



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

2020-1-TR01-KA205-0911140

RURALPEDIA

**The Encyclopedia
for Understanding Rural Items**

**Empowering Rural Tourism through Entrepreneurship
with Youth**

ProEduca



"Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein"



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

EDITORS

Prof. Yaşar SARI

Prof. Agnieszka JASZCZAK

Katarina KRISTIANOVA

Lucie BRZAKOVA

Assoc. prof. dr. Rasa PRANSKUNIENE

Tuğba BAYDAR

Assoc. Prof. Viera Joklova

ASSISTANT EDITORS

Cemile ECE

Efnan EZENEL

Elif ŞENEL

Dr Joanna SZCZEPKOWSKA-ZIELIŃSKA

Kateřina Drlíková

Research Asst. Yasin Emre OĞUZ



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

AUTHORS

Alaattin Murat Yangın
Assist. Prof. Dr. Cennet OZAY
Asst. Prof. Dr. Birgül AYDIN
Başak Demiray
Begüm İLBAY
Dorota Dąbrowska
Doruk Akyazı
Elif Şenel
Ewelina Pochodyła
Gizem ŞAHİN
Ján Illéš
Joanna Magdalena Bukowska
Juraj Illéš
Kinga Hapka
Kreta Karpinaite
Kristina Dapkute
Marzhan KAZHMANOVA
Mustafa Çağatay Kızıldaş
Nina Jančová
Przemysław Piech
Selin Kama
Sezer Yersüren
Zehra Saltık



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

CONTENT

Tourism

Rural Tourism

Rural Tourist

Destination

Hospitality

Ecotourism

Water Tourism

Green Tourism

Responsible Tourism

Volunteer Tourism

Landscape

Rural landscape

Rural architecture

Architectural detail

Rural public spaces

Waterscape

Greenscape

Rural soundscape

Farmscape

Social rural space

Productive fields



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

CONTENT

Social Inclusion

Individuals with Special Needs

Equal Participation

Universal Design

Inclusive Tourism

Inclusion

Gender Equality

Community Access

Rights Based Approach

Social Protection

Inclusive Society

Ecology

Food and energy self-sufficiency

Food Forest

Permaculture

Biodiversity

Energy Flow in the Ecosystem

Sustainable Lifestyle

Agro Tourism

Sustainability

Components of sustainability

Globalization

Climate change

Locality/locals

Ecolabelling



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

CONTENT

Green Key

Overtourism

Sustainable Tourism

Heritage

Cultural heritage

Cultural landscape heritage

Socio-cultural infrastructure

Historical landscape structures

Natural heritage

Intangible heritage

Tangible heritage

Traditional rural crafts

Heritage_ Interpretation



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

TOURISM

"The real voyage of discovery consists not in seeking new landscapes, but in having new eyes." - Marcel Proust





Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Tourism

Author
Gizem ŞAHİN

is one of the most significant concepts in tourism literature and which has become progressively popular in the tourism sector. Tourists who would like to relax, be active, and experience different things along during their holidays are in search of different and unique types of tourism. However, rural areas struggling with poverty want to stimulate their local economies. Rural tourism supports both aspects (Ayazlar & Arslan Ayazlar, 2015: 181). The definitions used in the literature have conceptually brought experience and interaction to the fore. The concept denotes an apparent rural public with its traditions, heritage, arts, lifestyles, places, and values that have been protected for generations. While tourists visit the areas for learning about the culture and learn about folklore, traditions, natural places, and historical sites, they can also engage in different activities in a rural setting such as nature, adventure, sports, festivals, crafts, and general sightseeing (MacDonald & Jolliffe, 2003: 308). In addition, farmers and representatives of farmers or agricultural concerns may be involved in an area that represents an economic or utilitarian point of view depending on structural changes and the results of viability for farm-based economies. The tourist perspective, otherwise, is traditionally associated with a romantic and nostalgic exterior that focuses on visual qualities seen from afar. Rural tourism could be considered as an area where the point is perceptions are negotiated among farmers and tourists (Daugstad, 2008: 404).

Daily visitors, short vacationers, families, the elderly, people with special interests, education and other groups and the disabled constitute the market segments of rural tourism (EC, 1999: 17). Since it is a type of tourism where the importance of experience is at the forefront, it can be said that tourists who want to experience show interest. In addition, it is an important quality that can appeal to every different group. However, most types of rural holidays do not depend on the state of the farms. It can be used for accommodation purposes with hotels and motels, small town and village hostels, special-purpose hostels, camping and caravan sites (Lane, 1994: 18). It provides the opportunity to host different tourist groups in different areas.

References

- Ayazlar, G., & Arslan Ayazlar, R. (2015). Rural Tourism: A Conceptual Approach. C. AVCIKURT, M. DINU, N. HACIOĞLU, R. EFE, & A. SOYKAN (Ed.) içinde, Tourism, Environment and Sustainability. Sofia: ST. KLIMENT OHRIDSKI UNIVERSITY PRESS.
- Daugstad, K. (2008). Negotiating landscape in rural tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 402-426. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2007.10.001.
- EC. (1999). Towards quality rural tourism: Integrated Quality Management (IQM) of rural tourist destinations. Brussels: European Commission.
- Lane, B. (1994). What is rural tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2(1-2), 7-21. doi:10.1080/09669589409510680
- MacDonald, R., & Jolliffe, L. (2003). Cultural rural tourism: Evidence from Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(2), 307-322. doi:10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00061-0.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Tourist

Author
Asst. Prof. Dr. Birgül
AYDIN

is a type of tourist who spends time intertwined with agricultural, local and natural values and prefers rural tourism areas. Rural tourists are people who are interested in agricultural activities and seek holiday experiences that allow them to explore and learn. These tourists are more likely to attend outdoor activities and visit new nature-themed attractions. Rural tourists aim to carry out tourism activities that include nature, environment and local culture. However, gaining experience of local habits, attitudes, behaviors and relationships are the main expectations of the rural tourist. (Yağcı, 2003). The factors that push individuals towards rural tourism are generally staying alone with nature, feeling of space and freedom, seeking peace, experiencing nature, authenticity, and alienation from tradition and routine (Sharpley&Sharpley, 1997; Molera&Albaladejo, 2007). Tourists can be relatively passive in rural areas and often engage in informal and unplanned activities (Sharpley, 2002). They are mostly in the motives of relaxation and rest. Tourists carry out activities such as hiking tours, cycling, climbing, fishing and horse riding in rural areas. They prefer places such as camps, village houses, farms and hotels as accommodation types. Rural tourists are divided into four groups depending on their travel motivation. These are: (a) active people seeking active recreation such as long walks, cycling and horseback riding; (b) those who seek relaxation and show less interest in activities; (c) observers who value the outside, desire to relax and enjoy driving in the countryside, short walks, picnics and nature work; and (d) rural people who want to add a rural dimension to their vacations (Frochot, 2005)

References

- Sharpley, R., & Sharpley, J. (1997). Rural tourism. An introduction (pp. 1-165). International Thomson Business Press.
- Yağcı, Ö. (2003). Diversification, sustainability in tourism and rural tourism. In Alternative Tourism Potential and Current Problems of Turkey Symposium (pp. 3-4).
- Sharpley, R. (2002). Rural tourism and the challenge of tourism diversification: the case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 23(3), 233-244.
- Frochot, I. (2005). A benefit segmentation of tourists in rural areas: a Scottish perspective. *Tourism Management*, 26(3), 335-346.
- Molera, L., & Albaladejo, I. P. (2007). Profiling segments of tourists in rural areas of South-Eastern Spain. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 757-767.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Destination

Author
Asst. Prof. Dr. Birgül
AYDIN

is a complex concept that includes many components and is related to various fields and sectors. Destinations are perceived as a system that includes various components such as accommodation, transportation, and other services and infrastructure (Tinsley & Lynch, 2001). The destination is a complex concept by its nature; The continents, states, provinces, municipalities, and other administrative units, which are a range of spatial scales in tourism, deal with tourism centers and tourist products (Framke, 2002). In addition, it is seen as action units where the experiences of different stakeholders such as businesses, public institutions, local people and tourists are formed and interacted. In terms of strategic marketing planning and brand management, it is important to better define the nature of a tourism destination and create the right preconditions for successful destination marketing. At this point, it is important to understand the term destination in order to build local geography or geographies and to support the cooperation between stakeholders in the same geography (Saraniemi&Kylänen, 2011). Additionally, it is possible to say that it is explained in line with the changes. The geographical approach defines the tourism destination as a socially constructed “region” and provides the basis for its analysis in this context (Saarinen, 2004). In addition, the geographic approach focuses on a geographic location that contains a mix of attractions and supplies that meet tourist demand. Traditionally, destinations are defined as countries, islands or towns where the needs of tourists who offer tourists attractions and experiences are met (Barnes et al., 2014).

References

- Barnes, S. J., Mattsson, J., & Sørensen, F. (2014). Destination brand experience and visitor behavior: Testing a scale in the tourism context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 48, 121-139.
- Framke, W. (2002). The destination as a concept: A discussion of the business-related perspective versus the socio-cultural approach in tourism theory. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 2(2), 92-108.
- Saarinen, J. (2004). 'Destinations in change' The transformation process of tourist destinations. *Tourist Studies*, 4(2), 161-179.
- Saraniemi, S., & Kylänen, M. (2011). Problematizing the concept of tourism destination: An analysis of different theoretical approaches. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(2), 133-143.
- Tinsley, R., & Lynch, P. (2001). Small tourism business net Works and destination development. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20(4), 367-378.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Hospitality

Author

Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

Hospitality is the relationship between a guest and a host, wherein the host receives the guest with some amount of goodwill, including the reception and entertainment of guests, visitors, or strangers. Louis, chevalier de Jaucourt describes hospitality in the Encyclopédie as the virtue of a great soul that cares for the whole universe through the ties of humanity (Jaucourt, 2013).

Hospitality is an important part of most cultures. For example, caravanserais, khans, and public baths have been built on the roads for strangers, passengers and guests in Turkish culture (Toprak, 2019). The term "hospitality" comes from the Latin word "hospes," which means "host." Hospitality is essentially the relationship between a host and a guest. While this can occur in a variety of scenarios, it's often used by businesses to provide customers and clients with better services. One of the most challenging elements of hospitality is that it is simultaneously personal and universal (Asal, 2017). With the commercialization of hospitality, it started to include industrial elements as well. The sector in which the aforementioned industrial elements are predominantly reflected is tourism (Medlik, 2003). Tourism and hospitality include attractions management, convention planning, customer service, event planning, food service, gaming, lodging, marketing, sales and travel. In the field of hospitality management, customer satisfaction is key, and the primary goal is to ensure the best customer experience possible. Hospitality is one of the most resilient, adaptable and dynamic industries on the planet. It is an industry of constant change, where technology and innovation are being integrated to improve the guest experience (Skokic and Morrison, 2011).

References

- Asal, U.Y. (2017). Ticari bir kavram olarak misafirperverlik: Girişimcilik ekseninde yeniden yapılanma. İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi Girişimcilik Dergisi, 1(1), 73-90.
- Jaucourt, Louis, chevalier de. "Hospitality". The Encyclopedia of Diderot & d'Alembert Collaborative Translation Project. Translated by Sophie Bourgault. Ann Arbor: Michigan Publishing, University of Michigan Library, 2013.
- Medlik, S. (2003). Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Skokic, V., ve Morrison, A., (2011) "Tourism and hospitality entrepreneurship, social setting and research methodology: moving 'into the beyond' In: Contemporary Trends in Tourism and Hospitality Research, 1-20.
- Toprak, A. (2019). Türk Kültüründe misafirperverlik ve Sofra Açmak / Sofra Çekmek (Samsun Örneği). Mecmua, (7), 74-81.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Ecotourism

Author
Gizem ŞAHİN

term was developed in the end 1980s by virtue of the acceptance and response of sustainability and global ecological implementations around the world. The natural-based key factors of holiday activities, along with the increasing awareness (unlimited consumption of environmental resources) to ignore the 'antagonist' effects of tourism on the environment have increased the demand for ecotourism holidays (Diamantis, 1999: 93). Ecotourism can be expressed as a subfield of sustainable tourism. The potential of ecotourism, which is perceived as a functional tool for sustainable development, is an important reason why developing countries adopt ecotourism and include it in their economic development and conservation strategies. Ecotourism, visiting natural places to learn, work or engage in environmentally friendly activities; refers to tourism based on the experience of nature that provides the economic and social development of residents (Kiper, 2013: 773). Ecotourism occurs in both protected and unprotected places and has some similarities with nature-based tourism. However, it is shown that ecotourism should eliminate the "tourism-centered syndrome" and adopt a "nature-centered approach" to reflect sustainability rather than tourism principles. It also results from different direct and indirect costs and benefits in conjunction with environmental, economic, and socio-cultural impacts (Diamantis, 1999: 116). Ecotourism can form an appropriate combination of ecological and cultural conservation; contribute to local awareness of the value of preserving natural and cultural environments, and support economic development (Rahmawati, Suprapti, Pinta, & Sudira, 2021: 146).

Widespread interest in ecotourism among tourism planners and marketers is associated with assumptions about the potential economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits of the sector. Among them, the belief that it is the fastest-growing type of tourism is dominant (Weaver, 1999: 795). Private sector businesses that provide goods and services to ecotourists constitute the ecotourism industry. There are two divisions in the ecotourism sector, specializing and non-specializing. Ecolodges, ecotour operators, and intermediary attractions can be defined as specialized, while incidentally traditional hotels, cruise ships, and travel agencies that serve ecotourists and/or provide ecotourism products can be expressed as non-specialized (Weaver & Lawton, 2007: 1171).

References

- Diamantis, D. (1999). The Concept of Ecotourism: Evolution and Trends. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2(2-3), 93-122.
- Kiper, T. (2013). Role of Ecotourism in Sustainable Development. M. Özyavuz içinde, *Advances in Landscape Architecture* (s. 773-802). Intech. doi:10.5772/55749
- Rahmawati, R., Suprapti, A. R., Pinta, S. R., & Sudira, P. (2021). Green Entrepreneurship: A Study for Developing Eco-Tourism in Indonesia. *Journal of Asian Finance, Economics and Business*, 8(5), 143–150.
- Weaver, D. B. (1999). MAGNITUDE OF ECOTOURISM IN COSTA RICA AND KENYA. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 792-816.
- Weaver, D. B., & Lawton, L. J. (2007). Twenty years on: The state of contemporary ecotourism research. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1168–1179.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Water Tourism

Author
Asst. Prof. Dr. Birgül
AYDIN

refers to traveling to places to participate in water-based activities. There is a direct and indirect relationship between water and tourism. Water plays an important role as a resource and attraction factor in tourism. Thus, water offers opportunities for recreational and tourist activities. Water is an important resource with the potential to attract tourists. Beach, pools and lakes are the types of tourism included in thermal water tourism and associated with water (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2019). Recreational activities such as swimming, diving, kayaking, surfing and fishing are the attractions of the destination which are based on water. These activities are carried out in lakes, rivers, and seas (Gössling, 2001). The sustainability of tourism is dependent on water resources. In addition, it stands out as an important industry in the use of water (Gössling et al., 2012). Swimming pools, gardens, bathrooms, laundries, etc. in tourism areas are the places where water needs to be used. Water is also needed for the maintenance of tourist infrastructure. However, the tourism industry exerts enormous pressure on water resources. When tourists use hot springs, health areas, and swimming pools while participating in activities such as skiing or golf tourism, there is a need for water (Gössling, 2006). Many types of tourism are also indirectly dependent on water, such as winter tourism and tourist attractions, agricultural tourism, or wildlife tourism. Snowing in winter tourism destinations and the protection of natural life in other destinations depend on water. Therefore, water is important for tourism as a resource and an attraction source (Chapagain & Hoekstra, 2008). Water tourism refers to traveling to places to participate in water-based activities. There is a direct and indirect relationship between water and tourism. Water plays an important role as a resource and attraction factor in tourism. Thus, water offers opportunities for recreational and tourist activities. Water is an important resource with the potential to attract tourists. Beach, pools and lakes are the types of tourism included in thermal water tourism and associated with water (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2019). Recreational activities such as swimming, diving, kayaking, surfing and fishing are the attractions of the destination which are based on water. These activities are carried out in lakes, rivers and seas (Gössling, 2001).

References

- Gössling, S. (2001). The consequences of tourism for sustainable water use on a tropical island: Zanzibar, Tanzania. *Journal of environmental management*, 61(2), 179-191.
- Gössling, S. (2006). Tourism and water. In *Tourism and global environmental change* (pp. 194-208). Routledge.
- Chapagain, A. K., & Hoekstra, A. Y. (2008). The global component of fresh water demand and supply: an assessment of virtual water flows between nations as a result of trade in agricultural and industrial products. *Water international*, 33(1), 19-32.
- Gössling, S., Peeters, P., Hall, C. M., Ceron, J. P., Dubois, G., & Scott, D. (2012). Tourism and water use: Supply, demand, and security. An international review. *Tourism management*, 33(1), 1-15.
- Folgado-Fernández, J. A., Di-Clemente, E., Hernández-Mogollón, J. M., & Campón-Cerro, A. M. (2019). Watertourism: A new strategy for the sustainable management of water-based ecosystems and landscapes in Extremadura (Spain). *Land*, 8(1), 2.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Green Tourism

Author
Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

concept is sensitive to the environment, keeps the sustainable and ecological balance in the foreground, and ensures that tourists act in a responsible manner in this respect. The notion of 'green', or ecological, tourism, in which people are encouraged to pursue rural leisure activities in a manner that will benefit, rather than harm, the countryside, is gaining popularity. Green tourism is the phenomenon of people being away from their usual habitat in pursuit of leisure activities in the countryside (Font and Tribe, 2001).

In a broad term, green tourism is about being an environmentally friendly tourist or providing environmentally friendly tourist services (Furqan at al., 2010).

Green tourism is important to encourage travel that would help support natural and cultural aspects while encouraging respect for and conservation of urban resources and cultural diversity. According to Dodds and Joppe (2001), the green tourism concept can be broken down into four components:

§ Environmental responsibility—protecting, conserving, and enhancing nature and the physical environment to ensure the long-term health of the life-sustaining eco-system.

§ Local economic vitality—supporting local economies, businesses and communities to ensure economic vitality and sustainability.

§ Cultural diversity—respecting and appreciating cultures and cultural diversity so as to ensure the continued well-being of local or host cultures.

§ Experiential richness—providing enriching and satisfying experiences through active, personal and meaningful participation in, and involvement with, nature, people, places and cultures.

References

Font, X. and Tribe, J. (2001). Promoting Green Tourism: the Future of Environmental Awards. International Journal of Tourism Research, (3), 9-21.

Furqan, A., Mat Som, A.P. and Hussin R. (2010). Promoting Green tourism for future sustainability, Theoretical and Empirical Researches in Urban Management, 8(17), 64-74.

Dodds, R. and Joppe, M. (2001). Promoting urban green tourism: The development of the other map of Toronto. Journal of Vacation Marketing, 7(3), 261-267.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Responsible Tourism

Author
Sezer YERSÜREN

focuses on operators, hoteliers, governments, local people, and tourists taking responsibility and taking action to build a better place for locals, improve the tourist experience in destinations and create better job opportunities for tourism businesses, make tourism more sustainable (Goodwin, 2014, Goodwin and Font, 2012, Burrai et al., 2019 and Chan and Xin, 2015). Responsible tourism is defined as “the concept of tourism that uses the market to achieve economic, social and environmental goals and to create educated and motivated consumers” (Goodwin, 2005). Responsible tourism focuses on the management of touristic destinations or businesses in a way that benefits the local people, the natural and business environment, and itself (Frey and George, 2010).

Responsible tourism, which aims to eliminate the passivity and objectivity of unplanned and unregulated traditional mass tourism; it takes on a new development role that optimizes the distribution of interests among local people, governments, tourists and investors (Xin and Chan, 2014). It is stated that it is necessary to take responsibility to make tourism more sustainable in terms of production or consumption by looking more closely at the issues of intergenerational equality and active participation of stakeholders (Bianchi et al., 2020). Responsible tourism focuses on what is done to ensure sustainability (Goodwin, 2012 and Goodwin et al., 2012).

Responsible tourism is also a form of management in which the economic, social and environmental benefits of the destination are tried to be increased and the negative consequences are tried to be reduced, as well as a tourism approach that requires attention in order to balance the cultural differences between the local people and tourists and to prevent the negative aspects of behavior (Tay et al., 2016, Xin and Chan, 2014 and Hacıoğlu and Yetim).

Responsible tourism not only strives to mitigate the damage caused by mass tourism, but also aims to benefit host communities socially (elimination of social inequality) while protecting the physical environment (effort to prevent global warming) (Carasuk, 2011). The main point of responsible tourism is that it can be applied in a way that minimizes the negative effects of all types of tourism, including mass tourism, together with certain techniques and strategies (Settachai, 2008).

References

- Bianchi, P., Cappelletti, G.M., Mafrolla, E., Sica, E. & Sisto, R. (2020). Accessible tourism in natural park areas: A social network analysis to discard barriers and provide information for people with disabilities. *Sustainability*, 12, 9915, 1-14.
- Burrai, E., Buda, D. M., & Stanford, D. (2019). Rethinking the ideology of responsible tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27 (7), 992-1007.
- Carasuk, R. (2011). Responsible tourism quality mark accreditation: A comparative evaluation of tourism businesses and tourists' perceptions. *Land Environment and People Research Report*, 19, New Zealand: Lincoln University.
- Chan, J. K. L. & Xin, T. K. (2015). Exploring definitions and practices of responsible tourism in Kinabalu National Park, Sabah, Malaysia. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 3(5-6), 87-101.
- Frey, N. & George, R. (2010). Responsible tourism management: The missing link between business owners' attitudes and behaviour in the Cape Town tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 621-628.
- Goodwin, H. (2005). Responsible tourism and the market. *International Centre for Responsible Tourism, Occasional Paper*, 4, 1-6. UK: University of Greenwich.
- Goodwin, H. (2012). *Taking responsibility for tourism*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers.
- Goodwin, H. (2014). Cape Town Declaration on responsible tourism. <https://responsibletourismpartnership.org/cape-town-declaration-on-responsible-tourism/> (Erişim tarihi: 30.06.2021).
- Goodwin, H., Font, X. & Aldrigui, M. (2012). 6th international conference on responsible tourism in destination. *Revista Brasileira de Pesquisa em Turismo*, Sao Paulo, 6 (3), 398-402.
- Settachai, N. (2008). *Global tourism and community life: Toward a responsible tourism framework*. University of Hawaii, Doctor of Philosophy, Urban and Regional Planning.
- Tay, K. X., Chan, J. K. L., Vogt, C. A. & Mohamed, B. (2016). Comprehending the responsible tourism practices through principles of sustainability: A case of Kinabalu Park. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 18, 34-41.
- Xin, T. K. & Chan, J. K. L. (2014). Tour operator perspectives on responsible tourism indicators of Kinabalu National Park, Sabah. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 144, 25-34.
- Yetim, A. Ç. ve Hacıoğlu, T. (2019). Sorumlu turizm algısının turist davranışlarına etkileri: Fethiye destinasyonuna yönelik bir araştırma. *Turizm ve Araştırma Dergisi*, 8 (1), 42-69.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Volunteer Tourism

Author
Sezer YERSÜREN

is a type of tourism that is carried out for purposes such as satisfaction and inner peace, as well as repulsive reasons such as leisure time and getting away from daily business life". The starting point of this type of tourism is to contribute primarily to the social and economic development of the host people (Collins et al., 2001 as cited in Kozak and Türktarhan, 2012). Tourists take part in improving the social, physical and economic conditions of the host region. In addition, intersectoral cooperation between public institutions and organizations and non-governmental organizations is also ensured in this improvement process (Lamoureux, 2009). Voluntary tourism does not aim to provide financial gain and is based on helping other people (Van Til, 1979, Wearing, 2004 and Stebbins, 1982). Volunteer tourism, like other social responsibility activities, is usually organized by intermediary institutions, but it is also organized individually. Voluntary tourism practices can be divided into long-term and short-term. Long-term voluntary tourism activities cover a period of up to two years, and short-term voluntary tourism activities cover a period of up to eight months (Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008 as cited in Kozak and Türktarhan, 2012, Wearing, 2001 and Lamoureux, 2009).

The basis of volunteer tourism is the participation of tourists in the daily life of local people, the benefit of local people from this type of tourism, and the adoption of the vision of the volunteer tourism program by both tourists and local people (Wearing, 2001 and Wearing, 2004). Volunteer tourists do not get paid for the volunteer activities they participate in the destination they go to, and they pay a certain fee to participate in these activities (Ellis, 2003). Volunteer tourism activities are organized in various ways. International internship programs, cultural exchange organizations, labor camp programs, technical and professional assistance groups are some of them. Volunteer tourism participants participate in activities such as the restoration of a building or region; landscaping, or activities such as wildlife conservation, construction of a public park; efforts to reintegrate street children into society, and research of natural resources. In addition to volunteering, tourists participating in volunteer tourism also participate in touristic activities such as diving, climbing mountains, visiting historical sites and shopping (Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008 as cited Kozak and Türktarhan, 2012, Wearing and McGehee, 2013 and Wearing, 2001).

References

- Ellis, C. (2003). Participatory environmental research in tourism: A global view. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 28 (3), 45-55.
- Kozak, A. K. ve Türktarhan, G. (2012). Gönüllü turizmde kavramsal bir bakış. *Turizm ve Araştırma Dergisi*, 2 (2), 4-14.
- Lamoureux, K. M. (2009). Success factors of cross-sector volunteer tourism partnerships involving US federal land agencies. Doctoral dissertation, Business Administration. Washington: The George Washington University.
- Stebbins, R. A. (1982). Serious leisure: A conceptual statement. *Pacific Sociological Review*, 25 (2), 251-272.
- Van Til, J. (1979). In search of volunteerism. *Volunteer Administration*, 12, 8-20.
- Wearing, S. & McGehee, G. N. (2013). Volunteer tourism: A review. *Tourism Management*, 38, 120-130.
- Wearing, S. (2001). *Volunteer tourism: Experiences that make a difference*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- Wearing, S. (2004). Examining best practice in volunteer tourism. R.A. Stebbins ve M. Graham (Editors), *Volunteering as leisure/leisure as volunteering: An international assessmentinde* (s. 209-224). Wallingford: CABI Publishing.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

LANDSCAPE

"There is nothing that special to see when looking at me. I'm a painter who paints day in day out, from morning till evening - figure pictures and landscapes, more rarely portraits."

-Gustav Klimt





Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Landscape

Author
Ewelina POCHODYŁA

is a diverse area that is "a dwelling place". Natural features such as hills, forests, swamps, meadows, bodies of water as well as agricultural land and rural architecture are visible in the rural landscape. These elements determine the shape of these areas.

The rural landscape, thanks to its fertility and suitability for agricultural use, will provide natural resources and food for people. However, the inhabitants also value non-productive values (sacral buildings, viewpoints, old trees, and tree alleys). It is related to rural identity or locality.

On the whole rural landscape consists of culture and activities (e.g. daily activities, recreation, local norms); traditional built environment (e.g. traditional architecture, traditional buildings, landmarks), agriculture and nature (e.g. crops, forests, native vegetation); landscape features (e.g. hills, valleys, rivers); history and heritage (e.g. historical places, traditional products, legends); senses and experiences (e.g. smells, sounds, tastes, memories).

The rural landscape was shaped by the activities of the local population, culture, and socio-economic and environmental conditions. It is therefore considered a witness of the interpenetration of the natural and anthropogenic environment, the past and the present. However, the increase in population, the development of technology, and skills, and, as a result, increased demands have led to a constant transformation of the countryside. And anthropogenic activities that are not adapted to the rural landscape and do not take into account important factors may lead to the degradation of the rural landscape and heritage values.

All these values of the rural landscape are an element desirable in the face of cultural and regional tourism. Currently, these areas are associated with a longing for a place, nature and local architecture.

References

- Agnoletti, M. (2014). Rural landscape, nature conservation and culture: Some notes on research trends and management approaches from a (southern) European perspective. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 126, 66-73.
- Jung, H. J., Ryu, J. H. (2015). Sustaining a Korean Traditional Rural Landscape in the Context of Cultural Landscape. *Sustainability*, 7(8), 11213-11239.
- Lee, C. H. (2020). Understanding rural landscape for better resident-led management: Residents' perceptions on rural landscape as everyday landscapes. *Land Use Policy*, 94.
- Mazehan, S.M., Shuib, K.B., Hashim, H. (2013). Value of rural landscape from public perspectives. *Proceeding of the International Conference on Social Science Research*. Selangor, Malaysia: WorldConference.net.
- St'astna, M., & Vaishar, A. (2020). Values of rural landscape: The case study Chlum u Třebone (Bohemia). *Land Use Policy*, 97.
- Zakariya, K., Ibrahim, P. H., & Wahab, N. A. A. (2019). Conceptual Framework of Rural Landscape Character Assessment to Guide Tourism Development in Rural Areas. *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, 24(1), 85-99



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Architecture

Author
Ewelina POCHODYŁA

Rural architecture consists of all buildings related to the rural landscape. It is the product of orderly and purposeful human activity. Rural architecture is primarily functional and practical, and it refers to local traditions. Its form is influenced by economic, social, technical and cultural factors. Among the rural architecture there are residential buildings (e.g. cottages, mansions), farm buildings (e.g. stables, granaries, barns), industrial buildings (e.g. mill, sawmill), public buildings (e.g. school, fire station, inn, church), and also elements of small architecture (e.g. roadside shrines, crosses, memorials).

The form, type of construction and building materials are adapted to local conditions. The best and cheapest traditional construction solution is the use of locally available natural resources for walls (stone, wood, brick, and light concrete) and the roof (wood, thatch, and tile). As a result, rural architecture is harmoniously integrated into the rural landscape. The selection of construction materials is an important factor in the building's proportions, especially wall height to roof height. Traditional rural residential and farm buildings are often characterized by low walls and a high roof. And most of the rural architecture has one over ground storey and cellars. Additionally, the roof pitch should be adapted to the climatic conditions (e.g., the precipitation quantity, wind).

Rural architecture in the world is diverse. This is due to geographic (topography, climate), socio-cultural factors and legal regulations. Additionally, on a regional scale, it can be noticed that the buildings and objects of rural architecture are diversified, depending on the historical period in which they were created and cultural changes in society.

In the evolution of rural architecture, it was important to adapt to external conditions and the changing needs of the inhabitants. It is an expression of cultural heritage. It is a valuable resource with historical value. Currently, the objects of rural architecture are socially, architecturally and functionally diverse. Changes, especially functional ones, cause the disappearance of residential and farm building complexes. The evolution of rural architecture is visible, especially in the vicinity of large cities.

References

- Cennamo, M., di Palma, P., Ricciardelli, A., 2000, Rural architecture between artificial intelligence and natural intelligence, *Renewable Energy* 19(1-2):7-15.
- Donovan, K., Gkartzios, M., 2014, Architecture and rural planning: 'Claiming the vernacular', *Land Use Policy* 41:334-343.
- Musso, S. F., Franco, G., 2015, "Guidelines" for sustainable rehabilitation of the rural architecture, *Vernacular Architecture: Towards a Sustainable Future*:531-536.
- Porto, S. M. C., Cascone, G., 2013, A building characterization-based method for the advancement of knowledge on external architectural features of traditional rural buildings, *Informes De La Construcción* 65(532):481-496.
- Ruda, G., 1998, Rural buildings and environment, *Landscape and Urban Planning* 41(2):93-97.
- Theodoraki-Patsi, J., 2008, Rural architecture, tourism and simulacra, *Sustainable Tourism* lii 115:277-285.
- Wang, T., Fan, L. C., Wang, F. R., 2012, Thinking the Green Strategies on Today's Rural Architecture in China, pp. 1612-1615.
- Wilkosz-Mamcarczyk, M., Olczak, B., Prus, B., 2020, Urban Features in Rural Landscape: A Case Study of the Municipality of Skawina, *Sustainability* 12(11).



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Architectural Detail

Author
Ewelina POCHODYŁA

An element that is part of a building structure, most often rural residential architecture (residential buildings), private utility (farm buildings), public (taverns, inns, stations, offices), or religious (churches, chapels, mosques). It has a decorative function, distinguishing buildings in the countryside. The form, material, style, and texture of the detail contribute to local or regional specificity. Architecture with typical architectural details can prove the uniqueness of places. It is worth paying attention to the repeatability of the architectural details. Architectural detail can be seen in the buildings of barns, stables, as well as technical buildings. Sometimes a detail is designed in an individual and unique way. The detail refers to the used material (e.g. brick, stone, wood, metal, glass, tile), design (e.g. wood cut-outs, sculptures, stained glass, artistic painting), colors (e.g. color on the facade, color on window, and door joinery, roof color), symbolism (symbols related to the rural tradition, religious symbols related to the change of seasons, symbols related to agriculture, symbols related to the family). Rural architecture with architectural detail creates a historical heritage, and design determines the uniqueness of the village. The use of architectural details not only in residential buildings, but also in farm buildings, may prove the need for attention by contemporary artists and craftsmen, not only to the utility function, but also to aesthetics. In many regions, it is possible to observe the continuation of the use of historical details also in contemporary buildings, and architects try to consciously combine the "old" with the "new" emphasizing the genius loci in their projects. Despite this, at present, architectural detail in the countryside is less visible due to the unification of buildings and styles, the use of commonly available materials, and globalization in the architectural sphere. The distinguishing feature of a village in the form of detail and architecture may become the basis for the creation of tourism space and the creation of specific tourism products based on the local architectural heritage.

References

- MaríaJesúsMontero-Parejo, Jin Su Jeong, JulioHernández-Blanco andLorenzoGarcía-Moruno (December 20th 2017). RuralLandscape Architecture: Traditionalversus Modern FaçadeDesigns in Western Spain, Landscape Architecture - The Sense of Places, Modelsand Applications, AmjadAlmusaed, IntechOpen,
- Ergin S. 2015. MaterialUseAndArchitecturalFeatures Of RuralArchitectureInDiyarbakır. Conference: Kerpic'15 – New GenerationEarthern Architecture: Learning fromHeritage, Istanbul Aydin University
- Kristianova K.,Jaszczak A., Illes J. 2020. LocationPatterns of Small Sacral Architecture in RuralLandscapes – Case StudiesfromEasternSlovakia, World MultidisciplinaryCivilEngineering-Architecture-Urban Planning Symposium – WMCAUS 2020 Prague IOP Conf. Series: MaterialsScienceandEngineering, vol. 960: 022013, IOP Publishing doi:10.1088/1757-899X/960/2/022013
- Kristianova K.,Jaszczak A. 2020. ArchitecturalEducation: ThematicResearch-OrientedAssignments in Design Studios, w: Proceedings of International Conference on Educationand New Learning Technologies EDULEARN 2020, Red. L. GómezChova, A. LópezMartínez, I. CandelTorres, Wyd. IATED Academy:0507-0511, ISBN: 978-84-09-17979-4 ISSN: 2340-1117
- Kristianova K.,Jaszczak A. 2020. TeachingInclusive Design of PublicSpaces, w: Proceedings of International Conference on Educationand New Learning Technologies EDULEARN 2020, Red. L. GómezChova, A. LópezMartínez, I. CandelTorres, Wyd. IATED Academy:0512-0516, ISBN: 978-84-09-17979-4 ISSN: 2340-1117



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Public Spaces

Author
Dorota DĄBROWSKA

The problem and need of creating public space in the countryside are being discussed more and more often. Public space is an area of special importance for satisfying the needs of residents, improving their quality of life, and promoting social contacts due to its location and functional and spatial features. It can be observed that many such places have not been consciously designated and shaped. They have been created accidentally thanks to the vicinity of important buildings in the village, for example, community centers, schools, sports, and recreational facilities; facilities with a religious function, stops or shops - i.e. public places. Places most frequently visited by the rural community may provide the designer with a location hint for organizing public space. The aim of well-organized rural public spaces is not only to create a meeting place for the local community, but also a place for integration, recreation, and education. In order to fulfill its task as much as possible, the place must be adapted to the needs of rural residents; be widely accessible, attractive, harmonious, and meet the requirements of many people (both different age groups and people with disabilities), be safe and have a local identity.

Organized rural public spaces can also help to strengthen local identity, stimulate residents to care for the common good, and change the appearance of their own farmyards. The involvement of the local community in the concept development process is extremely important for the designer and for the future users of a given space. Therefore, in addition to the elements of space development for leisure, sports, recreation, and information, green areas are of great importance. Greenery is the foundation for creating and perceiving public spaces. Use should be made of the natural topography, native vegetation and existing water reservoirs that can be used to create extremely attractive public spaces. Stocked ponds or lakeside areas will quickly encourage and gather enthusiasts of fishing, on the beach. There is the possibility of beach sports and sunbathing, and the piers will create an ideal route for walks, enriched with beautiful views. An outdoor gym, playground, square, forest recreation park, educational paths will encourage residents and tourists to spend their free time outdoors in an active way. However, it should be remembered that such spaces constitute a common good, so the entire local community should be involved in both its use and care.

References

- Šhucksmith M., 2010: Disintegrated Rural Development? Neo-endogenous Rural Development, Planning and Place-Shaping in Diffused Power Contexts. *Sociologia Ruralis*
- Kristianova K., Jaszczak A. 2020. Historical Centers of Small Cities in Slovakia – Problems and Potentials of Creating Livable Public Space", *World Multidisciplinary Civil Engineering-Architecture-Urban Planning, WMCAUS 2020 Prague, IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 960: 022012, doi:10.1088/1757-899X/960/2/022012
- Jaszczak A., Vaznoniene G. Vaznonis B. 2018. Green Infrastructure Spaces as an Instrument Promoting Youth Integration and Participation in Local Community *Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development*,. Vol. 40. No. 1: 37–49.
- Jaszczak A. 2017. Socio-Cultural Role Of Green Areas in The Rural Development, *Proceedings of International Conference AGROSYM, Jahorina, Bosna and Herzegovina*: 2403-2409
- Micek M., Staszewska S., Urban and Rural Public Spaces: Development Issues and Qualitative Assessment, *Bulletin of Geography. Socio-economic Series*, No. 45 (2019): 75-93

"Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein"



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Waterscape

Author
Przemysław PIECH

Riparian areas are those places which are located near water bodies and watercourses. They are very often chosen and used by people visiting rural areas. These areas are treated by local communities as a place of permanent integration of inhabitants and tourists. During spring and summer periods a great number of people spend time in waterside spaces away from the hustle and bustle of the city. The space in these places is completely developed, partially developed or practically wild - free from human interference. The infrastructure in these places is made according to the users' needs. It is common to create pedestrian and bicycle paths, educational paths as well as pedestrian promenades along the shoreline of reservoirs, giving visitors a close contact with nature. The use of appropriate materials in the creation of these paths allows for the preservation of nature-friendly transportation routes as much as possible. As little development as possible allows visitors to observe a large number of aquatic and land-water animals living in their natural habitat, as well as a view of the surrounding environment. Another concept such as waterfront is also associated with the term. The proximity of water bodies increases the attractiveness of the countryside by using water as a potential source of income for the rural population. Water recreation is of great interest to visitors. In the vicinity of lakes and rivers there are companies that provide services connected with renting water equipment such as kayaks, pedal boats, boats etc. In case of larger reservoirs there are also offers connected with renting motor or electric boats, motor yachts or water scooters. The fishing industry is also of great importance in rural lakeside areas. The availability of fish stocks and piers located on reservoirs also creates ideal conditions for amateur fishing, but also for economic fishing related to running a restaurant offering fresh fish to customers.

References

- SJanuchta-Szostak, A. B., Biedermann, A. M. (2014). The impact of great cultural projects on the transformation of urban water-side spaces. *Czasopismo Techniczne*, 2014(Architektura Zeszyt 1 A (1) 2014), 69-87.
- Gubański, J., Walter, E. (2018). Aktualne tendencje zagospodarowania terenów w sąsiedztwie wody na przykładzie wsi opolskiej. *Prace Komisji Krajobrazu Kulturowego*.
- Przywózka, A. A. (2018). Water environment as a space for alternative functions in the city. The Vistula River Museum along with the development of the surrounding riverside areas (Doctoral dissertation, ZakładProjektowaniaUrbanistycznegoiKrajobrazuWiejskiego).
- Jaszczak A., Kristianova K., Pochodyła E., Vaznoniene G. 2020. New "Revolution" - Green Solutions In Urban Design, World Multidisciplinary Civil Engineering-Architecture-Urban Planning Symposium – WMCAUS 2020 Prague, IOP Conf. Series: Materials Science and Engineering, vol. 960: 022014, doi:10.1088/1757-899X/960/2/022014
- Jaszczak A. 2015. Revitalisation of riverside urban parks as exemplified by one of the Cittaslow towns, In: Cultural and natural heritage between theory and practice: 61-68



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Greenscape

Author
Ewelina POCHODYŁA

Greenscape is a combination of natural elements and green areas. The term greenscape should also be understood as the overall perception of the natural environment. Including sounds, smells, and phenomena that increase the perception of nature (e.g., wind, temperature, air humidity). Thanks to the varied terrain in the countryside, greenscape has an attractive connection with the open landscape. Landscape interiors are important, as well as the visual connections inside and between them. The viewing openings are an attractive feature, which brings dynamism to the rural greenscape. Also, the panorama of the village is visible from the hills and representative places, which, despite the evolution of the village, should be preserved with respect to the order of the rural landscape. Greenscape performs biological and protective functions, ensures order and harmony, enriches the visual and cultural value, and promotes the integration of residents. The elements of a greenscape in rural areas include also: trees, shrubs, perennials, lawns, fields, meadows. These elements occur in various forms in rural areas. The trees not only appear as solitary, but also as mid-field plantings, alleys and orchards. Bushes can grow in clumps or linearly; they are also complementary to orchards. You can often find courtyard parks, church parks, and home gardens.

An indispensable element of a rural greenscape are farmlands, meadows and lawns. These are the spaces that provide food for the inhabitants, and are also a place where animals are often grazed. The fields are most often planted with cereals (e.g., rye, oats, wheat), but also vegetables (e.g. potatoes, corn, beetroot). Meadows, thanks to the diversity of species, are not only colorful accents, but they are also a valuable area of increasing biodiversity.

A characteristic feature of rural greenscapes are tree alleys, i.e., tree plantings in rows in the immediate vicinity of roads. This form of greenery is a representative element often introducing to the village. The alleys also provide protection against wind and snow. The trees also surrounded chapels, crosses and rest areas.

Rural gardens next to residential buildings are characterized by a variety of ornamental plant species. These are spaces between the building and the fence, filled with blooming plants with vivid colors (e.g. tulip, aster, nasturtium), shrubs (e.g. lilac, hydrangea, rose), but also plants with medicinal and cosmetic features (e.g. mint, lemon balm, rhymes). Currently, orchards with fruit trees (e.g., pear, apple, cherry) are also popular.

References

- Barosova, I., Santruckova, M., Matiska, P., & Baros, A. (2020). Ornamental perennials in small rural settlements: a case study from the Czech Republic. *Horticultural Science*, 47(2), 130-138.
- Jaszczak A. (2017). Socio-Cultural Role Of Green Areas in The Rural Development, Proceedings of International Conference AGROSYM, Jahorina, Bosna and Herzegovina.
- Jaszczak, A. (2019). Planning public space in the rural areas of the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodship. *Studia Obszarów Wiejskich*, 54.
- Majdecka-Strzeżek, A. (2005). Creating Greenery in Rural Areas. *Home Gardens – Tradition, Future. Architektura Krajobrazu*, 3-4.
- Van Dongen, R. P., Timmerman, H. J. P. (2019). Preference for different urban greenscape designs: A choice experiment using virtual environments. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 44, 11.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rural Soundscape

Author
Ewelina POCHODYŁA

is a new concept specifically developed for Ruralpedia in the RuralYouth project. The rural soundscape covers all issues related to acoustics and forms of sounds generated in the countryside and in the landscape around the village. These sounds include natural sounds and those related to human activity. Sounds can be divided into positive, negative and neutral sounds. Natural sounds are mainly heard outside the village, i.e. in the vicinity of nature, in forests and groves, in fields, in the vicinity of water reservoirs (e.g., sounds of animals, noise of trees and grasses, wind noise, whistling water). While those related to human activity are heard mainly in the village and are related to everyday activities, work on the farm, but also rest. They can also be received in fields, forests as a result of agricultural or forestry activities (e.g., sounds of agricultural machinery) or tourism (e.g. noise generated by tourists on the beach, sounds of motorboats). The rural soundscape related to the countryside also refers to certain rituals, habits, traditions, and religions. These include, e.g.: the sounds of traditional music, regional songs during field works, the sounds of a church bell, and a call to prayer melody. Sounds also determine the times of the day and the year. The rural soundscape can become the basis for building a tourist product; for example the popular "bird watching", "animal sound safari", or music festivals, singing meetings or workshops on playing traditional musical instruments. It is also an opportunity to prepare a niche offer for tourists looking for peace, quiet and listening to the sounds of nature or meditation

References

- Jaszczak, Agnieszka; Małkowska, Natalia; Kristianova, Katarina; Bernat, Sebastian; Pochodyła, Ewelina. 2021. "Evaluation of Soundscapes in Urban Parks in Olsztyn (Poland) for Improvement of Landscape Design and Management" Land 10, no. 1: 66, <https://doi.org/10.3390/land10010066>
- Bernat S. 2014. Soundscapes and tourism – towards sustainable tourism Problemy Ekorozwoju – Problems Of Sustainable Development, Vol. 9, No 1, pp. 107-117
- Research for a Quieter Europe in 2020. European Commission 2004, http://www.alpnap.org/SP_2020_Final.pdf
- Votsi N.E.P., Drakou E.G., Mazaris A.D., Kallimanis A.S., Pantis J.D., 2012, Distance – based assessment of open country Quiet Areas in Greece, in: Landscape and Urban Planning, vol. 104, p. 279-288
- Jaszczak, A. ; Pochodyła E.; Kristianova K.; Małkowska N.; Kazak, J. K. 2021. "Redefinition of Park Design Criteria as a Result of Analysis of Well-Being and Soundscape: The Case Study of the Kortowo Park (Poland)" Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 18, no. 6: 2972, <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18062972>



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Farmscape

Author
Przemysław PIECH

Farms have been the most characteristic element of a village for many decades. They have a huge impact on shaping space in rural areas. Among the farms, we can find farms specializing in e.g. field crops (cereals, oilseeds, and protein crops), horticulture (vegetables, flowers, and ornamental plants), permanent crops (fruit trees and bushes), animal husbandry (cattle, pigs, poultry and other livestock such as horses, sheep, rabbits, foxes, minks, etc.) and mixed farms (both animal husbandry and plant production). The choice of specialization of a farm is shaped by many factors, from the lie of the land and distribution of inland waters to the most important factors, such as climate. It influences the conditions of vegetation and animal development. The equipment of farms is very diverse, depending on the production direction chosen by the farm. We can find different types of buildings such as pigsty, poultry houses, cowsheds and also multifunctional buildings (depending on the needs of the farm). Farm machinery is also a characteristic element of the farmscape. The number of tractors, implements and agricultural machines is different. The introduction of new equipment, including the modernization of homesteads, can have a very large impact on the quality and safety of work, as well as the entire process of rearing and breeding. Work on the farm is relatively, very difficult. Performance of some field works is subjected to atmospheric factors, including unfavourable ones. In view of this, some farms have been re-branded to provide services to the public. Many agritourism places have been created, where a person takes part in the whole process of work on the farm and also has access to farm animals. This is a great alternative for the urban population who are not in contact with agricultural work on a daily basis. Restructuring farms and adapting to current trends translates into understanding, respect and appreciation of the enormous contribution of agriculture to the life of not only the individual man, but all of humanity.

References

- Atwell, R. C., Schulte, L. A., & Westphal, L. M. (2009). Landscape, community, countryside: linking biophysical and social scales in US Corn Belt agricultural landscapes. *Landscape Ecology*, 24(6), 791-806.
- Darnhofer, I., Lamine, C., Strauss, A., & Navarrete, M. (2016). The resilience of family farms: Towards a relational approach. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 44, 111-122.
- Lanfranchi, M., & Giannetto, C. (2014). Sustainable development in rural areas: The new model of social farming. *Calitatea*, 15(S1), 219.
- Sonnino, R. (2004). For a 'piece of bread'? Interpreting sustainable development through agritourism in Southern Tuscany. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 44(3), 285-300.
- Zegar, J. S. (2012). Rola drobnych gospodarstw rolnych w procesie społecznie zrównoważonego rozwoju obszarów wiejskich The role of small farms in the socially sustainable development of rural areas. *Problemy Drobnych Gospodarstw Rolnych*, 1, 129-148.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Social Rural Space

Author
Przemysław PIECH

defines all matters related to the needs of the society determined by geopolitical, natural, cultural, and health factors. The social and technical infrastructure is definitely different from that in cities. Access to cultural institutions such as cinemas, theatres, or museums is practically non-existent in rural areas, with the exception of villages where open-air museums related to the activities of the rural population have been established. In response to the social needs of rural inhabitants, places where services related to animation of everyday life for children and adults are built. Rural common buildings are such places. For a large group of the rural population, integration of time in common buildings is the only access to media and cultural life. Rural common buildings are also places where social barriers are eliminated and the risk of social exclusion is reduced. A common phenomenon in rural areas in recent times is the creation of places serving health. To these places we can include overhead gyms. They respond to the need for access to gyms and other places connected with improvement of health. Besides, an important aspect of the social space is integration and mobilization of rural population to responsibility for local environment. The villagers are very attached to their local space which they are often not willing to change. Every intervention in the environment, even if it improves living conditions, is often discussed. The rural population, on the one hand, wants changes for the better, but on the other hand does not want drastic changes in social and spatial life. All changes are analysed in detail. An important factor is to use inhabitants and their local crafts by presenting creations in local space, e.g. during ecological picnics, exhibitions or family festivals. The promotion of their work is also an ideal tool to activate and fight unemployment in rural areas, which is quite high compared to cities

References

- Aitken, D., Cook, G., & Lawson, A. (2019). Housing options for the future: Older people's preferences and views on villages with care and support. *Health & social care in the community*, 27(5), e769-e780.
- Długozima, A. (2019). Social infrastructure of burial nature in the spatial development of rural areas in Poland. *Infrastruktura i Ekologia Terenów Wiejskich*.
- Jaszczak A., Vaznoniene G. Vaznonis B. 2018. Green Infrastructure Spaces as an Instrument Promoting Youth Integration and Participation in Local Community Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development,. Vol. 40. No. 1: 37–49. <https://doi.org/10.15544/mts.2018.04>
- Lee, B. H., Kim, D. W., Park, H. J., & Yun, Y. S. (2012). Determinants of Utilization & Satisfaction for the Exploit of Community Centers in Rural Area. *Journal of Korean Society of Rural Planning*, 18(4), 27-34.
- Wait, S., & Wales, V. (2010). Sustainable Tourism and the Outdoors: The Welsh Outdoor Gym! 'Sustainable Tourism', 12..



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Productive Fields

Author
Przemysław PIECH

Lands devoted to cultivation of plants, as well as uncultivated agricultural land, are an integral part of public spaces. At any time of the year, they provide humans with various visual as well as health aspects. The vicinity of fields and meadows promotes the settlement of wild animals and also has a positive impact on the development of flora in rural areas. Many lands belonging to farms are not subjected to human interference. The creation of natural meadows near the fields promotes the colonization of pollinators, which has a great impact on later harvests. An interesting behaviour is also the creation of meadows on wasteland inside villages, but also in cities. This allows to preserve the natural, rural character. Artificial water reservoirs are also created on uncultivated land, which serve as small water retention. In the face of drought, and, on the other hand rainy season, the construction of such reservoirs should be the basis. On cultivated fields we can find industrial plants: oleaginous (rapeseed, sunflower), fibrous (flax, hemp) or sugar plants (sugar beet, sugar cane). Food crops are also grown, including legumes, cereals, root crops and fodder crops. These plants have different uses and their cultivation is conditioned by the climatic conditions prevailing in a given region. They are successfully used by humans but also serve as food for animals. It is also common for people to use fields and wastelands for non-agricultural activities related to hobbies or amateur provision of needs, e.g. photography workshops, floristic workshops etc. Close access to unsettled spaces has a great impact on the human psyche. Among the meadows you can find a great number of herbs that have a positive effect on health. The proximity of cultivated fields also has a positive effect on inhibiting too intensive urbanization of the surrounding areas. The preservation of natural meadows and pastures has a positive effect on biodiversity in the area.

References

- Brooks, R. G., Walsh, M., Mardon, R. E., Lewis, M., & Clawson, A. (2002). The roles of nature and nurture in the recruitment and retention of primary care physicians in rural areas: a review of the literature. *Academic Medicine*, 77(8), 790-798.
- Denekas J., Jaszczak A., Gotkiewicz W., Pawlewicz A., Żukovskis J. 2014. Role Of Agri-Environmental Programmes in Rural Development Based On The Example Of The Ostfriesland Region In Lower Saxony (Germany), *Management theory and studies for rural business and infrastructure development*, 36/2: 255-263, <http://dx.doi.org/10.15544/mts.2014.021>
- Hebinck, P., Mtati, N., & Shackleton, C. (2018). More than just fields: Reframing deagrarianisation in landscapes and livelihoods. *Journal of rural studies*, 61, 323-334.
- Jaszczak A., Kristianova K., Vaznoniene G., Zukovskis J. 2018. Phenomenon of abandoned villages and its impact on transformation of rural landscapes, *Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development*,. Vol. 40. No. 4: 467–480 <http://doi.org/10.15544/mts.2018.43>
- Shackleton, C. M., Shackleton, S. E., & Cousins, B. (2001). The role of land-based strategies in rural livelihoods: the contribution of arable production, animal husbandry and natural resource harvesting in communal areas in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 18(5), 581-604.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

SOCIAL INCLUSION

“When we listen and celebrate what is both common and different, we become wiser, more inclusive, and better as an organization.”

— Pat Wadors





Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Individual With Special Needs

Author
Alaattin Murat YANGIN

Most children with intellectual disabilities do need special education. However, intellectual disability is not the most common disability requiring special education (Kauffman, J. M., Hallahan, D. P., Pullen, P. C., & Badar, J., 2018). Kaufman, Hallahan, Pullen, and Badar state that learning disabilities and communication irregularities are much more common than intellectual disabilities among students with special needs. 'Special' can contain either a positive or a negative value judgment; however; In special education 'special' usually refers to an individual's undesirable characteristic or way of functioning in relation to an end considered crucial (Wilson 2002, 62-3). Wilson defines an individual with special needs as a person with the superior or inferior ability for a particular activity or a person who has a physical structure that is out of the ordinary. In a special education context 'special need' refers to an ability or activity that is viewed as important or even necessary for people (Vehmas, 2010). Vehmas exemplifies this: a student who struggles to learn to read and write by the usual education methods is called an individual with special needs. It means this person requires a special way of education. An individual with special needs is a person who has distinct differences from his or her peers in terms of personal and developmental characteristics and educational competence (Turkey Ministry of Education, 2006). Aksoy elaborates: this is a very inclusive term that involves individuals with various disabilities whose situations emerged out of different reasons and/or in different periods of their lives. People who show significant distinction from their coevals in the way of development because of their individualistic dissimilarities and need special education are called individuals with special needs (BaykoçDönmez, N. 2010).

References

- Aksoy, V. (2016). Özeleğitim. Ankara: PegemAkademi
- BaykoçDönmez, N. (2010), ÖzelGereksinimliÇocuklarveÖzeleğitim, EğitenKitapYayınevi, Ankara.
- Kauffman, J. M., Hallahan, D. P., Pullen, P. C., &Badar, J. (2018). Special education: What it is and why we need it. Routledge.
- Vehmas, S. (2010). Special needs: a philosophical analysis. International journal of inclusive education, 14(1), 87-96.
- Wilson, J. 2002. Defining 'special needs'. European Journal of Special Needs Education 17, no. 1: 61-6.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Equal Participation

Author
Doruk AKYAZI

has been a very popular topic in the last century, especially in politics “Even though women in Western countries have been in all legal respects politically equal to men for over forty years, gender differences in political participation are enormous” (Andersen, 1975). Andersen states that this difference reaches its highest point in terms of specific variations of participation like joining meetings, participating in campaigns, or initiatives to affect others’ votes. Bachelet states that adopting and generalizing the idea of equal participation in city governments can guarantee its residents, particularly women and girls, wellness by putting governments in a better state in terms of accomplishing their duties (Michelle Bachelet, 2013). Ki-moon claims that if we wish to attain the sustainable, tranquil and equitable society promoted in the United Nations Charter, women’s complete and equal participation needs to be ensured in every section of public and private life (Alicia Henry, 2013). The importance of equal participation of women and men is clearly explained by the internet site Kvinna, “Ensuring women can participate in society on equal terms as men, is first and foremost a matter of human rights. It is a matter of freedom of expression and association, of democratic values”. On the site, it also claimed that preserving consistent peace is closely related to equal participation in society.

References

- BAndersen, K. (1975). Working women and political participation, 1952-1972. American Journal of Political Science, 439-453.
- Michelle , B. (2013, February). Making cities safe for women and girls.
- Alicia, H. (2013, September). If You Chose Your Lover, You’re One of the Lucky Ones: How Gender Inequalities are Affecting Global Progress.
- Kvinna till Kvinna, Women's equal participation. Retrieved July 11, 2021



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Universal Design

Author
Marzhan KAZHMANOVA

is the design of products and objects that can be fully used by all people without the need for special adaptation or special design. It is also described as a design of products or environments that makes them accessible to all people, regardless of age, disability, or other factors (Follette, 2001:58). Tourism activities in rural areas can be interesting for all people. However, in some cases, these areas may not be suitable for every person. Particularly, disadvantaged individuals may face many difficulties from transportation to accommodation in such areas. It is very important in this respect that rural tourism areas are designed to be used by disadvantaged individuals. Considering the people with different disabilities, improvements should be made in eliminating design errors and deficiencies. All issues related to having access to these regions should be evaluated and an ultimate solution should be found for these problems. It should be aimed at minimizing any difficulties encountered by disadvantaged individuals during the use of rural areas. The fewer modifications needed to make a product accepted by a large number of people, the closer it is to versatility. Things should be inclusively designed in such a way that they don't feel like they are specially designed for them because this causes discomfort for a person with a disability.

References

- Connell, B. R., M. L. Jones, R. L. Mace, J. L. Mueller, A. Mullick, E. Ostroff, J. Sanford, et al., The Principles of Universal Design, Version 2.0, Raleigh, N.C.: Center for Universal Design, North Carolina State University, 1997
- Molly Folette Story, Principles Of Universal Design, Ch.4, 58-61, 2001



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Inclusive Tourism

Author
Marzhan KAZHMANOVA

First of all, let's figure out what "inclusiveness" or "inclusion" means. This is a principle of organizing life in a society that allows all people to participate in its various aspects (everyday life, education, culture and art), regardless of their appearance, origin, gender, health status.

Inclusive tourism means that all travellers can enjoy travel services without restrictions, independently of other people, on equal terms and with dignity (Yurik 2002). In particular, attention is being paid to travellers with special accessibility needs. This can be accessibility in movement accessibility, visual and auditory accessibility. Accessibility means equal access to infrastructure, transport, information and communications. This is the definition of the World Tourism Organization. In addition to "inclusive tourism", you can also find such concepts (they all mean the same thing):

- Tourism for all
- Tourism without barriers
- Accessible tourism

References

www.34travel.me, M.Gulina, "What is 'inclusive tourism?'" 2017



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Inclusion

Author
Doruk AKYAZI

is about empowering and encouraging social, economic, and political inclusion for all people everywhere, regardless of their age, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion, or economic or other position. The goal of inclusion is to include everyone, regardless of color, gender, disability, medical condition, or other need. Therefore, inclusion can be seen as a universal human right. In many countries, there are many obstacles to the participation of individuals in social, economic and political life and therefore individuals are exposed to social exclusion. Balaban thinks that exclusion puts the integrity of the social fabric at risk (Balaban, 2014; 110). It is said that the subject of social inclusion is individuals who have difficulties in participating in social life (Altınsoy, 2019; 39). Social inclusion is the process of improving the conditions for individuals and groups to participate in society and improving the abilities, skills and reputations of disadvantaged individuals. According to RahileGüran, relevant public policies must be effective for social inclusion to be successful (Güran, 2020; 257). It is necessary to carry out several activities to prevent exclusion, including individuals with special needs. Nowadays, many people are exposed to exclusion for different reasons. The focus of social inclusion is to minimize this exclusion. Genç and Çat say that disadvantaged individuals who are exposed to exclusion should be brought to a level that is accepted in society by improving their living conditions (Genç and Çat, 2013; 365). Unfortunately, in many countries, the living conditions of disadvantaged individuals can be very difficult. Due to many reasons, such as city planning, deficiencies in education and health services, they have to lead a life away from social life. This situation causes invisible psychological pressure on individuals. The need for social support arises to improve and develop both psychological and social structures (Genç and Çat, 2013; 272).

References

- Altınsoy, H. (2019), Türkiye'de Uygulanan Sosyal İçerme Politikalarının AB Üyesi Ülkelerle Mukayeseli Değerlendirmesi, Cilt: 14, Sayı: 4, 37-67.
- Balaban U. (2014), Türkiye ve Avrupa Birliği'nde Sosyal İçerme Uygulamaları: 2000'li Yıllar İlişkin Karşılaştırmalı Bir Değerlendirme, Mülkiye Dergisi, 38(1), 103-149.
- Genç Y. Çat G. (2013), Engellilerin İstihdamı ve Sosyal İçerme İlişkisi, Akademik İncelemeler Dergisi, Cilt:8, Sayı:1, 363-393.
- Güran, R. (2020), Otizmlili Çocuğu Olan Ailelerin Sosyal Dışlanmasını Önleyici Bir Sosyal İçerme Örneği, Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, Sayı:38, 253-272.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Gender Equality

Author
Marzhan KAZHMANOVA

is a situation when women and men enjoy equal rights, opportunities and privileges in civil and political spheres.

"Gender" conditioned differences in attributes and capabilities associated with a person indicate socially female or male and social interactions and relationships between women and men. These relationships can change over time and across cultures. Gender experts can play an important role in the data analysis process by helping to interpret the data, especially when the differences observed between women and men are statistically significant (Osorio et. al., 2014). Grouping or allocation measures include shares and percentages; ratio; coefficients; medians and quintiles; means and standard deviations. Each measure serves a specific purpose in terms of data analysis. These measures should only be calculated for large datasets (for a small number of observations, it is preferable to provide the entire dataset). According to "Development of a Gender and Agricultural statistics framework", shares and percentages are used to compare men and women and to indicate how women and men are classified in different categories (for example, the proportion of women versus men in rural employment) or gender distribution in one category (for example, the percentage of parliamentarians' women or men). Since the sum of the percentages of women and men is always 100, there is usually only one indicator in the table or graph (usually the percentage of women in the case of gender statistics). A ratio is a number that expresses the relative size of two numbers. Rates measure the dynamics of change or frequency - the number of events that occur during a given time interval divided by the number of people exposed to the event during that time interval (for example, fertility and maternal mortality rates are common indicators used in gender statistics (Tayyib et al., 2012).

References

- Osorio M., Peaches M. and Di Battista F. 2014. Gender inequality in rural employment in mainland Tanzania: An overview. Rome, FAO. p. 187.
- Development of a Gender and Agricultural statistics framework for the Asia-Pacific region. FAO. Asia-Pacific Commission on Agricultural Statistics, 23rd session. page 5.
- Tayyib S., Rocca V., Bossanyi Z. 2012. The main gender indicators for assessing the socio-economic situation of rural and rural population



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Community Access

Author
Alaattin Murat YANGIN

Community Access is an important part of the life of a person with a disability, as it provides access to recreation tasks, social opportunities and enables an individual to develop skills and competencies (Advance Rehab Centre [ARC]). ARC defines community access as the accessibility of outside, residence and all tasks carried out in the community. The concept of community access is a multidimensional term, which may involve issues related to physical access, knowledge and information, power and control, relationships, and communications, advocacy, participation, and quality of life (Stock, Davies, Wehmeyer&Lachapelle, 2011). Stock, Davies, Wehmeyer and Lachapelle's grievance in terms of the state of community access is much social care has been shown to improve the quality of life of people with hearing, vision or physical disabilities in contrast lacking social care has aimed at increasing community access of people with intellectual and various major cognitive disabilities. Moreover, they consider making public transformation eligible for the people who have physical disabilities like paralysis, improving sidewalks with embossed trails and traffic lights with vocalization for the people with vision disabilities and generalizing sign language for the people with hearing disabilities are steps forward to a society with equal community access. (Kvinna till Kvinna, 2021)

References

- Stock, S. E., Davies, D. K., Wehmeyer, M. L., &Lachapelle, Y. (2011). Emerging new practices in technology to support independent community access for people with intellectual and cognitive disabilities. *NeuroRehabilitation*, 28(3), 261-269.
- Larson, A. M., Cronkleton, P., Barry, D., & Pacheco, P. (2008). *Tenure rights and beyond: community access to forest resources in Latin America* (Vol. 1). Bogor, Indonesia: CIFOR.
- Walton, G., Childs, S., & Blenkinsopp, E. (2005). Using mobile technologies to give health students access to learning resources in the UK community setting. *Health Information & Libraries Journal*, 22, 51-65.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Rights Based Approach

Author
Doruk AKYAZI

It is said that the rights-based approach is a recent concept that emerged in the post-Cold War era. (Cornwall and Musembi, 2004; 1420). Human rights are the minimum requirements for all people to live in freedom, equality, fairness, and dignity, as well as in peace. According to Mehmet Gedik, humans have certain rights before they are born. (Gedik, 2020; 32.) The focus of the human rights-based approach is on those who are excluded or discriminated against. The rights-based approach avoids exclusion and argues that people from all walks of life have the right to a just life. In addition, it aims to eliminate all the problems that harm people, such as war, poverty, injustice. The rights-based approach focuses on reintegrating marginalized people into society and adapting them to social life. It states that it is necessary to fight for the elimination of obstacles in front of people's easy access to their fundamental rights. According to Karataş and Atatanır, one of the biggest reasons for these obstacles is poverty. They say that the rights-based approach takes human rights as a reference, including meeting needs. (Atatanır and Karataş, 2019; 457). In many countries today, there are people who have difficulty reaching even the most basic needs, such as food, clothing and shelter due to poverty. There are many Non-Governmental Organizations working to meet the various needs of these individuals. When states are lacking, these organizations provide the welfare of individuals with solidarity. (Sarıpek, 2017; 85). Equality is a very important concept in this approach. It is necessary to be treated equally and be fair without discriminating against any people. Poverty is the result as well as the cause of inequality, and in order to eliminate it, a rights-based approach is required. (Atatanır and Karataş, 2019; 471).

References

- Atatanır H. Karataş K. (2019), Yoksulluğa Hak Temelli Yaklaşım, İnsan&İnsan, Sayı:21, 453-475.
- Cornwall A. Musembi C. (2004), Putting the Rights-Based Approach to Development Into Perspective, Third World Quarterly, Quarterly, Vol. 25, No. 8, 1415-1437.
- Gedik, M. (2020), Sosyal Hizmetlerde "Hak Temelli" Yaklaşım, Çekmece İZÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, Cilt 8: Sayı:16, 28-57.
- Sarıpek D. B. (2017) "Hak Temelli" Sosyal Politikadan "Hayırseverlik Temelli" Sosyal Politikaya Geçişte Sivil Toplum Örgütlerinin Rolü, İnsan&İnsan, Sayı:11, 81-99.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union



As a policy framework addressing poverty and vulnerability in developing countries, social protection is a key component of development policy (Armanda Barrientos, 2010). Barrientos defines social protection as a strategy that emerged to guide states in resolving poverty. Progressive forms of social protection are reconfiguring social policy and constructing new social contracts between states and citizens or between supranational entities and disenfranchised population groups such as refugees and migrants (Devereux, S., McGregor, J. A., & Sabates-Wheeler, R., 2011). Devereux claims that no matter what kind of governance system the state adopted, advocating for the people against all kinds of adversities is a crucial role and a source of legitimacy for a state. It is perfectly possible for clientelistic systems of patronage to transfer resources that maintain the subsistence of clients, while at the same time reinforcing the relationships that systematically extract resources in ways that leave clients impoverished, marginalized and vulnerable (Beck 1994; McGregor 1994). McGregor states that social protection cannot be described as a service delivery sector. Social protection is a collection of measures to improve or protect human capital, ranging from labour market interventions, publicly mandated unemployment or old-age insurance to targeted income support (Norton, Conway and Foster, 2000). Overseas Development Institute (ODI) describes social protection as actions that the public performs to reduce socially inadmissible factors such as exposure, danger and destitution.

Social protection describes all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks, and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalized; with the overall objective of reducing the economic and social vulnerability of the poor, vulnerable and marginalized groups (Devereux, Ntale and Sabates-Wheeler, 2002). Rachel Sabates Wheeler and Myrtha Waite clarify the preceding sentence: different actions can be required for these three groups because these groups might not definitely involve the same group of people.

References

- Barrientos, A. (2010). Social protection and poverty.
- Devereux, S., McGregor, J. A., & Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2011). Introduction: social protection for social justice. *IDS Bulletin*, 42(6), 1-9.
- Devereux, S., & Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2004). Transformative social protection.
- Sabates-Wheeler, R., & Waite, M. (2003). Migration and Social Protection: A concept paper. Institute of Development Studies, Sussex, December, 1645, 1980-2000.
- Devereux, S., C. Lwanga Ntale and R. Sabates-Wheeler 2002. Social Protection in Uganda: Study to Inform the Development of a Framework for Social Protection in the Context of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. Phase I Report: Vulnerability Assessment and Review of Initiatives. Kampala: Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union



Author
Alaattin Murat YANGIN

The World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen 1995) defines an inclusive society as a “society for all in which every individual, each with rights and responsibilities, has an active role to play” (DESA, 2009). The Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) claims that human rights and primary freedoms, cultural and religious variation, social justice, individuals with special needs, democratic participation, and the judgment of law are all respected by an inclusive society. Social inclusion is understood as a process by which efforts are made to ensure equal opportunities for all, regardless of their background, so that they can achieve their full potential in life (DESA, 2009). DESA claims that every member of an inclusive society has comprehensive participation in civic, social, economic, political and every other aspect of life. Most educational discussions on inclusion concentrate on curriculum, pastoral systems, attitudes and teaching methods, but there is a wider notion of inclusion in a society that goes beyond these narrowly school-based considerations (Thomas, 1997). Commentators (Hutton, 1995; Kay, 1996; Plender, 1997a) claim that in the context of inclusiveness of society, there are reciprocal responsibilities and expectations between the public and institutions that make these institutions remember they have liabilities. An inclusive society is a society that overrides differences of race, gender, class, generation, and geography, and ensures inclusion, equality of opportunity as well as capability of all members of the society to determine an agreed set of social institutions that govern social interaction (Expert Group Meeting on Promoting Social Integration, Helsinki, July 2008).

References

- The Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA). (2009). Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration.
- World Summit for Social Development Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development
- Belkin, G. (2007) Measuring and using Social Inclusion- Building a nexus of facts, practices and knowledge through the lessons and capacities of public health. Expert Group Meeting on “Creating Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration”.
- Thomas, G. (1997). Inclusive schools for an inclusive society. British journal of special education, 24(3), 103-107.
- Hutton, W. (1995) The State We're In. London: Jonathan Cape.
- Kay, J. (1996) The Business of Economics. Oxford: OUP.
- Plender, J. (1997b) 'A stake of one's own', Prospect. February, 20-24.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

ECOLOGY

"The Earth is what we all
have in common."
—Wendell Berry





Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Food and energy self-sufficiency

Author
Begüm İLBAY

refers to the extent to which any country can meet its food and energy needs from its own domestic production. This concept emerged as a result of the benefits of localizing food and energy production. Self-sufficiency typically refers to countries that try to produce all or most of their food and energy for domestic consumption. Along with the food crisis that caused food prices to rise in the world and the problem of reducing energy resources, many countries have started to implement strengthening policies in order to be at a level that can be self-sufficient in food and energy production.

In practice, the concept of self-sufficiency describes a continuity in food and energy production. With food and energy self-sufficiency practices, countries can produce all or even more of their food and energy needs. The implementation of policies aimed at increasing the production of food and energy for domestic consumption of any country benefits that country both economically and politically.

Ensuring food and energy security is among the most important goals around the world, especially in island communities. The most important reason for this is that local food and energy self-sufficiency can be improved and greenhouse gas emissions can be minimized. But there are also claims that policies that support self-sufficiency in food and energy are inefficient and can disrupt commercial structure. In fact, when a country goes to a practice where it will be self-sufficient in food and energy production, it does not mean that the country does not enter into international trade. This depends on how the country defines self-sufficiency in food and energy production, and how this definition directs state policy choices. Countries that adopt self-sufficient practices can specialize in food and energy production and even import and export in these areas. Therefore, despite the negative criticisms made about food and energy self-sufficiency practices, the demand for these practices is increasing around the world and research is becoming more common every day to reach these goals.

References

- Clapp, J. (2016). Food self-sufficiency and international trade: A false dichotomy? Retrieved from: <http://www.fao.org/3/i5222e/i5222e.pdf>
- Kim, K., Burnett, K., & Ghimire, J. (2015). Assessing the potential for food and energy self-sufficiency on The Island Of Kauai, Hawaii. *Food Policy*, 54, 44-51.
- Tablada, A., & Zhao, X. (2016). Sunlight availability and potential food and energy self-sufficiency in tropical generic residential districts. *Solar Energy*, 139, 757-769.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Food Forest

Author
Begüm İLBAY

, is the cultivation of various edible plants that attempt to mimic the ecosystem for conversion to a forest. The food forests are three-dimensional designs of life that extend up, down, and out. Food forests, which are also characterized as a garden modelled on natural woodland, are multi-cultures formed by multi-purpose plants. Most plants grown in food forests do not require re-planting each year and continue to grow. Each plant contributes to the food forest. At certain periods of the year, trees and plants in the food forest turn into a major source of food for living things in the forest with their seeds. The edible food forests are a science and art that place plants in order and form a garden ecology.

The food forests usually have seven layers. These layers are the tree layer, the shrub layer, the bush layer, the grass layer, the ground cover layer, the wrappings and climber's layer, and the underground layer. Some food forests also like to include mycelium (fungi), which is the eighth layer. By using these eight layers, excess plants can be fit into food forests without causing any problems.

A food forest should have an organic and healthy ecosystem. For this reason, pesticides or non-organic fertilizers are not applied in the food forest. To prevent the pest population from bursting and causing damage, fruit crops are powdered and used instead of pesticides, and various plants are planted that attract beneficial insects. Instead of using non-organic fertilizer, the waste of plants that hold nitrogen and accumulate nutrients is returned to the soil. In order to grow wild plants that are desired to be in the food forest, grafting is carried out on site. Trees, shrubs, long-lasting and self-seeding plants are planted, the soil is shaded, ground covers are used to suppress weeds, various ground shaping techniques are applied to retain rainwater on the site, and plant placement is designed accordingly to create microclimate and windbreaks. Because of all these elements necessary for the design of an organic food forest, it takes several years for the food forests to be established in cities to have a healthy ecosystem.

References

Özdemir, M., & Kaya, Ö. N. (2010). Opportunities of foodforestry in Turkey; NIKSAR Department of Forestry sample.III. Ulusal Karadeniz Ormancılık Congress, (pp. 1157-1166). Retrieved from: [http://karok3.artvin.edu.tr/III.Cilt/\(1157-1166\).pdf](http://karok3.artvin.edu.tr/III.Cilt/(1157-1166).pdf)

Tenaqiya, R. (1998). West coast foodforestry: A permaculture guide. Retrieved from: [https://www.rivendellvillage.org/A_Permaculture_Guide_\(West_Coast_Food_Forestry\).pdf](https://www.rivendellvillage.org/A_Permaculture_Guide_(West_Coast_Food_Forestry).pdf)



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Permaculture

Author
Begüm İLBAY

creates synergies between soil, natural resources, environment and people in a mutually beneficial way and ensures their integration. It takes the waste-free and closed-loop systems that can be seen in natural systems as examples. Permaculture researches and implements holistic solutions that can be applied both in rural and urban areas. It designs and maintains productive ecosystems in agriculture, taking as an example the diversity, stability and flexibility of natural ecosystems. It aims to harmoniously integrate people with the scenery and provide people's needs in a sustainable way. Permaculture argues that a stable social order cannot exist without a permanent model of agriculture.

Permaculture is not a discipline in its own right or a number of techniques, but rather a design approach that connects different disciplines and uses a number of strategies and techniques. Therefore, all disciplines that provide agriculture, forestry, hydrology, energy, natural structure, waste management, animal husbandry, aquaculture, technology, economy, and community development are covered by permaculture. A holistic permaculture design consists of land, energy, social and abstract components. The land component consists of climate, plants, soil, water and land forms; the energy component technology, connections, resources and structures; the abstract component is ethics, data, and timing; the social components are people, culture, aid and financial resources.

Permaculture design involves combining conceptual, material and strategic components into a model that serves to benefit all forms of life. This system consists of some ethical principles. The first of these principles is to take care of the earth; to provide the necessary conditions for the continuation and reproduction of all living systems, that is, all living and inanimate beings. Second, caring for people; it is to ensure that people have access to the resources necessary for a healthy existence by having food, shelter, education, satisfying work and pleasant human relationships. The third is to put limits on population and consumption; to allocate resources to support previous principles by controlling individual needs. These resources, which are time, money or energy, should be used in the realization of the first and second principles. Permaculture, being a design system, is primarily concerned with the third ethical principle. But all responsible people act in accordance with the first and second ethical principles. Permaculture also emphasizes that people can use all the species they need in their own settlement designs, provided they are not invasive.

References

- Fukuoka, M. (2006). Ekinsapıdevrimi: Doğaltarımavedoğalhayatagiriş. (Çev. A. İstanbullu). İstanbul: KaosYayınları. (Orijinalyayıntarihi, 1975).
- Hemenway, T. (2018). Permakültürşehirde. (Çev. A. Çiftçi). İstanbul: YeniİnsanYayınevi. (Orijinalyayıntarihi, 2015).
- Mollison, B. (2011). Permakültüregiriş. (Çev. E. Özkan). İstanbul: Sinek SekizYayınevi. (Orijinalyayıntarihi, 1988).



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Biodiversity

Author
Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

Life on Earth is everywhere, from the deepest point of the ocean to the highest point of mountains; from the coldest polar region to the driest deserts, from bacteria to large mammals. This diversity of life is a consequence of a 4.5 billion year process. The variety of life forms, adaptation skills and measures in response to geological and environmental factors create a boundless spectrum of life. Thus, covering all aspects of this variety in an exact definition is a hard and evolving process (Boenigk et al., 2015). "Why are there so many kinds?", "What is the relation of a kind to its individual representatives?", "Are these kinds arranged systematic ways?". These are questions that were raised by the Greek philosophers, and they are still topical.

During the Earth Summit (United Nations Conference on Environment and Development) of Rio 1992, where 150 states signed the Convention on Biological Diversity, the term "biodiversity" gained recognition in the political arena. This definition is still the most acknowledged one and states that "biodiversity means the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes" (Primack, 2012). The term biodiversity (from "biological diversity") also refers to the variety of life on Earth at all its levels, from genes to ecosystems, and can encompass the evolutionary, ecological, and cultural processes that sustain life (Darçın and Güçlü, 2007).

Three levels of biodiversity are commonly discussed: genetic, species and ecosystem diversity.

1. Genetic diversity is all the different genes contained in all living species, including individual plants, animals, fungi, and microorganisms (Öner, 2011).
2. Species diversity is all the different species, as well as the differences within and between different species.
3. Ecosystem diversity is all the different habitats, biological communities and ecological processes, as well as variation within individual ecosystems.

Healthy ecosystems and rich biodiversity: - Support a larger number of plant species and, therefore, a greater variety of crops, - Promote soils formation and protection, - Provide for nutrient storage and recycling, - Contribute to climate stability, - Speed recovery from natural disasters, - Provide more food resources, - Provide more medicinal resources and pharmaceutical drugs, - and Offer environments for recreation and tourism.

References

- Boenigk, J., Wodniok, S., & Glücksman, E. (2015). Biodiversity and earth history. Springer.
- Primack, RB, Koruma Biyolojisi, Çev. Ali A. Dönmez ve Emel O. Dönmez, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yayınları, 2012.
- Darçın, E. S. and Güçlü, Y. (2007). Biyolojik çeşitlilik ve Türkiye'deki durumu. M. Aydoğdu ve K. Gezer (Ed.) Çevre bilimi içinde (s. 145-166). (2. Baskı). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Öner, C. (2011). Genetik kavramlar (8. Baskı). Ankara: Palme Yayıncılık.
- Morton, S., Sheppard, A., Lonsdale, M. (2014). Biodiversity: Science and Solutions for Australia, CSIRO Publishing



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Energy Flow in Ecosystem

Author
Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

Reece and Campbell (2011) defined an ecosystem as an interacting system including a biotic and abiotic where exchanging matter and energy take place for in their cycling of chemicals. An ecosystem is a community of living organisms and their abiotic (non-living) environment (Ricklefs and Miller, 2000).

Energy usually enters ecosystems as sunlight and is captured in chemical form by photosynthesizers like plants and algae. The energy is then passed through the ecosystem, changing form as organisms metabolize, produce waste, consume one another, and eventually, die and decompose. The energy flow from the sun is taken up by plants, some of which are eaten by herbivores, which, in turn, are eaten by carnivores. Part of the energy flows to the outside of the system (Lao et al., 2020).

The Sun is the original source of energy for almost all organisms on the Earth. The way energy passes through an ecosystem is described as energy flow. Plants trap sunlight energy in chlorophyll and use it in photosynthesis to make food (sugar and starch) that can be passed onto animals. Animals/consumers obtain the food made by plants/producers through feeding. Herbivores (plant-eating animals) are primary consumers. Carnivores (animals who eat other animals) are secondary consumers while those that feed on secondary consumers are tertiary consumers. This sequence of feeding (producers, primary consumers, secondary consumers and tertiary consumers) shows the flow of energy (Sharma, 2009; Callenbach, 2008).

References

- Reece, J. B., & Campbell, N. A. (2011). Campbell biology. Boston: Benjamin Cummings / Pearson Smith, T. M., & Smith, R. L. (2015). Elements of Ecology (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Ricklefs RE, Miller GL (2000). Ecology (4th ed.). New York: W.H. Freeman & Co.
- Lao A, Cabezas H, Orosz Á, Friedler F, Tan R (2020) Socio-ecological network structures from process graphs. PLoS ONE 15(8): e0232384.
- Sharma JP (2009). Environmental studies (3rd ed.). New Delhi: University Science Press



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Energy Flow in Ecosystem

Author
Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

Reece and Campbell (2011) defined an ecosystem as an interacting system including a biotic and abiotic where exchanging matter and energy take place for in their cycling of chemicals. An ecosystem is a community of living organisms and their abiotic (non-living) environment (Ricklefs and Miller, 2000).

Energy usually enters ecosystems as sunlight and is captured in chemical form by photosynthesizers like plants and algae. The energy is then passed through the ecosystem, changing form as organisms metabolize, produce waste, consume one another, and eventually, die and decompose. The energy flow from the sun is taken up by plants, some of which are eaten by herbivores, which, in turn, are eaten by carnivores. Part of the energy flows to the outside of the system (Lao et al., 2020).

The Sun is the original source of energy for almost all organisms on the Earth. The way energy passes through an ecosystem is described as energy flow. Plants trap sunlight energy in chlorophyll and use it in photosynthesis to make food (sugar and starch) that can be passed onto animals. Animals/consumers obtain the food made by plants/producers through feeding. Herbivores (plant-eating animals) are primary consumers. Carnivores (animals who eat other animals) are secondary consumers while those that feed on secondary consumers are tertiary consumers. This sequence of feeding (producers, primary consumers, secondary consumers and tertiary consumers) shows the flow of energy (Sharma, 2009; Callenbach, 2008).

References

- Reece, J. B., & Campbell, N. A. (2011). Campbell biology. Boston: Benjamin Cummings / Pearson Smith, T. M., & Smith, R. L. (2015). Elements of Ecology (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Ricklefs RE, Miller GL (2000). Ecology (4th ed.). New York: W.H. Freeman & Co.
- Lao A, Cabezas H, Orosz Á, Friedler F, Tan R (2020) Socio-ecological network structures from process graphs. PLoS ONE 15(8): e0232384.
- Sharma JP (2009). Environmental studies (3rd ed.). New Delhi: University Science Press



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Sustainable Lifestyle

Author
Assist. Prof. Dr.
Cennet OZAY

Living in balance with nature has become crucial for our survival. The relationship between human and the environment is noteworthy. Environmental demolitions created by the industrial revolution have raised the awareness of people and societies on the environment. The tendency towards environmental issues has increased (Özgenç, 2013). The problems that arise as a result of climate change effects on lives of societies and push governments to find solutions. These breakthroughs have led to significant strategies for sustainability of life by preventing global changes. In the course of time, the policies created against climate change, which has attracted the attention of all countries and harm societies, have created the concept of sustainability (Cohen, 2017).

The concept of sustainability has the main idea to ensure the efficient and careful use of natural resources in line with the needs of the people and to ensure consumption by eliminating, preserving and improving the resources available. Depending on the environmental, economic and social factors, it is important to use resources and to plan without compromising the requirements of future generations (Çeken, 2016).

Definitions of sustainable living in the literature usually refer to using as few resources as possible, reducing carbon footprints, and decreasing environmental damage (Winter, 2007). There are several definitions for sustainable lifestyles. However, The United Nations Environment Programme (2018) subscribes to the following definition: "Sustainability implies living well more equitably within the means of nature. Thus a 'sustainable lifestyle' implies any pattern of individual consumption and social behaviour that could be shared by everyone while still maintaining ecological integrity; it is facilitated by institutions, social norms, and infrastructures that frame individual choices and actions while ensuring that the aggregate rates of biophysical resource use and waste generation are within the regenerative and assimilative capacities of ecosystems."

References

- Cohen, S. (2017). Understanding the Sustainable Lifestyle. The European Financial Review.
Çeken, H. (2016). Sürdürülebilir Turizm: Temel Kavramlar ve İlkeler, Detay Yayıncılık, Ankara
Özgenç, N. (2013). "Sürdürülebilirlik ve Yoksulluk İlişkisi," Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı (Thesis for Expertise), Ankara, p.3
UN Environment 2018 Annual Report
Winter, M. (2007). "Sustainable Living: For Home, Neighborhood and Community." Napa, CA: Westsong Publishing



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Agro Tourism

Author
Sezer YERSÜREN

is defined as "visiting activities such as vineyards, gardens, fields, barns, barns, poultry, etc. agricultural production areas and small-scale and traditional food processing facilities, participating in their daily work, farms, in order to provide additional income to farmers, mainly small farms. It is a form of tourism that includes one or more of the activities such as staying overnight at home, walking around, having fun, shopping and sometimes getting education" (Türkben et al., 2012). Kokko (2011) describes agricultural tourism as sustainable tourism activities carried out in agricultural areas in order to realize rural development and agricultural activities (Civelek&Karadağ, 2020). There are many definitions of agrotourism. The common point of these definitions is the combination of the elements of the tourism sector and the elements of the agricultural sector (Bruch et al., 2005).

Agrotourism is confused by many concepts. In this regard, Nielsen et al., (2010) introduced a limitation that distinguishes agricultural tourism from other concepts. Three basic features such as whether the production activities are carried out on a farm; the nature of communication between tourists and agricultural activities, and the degree of authenticity of the activities performed by tourists in agricultural areas distinguishes agricultural tourism from other concepts.

Agrotourism contributes to the protection of biodiversity, the welfare of local people, and the awareness of tourists and local people. Agrotourism enables tourists and locals to act responsibly about the tourism industry. The consumption of non-returnable resources occurs at the lowest level; participation in tourism management at the local level is considered important, and the development of business opportunities and property in favour of the local people is observed (Yürük, 2011 as cited in Yavuzaslanoğlu&Yavuz, 2012).

Considering the activities of agricultural tourism; accommodation and camping, festivals, farm visits, breakfast, reception, honeymoon organizations, fruit and vegetable collection, animal feeding, picnic, music, fruit festivals, road or farm sales, handicraft sales, educational trips, fairs, fishing, cycling It is seen that activities such as hiking, horse riding, bird watching, tomato paste, pickle, olive oil, jam and similar product processing take place (Yavuzaslanoğlu&Yavuz, 2012 and Çıkın, 2009).

References

- Bruch, M. L., Ziehl, A., Prather, T. G., Bragg, R., Winchester, R., Hankins, C. &McDaniels, P. (2005). Agritourism in focus: A guide for Tennessee farmers. The University of Tennessee. <https://extension.tennessee.edu/publications/documents/PB1754.pdf> (Erişimtarihi: 30.06.2021).
- Çıkın A, Çeken H. veUçar, M. (2009). Turizm tarım sektörüne etkisi, agro-turizm ve ekonomik sonuçları. Tarım Ekonomisi Dergisi, 15 (1), 1-8.
- Civelek, M. veKaradağ, L. (2020). Tarım turizmi çalışmalarının bibliyometrik analizi. Turizm Akademik Dergisi, 2, 145-164.
- Nielsen, N.C., Nissen, K. A. & Just, F. (2010). Rural tourism-return to the farm perspective. 19th Nordic Symposium in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Akureyri, Iceland.
- Türkben, C., Gül, F. veUzar, Y. (2012). Türkiye'de bağcılığın tarım turizmi (agro-turizm) içinde yeri ve önemi. KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi, 14 (23), 47-50.
- Yavuzaslanoğlu, E. veYavuz, M. (2012). Karaman'ın tarım turizmi yönünden potansiyeli. KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi, (1), 31-33.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

SUSTAINABILITY

"Sustainability has to be a way of life to be a way of
business"
- Anand Mahindra



THE GLOBAL GOALS

"Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein"



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Components of Sustainability

Author
Zehra SALTİK

As a concept, sustainability refers to actions, programs or initiatives which aim at the protection of a particular resource. Sustainability offers to build socioeconomic and environmental activities taking nature's constraints and opportunities into consideration. Sustainability focuses on meeting both present and future needs. Sustainability actually based on a set of distinct components: social equity, economic viability and environmental protection. Social equity means building a healthy and equitable society. It includes fair access to education, jobs, housing, transportation, medical services, and recreation areas. The idea behind social sustainability is to provide future generations with greater life quality and the ability to meet their own needs. As a main component of sustainability, social equity is in a close connection with the two other ones. It both supports new local economic opportunities and environmental wellbeing. Economic viability refers to the ongoing prosperity of local and/or regional economy. It claims that economic systems are intact and economic activities are open to everyone, such as safety and security. It relies on creating an economic value out of any projects or decisions undertaken. Economic sustainability requires long term benefits in mind. Economic sustainability prevents to overuse land, plans and provides a green development, reduces unnecessary spendings. Economic sustainability targets rural and urban development, which includes both social and environmental maintenance. Environmental protection refers to improving human welfare through preserving the environment. It is accomplished by decreasing the adverse effects of human activities on ecological systems. It requires a wise use of land, a reduced dependence on fossil-fuel sources, reduced greenhouse gas emissions; reduced consumption of natural resources; and reduced impacts on global warming. It places the focus on how businesses can obtain positive economic outcomes without damaging or destroying the natural environment in short and long term.

References

- Bruch, M. L., Ziehl, A., Prather, T. G., Bragg, R., Winchester, R., Hankins, C. &McDaniels, P. (2005). Agritourism in focus: A guide for Tennessee farmers. The University of Tennessee. <https://extension.tennessee.edu/publications/documents/PB1754.pdf> (Erişimtarihi: 30.06.2021).
- Çıkin A, Çeken H. veUçar, M. (2009). Turizm tarım sektörüne etkisi, agro-turizm ve ekonomik sonuçları. Tarım Ekonomisi Dergisi, 15 (1), 1-8.
- Civelek, M. ve Karadağ, L. (2020). Tarım turizm çalışmalarının bibliyometrik analizi. Turizm Akademik Dergisi, 2, 145-164.
- Nielsen, N.C., Nissen, K. A. & Just, F. (2010). Rural tourism-return to the farm perspective. 19th Nordic Symposium in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Akureyri, Iceland.
- Türkben, C., Gül, F. ve Uzar, Y. (2012). Türkiye'de bağıcılığın tarım turizmi (agro-turizm) içinde yer ve önemi. KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi, 14 (23), 47-50.
- Yavuzaslanoğlu, E. ve Yavuz, M. (2012). Karaman'ın tarım turizmi yönünden potansiyeli. KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi, (1), 31-33.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Globalization

Author
Zehra SALTİK

is a term that originated from the word "global" and has remarkably received attention due to easy access to information, advances in technology, and transportation. Globalization has a multifaceted nature covering economics, culture, environment, international relations, governance, religion, morals and values, and much more. Globalization is viewed as a powerful and unstoppable force that only benefits those who keep up with its objectives, but can be disastrous for those who are not prepared to engage with it and fall behind it. It is a process that brings the world together and leads to new levels of wealth. It is also making state governments or national boundaries less significant. Creating fewer winners but more losers, causes many inequalities. Though there is not a single universally accepted meaning of globalization, substantial theoretical input has been achieved in the definition of the term. In a broad sense, globalization is described as the growing cultural differentiation and functional union of world economics. It represents the growing interdependence across the world and the existing of a global mass culture which results from mass advertising and technological advances in communication. In the strict sense, globalization is the name of the process that enhances the union of world economics and people through advanced technologies in various fields, especially in the field of information technology. As a profound social phenomenon, globalization has a significant impact on economic development, nation prosperity, culture, political system, environment, and human physical wellbeing in a society. Globalization is usually considered from three different perspectives. From a universal perspective, it refers to the phenomenon, problems, events, and characteristics which are universally present. From an integrationist perspective, globalization is viewed as widening, deepening and speeding up connections in all aspects of modern social life. From a constructionist perspective, globalization is interpreted as an order. It unites the elements of power relations. It calls on the presence of a system or structure which offers an integrated capital market, a worldwide political order, a global information, communication or cultural order.

References

- Bartelson, J. (2000). Three Concepts of Globalisation. *International Sociology*. 15(2): 180-196.
- Cuterela, S. (2012). Globalization: Definition, Processes and Concepts. *Romanian Statistical Review*, 60(4): 137-146.
- Davies, E.O. & Egbuch, S.A. (2019). Understanding The Concept of Globalization. *Academic Journal of Current Research*, 6(5): 3244 – 5621.
- Robertson, R. & White, K.E. (2007). What is Globalisation? In G. Ritzer (Ed.). *The Blackwell Companion to Globalization*. (54-66). MA; USA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Walker, G.F. & Fox, M.A. (1996). Globalization: An Analytical Framework. *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies*. 3(2): 375-411.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Climate Change

Author

Mustafa Çağatay KIZILTAŞ

defined as a change in average conditions such as temperature and precipitation in a region over a long period of time, results in a deterioration in the energy balance of the planet (Seinfeld, 2008). As a result of the deterioration in the natural conditions of the global atmosphere, that is, the destruction of forest areas or the incremental injection of greenhouse gases caused by human activities such as increased consumption of fossil fuels, the Earth is warming more than it should. As a result, the climate has changed significantly on geological timelines and ecological systems have begun to change and disappear (Schneider, Roost, & Mastrandrea, 2007) and significant losses in coastal stability and varying erosion rates, along with desertification and changes, cause ice losses (Arendt, Hyland, & Piliouras, 2021). It is estimated that climate change (Thuiller, 2007), which causes ecological deterioration, will cause a worldwide loss of biodiversity and extinction cases will become increasingly common in the future. Climate is changing and influencing individuals and populations through community interactions and ecosystem function. Climate change is thought to lead to a global decline in biodiversity due to its negative effects on endemics and species that are already prone to extinction, such as those at the top of the food chain (Isaac & Williams, 2007). These are of great importance in key regions and key sectors such as agriculture, water resources and biodiversity. Sea level rise, which remains uncertain about its size and speed, poses potentially serious risks, especially for large coastal settlements. International responses to the threat of climate change have been slow and countries have tried to protect their national interests and interests by staying out of important agreements. The global society's ability to cope with the climate change it will face is possible with the participation of all countries and taking precautions (Sweeney, 2009).

References

- Arendt, C., Hyland, E., & Piliouras, A. (2021). The Geological Consequences of Global Climate Change. Encyclopedia of Geology (Second Edition), 510-522.
- Isaac, J., & Williams, S. (2007). Climate Change and Extinctions. Encyclopedia of Biodiversity, 1-7.
- Schneider, S., Roost, T., & Mastrandrea, P. (2007). Climate Change and Wild Species. Encyclopedia of Biodiversity, 1-26.
- Seinfeld, J. (2008). Climate Change. Reviews in Chemical Engineering, 24(1), 1-65.
- Sweeney, J. (2009). Climate Change. International Encyclopedia of Human Geography, 147-155.
- Thuiller, W. (2007). Climate change and the ecologist. Nature, 448, 550-552.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Locality/locals

Author
Mustafa Çağatay KIZILTAŞ

Discussions of locality became a prominent issue of geography around the world in the 1980s and 1990s (Cooke, 2009). It is one of the greatest phenomena of social theory that in modern society's locality is surrounded by a feature of social life. The locality is a fragile social structure by its very nature. The long-term reproduction of a region that is considered practical, valuable and natural at the same time is dependent on the uninterrupted interaction of localized spaces and times with local subjects who have the knowledge to reinvent locality (Appadurai, 1995). Particularly in the environmental and ecological sciences, localities are a combination of multiple processes and their effects occur at local and regional scales. Global changes are shaped by the combination of phenomena that occur in particular locales, and large-scale, that is, global, national or broad regional processes and structures also shape what is seen locally (Wilbanks, 2001). Local people find and interact more with each other without the intervention of the traditional tourism industry, resulting in the emergence of brand new areas of economic, cultural and social exchange (Richards, 2014). It is seen that the more developed a region, the more negatively the attitudes and perceptions shared by the local people are affected. As the local people move from non-professional relations towards tourism, as they move to management level and higher positions such as business ownership in tourism professions, their level of discomfort from the negative effects of tourism development decreases and their perspectives on tourism and tourists are shaped in a positive way (Mansfeld&Ginosar, 1994). The locals' close and warm treatment of tourists and their hospitality can connect the tourists to the region they go to and enable them to stay there for a longer period of time. When tourists return to their country, they can make positive propaganda and encourage others to go there. Aggressive and cold behaviour towards tourists can lead to a decrease in the expected benefits from tourism. In order for the phenomenon of interaction, cohesion, agreement and closeness between people, which is one of the most important benefits expected from tourism, to be realized, there must be intense and satisfying relations between tourists and locals (Doğan, 2004).

References

- Appadurai, A. (1995). The production of locality. R. Fardon içinde, Counterworks. Routledge.
- Cooke, P. (2009). Locality Debates. International Encyclopedia of Human Geography, 256-262.
- Doğan, H. (2004). Turizmin Sosyo-Kültürel Temelleri. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Mansfeld, Y., & Ginosar, O. (1994). Determinants of locals' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development in their locality. Geoforum, 25(2), 227-248.
- Richards, G. (2014). The new geographies of tourism: Space, place and locality. Academia.edu: https://www.academia.edu/10147781/The_new_geographies_of_tourism_Space_place_and_locality
- Wilbanks, T. (2001). Local-Global Linkages, Environmental Aspects. International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences, 9008-9011.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Ecolabelling

Author
Kristina DAPKUTE

Talking about marketing sustainable rural tourism, one of the ways to increase competitiveness of tourism products or services might be eco-labels. So it is important to describe the definition and benefits of ecolabelling. Ecolabelling is a method of labelling and certification of environmental performance, by awarding eco-labels to services or products. Eco-labels indicate that these services or products are environmentally better in some specific categories. Global Ecolabelling Network (GEN) members offer independent third body verification and guarantee that these eco-labelled services or products meet certain environmental performance requirements, based on life cycle considerations. Product categories and requirements may vary, but all standards address multiple health and environmental issues which may include recyclability, use of natural resources, use of energy and water, air quality, toxicity, and other areas of concern.

Ecolabelling has many benefits, including:

- Educational role for customers (by choosing an eco-labelled product or service, the customer can better understand the benefits of certain products, such as recycled paper and etc.);
- Promotion of competition among manufacturers (because certified products have a prominent logo that helps inform customers about their choices, so the product becomes more visible);
- Stimulation of market development (customers have a direct impact on supply and demand in the market by choosing eco-labelled products);
- Encouragement of continuous improvement (because customers can have an expectation to see the environmental impact of these eco-labelled products decline over time).

In the tourism industry ecolabels can be awarded to the tourist destination (a specific town or city, a national park or specified region), accommodation providers, hotels, campsites, serviced apartments, restaurants, shops, transport, tourist activities and others. So, especially in the field of sustainable rural tourism, it should be important to have more eco-labelled products or services in order to be more attractive to customers and to raise the standard of living in a more environmentally friendly way.

References

- Global Ecolabelling Network. What is Ecolabelling. Source: <https://globalecolabelling.net/what-is-eco-labelling/>
- Arron Wilde Tippett, Else Ragni Yttredal, Øivind Strand, 2020. An Overview of Ecolabels for Small to Medium Sized Tourism Enterprises. Source: https://www.waddensea-worldheritage.org/sites/default/files/2020_overview%20of%20ecolabels.pdf
- Samantha Davis, 2014. Ecolabelling. Source: <https://sustainabletourismmbcc.wordpress.com/2014/11/18/eco-labelling/>



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Green Key

Author
Kristina DAPKUTE

When traveling, people rarely think about their impact on the environment, but in order to preserve those places of interest, objects and nature itself for future generations, more attention should be paid to sustainability. The tourism sector has an important role to play here, which can contribute to sustainability and public education. Therefore, when it comes to sustainability in the tourism sector, it is important to discuss the concept of the “Green Key”.

“Green Key” is an independent international eco-label for tourism establishments, that meets internationally fixed strict environmental and sustainability criteria, covering 13 areas, such as environmental management, water, waste and energy savings, guest and staff participation and awareness, food and beverage management, green areas, etc.

“Green Key” can be awarded to hotels, hostels, campsites, holiday parks, small accommodations, conference centers, attractions and restaurants.

Tourism establishments that have been awarded “Green Key” certificate primarily aim to reduce the direct impact on the environment by working with eco-labeled cleaning products, implementing energy and water saving systems, sorting waste, using organic products, promoting fair trade in local organic food, and so on.

After receiving a “Green Key” certificate, the establishment undertakes to introduce and educate all staff on sustainability issues and to ensure that these criteria are met. This is ensured by rigorous documentation and frequent monitoring by the Foundation for Environmental Education (FEE).

Guests visiting a “Green Key” certified site are also introduced to the objectives of this certificate and can contribute to sustainability in a variety of ways. For example, in order to save water resources, towels may be given for washing only when really needed, or instead of the whole room lighting, guest can choose a table lamp only and so on.

So, by holding a “Green Key” certificate, tourism establishments not only aim to reduce the negative impact on the environment and increase sustainability in the tourism sector, but can also contribute to raising public awareness.

References

GreenKeyCriteria <https://www.greenkey.global/criteria>

BrandingguidelinesGreenKey:

<https://static1.squarespace.com/static/55371f97e4b0fce8c1ee4c69/t/59f9c23f53450a410e3e2087/1509540422740/Green+Key+Branding+Guidelines+external+version.pdf>

GreenKeycertificationprogram: <https://certifications.controlunion.com/en/certification-programs/certification-programs/green-key>



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Overtourism

Author
Kristina DAPKUTE

is, therefore, not a new problem. The concept of overtourism has been discussed in recent years as one of the most debatable issues related to tourism in the media and, increasingly, in academia. It seems that, as a concept, overtourism has emerged rapidly and the terms of 'overtourism' or 'tourismphobia' have made headlines in recent times, but overtourism is not the new phenomena. In 1980, Erschbamer et al. noted that the magazine GEO had raised a critical question: "How many tourists per hectare of beach?", and the concept of "carrying capacity" was discussed, which was subsequently also explored later—such as in the 1990s, by various tourism researchers, to shed light upon the maximum destination load. Various authors argue that overtourism is not the same as mass tourism; although the growing number of tourists is the cause of overtourism, some areas are able to cope with large tourist numbers. Overtourism phenomena is more related to perceptible tourism encounters, environmental changes, and violations of human life. In recent years, particularly in Europe, have started open and critical discussions about the desirability of further developing tourism growth perspectives. Overtourism, which accelerates and intensifies the distorted link between tourists and nature. Overtourism is associated with the fact that the rights of travelers, who are tourists moving for entertainment and consumption purposes, are not equivalent to the residents' rights—local residents and those people who have changed their place of residence. Thus, there is a need for balancing the right to travel and the residents' rights. Therefore, we should rethink our understanding of nature tourism using a distinctive approach to tourism development involving nature tourism development as well as community based tourism, responsible tourism, slow tourism

References

- Perkumienė, D., Pranskūnienė, R. (2019). Overtourism: between the right to travel and residents' rights. Sustainability. Vol. 11, Iss. 7, p. 1-17. DOI: 10.3390/su11072138.
- Pranskūnienė, R., Perkumienė, D. (2020). Debating the right to travel. The overtourism debate. In Oskam, J.A. (Ed.). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing. ISBN 9781838674885, p. 27-42. DOI:10.1108/978-1-83867-487-820201004.
- Hall, C.M. A typology of governance and its implications for tourism policy analysis. J. Sustain. Tour. 2011,19, 437–457.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Sustainable Tourism

Author
Kristina DAPKUTE

could be described as a balance between environmental, social and economic aspects of development in a long term perspective. Nevertheless, sustainable tourism should meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Sustainable tourism development should involve not only tourism businesses, government and visitors, but also local communities and indigenous people. Sustainable tourism should also ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists and maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction. As well to raise tourists' awareness of sustainability issues and to promote sustainable tourism practices.

On the other hand, sustainable tourism should respect the social and cultural authenticity of the host communities, preserve the traditional values they create and the living cultural heritage. Thus, sustainable tourism plays a very important role in promoting intercultural understanding and tolerance.

Accordingly in order to ensure the balance of these three environmental, social and economic sustainable tourism aspects, economy should be based on the local community, conservation should go along with justice. Moreover, there should be environmental and economic integration.

However, it is also important for the tourism industry to have an evaluation system that can ensure business progress in the field of sustainability. One of the options in order to measure results and progress is benchmarking. For example, it is possible to measure fresh water consumption in liters or cubic meters (m³) per guest per night or electricity and energy consumption in kilowatt hours (kWh) per square meter of serviced space and so on.

So with these benchmarking categories, tourism industry can achieve not just a rhetorical goals of sustainability, but a real, tangible measurable benefits. This might help for tourism businesses in competition with other businesses, as well as improve improvement in their daily performance. In the bigger picture, it's all about sustainability, which helps create a positive impact for future generations.

References

Renata Dagiliūtė, Žydrūnė Bartkutė, 2014. Kas yra darnus turizmas? Žinių ir nuostatų tyrimas. Source: https://zua.vdu.lt/wp-content/uploads/2019/02/125_Dagil.pdf

Sustainable tourism. 2015. Source: http://www.greentourism.eu/en/Post/Name/SustainableTourism#_ftnref1

UNWTO, 2005. Sustainable tourism development. Source: <https://www.unwto.org/sustainable-development>



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

HERITAGE

“He who denies his heritage has no heritage.”
– Khalil Gibran





Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Cultural Heritage

Author
Ján Illéš

means values that were created by previous generations and which we inherited. We need to preserve, maintain them, and pass them to the next generations which will come after us. Usually, we understand cultural heritage in a materialistic way as an immovable property – for example, historical buildings, or monuments, or as a movable property – for example, paintings, sculptures, books, or artefacts in museum collections. However, the term cultural heritage includes also intangible elements, for example, folk traditions, songs, dances, or customs representing communities. The Convention Concerning the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage, which was adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1972 was significant for the start of the world heritage protection movement. The cultural heritage of rural communities reflects their interaction with nature and their history, their rural way of life and work, historically usually tied to agriculture. These interactions create a specific identity and provide cultural diversity. The contemporary ways of rural life are changing, but it is very important to understand the rural cultural heritage and the fact that it is worth preserving and transmitting to future generations. But, at the same time, it is important to avoid freezing the rural heritage and to avoid its ‘folklorisation’. It is needed to question the heritage constantly and bring new life into it.

Cultural heritage represents an important attraction for tourism in rural areas. The importance of rural cultural heritage, the uniqueness of rural villages and rural areas in a physical and social sense, has been widely recognized in the world in recent years.

References

1. BLAKE, Janet. “On Defining the Cultural Heritage.” *The International and Comparative Law Quarterly*, vol. 49, no. 1, 2000, pp. 61–85. JSTOR, www.jstor.org/stable/761578. Accessed 26 Apr. 2021.
2. VECCO, Marilena. A definition of cultural heritage: From the tangible to the intangible. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*, vol. 11, no. 3, July–September 2010, p. 321-324.
3. ALZHRANI, Damna A. The Adoption of a Standard Definition of Cultural Heritage, *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, Vol. 3, No. 1, January 2013, p. 9-12
4. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - GÉCOVÁ, Katarína - PUTROVÁ, Eva. Watercourse as cultural heritage in contemporary urbanism: Preservation approaches from Košice and Prešov in Slovakia. In *ArchNet IJAR*. Vol. 9, Iss. 1 (2015), p. 122-133.
5. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - JASZCZAK AGNIESZKA - ILLES, Juraj. Location patterns of small sacral architecture in rural landscapes – Case studies from Eastern Slovakia. In *5th World Multidisciplinary Civil Engineering-Architecture-Urban Planning Symposium - WMCAUS 2020 proceedings*, 15–19 June 2020, Prague, Czech Republic. Bristol: IOP Publishing, 2020, art. no. 022013.
6. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Rural development through restoration of historic cultural landscape values. In *Book of Abstracts: International scientific-practical conference. Management - Cooperation – Inovations*. 25 November 2016, Kaunas, Lithuania, Kaunas: Akademijs, 2016, p. 43-44.
7. DJUKIC, Aleksandra - VLASTOS, Thanos - JOKLOVÁ, Viera. Liveable open public space - from Flaneur to Cyborg. In *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*. Vol. 11380, *CyberParks - The Interface Between People, Places and Technology. New Approaches and Perspectives* (2019), s. 38-49



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Cultural Landscape Heritage

Author
Ján Illéš

While natural landscapes are shaped by nature, cultural landscapes are shaped by man. These landscapes are the results of a long-term relationship between man and nature and reflect the economic, ecological, social, and cultural ties between land and communities, they represent a symbiosis of human activity and environment. Rural cultural landscapes represent a great diversity of the interactions between communities and their environment, specific land uses result in a great variety of cultural landscapes in the different regions of the world, with their specific features and character, for example, cultivated terraces of rice fields, vineyard landscapes, or agro-pastoral landscapes. Farmers have a key role in shaping and maintaining the rural landscape, with their knowledge of natural and environmental conditions. Cultural landscapes reflect beliefs and the spiritual relationship between people and landscapes, including memories and sacred places. Exceptional cultural landscapes are listed on the UNESCO World Heritage List. They fall into three categories. The first is designed landscapes, for example, garden and parkland landscapes. In the second category are organically evolved landscapes, with sub-categories of relict landscapes and continuing landscapes, in which the evolutionary process is still in progress. The third category is represented by associative cultural landscapes, with strong religious, artistic, or cultural associations. But not only cultural landscapes of outstanding values deserve our attention. The European Landscape Convention 2000 brought attention also to ordinary and everyday landscapes. It aims to encourage landscape policies not restricted to the protection of exceptional landscapes but also to consider everyday landscapes and to promote landscape protection, management, and planning. Cultural landscapes constantly develop and reflect the dynamics of the contemporary world and communities constantly recreate the surrounding landscapes.

References

1. JONES, M. (2003) The Concept of Cultural Landscape: Discourse and Narratives. In: Palang H., Fry G. (eds) Landscape Interfaces. Landscape series, vol 1. Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-0189-1_3
2. MELNÍČEK, Robert Z. Protecting Rural Cultural Landscapes: Finding Value in the Countryside. Landscape Journal Vol. 2, No. 2 (Fall 1983), p. 85-96.
3. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Tree alleys - specific green corridors and their disappearance from cultural landscape of Nitra region. In Fábos Conference on Landscape and Greenway Planning: Pathways to Sustainability. University of Massachusetts Amherst, 12-13 April, 2013. 1. vyd. Massachusetts : University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2013, p. 252-269.
4. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - JASZCZAK AGNIESZKA - ILLES, Juraj. Location patterns of small sacral architecture in rural landscapes – Case studies from Eastern Slovakia. In 5th World Multidisciplinary Civil Engineering-Architecture-Urban Planning Symposium - WMCAUS 2020 proceedings. 15–19 June 2020, Prague, Czech Republic. Bristol: IOP Publishing, 2020, art. no. 022013.
5. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Rural development through restoration of historic cultural landscape values. In Book of Abstracts: International scientific-practical conference. Management - Cooperation – Innovations. 25 November 2016, Kaunas, Lithuania, Kaunas: Akademija, 2016, p. 43-44.
6. JASZCZAK A., Dreksler B. 2011. Identification of distinguishing features of cultural landscape in revitalization projects, Annals of Warsaw University of Life Sciences – SGGW Horticulture and Landscape Architecture No 32, 2011: 63–73.
7. JASZCZAK A. 2011. Transformations of Cultural Landscape in the Context of Socio-Economic Processes, Illustrated with Examples of Selected Regions of Poland and Germany. W: Problems of Management and Environmental Protection: 7, 51-62.
8. LUENGO, A.: World Heritage agricultural landscapes. In: World Heritage Review; 69, Publ: 2013, p. 8-15.
9. JOKLOVÁ, Viera - DJUKIC, Aleksandra - HARMANESCU MIHAELA - JANČOVÁ, Nina. Conceptual approaches to environmental quality and livability in smaller cities. In Book on the unexplored cultural heritage in communities by the Danube : DANuRB 2017 - 2019. 1. vydanie. Praha, Česko : Gasset, 2019, S. 104-109.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Sociocultural Infrastructure

Author
Ján Illéš

is understood as services and facilities needed for the social and cultural needs of society. The availability of social and cultural infrastructure and availability of its primary amenities for the population ensures the satisfaction of basic human needs. However, access to adequate sociocultural infrastructure in rural areas is often limited. Accessibility to these services and amenities is crucial for the well-being of rural residents. So there is a need to recognize and guarantee access to cultural and social services in rural areas through adequate policies and institutional frameworks. Access to museums, art schools, libraries, galleries, theatres, and monuments facilitates social interactions and enables people to express their cultural identities. Cultural heritage, tangible and intangible cultural assets must be integrated into rural development processes to prevent social fragmentation and social exclusion in rural areas, to enhance cultural diversity, and links between culture and identity, and to promote inclusion, equity, and social cohesion in rural areas. The importance of social-cultural aspects is often neglected, but they significantly contribute to the socio-economic development of rural areas. Sociocultural infrastructure is fundamental to making rural areas livable and sustainable. Education possibilities are very important in strengthening socio-cultural components. In rural settlements which do not have a sufficient level of social infrastructure development, the level of satisfaction of residents with living conditions is very low. Social infrastructure is a multidimensional phenomenon and the social and cultural infrastructure management supporting processes, programs, events, services, networks, and actions is important to achieve the desired level and quality of services and facilities in rural settlements to meet the social and personal needs of rural communities.

References

1. STRAUF, Simone, 2011. The contribution of cultural infrastructure and events to regional development, ERSA conference papers ersa10p267, European Regional Science Association.
2. KOSSYMBAYEVA, Shynar, ATKOCIUNIENE Vilma, NUKESHEVA Anar, BALKIBAYEVA Aida. Peculiarities of Rural Social Infrastructure Management. Research for Rural Development Economics 2019, Volume 2. 139-145. DOI: 10.22616/rrd.25.2019.061
3. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Rural development through restoration of historic cultural landscape values. In Book of Abstracts: International scientific-practical conference. Management - Cooperation – Innovations. 25 November 2016, Kaunas, Lithuania, Kaunas: Akademija, 2016, p. 43-44.
4. JASZCZAK A., DREKSLER B. 2011. Identification of distinguishing features of cultural landscape in revitalization projects, Annals of Warsaw University of Life Sciences – SGGW Horticulture and Landscape Architecture No 32, 2011: 63–73.
5. JASZCZAK A. 2011. Transformations of Cultural Landscape in the Context of Socio-Economic Processes, Illustrated with Examples of Selected Regions of Poland and Germany. W: Problems of Management and Environmental Protection: 7, 51-62.
6. JASZCZAK, A.; KRISTIANOVA, K.; POCHODYŁA, E.; KAZAK, J.K.; MŁYNARCZYK, K. Revitalization of Public Spaces in Cittaslow Towns: Recent Urban Redevelopment in Central Europe. Sustainability 2021, 13, 2564. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052564>
7. Jaszczak A., Łaguna W., Žukovskis J. 2010. The identity of regional projects in the rural areas: methodological and management aspects. Management theory and studies for rural business and infrastructure development. 2010. Nr. 23 (4). Research papers: 45-53. <http://mts.asu.lt/mtsrbid/article/view/426/451>
8. Jaszczak A., Žukovskis J. 2011. Landscape Valuation in Development of Rural Tourism: Case Study of Ostfriesland (Germany). Management theory and studies for rural business and infrastructure development. 2011. Nr. 5 (29). Research papers: 89-95., <http://mts.asu.lt/mtsrbid/article/view/317>
9. DJUKIC, Aleksandra - VLASTOS, Thanos - JOKLOVÁ, Viera. Liveable open public space - from Flaneur to Cyborg. In Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Vol. 11380, CyberParks - The Interface Between People, Places and Technology. New Approaches and Perspectives (2019), s. 38-49



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Historical Landscape Structures

Author
Juraj Illéš

represent unique physical and spatial features in landscapes, which are preserved from the past. Historical structures of the rural agricultural landscape are represented for example in landscape patterns of the fields as a result of agricultural activity. The historical structures of the agricultural landscape have an irreplaceable landscape ecological and cultural-historical significance. They are a picture of a long, evolving relationship between man and the landscape. The landscape elements of the historical agricultural landscape structures are a result of a traditional way of farming and are considered to be important phenomena of a cultural landscape. They are witnessing the development of the agricultural landscape of many cultures. For example, in Slovakia, the historical structures of the agricultural landscape consist of three basic types - of vineyard landscape, the plough-meadow-pasture landscape, and the agricultural landscape with scattered settlements. The historical landscape structures of the rural areas consist of strip ploughshares alternating with meadows and pastures in the former fields, bordered by hedgerows overgrown with wild roses and wild cherries, vineyards with remnants of stone walls and fences, or high-stem orchards. In many such areas, horses and traditional tools are still used for agricultural work. The unique character of the landscape is completed by the small rural architecture of wells, haystacks, traditional wooden houses with shingles, potato cellars, wooden painted crosses, and preserved traditions of folk art. Woody plants around old roads, entrances, or terraces create an important element of the historical landscape structures. Islands of species-rich plant and animal communities, which are highly diverse parts of these structures are also important in terms of preserving landscape diversity and biodiversity. The historical landscape structures of agricultural land are endangered mainly due to the abandonment of traditional historical forms of agriculture and land management, the abandonment of rural settlements and rural landscapes. The protection of such types of landscapes, the promotion of their natural development, and the preservation of their typical character, which documents and creates the identity of the territory, is also the aim of the European Landscape Convention.

References

1. Kučera, Petr, Novák, Jaroslav, Löw, Jiří, Dohnal Tomáš. Historical Landscape Structures and Their Importance for Landscape Character Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis 63(1):49-57. DOI: 10.11118/actaun201563010049
2. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Tree alleys - specific green corridors and their disappearance from cultural landscape of Nitra region. In Fábos Conference on Landscape and Greenway Planning : Pathways to Sustainability. University of Massachusetts Amherst, 12-13 April, 2013. 1. vyd. Massachusetts : University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2013, s.p. 252-269. ISBN 2326-9936.
3. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Historic tree allées in Slovak landscape - approaches to heritage preservation. In 51st IFLA World Congress International Federation of Landscape Architects, 5.6.-7.6.2014, Buenos Aires, Argentina [elektronický zdroj]. 1. vyd. Buenos Aires : International Federation of Landscape Architects, 2014, CD-ROM, p. 14-18. ISBN 978-987-96680-2-3. V databáze: SCOPUS: 2-s2.0-84954120415.
4. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Changing Powers in Medieval Landscape of Spiš. In ECLAS 2012 Conference The Power of Landscape : Peer Reviewed Proceedings of ECLAS 2012 Conference at Warsaw University of Life Sciences - SGGW 19-22 September 2012, Varšava, Poľská republika. Varšava : Warsaw University of Life Sciences - SGGW, 2012, s.p. 46-49. ISBN 978-83-935884-0-4.
5. MOJSES Matej, PETROVIČ František. Land use changes of historical structures in the agricultural landscape at the local level — Hriňová case study. Ekológia (Bratislava), Vol. 32, No. 1, p. 1—12, 2013.
6. SLÁMOVÁ, Martina, JANČURA, Peter, DANIŠ, Dušan. Methods of historical landscape structures identification and implementation into landscape studies Ekologia 32 (3), 267-276.
- JOKLOVÁ, Viera - DJUKIC, Aleksandra - HARMANESCU MIHAELA - JANČOVÁ, Nina. Conceptual approaches to environmental quality and livability in smaller cities. In Book on the unexplored cultural heritage in communities by the Danube : DANURB 2017 - 2019. 1. vydanie. Praha, Česko : Gasset, 2019, S. 104-109.

“Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein”



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Natural Heritage

Author
Juraj Illéš

means heritage created by nature. It means that it refers to valuable natural sites and various outstanding natural elements which may feature exceptional diverse values. For example exceptional species richness, as areas that constitute habitats of threatened species of animals and plants, or areas that may show spectacular geological features, such as geological and physiographical formations. It includes for example landmarks and significant views, or notable trees or groups of trees with significant historical, botanical, or amenity values. Natural heritage has aesthetic, historic, scientific, and social significance for the present communities, as well as for future generations. Natural heritage is associated with the natural environments of rural areas. In rural areas, it is very important to preserve and conserve areas considered important for the elements of biodiversity, including flora and fauna, ecosystems, and the habitats of endangered species of plants and animals. Natural heritage is essential also for the economic development of rural areas and is a driver of tourism development in rural areas. The natural environments of rural areas are attractive for recreational and sports activities. However, tourism and recreation growth may create increased pressure on natural resources, and there is a danger that places of exceptional natural beauty or ecological importance will be threatened and will suffer from over-tourism. That is why protecting natural heritage in rural areas is very essential and needs specific heritage management strategies in an integrated manner to preserve both the natural heritage values and also the important roles they play in rural economic development. In rural areas, it is important to identify outstanding natural features and landscapes and protect them from inappropriate use, subdivision, and development. Identification considers the following factors: geology, topography, hydrology, vegetation cover, ecology, natural processes, aesthetic values, and memorability. Sound management of outstanding natural landscapes and outstanding natural features strengthens the role they play in rural economic development, the potential for generating local economic benefits, and local economic linkages associated with the natural heritage.

References

1. Courtney, P., Hill, G., & Roberts, D. J. (2006). The role of the natural heritage in rural development: An empirical analysis of economic linkages in Scotland. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 22, 469-484. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2006.02.003>
2. ŠTĚPÁNKOVÁ, Roberta - KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Top down strategies and bottom up initiatives in geoparks development in Slovakia. In SGEM 2015. 15th International Multidisciplinary Scientific Geoconference. Ecology, Economics, Education and Legislation : conference proceedings, 18.-24.6.2015, Albena, Bulgaria. 1. vyd. Sofia : STEF 92 Technology, 2015, S. 977-983.
3. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - KAISHEVA MARGARITA - BOSTENARU DAN MARIA. Natural Landscapes. In Book on the unexplored cultural heritage in communities by the Danube : DANURB 2017 - 2019. 1. vydanie. Praha, Česko : Gasset, 2019, S. 24-31. ISBN 978-80-87079-63-8.
4. RUIZ PULPÓN, Ángel R.; CAÑIZARES RUIZ, María d.C. 2020. "Enhancing the Territorial Heritage of Declining Rural Areas in Spain: Towards Integrating Top-Down and Bottom-Up Approaches" *Land* 9, no. 7: 216. <https://doi.org/10.3390/land9070216>
5. JASZCZAK, Agnieszka, ŽUKOVSKÍŠ, Jan. 2011. Landscape Valuation in Development of Rural Tourism: Case Study of Ostfriesland (Germany). *Management theory and studies for rural business and infrastructure development*. 2011. Nr. 5 (29). Research papers:89-95., <http://mts.asu.lt/mtsrbid/article/view/317>
6. Jaszczak A., Žukovskis J. Antolák M. 2017. The Role of Rural Renewal Program in Planning of the Village Public Spaces: Systematic Approach Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development., Vol. 39. No. 4: 32-441 <https://doi.org/10.15544/mts.2017.30>
- JOKLOVÁ, V. - DJUKIC, A. – HARMANESCU, M. - JANČOVÁ, N.. Conceptual approaches to environmental quality and livability in smaller cities. In Book on the unexplored cultural heritage in communities by the Danube : DANURB 2017 - 2019. 1. vydanie. Praha, Česko : Gasset, 2019, S. 104-109

"Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein"



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Intangible Heritage

Author
Juraj Illéš

means not only material heritage objects as for example architectural monuments, heritage sites, or other physical objects, but it includes also intangible, non-material heritage values which we inherited from our ancestors and that we need to preserve and pass on to our descendants.

Intangible heritage means the cultural traditions of communities, their social practices, rituals, festive events, their oral traditions, stories, poems, legends, folk songs, folk dances, also knowledge and skills to perform arts and traditional crafts. In the face of growing globalization, intangible cultural heritage is an important factor in maintaining cultural diversity. Important is that intangible cultural heritage does not represent only inherited traditions from the past but includes also contemporary social and cultural practices in which diverse rural and urban cultural groups take part. Intangible cultural heritage is very fragile. If communities do not maintain and transmit it – it may vanish. It can be preserved only when it is recognized by the communities, groups, and individuals who value and practice it. Many forms of intangible cultural heritage are under threat today. As cultural practices become globalized, many traditional practices are abandoned. The changing ways of life threaten the preservation of historical-cultural traditions of communities and therefore also researchers and institutions can contribute and may help to safeguard the full range and richness of these cultural traditions, expressed in oral forms, tales, riddles, nursery rhymes, legends, myths, songs, prayers, dramatic performances, performing arts, social practices, rituals, and festive events, or skills and knowledge involved in craftsmanship.

Safeguarding the intangible cultural heritage of rural communities is important for maintaining their specific identities, and can significantly contribute to local tourism development.

References

1. GONZÁLEZ, Miguel Vidal. Intangible heritage tourism and identity, *Tourism Management*, Volume 29, Issue 4, 2008, p. 807-810.
2. SMITH, Laurajane, AKAGAWA Natsuko (eds.) *Intangible Heritage*. Routledge London and New York, 2009.
3. RUGGLES, D. Fairchild, SILVERMAN, Helaine (eds.) *Intangible Heritage Embodied*, Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg London New York, 2009.
4. BORTOLOTTI, Chiara. From Objects to Processes: Unesco's 'Intangible Cultural Heritage'. *Journal of Museum Ethnography*, no. 19, 2007, pp. 21–33.
5. DEACON, Harriet, DONDOLO, Luvuyo, MRUNATA, Mbulelo and PROSALENDIS, Sandra (2004) *The Subtle Power of Intangible Heritage: Legal and Financial Instruments for Safeguarding Intangible Heritage*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council.
6. BUDREYKO, E. - JOKLOVÁ, Viera. Innovative digital tools for ecological approaches in urban design in Slovak context. In *Proceedings - 2018 International Conference on Engineering Technologies and Computer Science, EnT 2018 : 20-21 March 2018 : Moskva, Ruská federácia. 1. vydanie. Piscataway, USA : Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, 2018, S. 101-105*



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Tangible Heritage

Author
Juraj Illéš

refers to the classical understanding of heritage as materialistic physical immovable and movable physical objects, such as buildings and monuments, or artistic creations and other physical products of human creativity that possess significant cultural importance for a society. The term tangible heritage is mostly associated with archaeological sites, historical monuments, historical architecture, historic sites, and artefacts of material culture related to various historical periods including contemporary culture. In a rural environment, tangible cultural heritage is represented mostly by the architecture of rural settlements, by buildings serving rural communities for dwelling, working, and maintaining their cultural traditions and religion, and also the ways how they are clustered together into villages or other types of settlements. Tangible heritage in rural villages and rural landscapes is represented not only by traditional rural houses, and objects of sacral architecture, but also by buildings used for agricultural production, farming, herding, forestry, buildings related to crafts or industry, services and businesses traditionally connected to rural economies, for example, mills, stables, hay-barns, wine houses, or workshops. Important are also various movable physical artefacts representing traditional rural culture – for example, harvesting equipment and tools. It is important to protect and preserve not only the most visible, exceptional, and outstanding rural heritage, but also to give attention to the most hidden and threatened heritage, usually everyday elements, which are often overlooked and their values are not recognized, become obsolete and abandoned, threatened by slow deterioration and disappearance. Historical traditional rural buildings represent great potential for new uses, and when properly restored, respecting cultural heritage values, they are very attractive for tourism development and use for accommodation and services.

References

- 1.LA PAN, Chantell, BARBIERÌ, Carla (2014) The role of agritourism in heritage preservation, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17:8, 666-673, DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2013.849667
- 2.JASZCZAK Agnieszka - KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - VAZNONIENĚ Gintarė - ZUKOVSKIS Jan. Phenomenon of abandoned villages and its impact on transformation of rural landscapes. In *Management Theory and Studies for Rural Business and Infrastructure Development*. Vol. 40, No. 4 (2018), p. 467-480.
- 3.JASZCZAK AGNIESZKA - KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Social and cultural role of greenery in development of cittaslow towns. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*. Vol. 603, (2019), art. no. 032028 [9].
- 4.SCHMITZ, Serge and PEPE Lauriano. (2021) Does Local Rural Heritage Still Matter in a Global Urban World?, *Geographical Review*, DOI: 10.1080/00167428.2021.1890996
- 5.GRAZULEVICIUTE-VILENISKI, Indre, VITKUVIENE Jurga. Towards Integration of Rural Heritage in Rurban Landscapes. Case of Lithuanian Manor Residences. *American Journal of Tourism Management* 2012, 1(2): 53-63 DOI: 10.5923/j.tourism.20120102.04
- 6.JASZCZAK A., ŁAGUNA W., ŽUKOVSKIS J. 2010. The identity of regional projects in the rural areas: methodological and management aspects. *Management theory and studies for rural business and infrastructure development*. 2010. Nr. 23 (4). Research papers: 45-53. <http://mts.asu.lt/mtsrbid/article/view/426/451>
- 7.DJUKIC, Aleksandra - VLASTOS, Thanos - JOKLOVÁ, Viera. Liveable open public space - from Flaneur to Cyborg. In *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*. Vol. 11380, *CyberParks - The Interface Between People, Places and Technology*. New Approaches and Perspectives (2019), s. 38-49

"Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein"



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Traditional Rural Crafts

Author
Nina Jančová

refer to the traditional crafts production that is carried on, simply for everyday practical use, in the agricultural countryside. Rural crafts tend to vary in their styles from place to place, and thus often contribute strongly to a sense of place. Handmade traditional artefacts are appreciated for their unique aesthetic value. The fundamental characteristic of a handmade article is its uniqueness, as opposed to manufactured ones. They maintain their own aesthetic, character and value, thus remaining unique. Not being generally produced for sale, they do not fall under the description of handicraft. Not being produced as a hobby, they do not qualify as arts and crafts. Not (until very recently) being produced by a dedicated full-time worker, but rather being part of a general repertoire of skills, they have not been produced for sale by an artisan class of makers. The exceptions to the latter would be the wheelwrights, saddle-makers and blacksmiths. Examples of rural crafts would be embroidery and needlework, basketry, ceramics, bobbin winding, carving, blacksmithing, honey making, bakery, production of slippers and clothes, carpet weaving, and construction of ceramic kilns. An important motive for the preservation of traditional folk crafts is folk traditions and customs. Painting Easter eggs, building and decorating of May tree, carnival verses, and a wealth of folk songs, all represent the artistic spirit and creativity of our ancestors, which persists and multiplies the identity of rural regions. Over the last century, the demise of rural crafts has been frequently forecast. And yet they remain, some in better shape than others, to provide a counterpoint to the conventions of modern living.

References

1. Corinne Geering. Reclaiming Rural Skills: Crafts from the European Countryside in the Global Market. Council for European Studies (CES), <https://www.europenowjournal.org/2020/11/09/reclaiming-rural-skills-crafts-from-the-european-countryside-in-the-global-market/>
2. Shirley, Rosemary. Rural Modernity, Everyday Life and Visual Culture, Farnham, England: Ashgate, 2015. 173 pp.
3. Margaret Perivoliotis Chryssovergis. Long distance training for rural women craft producers. International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology (IJEDICT), 2006, Vol. 2, Issue 2, pp. 8299.
4. Kaplan, Wendy. 2004. The Arts & Crafts Movement in Europe and America: Design for the Modern World. London: Thames & Hudson.
5. JOKLOVÁ, Viera - BACOVÁ, Andrea. Effective housing, methodical concepts for urban and architectural housing design. In Oikodomos. Innovating housing learning. Gent Belgicko : Hogeschool voor Wetenschap, 2013, s. 200-211
6. JOKLOVÁ, Viera - KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína. Urban design educational approaches reflecting global research and local conditions. In INTED 2019, IATED-International Association Technology Education & Development, 2019, S. 3930-3934Houze,
7. Rebecca. 2015. Textiles, Fashion, and Design Reform in Austria-Hungary before the First World War. Principles of Dress. Farnham: Ashgate.



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Heritage Interpretation

Author
Nina Jančová

is a structured approach to non-formal learning specialised in communicating significant ideas about a place to people on leisure. It establishes a link between visitors and what they can discover at heritage sites such as nature reserves, historic sites or a museum. Heritage interpretation if done correctly can enhance the visitor experience and may as well strengthen the relationship between the site and local residents in rural spaces. By improving the attractiveness of a presentation, heritage interpretation can lead to economic benefits for the adjacent rural area. Thus the effective interpretation can not only visualize the heritage but also develop a sense of identity for the local community. Incorrectly realized it can inaccurately communicate the meanings of the site and alienate those who visit. It can also physically damage the historic material if poorly specified and installed. The Heritage Interpretation was born at the end of the nineteenth century with John Muir and Enos Mills but was put into theory in the middle of the 1950s by Freeman Tilden. His six principles of „Interpreting our Heritage“ is still applicable and can be summarized shortly by the expression: „Understanding through the interpretation; appreciation through understanding and protection through appreciation“. Natural and cultural heritage destinations worldwide are adapting themselves to the homogenizing culture of tourism and at the same time trying to maintain, or even increase, their local distinctiveness. The Convention concerning heritage identification, conservation and representation: “The World Heritage Convention”, adopted in 1972, is a legally binding instrument providing an intergovernmental framework for international cooperation for the identification and conservation of the world's most outstanding natural and cultural properties. A separate chapter on heritage interpretation represents the application of digital methods and tools, indicative interpretation, and the use of virtual or augmented reality.

References

1. Irish Walled Towns Network. Ideas for Interpreting Heritage Sites. ISBN: 978-1-906304-25-6, Printed by Modern Printers: 056 7721739, pp. 1–38 www.irishwalledtownsnetwork.ie Accessed 29 Apr. 2021.
2. CONTINENZA, Romolo – TRIZIO, Ilaria. Heritage interpretation: A tool for conservation, protection and management of environmental and cultural heritage SScientific RESEARCH and Information Technology Vol7, Issue1 (2017), pp39-44 ©CASPUR- CIBER Publishing, <http://caspur-ciberpublishing.it>
3. TILDEN, Freeman. Interpreting our Heritage. University of North Carolina Press, North Carolina, (1957).
4. SALAZAR, Noel B. Towards a Global Culture of Heritage Interpretation? Evidence from Indonesia and Tanzania, International Journal of Tourism and Recreation Research, Vol. 32, No. 3, 2007, p. 9-12
5. KRISTIÁNOVÁ, Katarína - GÉCOVÁ, Katarína - PUTROVÁ, Eva. Watercourse as cultural heritage in contemporary urbanism: Preservation approaches from Košice and Prešov in Slovakia. In ArchNet IJAR. Vol. 9, Iss. 1 (2015), p. 122-133.
6. JOKLOVÁ, Viera - FURDÍK, Juraj. Nábřežné stratégie v Bratislave-Petržalke. In ALFA. Roč. 20, č. 3 (2015), s. 58-67
7. BUDREYKO, E. - JOKLOVÁ, V. Innovative digital tools for ecological approaches in urban design in Slovak context. In Proceedings - 2018 International Conference on Engineering Technologies and Computer Science, EnT 2018 : 20-21 March 2018 : Moskva, Ruská federácia. 1. vydanie. Piscataway, USA : Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, 2018, S. 101-105.
8. JOKLOVÁ, V. – BUDREYKO, E. Digital technologies in architectural design, verification and representation. In Proceedings - 2019 International Conference on Engineering Technologies and Computer Science : Innovation & Application. 1. vydanie. Piscataway, USA : Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, 2019, S. 102-106.

“Funded by the Erasmus+ Program of the European Union. However, European Commission and Turkish National Agency cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein”