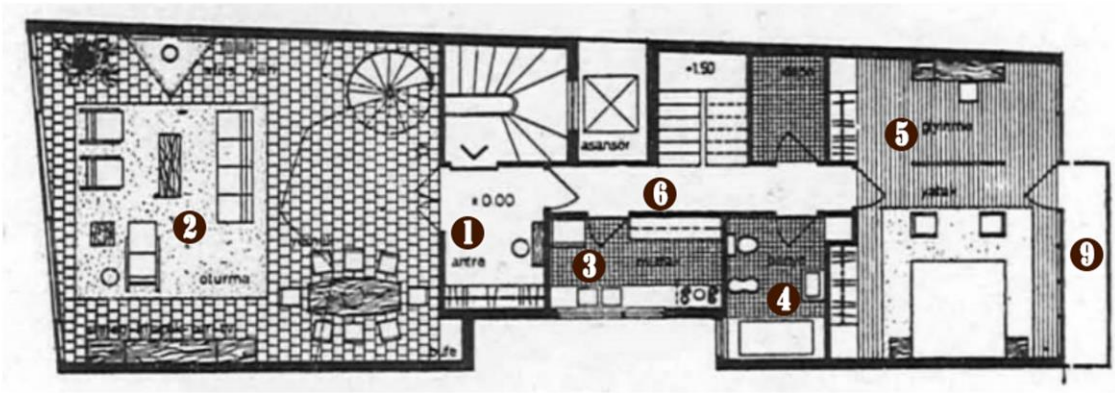
1 - Sofa / Hall
2 - Kitchen
3 - Living / Dining Room
4 - Bathroom+WC
5 - Cellar
6 - Corridor
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Bathroom
9 - Living / Work Room
10- Balcony / Terrace
11 - Child's Room
12- WC
13- Work Room
14- Atelier
15- Boiler Room

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1968.

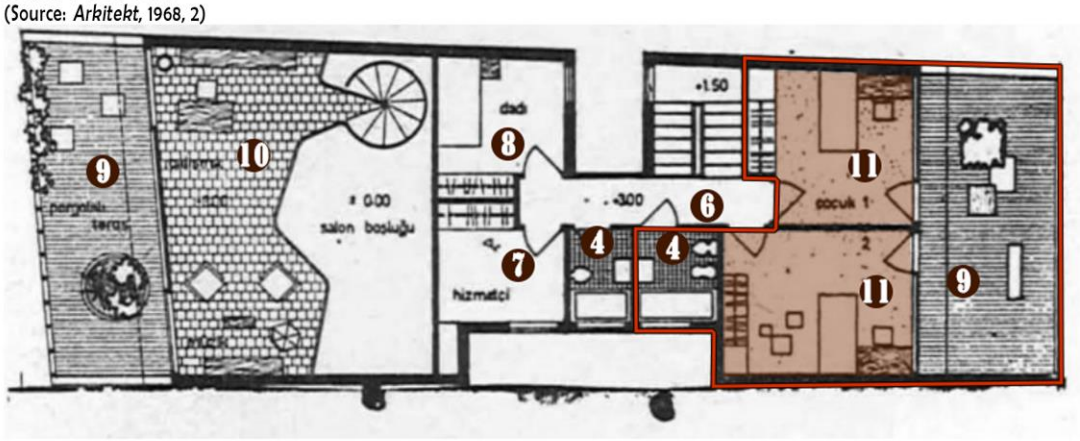
NO:56 MR. NURI APARMENT

ARCHITECT: ENIS KORTAN
TYPE: APARTMENT

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, NISANTASI
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1968*



Lower Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1968, 2)



Upper Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1968, 2)

Children's Private Zone

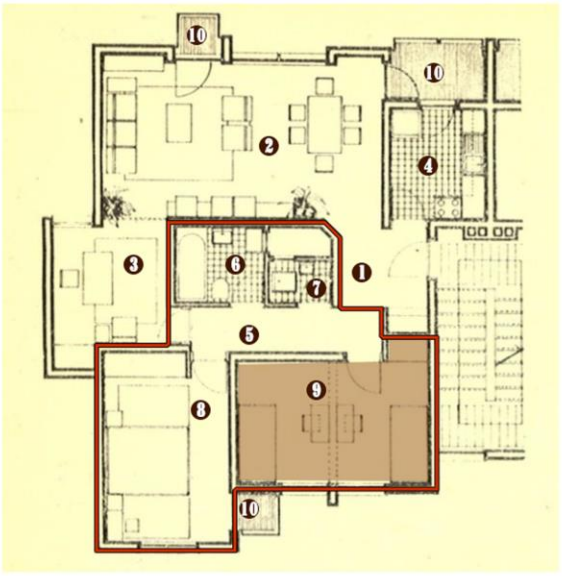
1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Bathroom
5 - Master Bedroom
6 - Corridor
7 - Maid Room
8 - Babysitter Room
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Working Room
11 - Child's Room

* The project is an arrangement of one flat. The arrangement date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1968.

NO:57 OR-AN SETTLEMENT

ARCHITECT: SEVKI VANLI
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

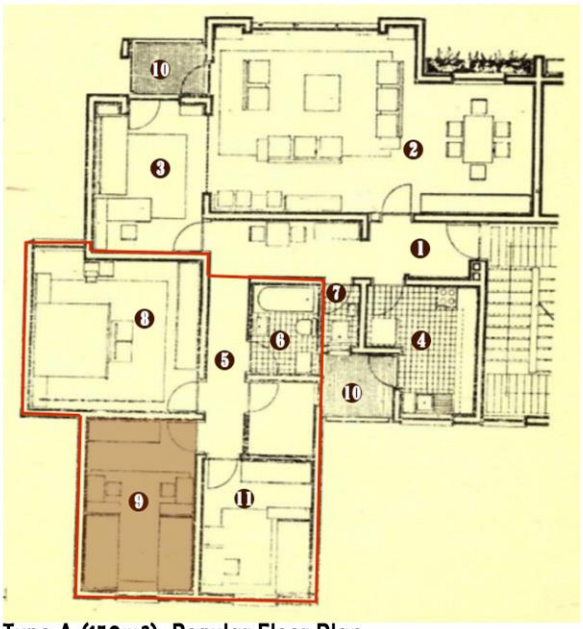
CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1970



Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - Working Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Corridor
6 - Bathroom
7 - WC
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Child's Room
10- Balcony / Terrace
11 - Bedroom

Type B (100m²), Regular Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimarlık*, 1970, 82)

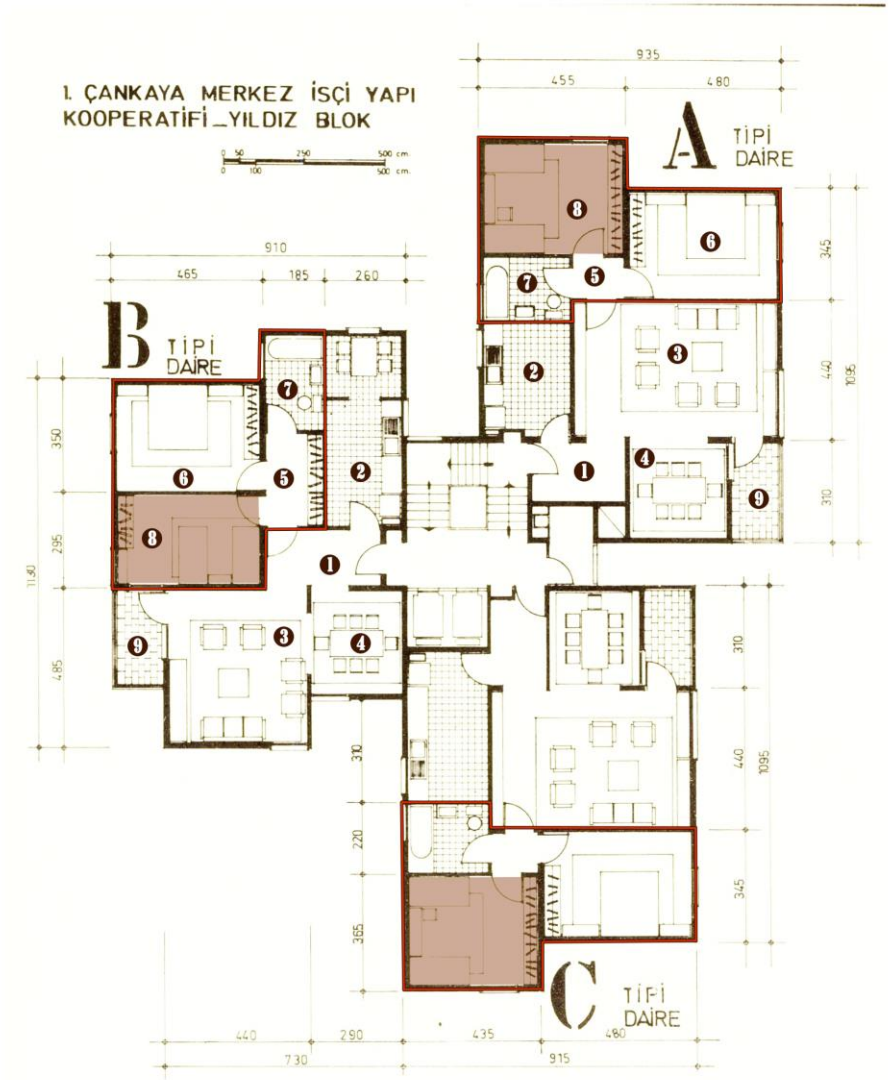


Type A (150m²), Regular Floor Plan
(Source: *Mimarlık*, 1970, 82)

NO:58 ME-SA CANKAYA RESIDENCES

ARCHITECT: UGUR EKEN, AYKUT MUTLU
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, CANKAYA
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1970



Regular Floor Plan
(Source: Koc University VEKAM Library and Archive)

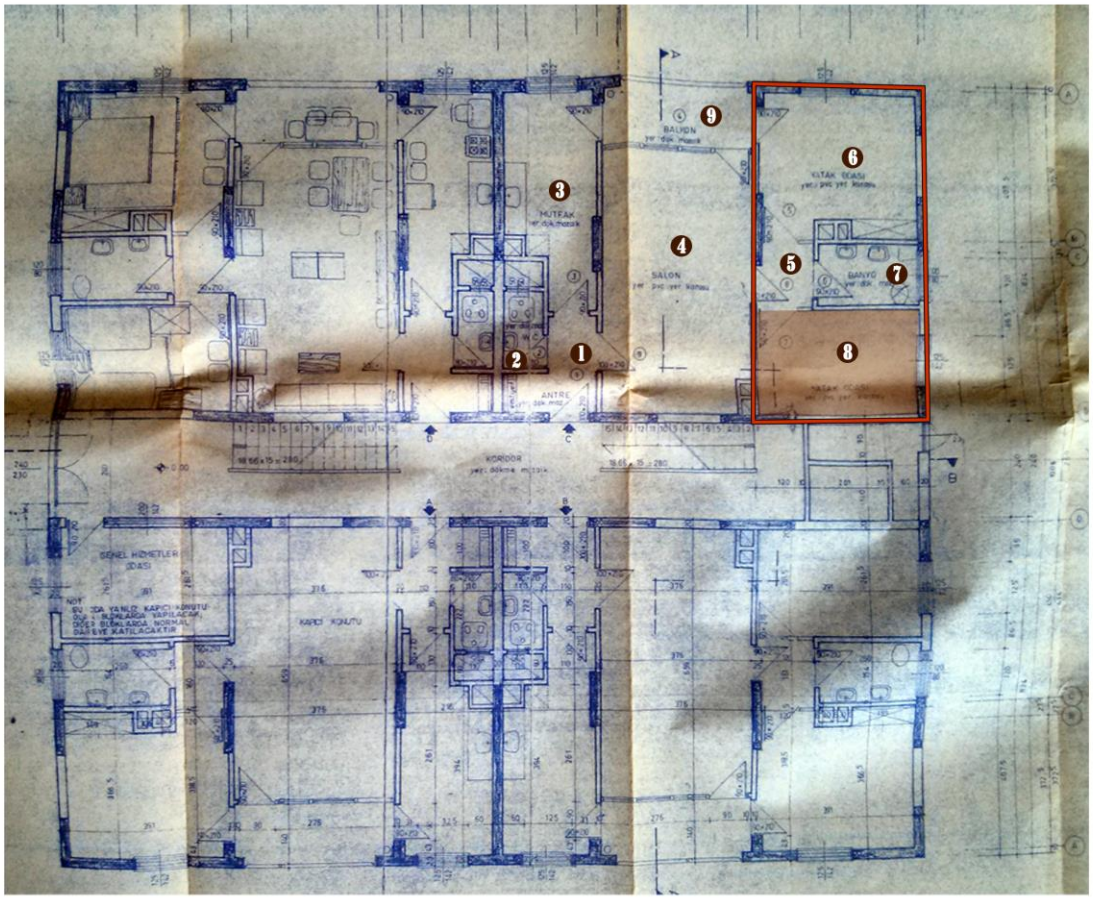
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Kitchen
3 - Living Room
4 - Dining Room
5 - Corridor
6 - Master Bedroom
7 - Bathroom
8 - Child's Room
9- Balcony / Terrace

NO:59 WORKER BLOCKS

ARCHITECT: MTM Architecture
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ANKARA, YUZUNCU YIL
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1970



Star Blocks Floor Plan
(Source: Köse, 2013)

Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Kitchen
4 - Living Room
5 - Corridor
6 - Master Bedroom
7 - Bathroom
8 - Child's Room
9- Balcony / Terrace

NO:60

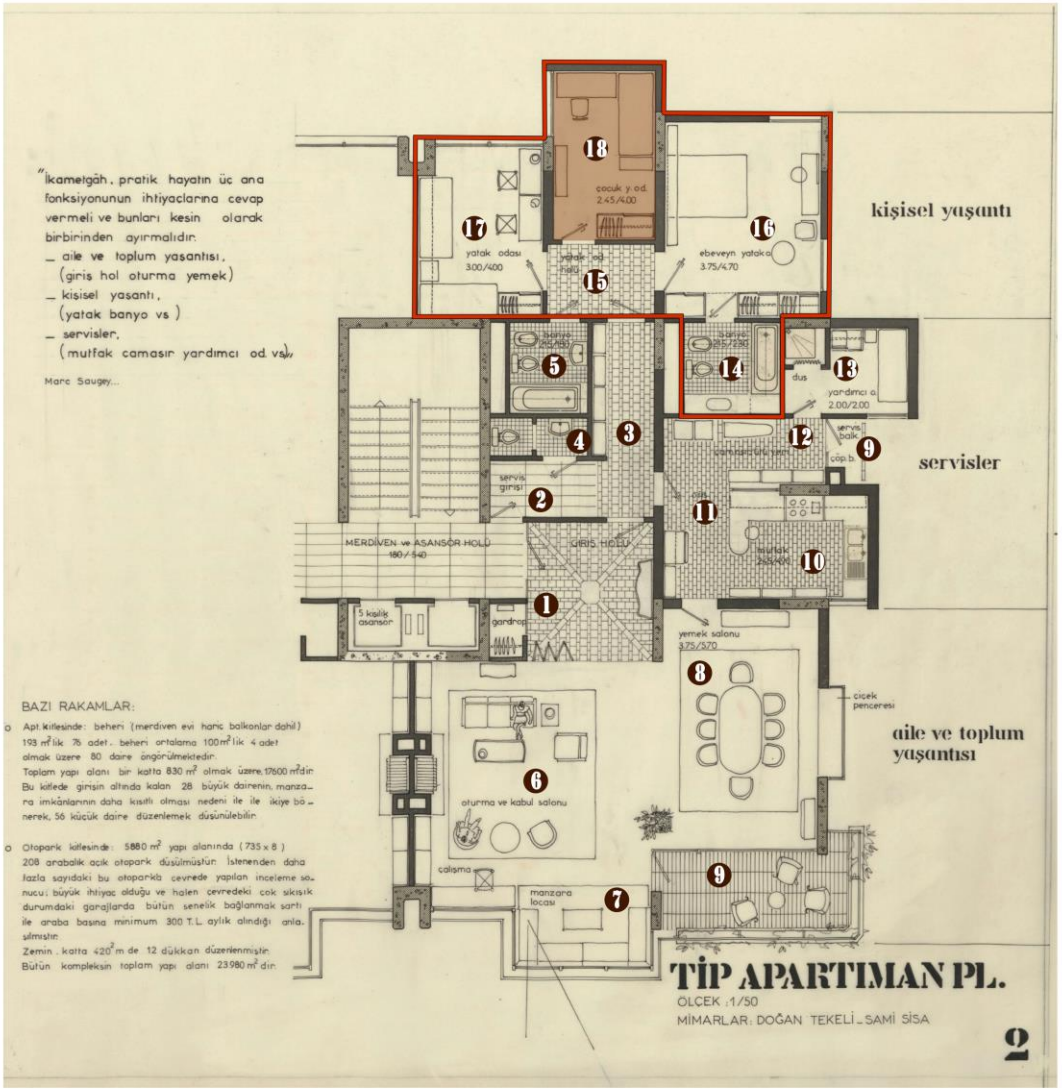
YAPI KREDI BANK MEMBERSHIP SOLIDARITY AND RETIREMENT FUND FOUNDATION APARTMENT

ARCHITECT: DOGAN TEKELI, SAMI SISA

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, NISANTASI

TYPE: MASS HOUSING

PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1972/74



Type Apartment Plan
(Source: SALT Research, Doğan Tekeli-Sami Sisa Archive)

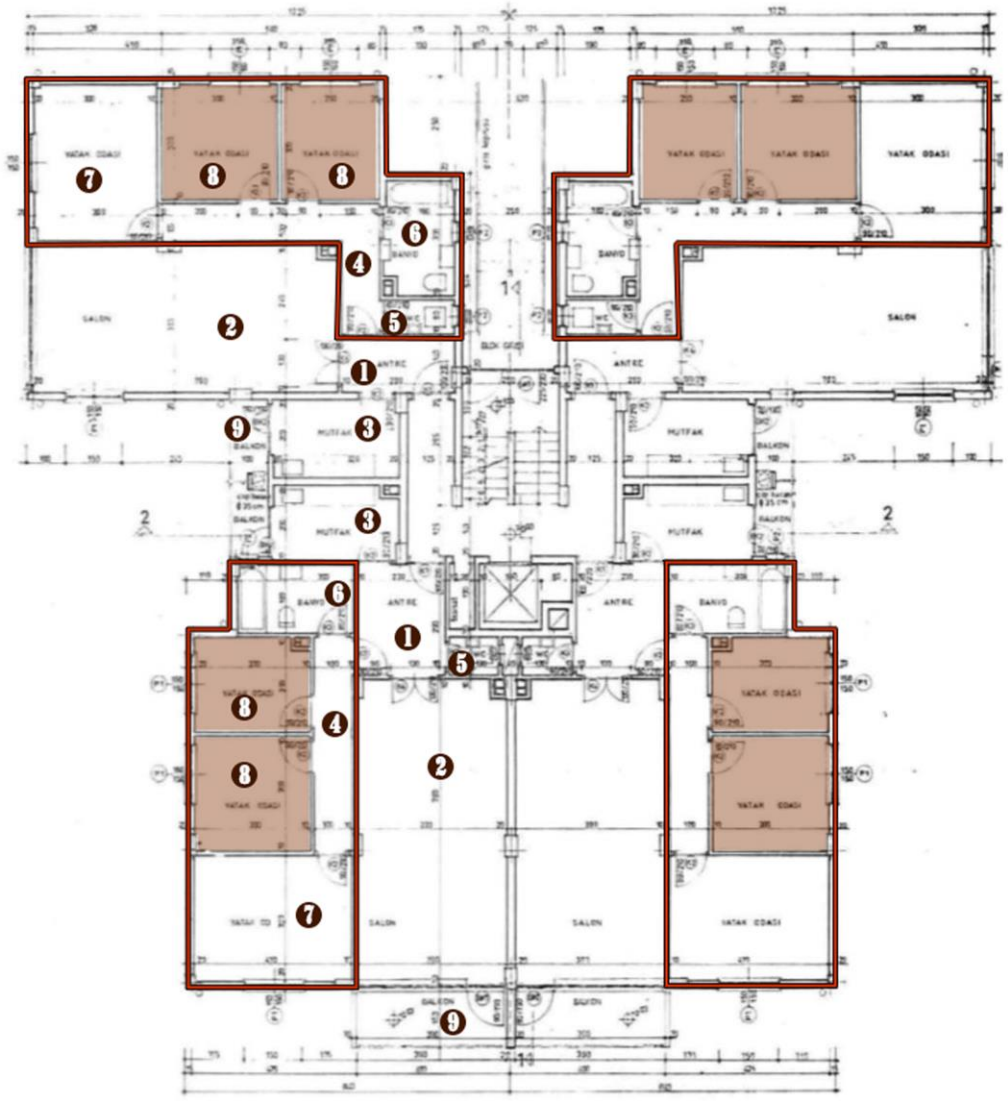
Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Service Entrance
3 - Corridor
4 - WC
5 - Bathroom
6 - Living / Guest Room
7 - Landscape Corner
8 - Dining Room
9 - Balcony / Terrace
10- Kitchen
11 - Pantry
12- Laundry / Ironing
13- Maid Room+Bathroom
14- Master Bathroom
15- Sofa / Hall
16- Master Bedroom
17- Bedroom
18- Child's Bedroom

NO:61 TURKSAN RESIDENCES

ARCHITECT: KOKSAL ANADOL
TYPE: MASS HOUSING

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, ETILER
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1972



Type A, Regular Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1973, 1)

Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living Room
3 - Kitchen
4 - Corridor
5 - WC
6 - Bathroom
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Child's Bedroom
9- Balcony / Terrace

NO:62 A VILLA

ARCHITECT: EMIN NECIP UZMAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

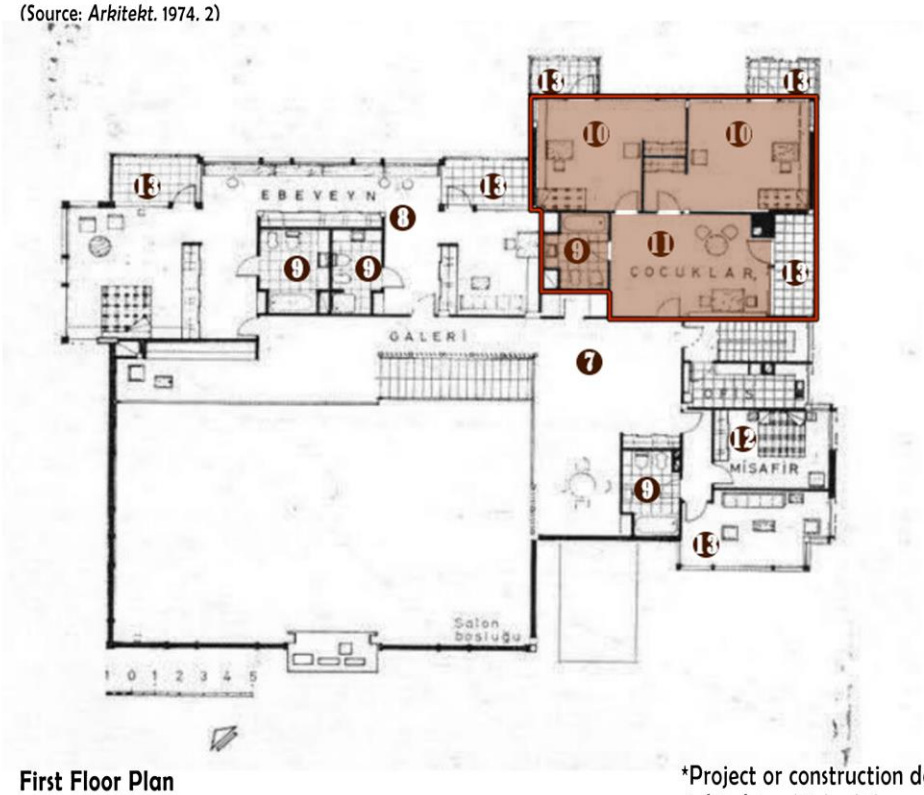
CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, YENIKOY
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1974*



Children's Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Living / Dining Room
3 - Breakfast Corner
4 - Kitchen
5 - Working Room
6 - Guest Room
7 - Sofa / Hall
8 - Master Bedroom
9 - Bathroom
10- Child's Room
11 - Children Living Area
12- Guest Bedroom
13- Balcony / Terrace

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*. 1974. 2)



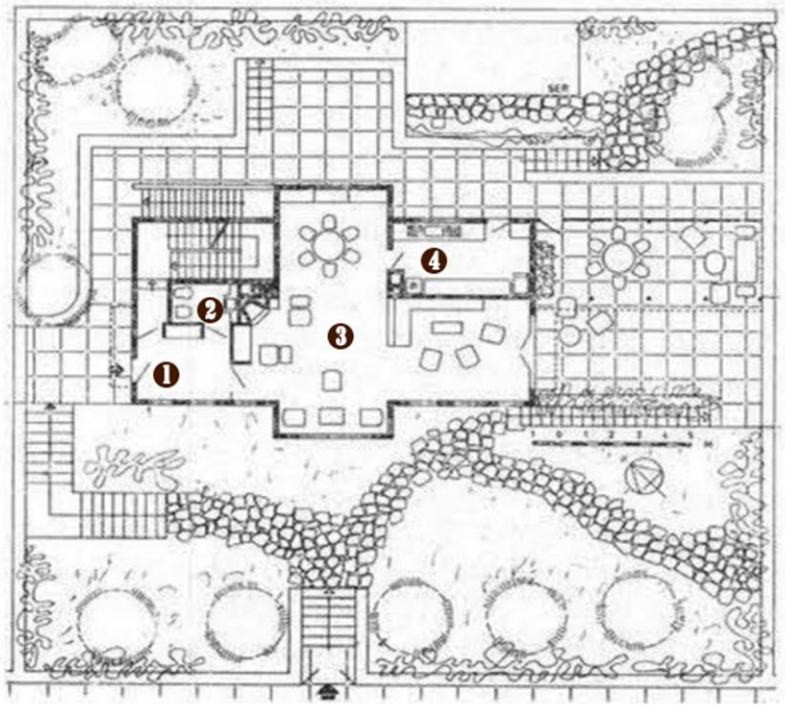
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1974, 2)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1974.

NO:63 A VILLA

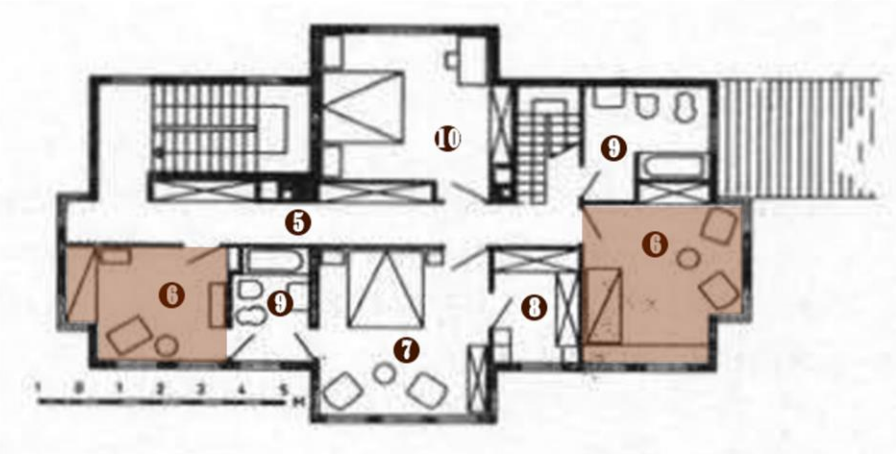
ARCHITECT: EMIN NECIP UZMAN
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL, ORHANTEPE
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1980*



1 - Entrance
2 - WC
3 - Living / Dining Room
4 - Kitchen
5 - Corridor
6 - Child's Bedroom
7 - Master Bedroom
8 - Dressing Room
9 - Bathroom
10- Guest Bedroom

Ground Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1980, 3)



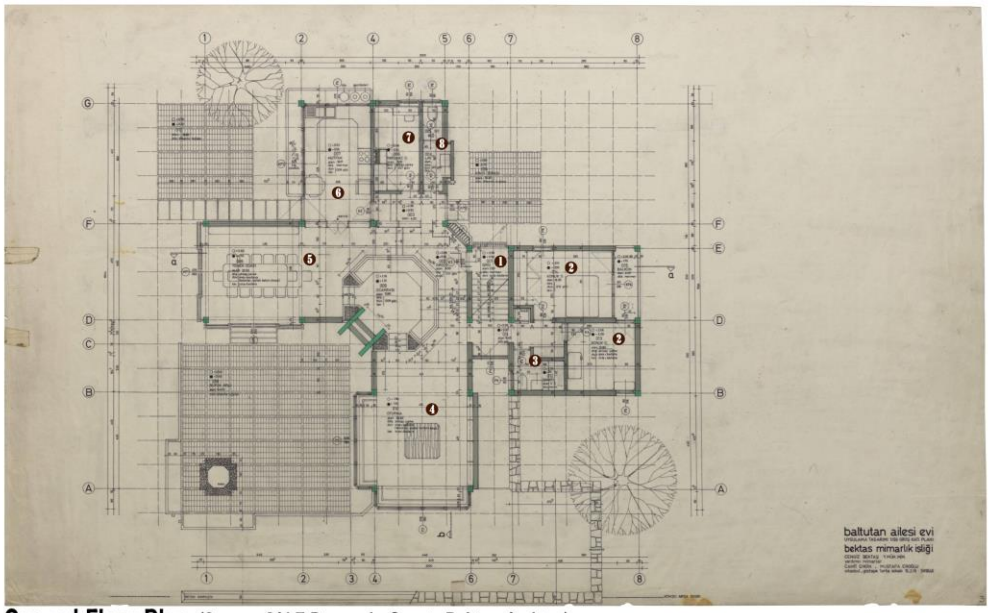
First Floor Plan
(Source: *Arkitekt*, 1980, 3)

*Project or construction date is not available. *Arkitekt* published the project in 1980.

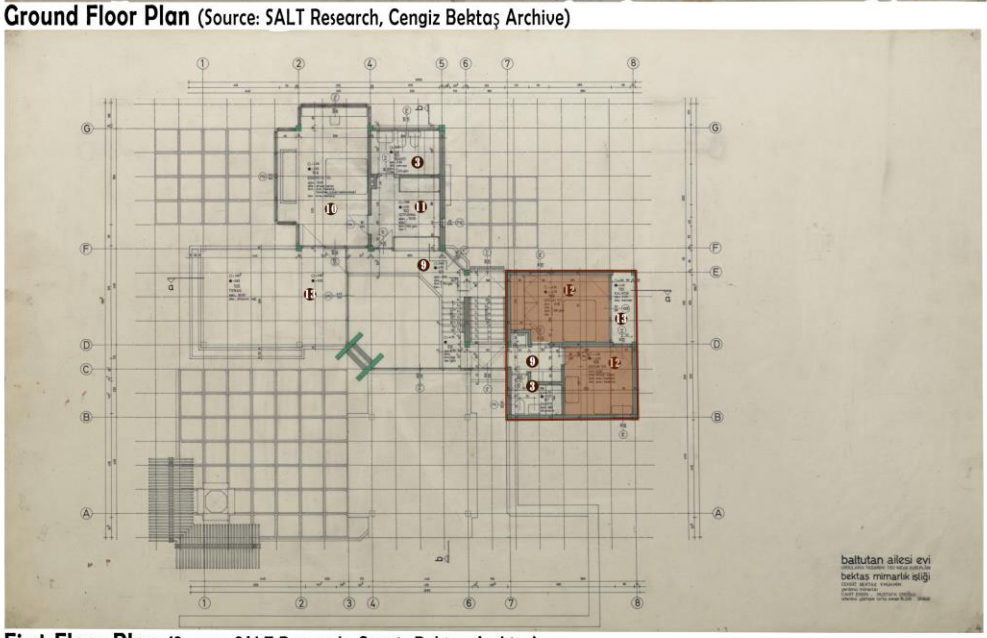
NO:64 BALTUTAN HOUSE

ARCHITECT: CENGIZ BEKTAS
TYPE: DETACHED HOUSE

CITY, DISTRICT: ISTANBUL
PROJECT/CONSTRUCTION DATE: 1980



Ground Floor Plan (Source: SALT Research, Cengiz Bektaş Archive)



First Floor Plan (Source: SALT Research, Cengiz Bektaş Archive)

Children's Private Zone

1 - Entrance
2 - Guest Bedroom
3 - Bathroom
4 - Living Room
5 - Dining Room
6 - Kitchen
7 - Maid Room
8 - WC
9 - Corridor
10- Master Bedroom
11 - Dressing Room
12- Child's Bedroom
13- Balcony / Terrace

CURRICULUM VITAE

2012 – 2019 B.Sc., Architecture, Anadolu University, Eskisehir, TURKEY

2020 – Present M.Sc., Architecture, Abdullah Gul University, Kayseri, TURKEY

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

C1) Sezen, Ö.S. (2021). Alteration of house in Turkey under the construction of modern family and childhood. In Aydın, Ö., Özyavuz, A., Sancar Özyavuz, K., Topaloğlu, G. (Eds.) *Other Archict/ure(s): Livenarch VII International Congress 2021 Proceedings Volume I* (pp. 303-316).