

BERICHTE UND MITTEILUNGEN

DEVELOPMENT POTENTIALS AND THEIR SPATIAL PATTERNS IN TURKEY

With 8 figures and 3 tables

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Zusammenfassung: Entwicklungspotenziale und ihre räumlichen Muster in der Türkei

Zunächst werden verschiedene Entwicklungspotenziale bzw. ihre Indikatoren hinsichtlich ihrer regionalen Ausprägungen überprüft. Die Summe dieser Entwicklungspotenziale wird anschließend in einer zusammenfassenden Karte (Abb. 7) dargestellt und ergibt ein Gesamtbild einer regional differenzierten Entwicklungsdynamik. Dazu wurden die Rangplätze, welche die Provinzen bei den einzelnen Indikatoren bekamen, addiert und die Summenwerte schließlich mit Hilfe einer Clusteranalyse in fünf Klassen unterteilt. Die Abbildung 8 ermöglicht schließlich einen Vergleich mit der Situation im Zeitraum 1980–1985. Wenn man heute auch generell immer noch von einem West-Ost-Gegensatz bezüglich der Potenziale für eine mögliche Weiterentwicklung sprechen kann, so zeigen doch die Differenzierungen innerhalb dieses Gesamtbildes, welche Entwicklungsimpulse wo wirksam sind.

- Die höchsten Entwicklungspotenziale sind aufgrund der ihnen innewohnenden Selbstverstärkungsprozesse weiterhin in den lange bestehenden Metropolen zu finden (vgl. auch WEDEL 1999).
- Es zeigt sich, dass die frühere Erwartung, dass sich ein Ring hoher potenzieller Entwicklungsdynamik herausbilden wird (vgl. TOEPFFER 1989, 219), bereits sehr schnell Realität geworden ist. Die von den Metropolregionen Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir und Adana ausgehenden *spread*-Effekte wirken offensichtlich nicht in alle Richtungen, sondern in erster Linie auf die Verbindungsachsen zwischen diesen Regionen.
- Der zwar von einigen Rückschlägen gekennzeichnete aber weiter expandierende Fremdenverkehr an der Südküste hat zusammen mit der dortigen rasanten Intensivierung der Landwirtschaft (vgl. STRUCK 1990) zu einer starken ökonomischen Diversifizierung geführt, die eine Brücke hoher Entwicklungspotenziale zwischen Adana und Izmir herausgebildet hat.
- Nach Osten hin bilden die nördlichen Provinzen Samsun und Amasya bzw. die zentralen ostanatolischen Provinzen Erzincan und Tunceli Ansatzpunkte für regional konzentrierte Entwicklungschancen, die sich aber von der Umgebung deutlich absetzen.
- Im Bereich des Südostanatolien-Projekts führen die Anstrengungen, über neue Bewässerungssysteme und Intensivierung der Landwirtschaft neue Entwicklungsimpulse zu implementieren, bereits in den Provinzen Gaziantep und besonders Kilis zu bemerkenswerten Erfolgen (vgl. STRUCK 1994, 2003). Bei anhaltender relativ stabiler politischer Lage könnte sich die Situation auch in den Nachbarprovinzen verbessern.

Fazit: Wenn wir davon ausgehen, dass sich eine sozioökonomische Entwicklung aus der Entwicklung einer Reihe von verschiedenen Teilsträngen zusammensetzt, so ist zu erkennen, dass einzelne Teilstränge zumindest teilweise sowohl zu Konvergenzen als auch zu Divergenzen führen können. Es wird weiterhin zu beobachten sein, welche dieser Teilstränge bzw. Strukturmerkmale sich in der Zukunft als konvergierend bzw. divergierend darstellen werden.

Summary: The analysis of six structural characteristics and their indicators demonstrate that in each case these indicators represent different socio-economic development potentials. The sum of these development potentials is presented in a summarising map (Fig. 7) and result in an overall picture of possible regionally differentiated development dynamics. To this end, the rank positions that the provinces obtained for the individual indicators were added and the sum totals were then divided into five classes by means of a cluster analysis. There is an additional figure 8 that enables to compare the situation of today with that of 1980–1985. Even though one can still generally speak of a west-east contrast regarding the potentials for possible further development, the differentiations within this overall picture show which development impulses are active in which areas.

- The highest development potentials can still be found in the metropolises that have existed for a long time on account of their inherent self-strengthening process (see also WEDEL 1999). Therefore one has to assume that the west-east divide of development will continue to result in increasing divergences in future as well.
- It also turned out that the expectation that a circle of highest potential development dynamics will arise (see TOEPFER 1989, 219) very quickly proved true. The spread effects starting from the metropolitan regions of Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Adana obviously do not act in all directions, rather primarily on the connecting axes between these regions.
- The tourism on the south coast that, though marked by some setbacks, is still expanding, together with the rapid intensification of agriculture there (see STRUCK 1990) resulted in a strong economic diversification that developed a bridge of high development potentials between Adana and Izmir.
- Towards the east, the northern provinces of Samsun and Amasya and the central eastern Anatolian provinces of Erzincan and Tunceli form possible starting points for regionally concentrated development chances that form a distinct contrast to the surroundings.
- In the context of the Southeast Anatolia Project, the efforts to affect new development impulses by way of new irrigation systems and an intensification of agriculture already resulted in remarkable successes in the provinces of Gaziantep and especially Kilis (see STRUCK 1994, 2003). If the political condition remains stable, the situation could improve in the neighbouring provinces as well.

Conclusion: Assuming a socio-economic development is made of the development of a series of different strands, it can be seen that single strands can at least partially lead both to convergences and to divergences. We will have to continue to observe which of these strands or structural characteristics will show themselves to be convergent or divergent in future.

1 Introduction

The starting point of the investigations will be the empirical findings based on an earlier data platform (1980–1985) stating that Turkey is marked by strong spatial imbalances (TOEPFER 1989). Whereas neoclassical model approaches try to explain how such imbalances can be reduced by factor movements, considerations in the theory of polarisation demonstrate how growth processes, and even contractive processes, can accumulate through feedback effects. However, taking imperfect markets into consideration (e.g. spatial, previous historical imprinting, coincidences, externalities etc.), more recent approaches of a so-called endogenous growth theory find paths of development that must not only result in divergences, but can also converge. Since data of the latest census (2000) in Turkey are now available (see DEVLET İSTATİSTİK ENSTİTÜSÜ 2003), it is particularly interesting to examine empirically to what extent different paths of development can actually be discovered in this country.

64 socio-economic index numbers (see Tab. 1) for the 81 provinces of Turkey entered into the investigation. In the first step of investigation, the result of an analysis of the main elements was the grouping of the 64 index numbers into six factors or structural characteristics (age structure, demographic evolution, population density, education, economic dynamics and land use) that explain 89.2% of the variance within the index numbers.

In the second step, a correlation analysis supported the selection of indicators that should represent the contents of the six factors (see Tab. 2). As expected,

structural characteristics similar to the data from the early '80s were found, so a comparison with the previous results is well possible. In another step, the selected indicators were presented in their spatial expression (see Fig. 1–7), the class boundaries being determined respectively by means of cluster analyses.

2 Regional disparities of age structure

The median age appears to be the most striking indicator for the age structure in the correlation analysis. In the regional comparison (see Fig. 1) the persistence of the clear west-east divide is evident from a very young population on average in the east of Turkey, a little older population on average in the middle and a still older population on average in the west of Turkey. The following correlation coefficients illustrate the backgrounds of this pattern:

- a higher percentage of children per woman ($r = -0.88$) and the linking with the illiteracy rate ($r = -0.80$) and larger households on average ($r = -0.92$) in the eastern provinces – for women with secondary education in the big cities of Turkey, the average percentage of children is already below the average of western industrialised nations (HÜTTEROTH a. HÖHFELD 2002, 174),
- life expectancy increasing towards the west, becoming manifest in the percentage of retired persons ($r = 0.81$) and widowed persons ($r = 0.94$),
- the employment rate increasing towards the west ($r = 0.71$), representing a pull factor for the age groups of employable age and
- an only very remote connection with the overall demographic evolution.

Table 1: Variables in research (year 2000 if not marked otherwise)

Variable, die in die Untersuchung einbezogen wurden (Jahr 2000, wenn nicht anders bezeichnet)	
01. total annual growth rate of population p.T.	33. labour force 12+ years old in %
02. annual growth rate of city population p.T.	34. employed people 12+ years old in %
03. annual growth rate of village population p.T.	35. unemployed people 12+ years old in %
04. population density	36. not in labour force 12+ years old in %
05. people born in other province or abroad in %	37. sought a job in %
06. total median age	38. housewife in %
07. total age ratio	39. retired people in %
08. people aged 65 and over in %	40. income recipients in %
09. people aged 0–14 in %	41. illiterate population 6+ years old in %
10. child – women (15–49 years old) ratio p.T.	42. literate population 6+ years old in %
11. households with 1 person in %	43. adult illiterate population 15+ years old in %
12. households with 2 persons in %	44. adult literate population 15+ years old in %
13. households with 3–4 persons in %	45. female with 0 live born children in %
14. households with 5 and more persons in %	46. female with 1–2 live born children in %
15. average size of households	47. female with 6 and more live born children in %
16. labour force participation rate in %	48. children/female average
17. labour force participation rate female in %	49. scientific, technical, professional and related workers in %
18. unemployment rate in %	50. administrative and managerial workers in %
19. unemployment rate female in %	51. clerical and related workers in %
20. city population 1990 in %	52. commercial and sales workers in %
21. village population 1990 in %	53. service workers in %
22. city population 2000 in %	54. agricultural, forestry, fishermen, hunters in %
23. village population 2000 in %	55. non-agricultural, transport equipment, labourers in %
24. owner households in %	56. regular or casual employees in %
25. tenant households in %	57. employers in %
26. born in same province in %	58. self employed persons in %
27. born in other province in %	59. unpaid family workers in %
28. people with higher education in %	60. working in primary sector in %
29. people with junior high school education in %	61. working in secondary sector in %
30. people with high school education in %	62. working in tertiary sector in %
31. people never married in %	63. people aged 20–39 in %
32. widowed people in %	64. people aged 20–54 in %

The conclusion is that – apart from a position of the Mediterranean provinces Antalya and Adana, which are closer (converged) to the western provinces – one has to speak of a persistence of the old pattern from the early '80s. This applies to both the age structure and the index numbers mentioned that are linked to the median age by high correlation coefficients and thus show a similar spatial distribution.

3 Regional disparities of demographic evolution

It is evident from the age distribution that there is a clear west-east divide that is controlled by, among other things, the natural population growth increasing towards the east. While the indicator “rate of the population of province born outside the province” certainly models a slightly more differentiated west-east contrast (see Fig. 2), it primarily shows a town-country contrast

that finds its expression in a large number of correlation coefficients:

- the higher the percentage of persons born outside the province, the higher the percentage of tenants and the lower the percentage of house owners ($r = -0.84$),
- similarly, the village population ($r = -0.67$), the percentage of agriculture and forestry workers ($r = -0.85$) and the percentage of unpaid family workers ($r = -0.85$) decrease in the same way,
- but the higher the percentage of persons born outside the province, the higher the percentage of 20 to 39-year-old persons in the total population in the provinces ($r = 0.72$).

In previous investigations on Turkish internal migration, it could already be proven that the urban elements or characteristics, the province centres and the economic structural change are reinforced by the increasing extent of immigration into a province (RITTER a. TOEPFER 1992). On the other hand, regional peculiari-

Table 2: Structural features and indicators

Strukturmerkmale und Indikatoren	
Structural feature	Indicator
Age structure	Median age 2000
Demographic evolution	People born outside the province 2000 in %
Population density	Residents per km ² 2000
Education	People with High-School education 2000 in %
Economic dynamics	People working in tertiary sector 2000 in %
Land use	Marketed agricultural production p.P. 2001 in TL

ties in structural change also give rise to an increase in immigration (Tunceli, Mediterranean provinces), which will be referred to later in the context of employment in the tertiary sector.

The conclusion is that, regarding the indicator “immigration”, one can say that it has an accumulating effect and leads to increasing divergences in the regional disparities.

4 Regional disparities of population density

With the exception of Istanbul (1928 r/km²) the population density values are between 334 r/km² (Kocaeli) and 13 r/km² (Tunceli). So the differences are less important than in the neighbouring countries Iran, Iraq and Syria, where on the one hand extensive areas of agriculturally unusable space are found while on the other hand the river oases produce extremely high population densities. The differentiation of the population density is a result of many factors, so no particularly high coefficients are revealed in the correlation analysis. Earlier paths of development led to the conclusion that climatically and edaphically favourable zones could faster bear higher population densities and so also were destination points for migrations from the eastern Anatolia, the arid zones of central Anatolia and the marginal mountains in the north and the south of Turkey. On account of the higher capital accumulation and better sales prospects, the zones with high population densities also mostly became points of industrialisation and development of the tertiary sector, as well as starting points for innovation and optimisation of the material, personnel and institutional infrastructure so that a self-strengthening process or a differentiation of the densification takes place. This can be detected on



Fig. 1: Regional disparities of age structure
Regionale Disparitäten der Altersstruktur

the map (see Fig. 3) and in the correlation coefficients to an extent that is still significant; e.g. for the percentage of persons born outside the province ($r = 0.52$), the percentage of persons working in the secondary sector ($r = 0.52$) and the percentage of persons working in the trade ($r = 0.65$).

This self-strengthening process becomes much more distinct in a comparison of the density values for the years 1985 and 2000. Whereas the provinces of Istanbul, Kocaeli, Sakarya, Bursa, Izmir and Ankara, the most densely populated provinces in 1985, showed an average density increase of 56% in 2000, the central provinces of Eskisehir, Bilecik, Kütahya and Afyon in central Anatolia only grew by 20% on average, the provinces of Agri, Mus, Bitlis and Van in eastern Anatolia grew by 35% on average and in the area of Erzurum – Sivas – Erzincan – Tunceli – Bingöl one can speak of a stagnant population density. On the other hand, the exemplary areas of Mugla – Antalya – Icel and Adiyaman – Diyarbakir show that even regions that were less dense in the past can cause a rapid densification of population (71% and about 52% respectively) by way of initiatives such as tourism and intensification of the agriculture in the first case and the Southeast Anatolia Project in the second case (see STRUCK 1990, 1994).

Thus the clear conclusion is that a higher population density with its high potential customer density represents a development potential for the future that can lead to increasing disparities. Converging movements can only partially be caused by new economic impulses in the less densely populated zones.

5 Regional disparities of education

Indisputable are also educational facilities and educational development potentials, having a dynamising effect there where they are more strongly localised. In the case of high values regarding the index number “Percentage of persons with High School education” it is found that the percentage of the unemployed persons is, certainly, as a rule high in the same provinces ($r = 0.60$), but this is due to the fact that in these provinces, many educational facilities are not only available, but are also being used. On the other hand, this affects the fact that the percentage of persons with Junior High School education is high there ($r = 0.89$), as well as the percentage of persons with higher education in general ($r = 0.79$).

Since the percentage of the persons working in the scientific-technical field also increases with a rise in the



Fig. 2: Regional disparities of immigration
Regionale Disparitäten der Zuwanderung

index number mentioned ($r = 0.73$), this theoretical potential can obviously be often converted into corresponding activities. In addition, the index number is an important indicator for future development chances, since it has a particularly high correlation with the percentage of 20 to 39-year-old persons in the total population ($r = 0.81$) and this is, as a rule, the most regionally and socio-economically mobile part of the population.

The distribution map (see Fig. 4) makes it clear that not only are the agglomeration areas around Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Adana points of attraction for this segment of the population, but that the various possibilities in the southern coastal provinces and in the developing provinces of central eastern Anatolia are being used as well. The south-eastern region of Anatolia, however, falls largely below the average.

Conclusion: the highly mobile development potential that concentrates on education and training first of all increases the possibilities for development in the urban agglomeration areas and can also – not only theoretically – be carried into less developed regions by innovations or transfers of innovation.

6 Regional disparities of economic dynamics

The strongest development impulses are currently initiated by the tertiary sector, as can be seen in the employment statistics (see Tab. 3).

Table 3: Employment structure in 1980 and 2000

Year	Beschäftigtenstruktur 1980 und 2000		
	Primary sector	Employment in Secondary sector	Tertiary sector
1980	62.5	15.4	22.1
2000	48.4	18.0	33.5

Sources: STATISTISCHES BUNDESAMT 1989, 44; DEVLET İSTATİSTİK ENSTİTÜSÜ 2003

The tertiarisation trends are, also from a spatial point of view, almost exclusively at the expense of the importance of agriculture, forestry and fishery ($r = -0.87$). The intensity of the urbanisation ($r = 0.71$) and attractiveness for migrants ($r = 0.67$) are also closely spatially connected with the intensity of the tertiarisation. Since the tertiary sector in general has a strong attraction for job-seekers, is marked by frequent opening and closing down of places of work and simultaneously offers much employment for temporary workers, the unemployment rate is indeed likewise very often high in the provinces with a high percentage of the tertiary sector ($r = 0.76$).

Regional focuses of the tertiarisation are, besides the agglomeration areas themselves (see Fig. 5), some of



Fig. 3: Regional disparities of population density
Regionale Disparitäten der Bevölkerungsdichte

their neighbouring provinces – in particular those situated on the axes between the agglomeration areas of Ankara, Istanbul and Bursa – as well as the tourist regions on the south and west coast of Turkey and the control and trade-intensive border areas with Greece, Syria and Iraq. The extremely sparsely populated pro-

vince of Tunceli (see above) must be considered to be a special case, since here, the original population as a whole, and in particular the population in the rural area, strongly decreased (–36% and –79% respectively) on account of intense military conflicts and newly stationed military personnel determines the statistics.



Fig. 4: Regional disparities of high school education
Regionale Disparitäten der High School-Bildung



Fig. 5: Regional disparities of tertiarisation
Regionale Disparitäten der Tertiarisierung

Conclusion: the dynamics of the tertiary sector have, on the one hand, a diverging effect through the intensification of the existing agglomeration areas, but on the other hand, in selected provinces, they offer possibilities to keep abreast with the economic development of the agglomeration areas or at least not to fall too much behind them.

7 Regional disparities of land use

Those provinces that are marked by a strong agricultural character are certainly not able to keep pace with the agglomeration areas. The index number “marketed agricultural production per inhabitant” is to illustrate in which provinces the agricultural sector can at least



Fig. 6: Regional disparities of land use
Regionale Disparitäten der Landnutzung

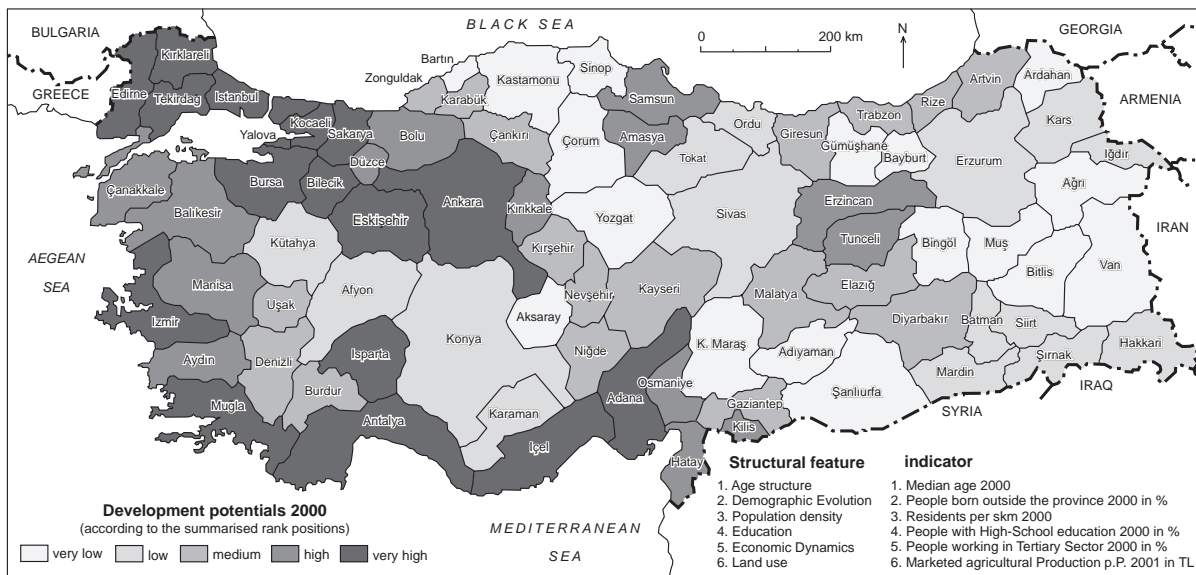


Fig. 7: Regional disparities of development potentials 2000
Regionale Disparitäten der Entwicklungspotenziale 2000

offer possibilities for subsistence protection of the population (see Fig. 6). These possibilities are supported or limited by natural conditions (climatic/edaphic favourableness or unfavourableness), technical conditions (e.g. irrigation systems) and sales prospects.

Due to the better natural conditions, above-average cultivated areas with marketable specialised crops (e.g. industrial and oil plants, viticulture, fruits, vegetables) are found in the coastal areas of the west and the south (fruits, vegetables, cotton) as well as in the northeast (tea, hazelnut, tobacco). On the other hand, the prevailing cultivation of cereals and other field plants in the arid areas of central Anatolia and the spacious meadows and pastures in the areas of eastern Anatolia, marked by a shorter vegetation period, offer only small yields.

Old and, to a greater extent, new irrigation systems connected with the Southeast Anatolia Project reveal the agricultural upgrading of the arid areas along the Turkish-Syrian border (STRUCK 2003). The large demand for agricultural products in the four agglomeration areas and in the neighbouring provinces – in particular if they are situated between two agglomeration areas – has in the meantime also resulted in improved sales prospects and in a faster amortisation of investments in the agricultural sector in those provinces.

Conclusion: the agricultural potentials show a nested west-east divide, a coast-inland divide and an agglomeration area-periphery divide, resulting from old paths of development in the two former cases and from a younger development in the latter.

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Fig. 8: Regional disparities of development potentials 1980–1985

Regionale Disparitäten der Entwicklungspotenziale 1980–1985

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DISKUSSION

ENTGEGNUNG ZUR REZENSION DES WERKES:

RICHTER, MICHAEL: Vegetationszonen der Erde. 448 S., 138 Abb., 32 Tab. und 92 Farbphotos im Anhang. Klett-Perthes Verlag, (Perthes Geographie-Kolleg), Gotha und Stuttgart 2001, € 42,90

In seiner Rezension zu den „Vegetationszonen der Erde“ (Erdkunde 58/3, 269–270) legt UDO SCHICKHOFF eine Kritik vor, die über weite Strecken negativ ausfällt. Hierzu nimmt der Verfasser Stellung:

„Das Rohmaterial des Künstlers ist sein eigenes Leben“ (P.J. GUTIÉRREZ in *Animal Tropical*). Dies mag auch für Wissenschaftler gelten, die durch Feldforschungen im Laufe der Zeit zum Überdenken vorliegender Konzepte angeregt werden und aufgrund ihrer Erfahrungen veränderte Konzepte mit anderem Schwerpunkt anstreben. Dergestalt dürften es auch die von UDO SCHICKHOFF präferierten und vom Verfasser ebenfalls hoch geachteten Kollegen HEINRICH WALTER und SIEGMAR BRECKLE in ihren Werken gehalten haben. Der Rezensent, vom Verfasser als Autor einer bemerkenswerten Dissertation und Habilitation über die Bergwälder Nordpakistans durchaus anerkannt, sieht dies offensichtlich nicht so. Vielmehr kritisiert er

unter anderem das Fehlen einer breiteren Einbindung der Vegetation in den ökologischen Kontext – ein von WALTER, BRECKLE und SCHULTZ vorbildlich vollendetes Konzept, das im rezensierten Buch mitnichten als abermaliges Ziel angestrebt wurde.

Fraglich bleibt in SCHICKHOFFs Beurteilung zunächst die Feststellung, dass in dem Werk stellenweise ein umständlicher Sprachduktus gepflegt wird. Bekanntlich handelt es sich hierbei um ein objektiv schwer bewertbares Kriterium. Abgesehen davon, dass der Verfasser mehrfach gegenteilige Resonanzen erfahren hat (z.B. vom Lektorat des Verlages), hat er es sich längst angeeignet, bei der Abfassung eines Text festen Regeln zugunsten eines besseren Verständnisses zu folgen (z.B. kein Satz länger als drei Zeilen, Vermeidung von Sätzen mit mehr als drei Kommata, weitest mögliche Verwendung gängiger Begriffe ...). Zumindest das von SCHICKHOFF aus dem Kontext herangezogene Beispiel erweist sich als kritikfest. Denn dort handelt es