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POLITICAL REPRESENTATION OF ETHNIC MINORITIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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Political representation of ethnic minorities in the Republic of Kazakhstan

Maral Zhanarstanova
Timur Kanapyanov

Political representation of ethnic minorities in the Republic of Kazakhstan. The article is devoted to the investigation of the political representation of different ethnic groups in multinational Kazakhstan. With gaining the independence, the Republic became home to more than 100 nations, which in turn raise the question of their equal representation in political and social spheres. The general theory on political representation, which was developed in the political literature, is investigated in the article. However, the work is mainly focused on the opportunities for all citizens’ representation, where the legal basis and the political context in the society play a crucial role. For that purpose the Political Opportunity Structure approach is seen as the most suitable, while the special attention is given to the analysis of three components of this method – electoral system, citizenship regime and political party.

Key words: Political representation, Minorities, Kazakhstan, the Political Opportunity Structure
1. INTRODUCTION

Kazakhstan is a ninth biggest country in the world, which gained its independence after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The Soviet legacy has affected the political and economic development of modern Kazakhstan, as well as the ethnic situation in the republic.

The ethnically heterogeneous population was mainly formed by spontaneous and forced migrations, encouraged by the state; frequently rewritten borders that divided ethnic groups; politics of Stalin’s regime, when thousands of people were exiled or deported to the territory of contemporary Kazakhstan, seen by Soviet authorities as a “virgin dumping ground for ethnic groups whose loyalties were in doubt”[1].

Therefore, the Republic of Kazakhstan has become home to more than one hundred ethnic groups, among which the biggest are Kazakhs 63,1 %, the Russians - 23,7 %, the Uzbeks - 2,9 %, the Ukrainians - 2,1 %, the Uigurs - 1,4 %, the Tatars - 1,3 %, the Germans - 1,1 %, and other ethnic groups - 4,5 %.1

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Table 1. Ethnic composition in Kazakhstan, Census Data 1999-2009 (Statistical Agency of the Republic of Kazakhstan).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th></th>
<th>2009</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakh</td>
<td>8,011,500</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>10,098,600</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>4,481,100</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>3,797,000</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukrainian</td>
<td>547,100</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>333,200</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbek</td>
<td>370,800</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>457,200</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>353,500</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>178,200</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tatar</td>
<td>249,100</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>203,300</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uighur</td>
<td>210,400</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>223,100</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>758,400</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>714,200</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14,981,900</td>
<td></td>
<td>16,004,800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such an abundance of different ethnic groups within one state could not raise the issue of equality of their rights and interests, and their representation in the republic, as in multiethnic countries there is often a problem of “over-representation of some groups and an under-representation of others”.

For example, according to the official UN Report of the independent expert on minority issues in Kazakhstan, “members of smaller minority communities consider their opportunities for political participation to be extremely limited. Uighur community members noted that, even in regions in which they form the majority, they are rarely appointed to hold significant local government positions and are generally underrepresented in the public sector, especially in law enforcement bodies [2].”

Therefore, the issue of political representation of ethnic minorities in the Republic of Kazakhstan is seen to be of great importance.

2. **TOWARD THE GENERAL CONCEPT OF REPRESENTATION**

Before moving to the analysis of Kazakhstan’s case, let’s briefly specify the essence of representation theory, where one of the most frequently cited author is Hannah Pitkin. In her book *The Concept of Representation* [3], Pitkin defines different theories of representation – formalistic, descriptive, symbolic and substantive.
The special interest is provoked by the theories of descriptive and substantive representation, usually used by authors for describing minorities’ rights representation. The former may be also known as demographic representation. The essence of this type of representation can be described by John Adams words: “It should be in miniature an exact portrait of the people at large [3].”

On the other hand, the question of whether the Parliament should exactly mirror the society remains controversial. There are authors who reject this principle, as “this would lead to an unworkable proliferation of group representation and undermine the process of representative government ([4] p.6).”

Meanwhile, there are advantages of this theory – ethnic minorities may experience greater confidence in the delegates who resemble them in different issues (common interests, views, look like, so on); representatives of ethnic groups can serve as a model of their rights' protection for other ethnic minorities; it also leads to more justice and legitimacy of the political system.

Substantive representation means that representative acts on the behalf of and in the interest of the represented. Substantive representation is obtained if the interests and needs that representatives fulfill reflect those that exist in a society. In theory, ethnic minorities can thus be represented by autochthones as long as these take ethnic interests into account. Ethnic minorities can be underrepresented at the substantive level however if the dominant political culture interferes with the access of their interests and demands to the political agenda [5].

What is used in this paper is the absolutely different theory, proposed by Ruud
Koopmans and Paul Statham in their book *Challenging immigration and ethnic relations politics: comparative European perspectives* [6], which calls the *Political Opportunity Structure* (POS) approach. It is seen as the most suitable, because it “tries to offer a comprehensive answer to the question of underrepresentation and takes into account both the responsiveness of the party and the political system and the characteristics of an ethnic group [5].”

3. **POLITICAL REPRESENTATION OF ETHNIC MINORITIES: POLITICAL OPPORTUNITY STRUCTURE APPROACH**

This approach was mainly used by different scholars to analyze particular social movements in terms of the context in which a movement emerges. At the same time, it is also possible to use POS for describing political representation of ethnic minorities.

The analysis of the political representation of different ethnic groups in Kazakhstan will be done by examining three main indicators of POS model – the electoral system, the citizenship regime and the political party [5].

**The electoral system**

The first indicator is the electoral system. In Kazakhstan the electoral system is based on the Constitution and the Law “On Elections in the Republic of Kazakhstan” (further: the Election Law), so the analysis of these components will be carried out within the framework of these laws.

The electoral formula “manages the translation of votes into seats”. This allows us to allocate majoritarian, proportional and mixed electoral systems. So, what electoral system does Kazakhstan have? According to Article 51 of the Constitution, the Majilis (lower Chamber of Parliament) shall consist of 107 deputies, 98 of which shall be elected by “the universal, equal and direct right under secret ballot”. However, the rest 9 deputies shall be appointed by the Assembly of People of Kazakhstan. At the same time, the elections of the deputies of the Kazakhstan Senate “shall be carried out on the basis of indirect right under secret ballot” (Article 51 sub-section 2 of the Constitution).

Thus, in elections of the President, deputies of the Senate, as well as 9 members of the lower Chamber of the Parliament vote-counting system shall be applied, where the candidate is considered to be elected if he/she has collected more than fifty percent of votes of voters, while “the Mazhilis deputies of political parties shall be elected for the single national electoral district based on party lists [7].”
In Kazakhstan in the 2007 elections all the seats in Parliament won a single party – Nur Otan, which officially received more than 88 per cent of the vote in the elections, while PR system must facilitate the implementation of the pluralism principle, it should contribute to the representation of more parties in the Parliament and leads to greater centralization of the electoral process (Bird, 2003). To avoid the unicameral parliament in Kazakhstan, the Election Law was amended in 2007, under which if 7 percent barrier, needed to the party in parliament, was overcome only by one party, then the distribution of seats may be given to the party with the next largest number of voters that took part in the voting (Article 97-1, subparagraph 2).

Therefore, the electoral system in Kazakhstan is mixed, where some representatives are elected, following majoritarian rules, while others are elected by proportional (PR) electoral system. It is known that “ethnic minorities are better represented in mixed systems than in majoritarian, but worse than in proportional” [5].

It should be noted that despite some problems in the electoral system of the republic, there are positive developments, demonstrating the democratization of society, as well as greater representation of various ethnic groups’ interests.

**The citizenship regime**

The second indicator is the citizenship regime, which consists of *two dimensions*: a political and a cultural one. The first, *political dimension* encompasses the extent that a person can achieve a full and equal citizenship and whether he is enabled to vote or not [5].

The process of obtaining citizenship in Kazakhstan is regulated by the Constitution and the Law “On Citizenship of the Republic of Kazakhstan” (further: the Citizenship Law).

According to the Citizenship Law, the citizenship is acquired by birth of individual in the territory of the state and through naturalization (Article 16). Moreover, regardless of the basis, by which it was acquired, the citizenship is uniform and equal (Article 10 of the Constitution).

This means that “favoring a civic rather than an ethnic model of national community is the course upon which Kazakhstan’s leaders have chosen to establish interethnic stability in the society ([8] p.166).”

The next characteristic of political dimension, as it was already mentioned, is the right to vote. In this regard, Kazakhstan has also applied the principle of equality. According to the Election Law, citizens have the right to participate in voting at elections, irrespective of his/her birth origin, race, nationality, language, relation to religion, belief and faith, etc. (Article 4).
The second dimension of citizenship regime is cultural, which represents the ability of ethnic minorities to have their own culture, interests and language, as well as the public authorities’ activities in stimulating and accommodating such cultural differences. Therefore, there are two types of citizenship regimes: multicultural and assimilationist, where Kazakhstan represents the former, as the country creates conditions for the development of customs, traditions, and languages of different nations living on its territory. So, Article 14 of the Constitution states, that “no one shall be subject to any discrimination for reasons of origin, social, property status, occupation, sex, race, nationality, language, attitude towards religion, convictions, place of residence or any other circumstances.”

Besides this, “everyone shall have the right to use his native language and culture, to freely choose the language of communication, education, instruction and creative activities” (Article 19 of the Constitution). Even bilingualism is enshrined in the Constitution.

However, the language issue is more complex than might appear at first glance. Historical events that led to the demographic dominance of the Russian-speaking population in Kazakhstan turned Kazakhs into the most linguistically and culturally Russified of all Central Asian ethnic groups. In this context, definition of state language turned into an arena of the clash of different interests. For the brief explanation of this situation, it is possible to use the ‘three parties’ of Rogers Brubaker theory ([9] p.64).

The first party is represented by Kazakh elites who fought for the Kazakh language to be the sole state language. The second party is “substantial, self-conscious and organized national minorities” ([9] p.64), whose leaders demand the acceptance of Russian as state language with Kazakh. And, the third part is “the external national ‘homelands’ of the minorities, whose elites closely monitor the situation of their coethnics in the new states”, that in our case is the neighboring Russia, the power elites in which would prevent complete replacement of the Russian language by Kazakh, and who would “vigorously protest alleged violations of coethnics’ rights, and assert the right, even the obligation, to defend their interests ([9] p.64).”

That is why, the Kazakhstani authorities tried to find a third way, a kind of compromise solution - the demands of ethnic Kazaks were limited but, at the same time, the demands of Russians were not satisfied as well. Therefore, according to Article 7 of the Constitution, the Kazakh is the state language of the country; but “in state institutions and local self-administrative bodies the Russian language shall be officially used on equal
Photo 3. Astana – The Capital of Kazakhstan

Photo 4. The Presidential Palace in Astana (the Ak Orda)
grounds along with the Kazak language”; and “the state shall promote conditions for the study and development of the languages of the people of Kazakhstan”[10].

All this illustrates the active participation of the state in maintaining equality among the multinational population, protection of the rights of every citizen, regardless of race, religion or ethnic origin, as well as creating equal conditions for all individuals, at least de jure.

However, as Floor Eelbode noted [5], multicultural type of citizenship, where is simplified procedure for obtaining citizenship, and equal rights to vote, does not guarantee better representation of national minorities in the political sphere. It happens because “too multicultural countries are not good for the political representation of ethnic minorities. If ethnic minorities receive too many rights, it is possible that they will isolate themselves which makes political integration more difficult or which will increase the risk on conflicts [5].”

**The political party**

The last, but not least indicator of POS model is the political party. It should be noted at first that there is no consensus among scientists on the issue of ethnic parties. For example, Donald Horowitz has made a strong argument against ethnic parties by maintaining that ethnic parties tend to divide a divided society even further. As they often represent strictly group interests, they are unable to concern themselves with issues of national importance and their behavior is dangerous for the good government of the country [11].

The same opinion has Stephen Wolf, who has called for the de-ethnicization of politics and has argued that it could be mandated through the electoral systems and party legislation.

Kazakhstan is an example in which ethnic based parties are not allowed. According to Article 5 of the Kazakhstani Constitution, “formation and functioning of public associations pursuing the goals or actions directed toward … inciting social, racial, national, religious, class and tribal enmity … shall be prohibited. Activities of religious parties shall not be permitted in the Republic.” This position is also emphasized in the Law “On Political Parties of the Republic of Kazakhstan”, according to which the formation of political parties on the grounds of professional, racial, national, ethnic and religious affiliation of citizens is not allowed (Article 5 subparagraph 8) [12]. Moreover, according to this Law, in the name of a political party is also not allowed an indication of national, ethnic, religious, regional, community and gender characteristics (Article 7).
However, the political representation of different ethnic groups in Kazakhstan is carried out through the Assembly of People of Kazakhstan, which was established by the President in 1995. The main goal of the Assembly is to represent the interests of the country’s various minorities. Besides this, as Nathan Paul Jones noticed, “Among the Assembly’s tasks are the provision of minority representation in state and local government, the support of national cultural centers mandated to preserve and revive ethnic minority cultures, and the establishment of facilities and forums, such as cultural festivals and Houses of Friendship, for the exercise and performance of ethnic culture ([8] p.160).”

The Official Report of International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination points out the main functions of the Assembly: revival and promotion of ethnic cultures, languages and traditions; it fosters national and ethnic patriotism; it strengthens inter-ethnic unity and harmony through the monitoring of ethnic relations, and it makes recommendations and proposals for State policy to develop friendly relations between the nationalities living in Kazakhstan [13].

In 2007 the Constitution had been amended, by virtue of which, the Assembly has the constitutional status. In addition, as it was already noted, nine deputies of the Majilis are elected by the Assembly. This system is intended to provide a more equitable ethnic distribution in Parliament and to empower ethnic minorities that may otherwise not have the ability to elect or nominate members of their ethnic group. Still, both houses remain predominantly Kazakh; only 10 of 47 senators are non-Kazakh, while only 24 of the 107 members of the Majilis are non-Kazakh ([2] p.7).

4. CONCLUSION

Therefore, it is evident, that there is a problem of underrepresentation of certain ethnic groups in Kazakhstan, but we can confidently say that the authorities are attempting to make conditions for representation of interests of different minority groups in the political sphere. The question is whether these conditions are enough for full, equal and effective representation of the rights of all ethnic groups in the republic.

It is also should be noted that the POS approach used in this paper affects only certain, though very important, aspects of this issue, in particular the political context in the country, which creates the conditions or, conversely, impediments to the political representation of ethnic groups. However, it is necessary to take into account other aspects that affect the representation of these groups in the country. Of what was said above, we conclude that de jure state created equal conditions for all citizens, but in practice it is not
always fully reflected. At the same time, we believe that the relatively short period of independence (only 20 years) affect the issue, and we hope that after o lapse of some time, Kazakhstan will be on a par in rights’ representation with such democratic and multi-national state like Canada, which took decades to achieve such level of democracy that it has now. The experience of Canada should serve as an example of minorities’ representation not only for Kazakhstan, but for every multinational country.

5. REFERENCES


ECOTOURISM AS A COMMUNITY INDUSTRY. CASE STUDY: TRANSYLVANIAN SAXON COMMUNITIES WITH FORTIFIED CHURCHES

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Ecotourism as a community industry. Case study: Transylvanian Saxon communities with fortified churches

Daniel Iosif

L’écotourisme comme une industrie communautaire. Etude de cas: les villages allemands de Transylvanie avec des églises fortifiées. Il y a plus de 700 ans Transylvanie possède une grande civilisation allemande qui a amélioré la vie et la technologie des communautés autochtones. Ils sont ceux qui construisent le plus grand territoire du monde avec des églises fortifiées, plus de 200 dans un habitat relativement petit (notamment les collines de Hârtibaciu). Les activités touristiques sont là au début et les communautés des Saxons sont très sensibles, voici pourquoi il faut construire un tourisme durable qui met en évidence les caractéristiques des villages saxon. Une réponse pour cette démarche est l’écotourisme qui, avec ses caractéristiques intrinsèques, peut bien aider les communautés allemandes de Transylvanie en croissant notamment leur niveau de vie.

Mots clés: écotourisme, églises fortifiées, Transylvanie, tourisme durable, conservation culturelle.

Ecoturismul ca industrie comunitară. Studiu de caz: localitățile săsești din Transilvania cu biserici fortificate. De mai bine de 700 de ani există în Transilvania o spectaculoasă civilizație germană ce a ameliorat nivelul de viață precum și tehnologia comunităților autohtone. Ei au construit cel mai mare teritoriu cu biserici fortificate din lume, mai mult de 200 astfel de monumente găsindu-se într-o regiune relativ mică (în mod special în Dealurile Hârtibaciului). Activitățile turistice sunt aici la începutul lor iar comunitățile de sași sunt foarte sensibile, iată de ce aici trebuie puse bazele unui turism durabil ce scot în evidență caracteristicile satelor săsești. Un răspuns pentru această încercare este ecoturismul care, prin caracteristicile sale intrinseci, poate ajuta foarte bine comunitățile săsești din Transilvania contribuind la creșterea, în special, a nivelului lor de trai.

Cuvinte cheie: ecoturism, biserici forificate, Transilvania, turism durabil, conservare culturală.
1. INTRODUCTION

This paper argues about the relation established between tourist and ecotourist activities in a peculiar case, the case of the Transylvanian Saxons and their fortified churches. Generally, worldwide, the fortified churches are monuments valorized at maximum from the touristic point of view. Also, we can notice that almost all the fortified churches (except those situated in big town) are directly related with a continuous expanding ecotourism. In that case, we put the inevitable question: what we can make with our fortified churches from Transylvania? And, can those historical monuments to help the Saxon communities?

This subject about the fortified churches of Transylvanian Saxons it was an avoided one. Some scientific papers have occurred after the 1990s in the Romanian geographical journals especially from Grecu and Sârbu [1-3]. The attempt to discover more about those fantastic constructions has given recently also a bachelor study [4].

For almost seven centuries of existence of the Saxon fortified churches in Transylvania there was no question about the problem that tourism phenomenon can trigger at a time. One of the most important industries which is in continuous development for about 50 years, tourism has become a major cultural and environmental problem in fragile areas simply because he is indifferent to changes brings in long term.

Like other industries, sustainability in tourism has three sides employed:
   a) The economic side;
   b) Social and cultural side;
   c) The environmental side.

Sustainable development presents a sine qua non characteristic, permanence, practically it is understood a number of factors such as: optimal resources utilization, minimizing the negative economical, ecological and socio-cultural impacts and maximizes benefits to local communities, national economies, and the nature conservation.

2. THE SAXONS OF TRANSYLVANIA AND THEIR FORTIFIED CHURCHES

Saxons place of origin are still a subject of dispute between the historical and geographical scientists. Carefully assessing the assumptions of the historians we reach to a unified conclusion, that the origins of Transylvanian Saxons established since the XII century is situated in the Lower Rhine and Mosel regions. Aspect mentioned in a previous paper [5], the Saxon name is not relevant in determining the areas of origin. In the oldest documents they are called Teutonic or even Flemish. Saxons name that uses the Hungarian king Andrew II to appoint settlers of Romos, Cricău or Ighiu seems closest to the Romanian version [6]. After the research of Manchat, the Germanic peoples were
called immediately after the Second Crusade in 1147-1149 and located here in 1150 A.D. to strengthen the royal power, quickly forming “privileged groups” documents naming them Teutonic, Latin or later Saxon [7].

Fortified Churches are not only in Transylvania. We can find many on the European continent in countries like France (Church of St. John of Poitiers, the fortified church of Romainmontier, Provence, Auvergne, Lotharingia, Correze), Netherlands (Frisia), Germany (Rhine Valley - Franonia), Denmark (Bjornholm Island), England (Earls Breton, Stevenage, Lincoln, Wigford), Austria (Weisenkirche church fortified in 1531 to block the Turkish invasions, St Oswald of Eisenerz). Fortified churches are mentioned in Poland (St. Peter and Paul mentioned during the Mongol invasion) but also in northern Italy (Lombardy, Tuscany), Spain (Ujué), Switzerland (Sion).

However, in Transylvania, like nowhere in the world, there are many fortified churches on a relatively small area resulting a region of a high density of fortified churches. In no region in the World we can’t find over 200 monuments like this in an area as that one studied.

The fortified church which the tourist sees today encompasses an entire history. Do not forget that once put on the new places, the colonists sought to erect a place of worship for their spiritual needs. But there are many cases when the Saxons built their church on the ruins of another monument older, which contributes significantly to the cultural dimension of the space and the stronghold itself (see Coşşa Mare, Biertan, Agnita). In many cases, the Saxons took over and subsequently modified the existing church (see Hărman, Viscri, Ungra).

Also, inside a church of XIII-XV century, we find many historical objects of ecclesiastical art. Among them, a special cultural importance is represented by:

(a) **The altars**: Prejmer - the oldest shrine in Romania painted in 1450, Biertan - the largest in the country with 28 panels painted in 1515, Feldioara - shrine in the fifteenth century now in the Brukenthal Museum, Beia - shrine from 1513, Mercheasa - altar paintings from the XV-XVI century;

(b) **The chalices**: Măieruş - XVI century chalice, Ghimbav - chalice from the sixteenth century with ornamental filigree enamel, Bârcuţ - cup of gilded silver since 1533, Buneşti - silver chalice of the fifteenth century, Seliste - silver plated chalice dated 1533, Sânpetru - cup of fifteenth century silver gilt, Mesendorf - renaissance of gilded silver chalice made in the sixteenth century, Toarcla - silver gilt cup from 1400, Prejmer - 2 chalices from XV-XVI century;

(c) **The collection of carpets**: Codlea - collection of four prayer Anatolian carpets from the fifteenth century, Ghimbav - four Persian rugs of the seventeenth century;
(d) **The tombstones**: Biertan - impressive collection of 11 tombstones belonging to the priests who served here, Cristian (Bv) - Anna May tombstone dated 1631 created by Nicholas Elian, Prejmer – Jakob Jekelius tombstone from 1692;

(e) **Different statues**: Ghimbav - statue representing Mary and John in the sixteenth century;

(f) **Tower bells**: Bărcuț - tower bell from the XV century with the inscription *O rex glorie veni cum* ("Oh, King of Glory, Come"), Prejmer – tower bell from the sixteenth century, Feldioara - a fifteenth-century tower bell;

(g) **The pews**: Prejmer and Biertan – a XVI century pews;

(h) **Tower clocks**: Harman – a XVI century tower clock, Bod – an 1800 tower clock.

The fortified churches are veritable museums with a original German culture of XIII-XVII century at their greatness. Saxons way of life is reflected until now, after centuries, by those buildings that housed them and gave them the possibility of defense if they were attacked. Here were created microstructures almost identically with the villages outside where any man has its well established role. The priest had his own home, as well as teacher or even ordinary inhabitant. Children went to school; all the activities were almost the same. By researching those strongholds it is much easier to appreciate how the cohabitation of the Saxons was, which was the relationship between them, or which were their habits and customs.

As we know it, the Transylvanian tourist infrastructure – especially in these villages - is lacking. This status is probably a good one if we want to build a sustainable tourism. The question is: how is this possible? To have a sustainable tourism, the development project applications must be made at the earliest stages of design and construction of material and technical base. In other words, you can’t design a sustainable tourism in a region whose tourism infrastructure works for years, and it is not designed for sustainable tourism. This can be an asset in a project for sustainable tourism, a tourism that aims to harmonize with the environment, with local communities as the other sectors of the economy.

To have sustainability in the touristic processes, at least in our case in the Saxon villages, a number of conditions must be met. Of these, we mention the most important:

1. The transport used. This preference goes to long-distance train, or bicycle or other forms of transport (riding) for short distances. This is the most important aspect when we talk about ecotourism. In an interesting study Simmons and Becken develop discusses about energy use and carbon dioxide emissions associated with ecotourism [8]. They argued that for ecotourism, a travel component can occur at three distinct scales: first, transport directly associated with the ecotourism experience (here we recommend “clean” activities like biking or horse-riding); secondly, travel between
various sites (in our case between fortified churches) and thirdly transport from the home location to the destination, where the ecotourism experiences take place (Transylvania).

2. Quality of the landscapes and architectural heritage. It is necessary to preserve the traditional architecture of the Saxon villages and ancient agricultural landscape aesthetics.

3. The integration of accommodation structures in the environment. In this context the accommodation structures must be rustic, comfortable, based on elements of traditional architecture or restoration of older structures (country house, various annexes of the fortified churches, etc.).

4. The meeting with residents at which tourists will be sensitive to the manifestations of personality, authenticity of the locals, the hospitality exhibited, which plays a key role in rural tourism.

Sustainable tourism is not here to stop tourism activities, but he focuses on the benefits derived from it, benefits which involve all parties concerned. If Transylvanian tourist industry can develop naturally according to consumer demands, environmental conservation is a preparatory stage action which requires careful planning ideas for accomplish the mains goals. The goals of tourism plans will inevitably determine their role for environmental protection or conservation. It is Murphy [9] who argued for the first time that the most tourism goals and planning are oriented especially towards business interests and economic growth.

3. TOURISM - ECOTOURISM: SEVERAL THEORETICAL ASPECTS

Generally, tourism is a relatively new field of study. It was just on the middle of the past century when the touristic studies were accepted in the caste of the social sciences. 35 years ago George Washington University was the first university that offered a study department of tourism management. Today there are numerous institutions worldwide offering a wide range of services, from undergraduate courses at various diplomas and certificates. With tourism development and its fragmentation is it very normal to occur and to impose new terms and ideologies. The link between tourism and sustainability was created in the 1980s by a number of advocates [10, 11]. They suggested that the environment and tourism should be integrated in order to maintain environmental integrity and successful tourism development [12].

The spread of the word 'ecotourism' has been quite rapid. Although he first appeared in the late 70s, in the early 1980s the term does not quite enjoy the attention of researchers. But during the last 30 years the term has become the subject of much debate: what it means, what should be or how it works are questions that continue to dominate the literature. Fennell [13] believes that ecotourism exist as a result of the
classification of tourism activities which, at the initial level, implies a division of tourism in mass tourism and alternative tourism.

Mass tourism is a form of "traditional" tourism which seeks to maximize local economic phenomenon. Development of tourist industry was long seen as a "clean" but this only in terms of benefits, jobs or infrastructure development. How mention also Glasson et al. [14], tourism contains the seed of its own destruction, tourism can kill tourism, destroying the attractions that visitors use to experience. Hence, in the last two decades, the vision of this idea has changed and the term of alternative tourism has become a popular paradigm. According to the Travel Industries of America [15] 83% of all American tourists are willing to support such a "green" industry, spending on goods and touristic services more than 6.2%.

Yet, there is no generally accepted definition of ecotourism. However, many researchers argue that this type of tourism must to support conservation and development objectives to be called ecotourism [[16] p.543]. However, among the oldest attempts to define the ecotourism we record the definition of Hector Ceballos-Lascurain: “we may define ecological tourism or ecotourism as that tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific object of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, aswell as any existing cultural aspects (both past and present) found in these areas” [[17] p.13]. For Shores ([18] p.4) the ecotourism means quite simply "ecologically sound tourism" or "ecologically sensitive tourism." The same amount of caring we would afford our own home is implied. Ecotourism is "tourism to the house or home." All of the attention and maintenance that a homeowner puts into a house should be the amount of care we put into tourism. The ecotourist must care for the place visited as much as she or he cares for and appreciates home.

4. THE SUSTAINABILITY OF ECOTOURISM IN THE CONTEXT OF SAXON VILLAGES

The economic impact of ecotourism in any region can lead to an increase of political and financial support for conservation. Protected areas, and generally the
nature conservation, brings many benefits to a society including biodiversity\textsuperscript{1} conservation, protection of historical sites, etc. Unfortunately, many of these benefits are intangibles. However, these benefits associated with recreation and tourism activity tends to create a tangible product \cite{19}. Predictably, the benefits of ecotourism vary depending on various parameters such as: attraction quality, access, etc. In some cases, the number of jobs created may be small – in the case of Saxon villages - but even a small number of jobs created in those rural areas could mean much economically.

In terms of the favorite season for ecotourism travelers, the data are often insufficient. To make an idea, we compare our situation (Transylvania) with data provided by Wright \cite{20} for the North American continent. Thus, the vast majority of North Americans prefer to travel in the warm season (23\% in June, 40\% in July and 40\% in August). There is also some interest for the winter season especially for intermediate periods of the two seasons: 16\% for May and 29\% for September. The "experienced" ecotourists, being frequently tourists, are more interested to travel throughout the year than the "casuals". For Transylvania it exist no data to make such analysis, a tourists monitoring is almost impossible to achieve. However, from subsequent experience, we can admit also the dominance of the summer season when tourists are eager to live in nature. But the winter season is not devoid by tourists, now and here we can remark the presence of a number of tourists who still has family connections in the Saxon villages. Winter holidays are thus constructing a true "tourist magnet".

The potential of those villages ecotourism is based also on the idea that to visit the fortified churches it takes a longer period of time (8-14 days). Usually, the practice of an ordinary tourism involve fewer days than the ecotourism. In a study by Yuan and Moisey \cite{21} it is discussed the following aspects: tourists from Montana (USA) interested in ecotourism spend more time on vacation (approx. 6 days) compared with ordinary tourists (3.5 days). From the data we have, we can say that in terms of time spent on holiday tourists who visit the Saxon villages organize their trips for more than six days.

From the many trips that we have made in the Saxon villages we noticed that many of the ecotourists are members in various pro-nature clubs and organizations. Later we found out \cite{20} that indeed the ecotourists are much more willing to affiliate with nature-oriented organizations (50\%) than ordinary tourists (11\%). Diamantis \cite{22} shows that among ecotourists enrolled in divers pro-nature organizations, 67\% are very actively involved in the organization, for the ordinary tourists the percentage being 37\%.

\textsuperscript{1} In fact, the concept of biodiversity, \textit{sensu lato}, mean not only the historical monuments and nature conservation but also the survival of human communities that possess unusual cultural features - in our case the unique possessors of the true German culture in Romania.
For the phenomenon of ecotourism to be successful in Saxon villages it should promote sustainable development through a process of establishing a durable productive base that will enable the Saxons and the ecotourism services providers to raise the standard of living in these communities. It is believed that ecotourism is the perfect business to promote both the sustainability of activities and also the regional economic development. But the sustainability of ecotourism depends directly on three levels or aspects that we mentioned in the introductory section: it depends on economy, on environmental conservation and on the social side. Of course, every step is supposed to have only positive results through the implementation of ecotourism as a tourist industry, a method of protection, a social connection. But in many cases the theoretical features are not accordingly to the practical features and so we can give birth to major discrepancies. And these studies, as the present one, have exactly the role to determine the actual parameters of a connection like this.

Firstly, any form of ecotourism will not be supported if it is an unprofitable one for the tour operators. In a world dominated by the economical condition, the degree of profitability should seriously be taken into account. On the other hand, another economic purpose of ecotourism is to create jobs. However, researchers like Place have argued that even such tourism can’t create many new jobs for locals because they are not adequately prepared to handle such positions [23]. Indeed, the aging correlated with the percentage increase of Roma population in these localities make an obvious decrease in the opportunities that these jobs are occupied by residents.

The ecotourism is one of the most prominent manifestations against environmental degradation. However, the ecotourism in McLaren’s acceptance [24] is a form of development that leads, normally, to destruction of the natural environment. In the same direction goes Jarviluoma too [25], taking into account that the ecotourists tend to discover places the least affected by human activities, places where nobody had ever set foot. Given the natural conditions of the environment in which the Saxons built their places of habitat - the alternation of hill / valley with the settlements in the lowlands - allows us to say that the Transylvanian region is not as vulnerable to development than other regions just because of its anthropogenic pressure / absolutely natural environment alternating, which has not determined for the whole region a significant anthropogenic pressures.

5. CONCLUSION

The sustainable tourism practiced in the Transylvanian Saxon communities reflects three important aspects [26], namely (1) the quality that enhance the quality of life in Saxon communities and protect the environment, (2) continuity through which is realized the continuity of the Transylvanian Saxon culture (the unique culture of this
(3) the balance which ensures a steady balance between the needs of the tourism industry, the Saxons owners the touristic objectives and the surrounding cultural environment.

Also, here may be practiced the ecotourism, a sustainable tourism industry which is based in these regions by contemplation of nature and culture, a nature which has been generous with Transylvania, as well as the traditional activities and societies that make the Transylvanian Saxon communities to be among of the most interesting habitats in Romania.

6. REFERENCES


COMMUNIST HERITAGE TOURISM AND
RED TOURISM:
CONCEPTS, DEVELOPMENT AND PROBLEMS

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Communist heritage tourism and red tourism: concepts, development and problems

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Communist heritage tourism and red tourism: concepts, development and problems. The second part of the 20th century has been marked by the competition between capitalism and communism. The “Autumn of Nations” put an end to the Eastern Bloc, but each former communist country in Central and Eastern Europe still possesses heritage sites reminding of the communist period. These heritage sites are turning into major tourist attractions, being sought by western tourists. Halfway around the world the Chinese Communist Party is trying to develop Red Tourism, a specific type of cultural tourism, based on heritage sites of the Chinese communist revolution. While the two tourism types use communist heritage as primary resource there are several differences between them. The study compares European communist heritage tourism with Chinese “Red Tourism”, analyzing their emergence, development and the problems they face, especially regarding heritage interpretation. This paper will try to provide a theoretical base for studying communist heritage tourism in former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Key words: communism, China, Eastern Europe, red tourism, communist heritage tourism, heritage interpretation.

Turismul patrimoniului comunist și turismul roșu: concepte, dezvoltare și probleme. A doua parte a secolului al XX-lea a fost marcata de o competiţie continuă între capitalism şi comunism. “Toamna naţiunilor” a marcat căderea Blocului Estic, dar fiecare fost comun ist din Europa Centrală şi de Est încă păstrează simboluri ce amintesc de perioada comunistă. Aceste elemente de patrimoniu au devenit importante atraşii turistice, fiind căutate de turişti occidentali. De cealaltă parte a lumii, Partidul Comunist Chinez încearcă să dezvolte Turismul Roşu, un tip specific de turism cultural, bazat pe situri legate de Revoluţia Comunistă Chineză. În timp ce cele două tipuri de turism utilizează aceeaşi resursă turistică, patrimoniul comunist, există câteva diferenţe majore între ele. Studiul compară turismul de patrimoniu comunist din Europa şi “Turismul Roşu” din China, analizând apariţia şi dezvoltarea lor, precum şi problemele cu care acestea se confruntă, punând accentul pe interpretarea patrimoniului. Articolul încearcă să creeze o bază teoretică pentru studierea viitoare a turismului de patrimoniu comunist din fostele state comuniste ale Europei Centrale şi de Est.

Cuvinte cheie: comunism, China, Europa de Est, turism roșu, turismul patrimoniului comunist, interpretarea patrimoniului
1. INTRODUCTION

After the fall of Nazi Germany and the end of World War II, the world was divided between the winning factions. Each superpower (the United States and the Soviet Union) created international military alliances (NATO and the respectively the Warsaw Pact) as they sought to gain influence on as much of the world as possible.

While the United States consolidated its influence in Japan and Western Europe, with economic recovery plans as the 1948-1952 Marshall Plan, Soviet Russia attempted to create several satellite states in Eastern Europe.

Soon, it became clear that friendship between communism and capitalism was not meant to be. As their common enemies (Nazi Germany and Japan) were defeated, tensions between the two superpowers quickly arose leading to the Cold War, which lasted until the fall of the Iron Curtain in 1989.

The period between 1947 and 1990 was marked by a general competition between the two ideological blocs in all areas from sports competitions (like the Olympics) to the Race to the Moon, and from nuclear weapons production and testing to indirect conflicts like the Vietnam or the Korean wars.

The 40 year period of the Cold War which transformed the entire world ended with the “Autumn of Nations” of 1989 when the Soviet Union collapsed. Images like the fall of the Berlin Wall and the tanks guarding the Communist Party Central Committee Building in Revolution Square in Bucharest or Ceausescu’s last speech from the balcony of the same building have remained in people’s minds and were used in every tourist guide of the former communist countries.

Even if some of the communist buildings and symbols (like statues of communist heroes and leaders) were destroyed after the fall of communism, many sites have survived and still remind local people and tourists alike, of the socialist past of east-central European countries.

In the past 20 years, western tourists have started to be interested in the heritage of the communist period, in seeing what it was like to live behind the Iron Curtain. This was especially true immediately after the fall of communism. In Bucharest, as Light notes, western tourists flocked to the city immediately after the Romanian Revolution of 1989 to feel the atmosphere in the city. Now, as some former soviet-bloc countries (like Hungary, the Czech Republic, Romania, Bulgaria and the Baltic states) have become members of the European Union, which implies easier travel, the number of foreign tourists in general, and the number of communist heritage tourists in particular should rise.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Although communist heritage tourism emerged during the early 1990s the first scientific articles that covered the phenomenon appeared in the first years of the 3rd millennium. Most of the studies that analyzed communist heritage tourism came from the United Kingdom where Duncan Light and Craig Young focused on problems of heritage interpretation and national identity, particularly in Romania, Poland and Germany. Duncan Light argues that communist heritage tourism - the consumption of key sights and sites associated with the Ceausescu regime and its overthrow - has emerged as a particular form of cultural or heritage tourism for special interest tourists and most important that communist heritage is defined and constructed outside Romania, as there is a specific desire to erase the communist period from the country’s history [1].

Newer studies have expanded the research area, focusing on countries like Bulgaria[2] and Albania, accompanied by a diversification of studies regarding the use of communist heritage as a tourism resource in Romania (mainly in the capital, Bucharest)[3].

While communist heritage tourism is interesting to both foreign tourists and scholars, “Red Tourism” has been studied internally, by Chinese researchers from different fields. Red Tourism studies developed in the last 8-10 years have focused primarily on strategies for developing and marketing red sites in different Chinese provinces.

3. COMMUNIST HERITAGE AS A TOURISM RESOURCE

In the last 20 years, heritage sites related to communist regimes or their downfall have become resources for two niche cultural tourism types: European communist heritage tourism and the state-driven Chinese Red Tourism.

Red Tourism was introduced in China in 2004 when a National Red Tourism Development Plan was discussed. According to the National Red Tourism Development Planning 2004–2010, which was publicized jointly by the State Council and the Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party, red tourism is a themed tourism activity of learning, sightseeing, and nostalgia in communist heritage sites which commemorate past communist revolutionary events, heroes, and leaders [4].

He Guangwei, head of China’s National Tourism Administration (CNTA) emphasizes that, the development and promotion of "red tourism" is a need to eulogize the brilliant cause of the (Chinese Communist) Party, inspire and carry forward China’s national spirits [5].
The concept of “Red Tourism” in China covers mainly (if not only) activities involving visits to places where different communist leaders and heroes were born or to sites related to the Chinese Communist Revolution, its main purpose being to promote the history of the Communist Party during the years 1921 and 1949 which marked the period between the foundation of the Chinese Communist Party and the proclamation of the People’s Republic of China (1st of October 1940).

As most of these red heritage sites are located in poorer, land-locked provinces, Red Tourism can help the economic development of these provinces, bringing important profits for local communities.

Chinese Red Tourism also has a strong educational side, as it tries to establish trust and loyalty to the Chinese Communist Party. Red Tourism is directed especially towards the young Chinese, with many facilities (mainly price reductions for transport and entrance fees) for pupils and students.

Communist heritage tourism in Central and Eastern Europe, emerged after 1990 and used as resources, heritage sites related to the former communist regimes and their downfall.

Communist heritage tourism involves visits to places associated with the Communist or socialist past and present or to sites which represent or commemorate that past or present [6].

Communist heritage tourism can also be defined as the consumption of sites and sights associated with the former communist regimes [7].

Light argues that as Red Tourism is a type of cultural tourism specific to China relating to the beginning of the Chinese Communist Party, to Mao and the Chinese Communist Revolution it cannot be used to describe visiting communist heritage sites in European Countries. Similarly, the term “communist heritage tourism” perhaps follows the actual marketing of such sites too closely, and again fails to account for the fact that what most of “Eastern Europe” experienced, was various forms of state-socialism (Light, Young, 2006).

The representativeness of these terms is still debatable, but we feel that communist heritage tourism is the best term to use when referring to the use of communist heritage sites as tourism resources in former European communist states.

Communist heritage tourism is a niche cultural tourism which emerged after 1990 and implies the visit to sites associated with communist regimes or their downfall.

4. EMERGENCE OF RED TOURISM IN CHINA

The development of Red Tourism in China started with the National Red Tourism Development Plan 2004–2010. Elaborated by the Communist Party, the plan outlines the basic ideas of developing red tourism, in terms of its significance,
development goals, and strategies. Most importantly, it shapes a production network of red tourism by defining and selecting tourism resources, promotion themes, preferential development areas, and even the preferentially developed tourist sites, which include 12 major red tourism regions, 30 recommended routes, and 100 key red tourism scenic sites [8].

Among the goals of this plan we can count: awakening a sense of patriotism and loyalty to the Party and the People’s Republic of China. At the same time, because red tourism in China is linked mainly with the period before the proclamation of the republic (1940), most of the sites are in poor provinces where the Communist Party had more supporters. These provinces have not made great economic progress and red tourism can help their development by improving infrastructure, bringing additional profits to local communities and improving living standards.

The plan was preceded by the declaration of Zhengzhou, signed at the National Tourism Conference in February 2004 by many provinces of the central region of China, aiming at greater cooperation in harnessing the (tourism) resources available.

As Li and Hu (2008) note the Chinese Government is heavily involved in all aspects regarding the development of Red Tourism. Its activities range from promoting red tourism, through different media sources (from radio and TV to the internet) or by organizing promotional events (like the National Red Tourism Exposition in Nanchang, the capital of the Jiangxi Province) to developing human resources involved in red tourism activities (seven training sessions between 2005 and 2007).

The Chinese government also arranged a special fund for red tourism infrastructure construction since 2005. According to an annual report of NRTCET (National Red Tourism Coordination Executive Team) in 2006, 1.1 billion RMB (approximately US $146 million) were invested from 2005 to 2006 to support more than 100 infrastructure projects, including transportation, power facilities, and water supply. Meanwhile, local governments are urged to provide supplementary financial support.

Another way to help the development and to promote red tourism is by providing discounts for groups of teenagers, students, soldiers and elderly, to almost every aspect of red tourism, from transport and accommodation to entrance fees.

5. COMMUNIST HERITAGE TOURISM IN EUROPE

In Eastern Europe, communist heritage tourism emerged after 1990. After the fall of the Iron Curtain, thousands of western tourists chose the former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe as tourism destinations. 15 years later, a new factor encouraged the growth of communist heritage tourism: the accession of the former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe to the European Union.
(Hungary, the Baltic states, Poland and the Czech Republic in 2004, followed by Romania and Bulgaria in 2007). This led to an increase in accessibility (determined by the lack of borders inside the union) and hence an increase in the number of Western tourists.

Almost all Central and Eastern European states have developed tourism programs (or tours) based on sites related to the communist period. The best example is Poland, known for Nowa Huta, a district of Krakow (“The New Steel Mill”). Having a population of about 200,000 people, the district was planned specifically to be one of the pillars of the Polish steel industry and inhabited by the workers of the „Vladimir Lenin” Steelworks (the biggest steel mill in Poland). Due to its remarkable communist architecture, Nowa Huta became an important tourist attraction sought by foreign tourists and organized tours of the district and the steelworks quickly appeared.

Another example of using communist heritage as a tourism resource can be found in Budapest, the capital of Hungary. Here, after the fall of communism, all the statues symbolizing communist personalities and heroes were removed and transported to a park. Opened in 1993, Szoborpark (or Memento Park) became one of the city’s main sights. The park had a great success among tourists and over the years it became an open-air museum that includes many sights: the red star store, a theater showing short films regarding Secret Police Training Methods in Communist Hungary, a photo exhibitions focusing on everyday life in communist Hungary and Stalin’s Grandstand, a 1:1 replica of the pedestal of a bronze statue of Stalin, destroyed in 1956.

Memento Park is not the only communist attraction in Budapest. The city also has the Terror Hazza (House of Terror), a museum that presents both the fascist and communist regimes that controled Hungary during the 20th century.

Other museums that present the communist period have been opened in the last decade in most of the former communist states of Central and Eastern Europe. One of them, the Museum of Communism in Prague (Czech Republic), ironically located above a McDonald’s restaurant, offers an insight into life in communist Czechoslovakia, and particularly in Prague. As the museum’s site says the theme of the Museum is "Communism- the Dream, the Reality, and the Nightmare" and visitors are shown an interrogation room, a historical schoolroom and TV video clips from the communist period among other exhibits that present the totalitarian period.

Other communist museums (or Soviet occupation museums) have been opened in the Baltic States, in the capitals of Riga, Tallinn, and Vilnius, in Kiev (Ukraine) and Tbilisi (Georgia).

Besides these countries, a large number of tourists enjoy the communist heritage sites in Germany, especially in Berlin. The city was divided during the communist period and parts of the Berlin Wall (like the Brandenburg Gate) and especially Checkpoint Charlie have become major tourist attractions.
If the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, we do not know precisely the extent of communist heritage tourism, in China between 2004 and 2007 more than 400 million people have taken "red tourism" holidays, bringing in over $13.5 billion to many of the country's most economically deprived areas, exceeding even the estimated amounts to be collected until 2010 [9].

6. PROBLEMS AND HERITAGE INTERPRETATION

Despite rapid growth and high revenues obtained, there are enough contestants of both red tourism and communist heritage tourism. One of the major problems encountered for both tourism types is heritage interpretation.

Firstly, in China, older members of the Communist Party, the old revolutionaries have deemed the use for profits of sites and heroes related to the Chinese Revolution as unacceptable. They also bring into question the immorality of obtaining substantial profits from the sale of images of people who entered into history by anti-capitalist attitudes and beliefs.

Another problem with red tourism thematic tours is the lack of variety of tourist attractions included in the tour. Although tours include major attractions with great historical and emotional meaning the lack of diversification may lead to lower interest for such tours. Because of this, thematic tours based on communist heritage sites extend over a period of a few days and alternate communist attractions with other tourist sites and activities. This is especially true in Eastern Europe, where tourist packages include sites related to different periods of history while the state led Chinese Red Tourism theme tours (red tours) can range from several days for up to two weeks, relying almost entirely on sites related to the life of Mao and the Chinese revolution.

If in the People's Republic of China heritage interpretation is made in one direction, which is to glorify and commemorate the heroes and events related to the early communist period preceding the proclamation of the Chinese republic in the former communist states of Central and Eastern Europe there are issues with how the communist era is viewed and perceived by both local people and authorities.

As Light notes, the governments of former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe do not want the states they lead to be associated with communism, as they are trying to build new European images for their countries. The result is the tendency to erase the communist period (this can be viewed especially in the museums of Bucharest, where the communist period is almost absent) or to present it as a mistake of history.

Hence, there is little interest in promoting the communist-era monuments and sites. Perhaps the best example is the People's House (the Palace of Parliament) in Bucharest, which is perceived by foreigners as a symbol for the city, while many of
Bucharest’s inhabitants do not consider it as Romanian heritage and even think it should be destroyed as it reminds of a “dark” period in Romanian history.

7. RED TOURISM VS. COMMUNIST HERITAGE TOURISM

Between the two forms of cultural tourism, based on the sites of the Communist period, developed in different political and geographical regions, namely PR China and Eastern Europe, there are some major differences as shown by our review of their emergence and development. The following table references are the most important ones.

Table 1: Differences between Red Tourism and Communist Heritage Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Red Tourism</th>
<th>Communist Heritage Tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Region /Countries</td>
<td>People’s Republic of China</td>
<td>Former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergence</td>
<td>After 2004</td>
<td>After 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development /Evolution</td>
<td>Planned by the State (by the Chinese Communist Government)</td>
<td>External demand - Determined by the demand for communist heritage sites from western tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage sites</td>
<td>Related to the Chinese Communist Revolution</td>
<td>Related to communist regimes and their downfall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage Interpretation</td>
<td>Glorifying the Communist Past and Present</td>
<td>Mainly negative view of the communist period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
<td>Chinese young people (students)</td>
<td>Western tourists (people who lived on the other side of the Iron Curtain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Very Important aspect – Stimulate nationalist spirit and loyalty towards the Chinese Communist Party</td>
<td>Tendency to ignore, forget the communist past so the educational side of tourism is not well represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Glorifying the communist past</td>
<td>Recreation, expanding cultural horizons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>Heritage interpretation – „Disneyfication”</td>
<td>Heritage interpretation – „dissonant heritage”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Both types use communist heritage sites as primary tourism resources. While Red Tourism focuses on sites related to the beginning of communism in China and to the Chinese Revolution, communist heritage tourism in linked to sites that remind of the communist past of the states of CE Europe.

In terms of planning and development Chinese Red Tourism is entirely run by the State (major investments in infrastructure and facilities and discounts for different categories of red tourists), communist heritage tourism in CE Europe evolved due to external demand for communist heritage sites.

One of the most important differences is related to the way heritage is presented to tourists. While in China, communist heritage is interpreted in a positive way and used to educate (young Chinese) tourists in the spirit of communism, in Eastern Europe there is a tendency to ignore communist heritage or to present in a negative way.

8. DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDIES

Red tourism is a type of cultural tourism which emerged in PR China after 2004, developed by the state and based on the sites of the communist revolution.

Communist heritage tourism appeared in the former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe after 1990 as western tourists became interested in life on the other side of the Iron Curtain and in the heritage sites of the communist regimes and their downfall.

There shouldn’t be confusion between the two tourism types, as there are many differences between them, in a vast array of aspects including development and planning, the market segment they are targeting, heritage interpretation (and the problems this brings) and the educational side of tourism.

In both cases there are problems regarding heritage interpretation. These are more pronounced in the former communist countries of Eastern Europe where there is an obvious tendency to erase or to present in a negative way the past spent under the communist regime.

Further studies on using communist heritage for tourism purposes can use this paper as a starting point as it defines communist heritage tourism as a distinct tourism type. Following studies will focus on communist heritage, its characteristics and the way it can be used as a tourism resource. This will include both detailed perception studies and studies regarding heritage management in urban spaces.
9. REFERENCES


OBSERVATIONS ON THE CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF THE AVALANCHES IN PIATRA CRAIULUI MASSIF

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Observations of the causes and effects of the avalanches in the Piatra Craiului Massif

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Observations sur les causes et les effets des avalanches en Massif Piatra Craiului. Les avalanches représentent un hazard naturel qui se manifeste comme un glissement imprévu, dans des distances plus que 50 metres d'une quantité grande de neige, qu'arrive dans les pentes montagneuses aprè la rupture de l'équilibre de la neige (qui a des causes diverses : climatiques, mécaniques, anthropique). Il est un de premiers agents responsables de la modélisation de relief dans l'étage cryo-nival du massif Piatra Craiului. Les régions favorables pour la formation d'avalanches sont représentées par la partie supérieure des vallées torrentielles où arrivent des conditions potentielles (la pente, la manque de la vegetation, le vent, l'exposition des pentes, l'accumulation de la neige, les conditions météorologiques etc). L'importance d'évaluer et de surveiller les avalanches n'est dû qu'elles peuvent se transformer dans un événement menaçant qui présente la probabilité à se produire dans une certaine période, étant nuisible pour l'homme, pour les bons produits par il et pour l'environnement.

Mots clés : avalanches, neige, Massif Piatra Craiului hazard.

Observații asupra cauzelor și efectelor avalanșelor din Masivul Piatra Craiului. Avalașele reprezintă un hazard natural ce se manifestă prin alunecarea bruscă, pe distanțe mai mari de 50 de metri a unei cantități mari de zăpadă, ce apare pe versanții montani în urma ruperii echilibrului zăpezii (ce are cauze diverse: climatice, mecanice, antropice). Este unul dintre agenții principali ai modelării reliefului în etajul crio-nival al Masivului Piatra Craiului. Zonele favorabile pentru formarea avalașelor sunt reprezente de partea superioară a vălor torențiale unde apar condiții potențiale (pantă, lipsa vegetației, vânt, expunerea versanților, acumulări de zăpadă, condiții meteorologice, etc). Importanța evaluării și monitorizării avalașelor apare deoarece acestea se pot transforma într-un eveniment amenințător ce prezintă probabilitatea de apariție într-o anumită perioadă, fiind dăunător pentru om, pentru bunurile produse de acesta și pentru mediul înconjurător.

Cuvinte cheie : avalanșă, zăpadă, Masivul Piatra Craiului, hazard.
1. INTRODUCTION

Considered as a hazard, a geographical risk phenomenon, “a threatening event that shows a probability of incidence in a certain period of the year, a potentially harmful phenomenon for the human being, for the goods that he produces and for the environment” [1], we must consider time and space coordinates, which are essential in order to establish a geographical phenomenon; but the social element, the interaction with the human being and with his goods must also be taken into account.

Avalanches have three areas: detachment area, avalanche corridor and avalanche deposit. Avalanche risk is determined by the presence of geomorphic work of avalanche, by the possibility of exposing the people or their goods in its range of action. In order to measure this risk, 5 scales that asses the degree of avalanche risk (made by EISL Davos and adopted by many European countries) has five risk levels (low risk, moderate risk, considerable risk, big risk, imminent risk).

2. DATA AND METHODS USED

I have carried out observations and measurements in the areas most prone to avalanches. I have inventoried the avalanche corridors after I made researches on the field, analysed the photographs I had taken in the key points and the ortophotopans, the satellite images from different periods of time, the topographic maps (1:25.000, 1:100.000), but also the srtm images. The observations on the field were made in each of the four seasons. The deposits made by the avalanches and the micro relief forms were charted using the ortophotopan of the respective areas. This way, a bridge was created between the detachment area, the avalanche corridors and the forms of relief that resulted. The photographs taken on field on winter and summer helped me identify the areas most prone to avalanches.

Configuration information (slope, land cover, slope orientation, etc), climate and weather information, assessments of the hints found in the field (affected areas, deposits of debris on the base of the corridor) were taken into consideration in order to chart the avalanche production potential.

3. STUDIED ZONE

Piatra Craiului Massif is located in north-western part of Bucegi upland (Fig. 1.) and consists of a 25 kilometres ridge, being located in Brașov and Argeș counties.

This massif is formed by limestone and conglomeratic rocks, fragmented by torrent valleys and avalanche corridors. Piatra Craiului was modelled both by torrential and by
snow and ice as well. Periglacial landforms are often present in the alpine and sub alpine zones.

From the geological point of view, Piatra Craiului Massif is a flank of a suspended synclinal. The limestone is from Jurassic (Kimmeridgian) and the conglomerate layer from Cretaceous (Aptian). The geologic structure is fragmented by a number of faults, disposed east-west.

![Fig.1. Piatra Craiului Massif – location map](image)

**The history of avalanche researches in Romania**

The first avalanches ever registered in Romania were made in the interwar period. Clubul Alpin Român (CAR) and Siebenburgischer Karpatischer Verin (SKV) talk about such recordings. Mountain tourism development in Romania, the building of the first chalets and refuges have led to accidents (avalanches) in which tourists and climbers were involved.

The present study of preoccupations regarding avalanches and methods of prevention is somehow more advanced because special teams were organized to study avalanches.

**The causes of avalanches in Piatra Craiului Massif**

The causes can be natural, anthropic or multiple. These are determined by the relief, snow or weather conditions.
The relief is related to avalanches because it represents the path on which they accumulate and the corridor on which the snow slips.

The instability in the snowpack depends on the snow, on the weather conditions, but especially on the relief. In Piatra Craiului Massif the areas in which the snow mostly accumulates and forms avalanches are the ones in the upper side (the area where they form) of the valleys, e.g. Grind Valley, Vlădușca Valley, Padinile Frumoase Valley, Urzicii Valley, etc. Thus, in summer, the valleys are represented by torrential organisms and in winter they turn into avalanche corridors.

The most suitable disposition for snow accumulation and dry avalanches are the North, North-East slopes, represented in map slope orientation (Fig. 2) in blue colour. These slopes are cold and wet. The South and South-West slopes are warm and dry and are represented in slope map (Fig. 2) in light yellow and orange. These are more likely to form spring avalanches.

The relief is in association with the avalanche starting by slope and the morphology of the soil surface. Slope inclination (Fig. 3) is very important because it can determine the snow accumulation and its detachment. “Avalanches start on slopes with an angle of inclination of 30-55 degrees”[5], represented in Piatra Craiului slope map in orange and red colour, on the upper part of the ridge. Green and yellow colours represent the favourable inclination for snow accumulation.

Piatra Craiului Massif is characterized by the presence of narrow valleys with v-shaped transversal profile. These valleys are ravines, so called “Piatra Craiului-type valleys”. Thus, this massif is more disturbed by spontaneous avalanches started in the accumulation area.
Soil surface morphology refers to “long, flat, convex or concave slopes and are more dangerous than the ones in treads” [5]. The rocky and grassy field in grey and turquoise present in land cover map (Fig. 4), representing the upper part of massif, are the most favourable surfaces to avalanches. The soil is missing or is very thin on a large surface and so the avalanche corridors are created. The slopes on which there are trees, juniper trees, rocky blocks, thresholds, dislevelments are less dangerous.

The snow is the main condition of starting avalanches. On its morphology depends the size, the material the avalanches take on their way down, as well as the damages and the effects caused by them. *The thickness of the snow layer* must reach 30 cm in order to become dangerous. The presence of wind determines the uneven deposit through the accumulation of a larger quantity of snow in the direction of the wind, in the areas where

![Fig. 4. Land cover of Piatra Criului Mountains](image)
there are obstacles. These inhomogenous deposits are the most dangerous because they can cause the forming of cornices (snow deposits on the superior side of the ridge), of wind crust, etc. The density of the snow layer is important because its variation influences avalanches characteristics. The microscopic structure of the snow layer refers to the shape of the crystals, to the percentage of water in liquid and gaseous state, but also to their variation in the same snow layer. Snow structure varies according to weather conditions during the snowfall, but also to the next ones.

Weather conditions influence directly the snow structure, determining the appearance of some layers with different structures and adhesions. Temperature through cold (under 0 °C cohesion between the snowflakes and between the new layer and the old one does not take place anymore). The warming that starts moderately favors the settlement of the new snow layer and determines the cohesion of it with the old one. If any sudden warming takes place, this will determine the melting of the snow layer (the snow becomes watery). This warming determines the appearance of „spring” avalanches during sunny days. The wind associated to the snowfall determines the filling of valleys and ravines with snow blown from the main ridge.

Moreover, the wind creates “wind crusts” (germ. „windgerütt”, fr „palque a vent” eng. „wind slab”).

Factors that cause the starting of avalanches. Avalanches take place because of a decrease in adherence; this may happen due to changes in the properties of the snow layer, to an increase or a decrease of temperature that diminishes the attraction force between the crystals. The increase of snowpack weight is another factor. By increasing the weight of the snowpack with new deposits, the avalanche will self-trigger.

The increase in weight can be joined by other forces such as cornices breaking, tourists, skiers, chamois passing by, sound vibrations, strong wind, etc can also provoke avalanches.

Avalanche types [11] and their effect on human factor

Avalanches are divided into five types depending on the snow quality that determines the avalanches’ characteristics. The type of the snow varies in the same place every day, every hour. Avalanches have different effects on the people caught up in them. The snow is accumulated through a succession of snow layers which are relatively different from one another and have different characteristics depending on the weather condition.

Avalanches with dry snow divide into:

a. Powder avalanche – take place when the snow is light. This type of avalanche starts after snowfalls, when there are low temperatures, especially on the Northern slopes.
These avalanches are triggered spontaneously. They have two elements: the proper avalanche and the snow cloud which comes with a loud noise. In this case, the avalanche may produce a block or an explosion of the respiratory tract of the human being, because of the high pressure, or may drown the victim because of the smooth snow particles. The chances to survive are minimal.

b. Granular avalanche: “this type of avalanche is triggered with snow formed by micro granules of 2-5 mm (fr. “gobelet”, eng: “cup crystal”). The micro granules can be polyhedral crystals, with regular shapes or ellipsoidal amorphous structures.”[5] The snow that corresponds to this type of avalanche can be just fallen or can be older, but whose structure has changed. These avalanches are self-triggered or can be provoked. They are silent and without cloud. The chances to survive in this case are higher. For example, such an avalanche triggered on Grind Valley in March 2005 (Photo 1) on the eastern slope, stroked Grind Hutt and damaged it (Photo 1). In the same place, a big avalanche destroyed Radu Negru Chalet in 1953.

c. Avalanche on wind slab: these avalanches are mainly provoked by the victims that “cut” the crust. They are called wind crusts avalanches (fr. „plaque a neige”, germ „schneebrett”). This type of avalanche starts under the action of the wind that (in dry snowfalls) determines the deposit of an inhomogeneous layer of snow, with accumulations in colour and on the superior side of the two slopes of the ridge, on both sides and sometimes it can join the cornices. The danger for the victims is not that high in this case.
**Avalanches with humid snow** have smaller speeds and the chances to survive are higher. They divide into:

* a. *Avalanches with humid crusts*: this type of avalanche is generally self-triggered at the warmest hours of the day and endangers people that are imprudently on the slopes at that time. They are also called ground avalanches because they sweep most of the times the entire layer of snow on the valley, boulders, vegetation and has obvious effects on the corridor. The victims surprised by this type of avalanche are buried because the snow has large density and thus, the chances to survive are low.

* b. The snowball avalanche* (fr. „en boule”) starts in spring, on the humid and soft snow. They start with small fragments that roll down on the sunny slopes and corridors (western, south-western exposure). The snowballs can grow bigger and can trigger all the snow on the corridor, becoming dangerous for the human factor.

**The effects of avalanches on the relief**

“The avalanche is one of the main agent of under airy modelling of the relief in the cryonival/periglacial level, being a main agent in the periglacial and fluvionival relief” [6].

“The main action of snow avalanches is the avalanche of erosion and transport of materials on the slope, but also the accumulation of materials in the deposit area (cones of detritus, avalanche deposits, trains of detritus, etc.). Avalanches are a major factor of relief destruction.

The morphogenetic role of avalanches consists both of forming the avalanche corridors, of periglacial relief, of micro-relief and of creating favourable conditions for the development of some geomorphologic processes by removing soil and vegetation.” [6]. Thus the ravines grow narrower and wider, the detritus keep on moving and the surface erosion continues.

**Forms of relief that resulted from avalanche**: the forms of relief that resulted from avalanches are influenced by the way in which avalanches act, by the mechanical and erosion forces with which they act. The snow can be stored on both sides of the ridge from Turnul peak to Funduri peak (Fig. 5). The eastern slope is gentle and covered by vegetation. The western slope is steeper, formed by a big limestone wall where fluvi-o-nival valleys are present. The “Forms of relief that resulted from avalanches” (Fig. 5) map reflects the areas exposed to avalanche risk. The results are represented by stone torrents (both sides, eastern and western – Brâul de Mijloc (1600m)), cones of detritus, avalanche corridors, etc.
Main forms of relief: “avalanche corridors are specific forms of erosion – see figure 5. They are being modelled by the torrents during the summer as well. They are considered to be the result of alternative cryo-nival and pluvial modelling” [3]. Avalanche corridors represent the surface on which the snowpack moves during an avalanche and they are usually located on the western slope (Photo. 2). Complex corridors on the eastern slope (Photo. 3) are made by a gully well-individualized on the inferior side. On the superior side there is a reception area, on the base of the avalanche corridor there are cones of detritus.
The moving snow has a mechanical destructive action triggering previously disintegrated materials, but it also dissolves everything in the way because of the chalk-stones.

“Re-established chalk-stone layers, almost vertical are specific for Piatra Craiului Mountains. These layers are part of the re-established synclinal.”

The vertical development of karstic forms of relief is specific for Piatra Craiului Mountains. Due to the very inclined slopes, there are many avalanches determined by the cornices detachment.”[4]
“Nival semi-mouths” (ro. “semipalnii nivale”) are negative forms of relief, often associated with stone torrents and avalanche corridors, being developed on the superior side through stronger deepening in the axial zone” [6]. Their surface is usually small. “Nival horseshoses” (ro. “potcoave nivale”) are accumulation forms of relief asymmetrically arched-wave-shaped. There are big gelifracts, unsorted, which form at the base of the avalanche corridors. Secondary forms of relief: cones and trains of detritus often found both at the base of the avalanche corridors and in the reception zone. The cones of detritus are specific to the base of slopes, at the end of the avalanche corridors and at the base of the western slope. Rivers of detritus are formed by materials of different sizes, deposited along the valleys. Avalanches have a destructive characteristic from this point of view, which determine movements of the deposits towards the base of the corridors.

“Stone torrents are permanent only in the areas with a small angle of inclination (30°). The flattened lobes, the terraces and the stone torrents are called stripes placations, stone-banked, lobes and terraces and are triggered both by avalanches and by torrents.” [6]

4. CONCLUSIONS

The most dangerous snowfalls that most certainly lead to avalanches are those with dry snow or powder snow (germ. „pluverschnee”, fr. „neige poudreuse”) because the new layer of snow does not settle or weld with the old layer. Moreover, dry granular snow, that appears from changing the first snow under weather conditions. In the case of humid and heavy snow, the important aspect is the quality of the snow layer on which it deposits. If this is represented by a frozen layer of snow, the new layer will weld with the old one. But if the under layer is not frozen, but humid, the snow will not weld. And this is the case where an avalanche will start. Humid snow, resulted from a sudden warming of the weather, is also dangerous. It raises a high risk of strong avalanche (in which all the snowpack will be moved, also triggering the old layer of snow).

Avalanches are an important factors of destruction the forms of relief, as it also has a very important morphological role. Thus, the effects of avalanches can be noticed when the micro relief or potential conditions for the development of certain geomorphologic processes appear, processes such as removal of vegetation and other damages such as: killing people, destroying roads, forests, houses.

Charting the avalanche corridors (see the avalanche hazard map) is important because this way you can miniaturize the size and the effect of the avalanches. By making maps of avalanche risk (Fig. 6) you can asses the possibility of starting the avalanches. They can be avoided or categorised as areas with potential risk, represented in the next map.
You can take into account: the size of the starting zone, the altitude, the distribution of the snow layer, the nival erosion, the type of the draining, morph metric properties of the avalanche corridor and the effects. Thus, you can warn people and decrease potential disasters.

5. REFERENCES

LE TOURISME DE LA DERNIERE DECENNIE EN ROUMANIE.
ETUDE DE CAS : LA VILLE DE BRASOV

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Tourism in Romania in the last decade. Case study: the city of Brasov. The urbanization is a phenomenon that took proportions lately, due to the economical development, of transports, of the socio-cultural interests, to the increase of the education level, etc. Due to the means of information, communication, and transport and to the concentration of the touristic historical-cultural objectives in the big cities, these ones have become important points of attraction for the touristic activity. In the last decade, due to the economic restructuring and to the increase of the role of the services sector, tourism has begun to have an important contribution in the economy of the country including the city of Brasov. In Romania, the city of Brasov represents one of the most important touristic centres of the country due to the numerous historical and cultural objectives within it but also the special natural resources. Although tourism has become one of the main factors concerning the economical development, we cannot ignore the negative aspects that result as a consequence of the touristic activity that is why it is necessary that this one should take place in the conditions in which the actual generation to benefit and use the current natural and anthropic resources so that the next generations can take advantage of as well.

Key words: tourism, urban, cultural tourism, resources, objectives, sustainable development.

Turismul în ultimul deceniu în România. Studiu de caz: municipiul Brașov. Urbanizarea este un fenomen care a luat amploare în ultima perioadă, datorită dezvoltării economice, a transporturilor, atrației socio-culturale, a creșterii nivelului de educație etc. Datorită mijloacelor de informare, comunicare, transport și a concentrării obiectivelor turistice cultural-istorice în mari orașe, acestea au devenit puncte importante de atracție pentru activitatea turistică. În ultimul deceniu, datorită restructurării economice și creșterii rolului sectorului serviciilor, turismul a început să aibă o contribuție importantă în economia țării și implicit a municipiului Brașov. În România, municipiul Brașov reprezintă unul dintre cele mai importante centre turistice ale țării, datorită numeroaselor obiective istorice și culturale care se regăsesc în cadrul său, cât și a resurselor naturale deosebite. Deși turismul a devenit unul dintre factorii principali în ceea ce privește dezvoltarea economică, nu trebuie neglijate nici aspectele negative ce pot rezulta în urma activității turistice, de aceea este necesar ca aceasta să se desfășoare în condițiile în care actuala generație să beneficieze și utilizeze resursele naturale și antropice actuale în așa fel incât de aceste resurse să se poată bucura și generațiile următoare.

Cuvinte cheie: turism, urban, turism cultural, resurse, obiective, dezvoltare durabilă
1. **INTRODUCTION**

Le développement de l’industrie, du commerce, de l’économie en général a contribué à l’augmentation de la population des villes, ainsi que la population de la Terre, à devenir urbaine. Le développement des villes et de la population urbaine a été soutenu par des nombreux facteurs : l’industrialisation ; le potentiel du marché, la multiplication des services, le développement des transports, l’attraction socioculturelle, l’élévation du niveau de l’éducation, l’élévation naturelle ([1] p. 186). Dans l’année 2003, 48% des habitants de la planète vivaient dans la ville, dans l’année 2010 la proportion a dépassé 50% et on a estimé qu’elle va arriver à 60%. A présent sur le globe il y a une tendance d’augmentation des grandes villes suite au déplacement de la population rurale vers le milieu urbain, ayant comme cause l’activité économique des villes ([2] p.82).

L’augmentation du degré d’urbanisation a mené à la croissance de l’activité touristique, phénomène qui s’est éteint graduellement à mesure de l’amplification des buts qui déterminent le déplacement, des situations favorisés par la multiplication des désirs et des besoins, par la croissance des revenus, l’élévation du niveau culturel, et l’accentuation du stress dans une société de plus en plus complexe ([3] p. 5).

Grâce au fait qu’elles combinent un riche fonds touristique et une gamme variée de services, avec les motivations et les préférences des touristes, les villes offrent des conditions optimums pour dérouler des divers types de tourisme : culturel, d’expositions commerciales, festivalier, d’affaires, de réunions et congrès, sportives, etc. Les liaisons faciles avec l’extérieur, les milieux d’informations et communication modernes, transposent l’espace urbain dans un point d’appui pour le tourisme culturel, la concentration des objectifs touristiques de facture culturelle dans les grandes villes faisant de celles-ci de vrais nœuds de convergence des fluxes touristiques ([4] p.213).

Christopher Law analysait la relation entre le tourisme et les zones urbaines en distinguant plusieurs éléments importants pour les touristes qui visitent les villes. Les éléments clé qui augmentent l’attraction des zones urbaines pour les touristes sont les zones historiques (des quartiers, des rues, des bâtiments, des zones pour les piétons), des conférences, expositions, des festivals et d’autres événements qui sont devenus les moyens les plus populaires pour attirer le tourisme dans les villes. Celles-ci varient en dimensions et en importance, des événements comme L’Exposition Mondiale ou les Jeux Olympiques, aux événements annuels comme les festivals de musique, de film, théâtre, etc. D’autres éléments d’attraction importants sont les rivières des villes, les aménagements pour pratiquer les sports, les lieux d’amusement, les caractéristiques socioculturelles des villes, des éléments secondaires étant l’hébergement, les achat, l’accessibilité, le transport,
l’information touristique. Tous ces éléments sont en liaison étroite; constituant des éléments d’attraction pour le tourisme urbain et pour la stimulation de l’économie locale.

Le temps, qui est devenu précieux dans la vie des gens a contribué à la croissance du tourisme urbain, celui-ci étant extrêmement attractif pour les touristes pressés par le temps parce qu’il permet la visite des villes pendant toute l’année. Le fait que quelques gens font plusieurs voyages mais de courte durée et la croissance générale de la mobilité ont aidé aussi à la croissance du tourisme urbain au niveau mondial. Il est à remarquer aussi le fait qu’aujourd’hui les touristes sont plus expérimentés et par conséquent ils ont plus de discernement dans le choix de leurs vacances en ce qui concerne les destinations mais aussi les activités.

Pour répondre à la demande de plus en plus grande, la diversification des offres est soutenue aussi par les forces de décision politique qui ont l’intérêt de promouvoir le tourisme parce que celui-ci représente un facteur clé dans le développement économique, apportant de la bienséance et l’occupation de la force de travail. Ainsi, le tourisme peut être vu comme une politique de développement urbain qui combine une offre compétitive, capable à satisfaire les demandes des touristes, avec une contribution positive au développement des villes et à la bienséance des résidents.

2. LE TOURISME CULTUREL URBAIN ET SON RÔLE DANS L’ACTIVITÉ TOURISTIQUE

Le tourisme urbain peut être perçu comme résultat de la mobilité de la population, pour laquelle les villes sont devenues des points d’arrêt inévitables. Il est ainsi le résultat des changements comportementaux qui ont transformé les villes dans des centres culturels et des endroits de détente, où les gens font les achats, prennent le repas, passent le temps dans les marchés et d’autres endroits publiques.

G.J. Ashworth et Godall B. [6], sont arrivé à la conclusion que le tourisme urbain est plutôt “d’incidence” que “d’intention”. Cette opinion semble être née de l’augmentation de la fréquence des voyages d’un jour, du transit et la visite avec prédilection par les touristes des zones qui entourent les villes.

Pendant que les villes sont en quelques cas le motif central des visites, elles sont devenues comme élément particulier des endroits où les gens s’arrêtent avant de continuer le tracé de visite d’une région.

Parce que les aménagements touristiques ne se limitent juste au périmètre de la ville, la zone périurbaine acquiert elle-aussi une fonction touristique dans le cas où elle est pourvue des objectifs d’attraction correspondants ([4] p.213).
La partie la plus importante du tourisme urbain est détenue par le tourisme culturel. Le tourisme culturel est une particularité du tourisme urbain qui approche la culture d’une région, spécialement ses valeurs artistiques. Le tourisme culturel inclut le tourisme dans les régions urbaines historiques (les musées et théâtres, les maisons des écrivains ou d’artistes célèbres, etc.). Les spécialistes considèrent que les personnes qui pratiquent le tourisme culturel dépensent en moyenne plus que les touristes « standard ».

Le marché du tourisme culturel en Europe devient de plus en plus compétitif. Un nombre plus grand de villes et régions de l’Union Européenne basent leurs stratégies de développement du tourisme par la promotion du patrimoine culturel, ainsi que le nombre des objectifs culturels se développe rapidement.

Les tendances majeures qui ont été observées en ce qui concerne le tourisme culturel sont : l’interaction entre la culture et le tourisme qui a les origines dans la période de début du tourisme et à présent gagne de plus en plus d’importance, le tourisme culturel est un élément clé pour le développement durable et pour les dialogues interculturels, et l’héritage culturel est l’expression de l’identité des gens du territoire, de l’histoire, des traditions et de la civilisation.

L’organisation spatiale des ressources culturelles de la ville et leurs relations avec l’infrastructure (les hôtels, les moyens de transport, les zones commerciales sont importantes pour le succès de la stratégie de développement du tourisme culturel.

Le secteur culturel d’une ville consiste dans : les caractéristiques physiques d’une ville et l’héritage culturel, les ressources culturelles dans le sens le plus large, ci-inclus les événements, les expositions, les institutions et l’infrastructure comme les théâtres, les musées, les galeries, les librairies, les aménagements récréatifs et le commerce d’art [8].

La ville de Brasov constitue une des plus grandes villes de notre pays (284.596 habitants en 2002, 278.046 habitants en 2009) et le plus important centre touristique des Carpates, polarisant les activités touristiques sur une large aire qui inclut non seulement la dépression de Brasov mais aussi les montagnes qui l’entourent (surtout Postavarau, Piatra Mare, Piatra Craiului). La longue histoire du site et l’ensemble naturel extrêmement varié ont mené à la concentration sur un espace limité d’un complexe d’éléments de grande importance touristique ([3] p.208).

3. **BREF HISTORIQUE DE LA VILLE DE BRASOV**

La ville de Brasov est mentionnée dans les documents dans l’année 1234 sous le nom de *Corona*, plus tard, en 1252 *Barasu*, et de l’année 1294 comme *Barasa, Brasov*. 
Grâce au positionnement à l’intersection des voies commerciales qui venaient de La Valachie, La Moldavie et La Transylvanie, la ville a eu des conditions favorables de développement arrivant aux siècles XV-XVI un important centre commercial, avec une population de plus de 6000 habitants. Les siècles suivants, le rôle de Brasov comme centre commercial, politique et culturel de la Transylvanie s’est accentué (dans l’année 1838 apparaît là «La Gazette de Transylvanie» sous la direction de Gh. Baritiu et des frères Muresanu, et en 1848 c’est la place des rencontres des révolutionnaires des toutes les provinces roumaines).

De la deuxième moitié du XIXème siècle, en même temps avec le développement de la fonction industrielle, la ville de Brasov devient aussi un grand nœud ferroviaire, centre de convergence d’importantes voies ferrées des directions Arad-Timisoara, Oradea, Ciceu, Predeal, Zarnesti. Dans la période d’entre les deux guerres mondiales a lieu un développement d’un caractère explosif de la ville de Brasov, autant en ce qui concerne les fonctions du nombre des habitants que dans l’extension du territoire de celui-ci.

Après la fin de La Seconde Guerre Mondiale, dans la période communiste, la ville de Brasov connaît un développement surtout industriel, suivie par une augmentation de la population par la migration de la force de travail des divers zones de la Roumanie.

Les conditions politiques et administratives étant changées aussi que les provocations globales adressées à l’économie au XXIème siècle nécessitaient une redéfinition du rôle de la ville, de reconsidérer des emplacements économiques, sociales et de recherche et une interprétation des leurs influences sous le développement des alentours. La ville de Brasov s’étend une partie des fonctions dans les zones limitrophes : la création des nouveaux emplacements pour habiter, l’établissement ou le rétablissement des certains activités économiques (industrie, zones commerciales et services), le rétablissement des fonctions d’agrément de la ville dans la zone limitrophe [9].

De nos jours, on peut dire que Brasov, par son emplacement et son activité est l’une des plus importantes villes de la Roumanie, une ville européenne avec des fonctions complexes bien définies surtout dans le domaine du tourisme ou elle détient beaucoup d’objectifs autant anthropiques que naturels [10].

4. LES RESSOURCES TOURISTIQUES

Grâce au potentiel touristique exceptionnel et bénéficiant d’un climat favorable à la pratique du tourisme pendant toute l’année, détenant des nombreux monuments historiques d’art et d’architecture, la ville de Brasov réussit à satisfaire les besoins des divers segments de la demande touristique.
Les ressources touristiques naturelles constituent un élément important dans le développement du tourisme par la valeur du paysage et l’existence des conditions naturelles qui engendrent des formes de tourisme spécifiques, les éléments du cadre naturel représentant la base de toute activité touristique. La ville de Brasov, concentre dans ses limites des montagnes majestueux, des plantes et d’animaux protégés, des réservations naturelles d’arbres et prés, une station balnéaire et climatérique et des conditions pour la pratique des sports d’hiver [10].

Les ressources anthropiques représentent un autre facteur déterminant de l’activité touristique, le patrimoine culturel et historique de la ville de Brasov étant composé par des objectifs variées d’une valeur net.


Des Objectifs culturels et historiques : Le Bastion Graft, Le Bastion des Tisseurs, La Tour Noire et La Tour Blanche, La Porte d’Ecatérinne, La Porte Schei, Dupa ziduri, L’Ancien Cité de Brasov, La Place du Conseil (voir image 1).
Des édifices civils : La Maison du Conseil (voir image 2), La Maison Baiulescu, La Maison Hirscher (La Maison des Marchands), La Maison des Mureseni (Casa Muresenilor), Le Lycée « Andrei Saguna », casina Romana, L’Auberge « La cerbul de Aur » (Au cerf d’or).

Des musées : Le Musée d’histoire, Le Musée de la Première Ecole Roumaine, Le Musée d’Ethnographie, Le Musée d’Art, Le Musée Casa Muresenilor.

Maisons commémoratives : La Maison Johannes Honterus, La Maison Gh : Baritiu, Casa Muresenilor.

Des manifestations et objectifs touristiques au caractère ethno-folklorique : La parade des Juni, le festival ethno-médiéval « Ethnovember ».

Des événements culturels et artistiques : Le Festival International « Cerbul de Aur », le festival national du lied roumain, le festival de la dramaturgie contemporaine, la foire internationale de livre et de musique, le festival international d’Opéra, d’Opérette et Ballet, Corona Folk Festival.


La présence des nombreuses ressources touristiques, aussi naturelles qu’anthropiques dans la ville de Brasov et aux alentours facilite la réalisation des divers formes de tourisme : le tourisme de montagne favorisé par l’existence des massifs montagneux de la grande surface couverte de forêts des tracées marquées, des chalets de la montagne et des bases d’hébergement des villes limitrophes aussi que par la promotion de ces zones sur le plan national et international propices pour pratiquer des excursions, des sports d’hiver de l’alpinisme du tourisme spéléologique. Des endroits comme Poiana Brasov qui sont centrés sur la saison de ski, mais grâce à la beauté du paysage ont un potentiel élevé pour le développement du tourisme aussi hors de la saison froide (Poiana Brasov occupe la première place entre les stations de ski du pays offrant aux skieurs dix pistes de degrés de difficulté différentes, d’une longueur totale de dix-sept kilomètres et douées des installations de transport à câble). Dans la ville de Brasov, fonctionne dès le début de l’année 2010 une patinoire olympique et il y a deux télécabines quilient le pied du Mont Tampa et son sommet ; le tourisme culturel-historique est favorisé par l’existence des nombreux, monuments historiques et d’architecture, par la multitude de coutumes et traditions et d’autres événements culturels au caractère périodique ; le tourisme rural trouve se adeptes parmi les personnes intéressés par la retraite dans la nature, l’absence du
milieu mécanisé et de la pollution sonore, le retour à l’authenticité et aux traditions. *L’agrotourisme* est pratique spécialement dans la zone des villages de Bran (Fundata, Moeciu, Bran) et à Poiana Marului, des zones qui constituent une région avec un potentiel historique et touristique spécial, de même que la zone Sacele-Tarlungeni situées dans la proximité de la ville de Brasov ; le *tourisme d’affaires* et conférences de la perspective duquel la ville de Brasov réjouit d’un intérêt croissant favorisé par les dotations offertes par beaucoup d’hôtels et pensions de la ville (des salles de conférence correspondant équipées) ; *le tourisme de récréation* ; *le tourisme de circulation*, pratiqués dans les deux formes de transit et itinérant/de circuit; *le tourisme de fin de semaine* ; *le tourisme sportif* etc [11].

5. **LA CIRCULATION TOURISTIQUE**

Les évolutions du tourisme interne ont reflété les transformations de la vie économique et sociale du pays, étant concrétisées par des augmentations ou diminutions du nombre des touristes, par des variations de la durée des vacances, par la modification de l’endroit de tourisme dans le consomme de la population [12].

Grâce au fait que la ville de Brasov est un des plus importantes centres touristiques du pays, cela polarise l’activité touristique de la zone et attire un nombre significatif de
touristes (approximativement une moitié du nombre des touristes- 48%) du total de ceux qui visitent la ville de Brasov). Dans la période 2001-2009 la plupart des touristes qui ont visité et pratiqué les diverses formes de tourisme dans le département sont d’origine roumaine. L’intérêt des touristes étrangers pour Brasov a crû, mais plus lentement. Le numéro des touristes a crû d’une année à l’autre.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANEES</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL TOURISTES</td>
<td>328.303</td>
<td>324.816</td>
<td>448.147</td>
<td>556.816</td>
<td>581.983</td>
<td>451.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURISÉS ROUMAINS</td>
<td>260.014</td>
<td>251.070</td>
<td>359.259</td>
<td>452.586</td>
<td>480.422</td>
<td>376.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURISTI ETRANGERS</td>
<td>68.289</td>
<td>73.746</td>
<td>88.888</td>
<td>104.230</td>
<td>101.561</td>
<td>74.967</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tableau 2. L’évolution du nombre des touristes du département de Brasov (juillet-2009; juillet 2010).
Source: L’Agence Métropolitaine de Brasov.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARRIVEES</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>ROUMAINS</th>
<th>ETRANGERS</th>
<th>PASSAGES DE LA NUIT</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>ROUMAINS</th>
<th>ETRANGERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JUILLET 2010</td>
<td>7.418</td>
<td>35.627</td>
<td>11.791</td>
<td>104.665</td>
<td>76.672</td>
<td>27.993</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


6. **LES STRUCTURES DE RÉCEPTION TOURISTIQUE**

L'infrastructure d’hébergement est représentée par des hôtels, des auberges et des motels, des villas et chalets touristiques, des bungalows, villes de vacances, camps d’élèves, pensions (urbaines, rurales et agrotouristiques). Renommée par ses possibilités de tourisme dans toutes les saisons, la ville de Brasov disposait en 2004 de quatre-vingt-cinq **unités d'hébergement touristique** desquelles vingt-six hôtels, vingt-six pensions touristiques, dix-neuf bungalows, dix villas touristiques, deux chalets touristiques, un camping et un village de vacances [10]. Au niveau de l’année 2007 il y avait cent-six unités d'hébergement touristique desquelles trente hôtels, cinquante-trois pensions, vingt-trois villas, chalets, motels; villages de vacances [13].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Années</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit total</td>
<td>627727</td>
<td>630802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des hôtels</td>
<td>467960</td>
<td>465327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des motels</td>
<td>4913</td>
<td>7210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des villas touristiques</td>
<td>26091</td>
<td>15066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des hôtels pour les jeunes</td>
<td>27049</td>
<td>8122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des chalets touristiques</td>
<td>2327</td>
<td>1939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des villages de vacances</td>
<td>2127</td>
<td>2543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des bungalows</td>
<td>5600</td>
<td>2227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des campings</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage de la nuit dans des pensions touristiques urbaines</td>
<td>91660</td>
<td>106648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tableau 3. Le nombre de passage de la nuit par unité d’hébergement dans la ville de Brasov.
Source: L’Agence Métropolitaine de Brasov.

On observe qu’en 2008 on a enregistré une légère évolution du nombre de passages de la nuit, ce qui représente une croissance du nombre de touristes. Grâce au fait que dans la zone périurbaine de la ville de Brasov il y a des structures d’hébergement qui ne sont pas homologuées ou qui sont en cours d’être homologuées, on peut estimer que l’offre d’hébergement et le nombre des touristes qui visitent Brasov sont plus grands.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Département de Brasov</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacité existante</td>
<td>12.488</td>
<td>10.549</td>
<td>10.276</td>
<td>9.611</td>
<td>12037</td>
<td>12634</td>
<td>15729</td>
<td>14728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En fonction milliers places</td>
<td>3658,4</td>
<td>3681,9</td>
<td>3670,3</td>
<td>3650,0</td>
<td>4219,0</td>
<td>4704,7</td>
<td>4907,8</td>
<td>5034,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrivées (milliers)</td>
<td>773,1</td>
<td>326,4</td>
<td>328,3</td>
<td>324,8</td>
<td>448,1</td>
<td>556,8</td>
<td>582,0</td>
<td>451,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passages de la nuit (milliers)</td>
<td>2358,8</td>
<td>890,7</td>
<td>884,6</td>
<td>823,3</td>
<td>1000,3</td>
<td>1191,5</td>
<td>1279,6</td>
<td>985,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L'indice d'utilisation nette de la capacité en fonction (%)</td>
<td>64,5</td>
<td>24,2</td>
<td>24,1</td>
<td>22,6</td>
<td>23,7</td>
<td>25,3</td>
<td>26,1</td>
<td>19,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


L’indice d’utilisation de la capacité d’hébergement avant 1990 était d’approximativement 60%. Après l’année 2000, au niveau du département l’indice d’utilisation des capacités d’hébergement a touché un maximum, en 2008 arrivant à 26,1%, mais même en ces conditions, le degré d’utilisation est estimé à un quart du maximum de la capacité. Si en 2008 presque un quart du nombre des chambres disponibles a été occupé, en 2009 même pas 20% de la capacité n’a pas été occupée. Pour la croissance de celui-ci sont une série de mesures s’imposent comme la diversification des paquets de services touristiques, des offres ou même l’implémentation d’une stratégie de marketing concernant le tourisme de Brasov.
7. LE RÔLE DU TOURISME DANS LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DURABLE DE LA VILLE

L’augmentation des fluxes touristiques internes et internationales, pose de plus en plus des problèmes économiques, sociales et sociologiques complexes qui se réfèrent au développement et à la modernisation des structures de réception, à la satisfaction des désirs des touristes, tenant compte de l’utilisation rationnelle des ressources touristiques naturelles et anthropiques ([4] p.17).

On connaît le fait que l’activité touristique peut avoir sur l’environnement autant des effets positives (des actions qui on des effets bénéfiques pour le milieu naturel et la société humaine par lesquelles on refait les équilibres systémiques vus par des gains ou pertes diminuées) ([14] p.15) mais aussi négatives (les grands flux de touristes des certaines périodes la manque d’éducation des certains touristes ou des gens de la communauté locale, exprimée par des actes de vandalisme, des incendies, des vols, du dépôt des déchets le changement des traditions par le modernisme apporté par les touristes, le manement inadéquat des objectifs culturels ou de unités économiques polluantes en ce qui concerne l’environnement) ([14] p.20).

Concernant les zones urbaines, grâce à l’emplacement des objectifs culturels sur ces aires, le plus grand péril pour la maintenance et la conservation de ces objectifs est dû à la pollution. La pollution du milieu urbain est due aux sources fixes d’émissions- les plateformes industrielles et de ceux mobiles- les transports, c’est pour cela qu’il est nécessaire d’assurer un équilibre entre la croissance économique, la croissance de la mobilité de la population et la protection de l’environnement par un développement durable par la quelle les besoins actuels de l’humanité soient satisfaits sans compromettre la possibilité de satisfaire les demandes de développement des futures générations ([2] p.11).

Il est nécessaire que le développement durable contienne le développement économique, celle sociale et celle écologique qui suppose la contribution du milieu économique et social au développement de l’environnement et de ses ressources [15].

Dans le cadre des projets de développement durable de la ville de Brasov ont été prévues certaines mesures pour la création d’un cadre institutionnalisé et publique favorable à la protection de l’environnement et au développement durable, l’amélioration de la qualité de l’air, la promotion d’un management durable des ressources d’eau, l’amélioration de la qualité du sol, le management intégré des déchets, au niveau de la ville, la gestion durable et la conservation des zones vertes urbaines et des aires naturelles
périurbaines, le développement du tourisme comme domaine prioritaire dans la stratégie de développement durable de la ville de Brasov [10].

Il est à remarquer la fait que la ville de Brasov a gagné en 2010 le titre de “Capitale verte de la Roumanie” dans le cadre d’un programme d’environnement initié par le producteur de la bière « Tuborg » en partenariat avec le Ministère de L’environnement et des Forêts de Roumanie.

8. CONCLUSIONS

Le monde des villes est dans une augmentation plus rapide que celle de la population, hors de l’augmentation du nombre de la population en soi, l’urbanisation étant la tendance dominante de la deuxième moitié du siècle passé [16] et du début du siècle actuel. A cause du fait que la ville offre des conditions favorables au déroulement des divers types de tourisme- culturel, d’affaires, commercial, d’expositions, des réunions et congrès, festivalier, sportif, et dispose de conditions techniques-matérielles spéciales et aussi des moyens de transport, d’information et de communication avancées, l’espace urbain est devenu un des plus importants facteurs d’attraction dans le cadre de l’activité touristique.

Le tourisme est vu aussi comme une politique pour le développement économique des villes, par la combinaison de l’offre compétitive pour satisfaire les besoins des touristes et la contribution positive au développement de l’espace urbain et la bienséance de ses habitants. Après l’année 2000, le tourisme a commencé avoir une contribution importante dans l’économie, étant connu le fait que Brasov représente une des plus importantes zones industrielles du pays. Ainsi, après le commerce, le tourisme est la seconde branche importante dans le secteur des services, étant une branche dynamique, avec un cours rapide de développement et un grand potentiel d’extension [17].

Le principal point d’attraction dans le cadre des villes est représenté par le patrimoine culturel des celles-ci. De ce point de vue, la ville de Brasov représente un des plus importantes villes de Roumanie, la culture de Brasov étant née à l’intérieur de l’ancien centre commercial Brasov (Kruhnene- en dialecte saxon de Transylvanie, Kronstadt- en allemand, Brassó en hongroise, ou Brassovia/Corona en latin), ce qui facilite des liaisons entre la Transylvanie, La Moldavie et la Valachie mais aussi entre l’Orient et L’Occident Européen dès l’époque médiévale. La position géographique de Brasov d’aujourd’hui- attestée dans les documents à 1235 a favorisé le développement du site, devenant peu à peu une foire renommée ou on déroulait des importantes activités commerciales [11].
Aujourd'hui Brasov est un des plus importantes centres touristiques du pays, l'ancienne ville où se trouve la plupart des objectifs culturels et historiques plein de charme, constitue le point principal d'attraction de la ville.

Le dernier temps, le tourisme a été reconnu comme un secteur qui peut contribuer au développement local, mais il faut mentionner le fait que le développement touristique peut avoir un impact positif ou négatif sur les ressources [18]. C'est pour cela qu'il est nécessaire que le développement doit faire par l’utilisation équilibrée des ressources pour satisfaire les besoins de la génération actuelle mais aussi pour les futures générations.

9. REFERENCES


EVALUATION OF TERRITORIAL CONFLICTS CAUSED BY RESIDENTIAL EXPANSION IN BUCHAREST SUBURBAN AREA. CASE STUDY: VOLUNTARI CITY

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Evaluation of territorial conflicts caused by residential expansion in Bucharest suburban area. Case study: Voluntari City

Constantina Alina Tudor

L’évaluation des conflits territoriaux causés par l’expansion résidentielle dans la zone péricentrale de Bucarest. Étude de cas: La ville Voluntari.
L’aménagement territorial de l’espace aide les diverses utilisations du terrain à s’associer sans causer des dysfonctionnements ou des conflits. Dans la zone suburbaine de Bucarest les erreurs d’approche dans l’aménagement du territoire ont changé dans ces dernières années sa physionomie, particulièrement grâce au développement imprevu des zones résidentielles. Les conséquences de la consommation accidentelle de l’espace dans la ville Voluntari décrit un espace défavorisé par la complexité des problèmes environnementaux qui apparaissent. À cet effet ont été appliquées des méthodes pour évaluer la taille des conflits territoriaux causés par le développement imprévu des espaces résidentiels dans moins de 15 m des stations de distribution de carburant. Les résultats ont mis en évidence spatialement et quantitativement les zones en conflit, en suggérant l’emplacement imprévu des espaces résidentiels comme la principale conséquence de la création des voisinages incompatibles avec les stations de distribution de carburant. Les conflits territoriaux continuent à croître, leur identification et leur évaluation étant la solution de démarrage de nouvelles stratégies pour une bonne planification de l’espace avec un impact positif sur la qualité de l’environnement et du logement.

Mots clés: les conflits de localisation, écosystème urbain, la qualité de l'environnement.

Evaluarea conflictelor teritoriale generate de expansiunea rezidențială din zona suburbană a Municipiului București. Studiu de caz: Orașul Voluntari. Planificarea teritorială a spațiului ajută diferitele moduri de utilizare a terenului să se asocieze fără a provoca disfuncționalități sau conflicte. În zona de influență a Municipiului București greșelile de abordare în planificarea teritoriului i-au modificat fizonomia în ultimii ani, în special datorită dezvoltării neplanificate a spațiilor rezidențiale. Consecințele consumului întâmplător de spațiu în orașul Voluntari conturează un spațiu dezavantajat de complexitatea problemelor de mediu care apar. În acest scop au fost aplicate metode de evaluare a dimensiunii conflictelor teritoriale generate de dezvoltarea neplanificată a spațiilor rezidențiale la mai puțin de 15 m de stațiile de distribuție carburanți. Rezultatele au evidențiat spațial și cantitativ arealele conflictuale, sugerând amplasarea neplanificată a spațiilor rezidențiale ca principală consecință a creării vecinătăților incompatibile cu stațiile de distribuție carburanți. Conflictii teritoriali continuă să ia amploare, identificarea si evaluarea lor fiind soluția pentru demararea unor noi strategii de planificare corectă a spațiului cu impact pozitiv asupra calității mediului și locuirii.

Cuvinte cheie: conflicte locaționale, ecosistem urban, calitatea mediului.
1. **INTRODUCTION**

Suburban area represent an area surrounding an urban center [1], characterized by the expression of the relations with the city due to human character transfer and bringing functions in city support [2]. In Bucharest suburban area, the rapid development of residential and commercial areas around the cities [3], negative externalities [4], the dynamic of land use changes [5], political indecisions [6] and assimilation of peripheral functions within the city [7], are the main causes of territorial conflicts, with direct projection on environmental factors [8], infrastructure development [9], population comfort and behavior [10].

Territorial conflicts between different lands use types [11], particularly between residential area and commercial areas are omnipresent in the socio-economic systems and have not received sufficient attention in territorial planning [12].

Compatibility identification and assessment of current functions reveal the importance of territorial planning. The main purpose of territorial planning is avoiding malfunctions and stopping ‘cancerous’ urban sprawl, replacing malfunctions with a redesigned [13] and restructured [14] sustainable urban landscape.

2. **METHODS**

The analysis used the orthophotoplans, the scale: 1: 5000, made in 2005. Information extracted from these plans relates to land use of Voluntari city, the polygons surface represented by the gas stations and residential areas, to which attributes were attached (dwellings height and type: individual or collective).

General data about gas stations were extracted from administrative flow (gas stations establishment year, tanks’ number and capacity, total capacity of throughput gasoline) and from direct observations (number and height of individual and collective dwellings in the neighborhood of gas stations, the presence of oil slicks at gas stations and also of green spaces).

The impact delimitation and dimension of conflict areas were established using Buffer and Clip software functions of ArcGis 9.3, to which updated information regarding residential development in the last five years were added. This information was obtained through Google and Bing applications. Buffer is a GIS function that “builds a new object or objects by identifying all areas that are within a certain specified distance of the original objects”[15]. Buffer analysis resulted in buffer zones, 15 m around gas stations, in accordance with the legal distance established by Order 536 of June, 23, 1997 [16]. Quantitative data were obtained using Clip function, which by extracting, established a set...
of polygons that allowed the identification of surface inhabited areas, negatively influenced by the proximity of the gas stations.

3. PROBLEM FORMULATION

Changes that influenced the Bucharest suburban area during the past years were caused by land use modifications and residential areas construction in an unsustainable manner. Access to main roads, land price, green area (suburban forests) and aquatic areas are the main criteria for the individual or collective dwellings location in Bucharest suburban area. These advantages have generated malfunctions in term of environmental and housing quality, mainly due to functional heterogeneity and incompatible association between residential areas and conflicting functions.

4. STUDY AREA

Voluntari city is located in Romanian Plain, in Vlăsia Plain division, between the rivers Colentina and Pasărea. The relief is generally flat, slightly fragmented by the existing river (Saula River) [17].

From the climate perspective, Voluntari city is situated in a temperate-continental climate, with slight excessive nuances (average annual temperature 10.7°C and average annual precipitation 609 mm, recorded at Afumați meteorological station), characterized by temperature variations over the four seasons. An important role in the atmosphere pollution dynamics is the wind speed (3.2 m/s at Afumați station) and thermal stability.
The transformation of agricultural land use to residential and commercial use has become a pressure factor [18] on environment quality and housing safety. The local administrative unit (LAU2) has an area of 3733.12 hectares, characterized by a high degree of human intervention due to urbanization, green areas systematization and forest planning (Fig. 1). The extensive area of agricultural land in Voluntari city (226.29 hectares in Voluntari District and 966.22 hectares in Pipera District) allowed the expansion of constructed areas. Excessive land fragmentation and removing agricultural land from the circuit determine a high environmental pressure.
5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Voluntari there are six gas stations (four gas stations in Voluntari District and two gas stations in Pipera District), with a total area of 1.10 hectares.

Urban development in recent years and the need for space led to residential areas expansion near the existing gas stations established in 1996, 1998 and 2002 (Table 1). This residential development model was adopted throughout the entire local administrative unit, residential neighborhood of gas station becoming a potential source of environmental pollution [19].

6. TERRITORIAL CONFLICTS EVALUATION

In the study area, landscape heterogeneity can easily be observed through the proximity between residential areas and gas stations. The weight of residential area that exceed the legal limit is 2.56% (Rompetrol Downstream, Afumați St, 13), 6.05% (OMV Petrom Marketing, Afumați St., 93-95) and 0.18% (Rompetrol Downstream, Afumați St., 90-94).

Direct correlations (0.76) between residential area and the year of establishment of gas stations in Voluntari empirically demonstrate that since 2002 the location of these gas stations followed peripheral areas of residential districts. However, the demand for space for individual and collective dwellings has determined their establishment in the gas station proximity (Fig. 2), which led to combination of two functions difficult to be managed in terms of quality of the environment.

Fig. 2 Residential areas location near gas stations

Indicators such as the number of tanks, their storage capacity, total capacity of throughput gasoline and number of pumps, help to quantify the gas stations’ impact on the
surrounding areas. Gas stations with more than 2 tanks and a throughput gasoline capacity greater than 1000 mc, must respect specific recommendations about the location conditions and the safety distances to certain dwellings type. Rompetrol gas station, on Street Afumați, 13 is located in a heavily urbanized area. Correlated with the residential areas located in immediate neighborhood, this gas station has high capacity storage tanks (113 m$^3$) and a large total capacity of throughput gasoline (1312 m$^3$) (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GAS STATION</th>
<th>Surface from gas station proximity (&lt; 15) %</th>
<th>Establishment year</th>
<th>Tank number</th>
<th>Tank capacity storage (m3)</th>
<th>Total capacity of throughput gasoline (m3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residential area</td>
<td>Non-residential area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rompetrol DownStream, Afumați St., 13</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>1312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMV Petrom Marketing, Afumați St., 93-95</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rompetrol DownStream, Afumați St., 90-94</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partener Rompetrol, Ștefănești St., 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMV Mineraloil, Pipera-Tunari St., 1-4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rompetrol DownStream, Pipera Tunari St., 1 A</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>1956</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three out of the six gas stations are located in residential area affecting individual and collective dwellings in close proximity through functionality and contextualism [20], so urban context has allowed this combination of incompatible functions.

7. DIMENSION OF THE RESIDENTIAL AREAS IN THE PROXIMITY OF GAS STATIONS

Rompetrol gas station is located on Afumați St., 90-94, in Voluntari District and determines a strong pressure on individual dwellings, especially due to increasing demand for space that allowed the annexation of these dwellings in the vicinity of Rompetrol
station. 16 individual dwellings, with height GF + 1 floor, 1 dwelling with GF + 1 floor + attic and 2 dwellings with only ground floor have been identified along Rompetrol stations, thus breaching the law. Affected areas in which individual dwelling are located is approximately 706 square meters (Fig. 3). In this area there is a functional heterogeneity due to the storehouses and commercial and residential spaces.

OMV gas station, on Afumați St., 93-95 is also poorly located in relation with residential areas. Residential areas affected by OMV functioning are collective dwelling varied in height. 1 block of flats with GF + 7 floors and other 3 block of flats with GF + 3 floors, GF + 4 floors and respectively GF + 6 floors were identified. Total surface of these collective residential areas is approximately 1725 square meters (Fig. 3).

The area is deficient in green spaces, with only four trees located in the vicinity of collective dwellings and residential congestion. Furthermore, this area does not allow the annexation of other green spaces to reduce effects of locational conflicts on the environment and also on human health [21].

![Fig.3 Affected residential area located at less than 15 m from gas station](image)

Rompetrol gas station, located near Voluntari exist towards Bucharest, is different from the other stations. It is placed in an open space, where residential areas are scattered and green space from proximity mitigate the negative effects of this gas stations functionality.

Inhabited area affected by the Rompetrol station presence is 55 square meters (Fig. 3). In the area there are other dwellings under construction.
The open space area associated with nine trees and shrubs in the vicinity of Rompetrol station together with the green space of the Laboratory for Quality Control of Pesticides mean a better control of locational conflicts.

8. CONCLUSIONS

Gas stations from Voluntari, all together, generate malfunctions on both environmental factors and human health. Territory support capacity is exceeded, sustainable development policy is ignored, the infrastructure is overburdened and pollution on each environmental factor is increasingly difficult to manage in terms of environmental management in these areas. Thus the continuing evolution of these territorial conflicts leads to environment’s degradation.

Strict demarcation of protection zones imposed to gas stations for safety of residential areas will avoid risks on population’s health and on environmental quality.

Joining these two incompatible functions: gas stations and individual and collective dwellings has significant effects on air quality affecting population health and landscape aesthetic through failing of hygiene conditions. Moreover, the effects are amplified due to location of the gas stations along the National Road DN2, where traffic increase air pollution with different solid particles coated with various volatile hydrocarbons and lead, resulted from incomplete combustion of fuels in various cars engines [22].

If demand of living space increases more in Voluntari city, then there will be an expansion of residential areas in proximity of gas stations, which will not be compatible in terms of functionality and will create a strong footprint on the environment.

If the urban context is be respected, gas stations and residential area which will be built will take into account the urban compatibility and will be located in the Voluntari city outskirts, along the main road traffic. The urbanism principles will be respected as well as the commercial and social need without conflict with residential areas.

Consequently, uncontrolled urbanization must be stopped by identifying urban areas for potential development of sustainable functions.

Planning, prioritization and rehabilitation of affected areas by locational conflicts are fundamental to stop unplanned development and to understand the meaning of normality in these areas [23].
9. **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank the Ilfov Environmental Protection Agency staff for providing information on the situation of gas stations. Special thanks are addressed to Professor Cristian Ioja for his support in writing this article.

10. **REFERENCES**


DAMBOVITA – 50 KM BETWEEN GOOD QUALITY AND ECOLOGICAL DISASTER

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Dambovita – 50 km between good quality and ecological disaster

Dumitru Marcoteț, Nina Jipa, Ludmila Maria Mehedințeanu

Dambovita - 50 km tra buona qualità e disastro ecologico. Dambovita è il principale corso d'acqua che attraversa Bucarest. Quindi, è l'acqua collettore delle acque reflue, industriali e pluviale generate all'interno della città, arrivando prima attraverso la rete fognaria al impianto di depurazione Glina. Quest'ultimo, però, non è ancora funzionale, dumping le aque reflue nel fiume senza trattamento preliminare, che portano ad una forte degradazione della qualità dell'acqua, che è in clasa scarsa qualità incorniciata iniziando dall' punto della perdita Glina fino a che la fuoriuscita in Arges. Fare determinazioni delle principali proprietà fisiche e chimiche delle acque in punti scelti in modo da fornire una panoramica di come la loro qualità è subito a causa delle fonti di inquinamento nella zona di Bucarest, un generale degrado del fiume Dambovita da monte a torrente fu trovato, le cui acque contaminate influiscono la qualità condizione dell collezionista Arges, così come la freatica che si trova ad una distanza di diverse centinaia di metri da esso.

Parole chiave: Dambovita, Arges, determinazioni, qualità, degrado, Bucarest, Budesti.

Dâmbovița-50 km între calitate bună și dezastru ecologic. Dâmbovița reprezintă principalul curs de apă care străbate Municipiului București. Astfel, acesta se constituie în colectorul apelor uzate menajere, industriale și pluviale generate pe teritoriul orașului, care ajung mai întâi prin intermediul rețelei de canalizare la stația de epurare de la Glina. Aceasta din urmă însă, nefiind încă funcțională, deversează apel uzate în râu fără o epurare prealabila, fapt ce determină o degradare accentuată a calității apelor acestuia, care se încadrează în clasa calitativă nesatisfăcătoare începând cu punctul de deversare de la Glina și până la vârsarea în Argeș. Realizând determinări ale principalelor proprietăți fizice și chimice ale apei în puncte alese astfel încât să ofere o imagine generală a modului în care calitatea acestora are de suferit ca urmare a surselor de poluare din zona Municipiului București, s-a constatat o degradare generală a Dâmboviței dinspre amonte spre aval, ale cărei apei contaminate afectează starea de calitate a colectorului Argeș, precum și a freaticului situat la distanțe de câteva sute de metri de aceasta.

Cuvinte cheie: Dâmbovița, Argeș, determinări, calitate, degradare, București, Budести.
1. **INTRODUCTION**

The river Dambovita is 286 km long and its basin has an area of 2.824 square kilometers, being the biggest tributary of the river Arges [13]. Its origin is in the Iezer-Papusa Mountains at an altitude of 1.800 meters, and its junction with Arges takes place near the city Budesti, at an altitude of 27 m [2]. The river’s multiannual medium flow at the Lunguletu hydrometric station, situated upstream of Bucharest, is 9.95 cm/s, this value increasing until 1.91 cm/s at Plataresti, situated downstream of Bucharest, as a result of the share originated from the waters of Colentina and Pasarea, plus the overflows of urban wastewaters [2].

Until a few kilometers upstream of the Municipality of Bucharest, the Dambovita’s riverbed is in its natural state, displaying a more emphasized meandering in the plain area. Downstream from Bucharest, the riverbed was rectified and sloped until the junction with Arges, while in the city it experienced an emphasized modification within the Complex equipment of the Dambovita river program, which took place from 1985 until 1989 [2]. As a result of the mentioned project, the Morii Lake accumulation, was created, located at the entrance of the river into the city, with a surface of 220 ha, a depth of 10 m, and a volume of water of about 20 millions cm at the normal level of retention, downstream of which the river drains through the vat of clean waters, divided into 11 water tails starting with Grozavestii and ending with Glina, underneath of which the box for collecting wastewaters was build, formed by two compartments that merge at a distance of about 1 km upstream from Glina, carrying the waters to the wastewater treatment plant [2].

2. **METHODOLOGY**

In order to realize this study, a series of determinations of the main physical and chemical surface water and ground water properties were made, using devices and kits produced by HANNA company from the Backpack Lab package. For the collected water samples the following properties were determined: the pH, electrical conductivity, total dissolved substances, turbidity, nitrates and phosphates concentration, oxygen and dissolved carbon dioxide concentration, as well as hardness.

The water samples were collected from certain points chosen to highlight how the surface water and ground water quality is influenced by sources of degradation concentrated in the Municipality of Bucharest area. In terms of surface water, for this study, the chosen rivers were Dambovita, which, being the receiver of waste untreated waters generated mainly by the domestic and industrial sources within the capital, is one of the most polluted watercourses in the country, and his collector, Arges, its quality being deteriorated by the waters of Dambovita.
For the first mentioned river determinations were made at four points marked as D1, D2, D3 and D4 from upstream to downstream (Figure no. 1). D1 was considered representative for the state of Dambovita at the entrance in Bucharest, because it is located 200 m downstream from the Morii Lake’s dam, before any discharge of wastewater from the city. D2 and D3 are located at the output of the river from the urban area, the first one at 1,200 m upstream, and the second one at 200 m downstream from the point of overflow of untreated waters from Glina, which is in fact the most important point-like source of pollution within the researched region. The two points were chosen so as to indicate the changes of the river’s water quality state because of the share of these wastewaters. D4 is located 200 m away from the junction of the river Dambovita with Arges, capturing the quality state of its waters that degrade the waters of the collector.

Figure 1: The measuring points on the Dambovita

Figure 2: The measuring points on the river Arges and those on the ground waters

For the river Arges, determinations were made at two points marked A1 and A2 from upstream to downstream, the first one located at 1,700 m upstream, and the second one at 300 m downstream from the junction with Dambovita (Figure no. 2). The points were chosen to mark its waters degradation due to the share represented by Dambovita.

Regarding the ground waters, water samples were taken from three wells located in the Budesti city situated in an approximately straight line perpendicular on the general
flow of Dambovita within the city’s area (Figure no. 2). The points were marked as S1, S2 and S3, being chosen to indicate how the degraded water infiltrations from Dambovita influence the quality of the ground waters depending on the distance away from the river (S1 is located 300 m from the river, S2 is 500 m from the river, and S3 is 1,100 m from the river).

The determinations mentioned above were made on March 15 2011 for the D4, A1, A2, S1, S2 and S3 points and on March 17 for the D1, D2 and D3 points. It is worth mentioning that in these two days and the week before them, there was no rainfall recorded.

To compare the results of our determinations with those obtained within the national network for monitoring surface water quality, information regarding the fitting of water quality classes of Arges and Dambovita rivers extracted from the 2009 Report on the state of environmental factors in the Bucharest - Ilfov Region, were used.

Data regarding the water quality from the following monitoring sections were extracted: for Dambovita: Brezoaiele, Arcuda and Dragomiresti (upstream of Bucharest), Popesti, Balaceanca and Budesti (downstream of Bucharest), and for Arges: upstream of Crivina outlet and Budesti entry (upstream of the junction with Dambovita) and Clatesti (downstream of the junction) (Figure no. 3).

Figure 3: The location of water quality control sections on Arges and Dambovita in the Bucharest municipality area

![Diagram](image-url)
3. RESULTS

According to our personal determinations, the results for Dambovita, summarized in Figures 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, a strong degradation of the river’s water quality in the area of Bucharest is indicated, the main cause being the discharge of wastewaters from the Glina village area derived from the city and previously untreated.

More specific, those wastewaters collected in the city’s sewerage network, represented by domestic waters (with a high content of organic substances, detergents, nitrogen and phosphorus compounds, phenols, and microorganisms), industrial waters (polluted with petroleum substances, acidic or alkaline substances, heavy metals, detergents, chlorides, sulfates, organic substances) and pluvial waters (these wash the impermeable surfaces of the city, enriching themselves with suspended organic and mineral substances, oils, detergents) [4] [5].

Due to the previously mentioned point-like pollution source, an acute change in the water properties is observed, determined with the help of personal measurements between points D2 and D3, in the sense that its quality is deteriorated. In general, there is a shortage of significant differences between parameter values measured at points D1 and D2, due to a shortage of degradation sources. Also, the water quality of Dambovita is slightly improved between D3 and D4 points, noticed in the case of the electrical conductivity, total dissolved substances, turbidity and dissolved oxygen properties, due to a share of waters of a better quality from the river Colentina and Pasarea stream, as well as the self-purification process.

In what follows, we will analyze the causes of changes in the physical and chemical water properties between points D2 and D3, a representative section for the water quality degradation process of Dambovita’s waters in the Bucharest area. Regarding the pH (Figure no. 4), there is a high initial value, which classifies the river’s waters in the category of alkaline ones, indicating a high content of carbonates [12], which is then reduced towards a slightly alkaline one, due to the contribution of waters containing acidic substances (hydrochloric acid, nitric, sulfuric, acetic acid), derived from industrial sources [3] [5].

Regarding the electrical conductivity (Figure no. 4), an increase of more than two times the values of the two points can be noticed, which indicates a sharp increase in concentration of salts dissolved in water, from industrial sources (mineral salts) and domestic (especially sodium chloride) [3]. Large increases can be also detected for the total dissolved substances indicator (Figure no. 5) (about two times), which is in agreement with the previous indicator, salts holding a significant share in the category of substances dissolved in water. The increasing trend is valid for turbidity (Figure no. 5), but with a much higher intensity (higher values of about eight times in point D3 than in D2), that leads
to an enrichment of the river’s waters with suspensions of which the source is the industry (sand, metals, colloids) or the domestic activities (organic substances, microorganisms).

Figure 4: The pH and electrical conductivity

![Figure 4: The pH and electrical conductivity](image1)

Figure 5: Turbidity and total dissolved substances

![Figure 5: Turbidity and total dissolved substances](image2)

Regarding the nutrient concentrations in the water (Figure no. 6), increases between the two points for both nitrates and phosphates can be noticed, more pronounced, however, in the case of the latter, for which values are increased tenfold.

The increase of nitrate content in the water is mainly due to bacterial oxidation of organic matter, especially those of animal origin, derived from both industrial (especially food industry) but also domestic sources [12]. Taking into consideration the phosphates, the increases arise as a result of polyphosphate detergent and dejection uploads from the domestic wastewaters flowing into Dambovita [12].

Looking at the main dissolved gases from the surface waters, oxygen and carbon dioxide, respectively, an inverse trend is observed at the two parameter’s values (Figure no. 7), the first one shows decreases (almost six times), and the second increases (more than twice) between the two points D2 and D3. The main causes for the decrease of oxygen are the oxidation of organic substances in the water (anaerobic fermentation of organic waste) and the processes of decomposition of proteins from domestic waters [12]. The increases found for carbon dioxide arise because of the fermentation of decomposed organic waste from the domestic waters, also due to the waters rich in this gas in this case as a result of industrial activities, such as the food industry [12].
The hardness of Dambovita’s waters doubles its value between the two points (Figure no. 8), the explanation consists in an increased concentration of calcium and magnesium salts in the water from both industrial and domestic sources, as well as the resulting colloid suspensions from the operation of power plants [3].

Given that the dissolved oxygen is one of the most important indicators of water quality [7], we created a class classification of Dambovita for the four points used in this study (Table no. 1). A very sharp water degradation can be observed that moves from a very good state in D1 point to an unsatisfactory one in the points D3 and D4.
Table 1: Quality class classification of Dambovita waters in Bucharest municipality area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measuring point</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality class regarding dissolved oxygen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results of our determinations for the river Arges, summarized in Figures 9 and 10, it is considered that the degraded waters of Dambovita have a negative influence on its collector. Thus, increases in the values for turbidity, electrical conductivity, total dissolved substances, nutrients, hardness and dissolved carbon dioxide can be observed, as well as decreases in the case of pH and dissolved oxygen. These changes are explained by the intake of Dambovita waters that records exceeded values of the quality indicators in the category of oxygen, nutrients and organic micro pollutants [1]. Therefore, the water quality at the point A2 is lower than in A1, but higher than the D4 point, because of the river’s flow greater than that of Dambovita, providing a more intense dilution of pollutants. Using, as in the previous case the dissolved oxygen indicator for determining water quality’s class, we obtained the category II for the A1 point and the category V for the A2 point.

![Figure no. 9: Results for determinations at A1 and A2 points (I)](image1)

![Figure no. 10: Results for determinations at A1 and A2 points (II)](image2)

According to the results of our measurements in the case of ground waters in the city Budești, it is considered that infiltration from Dambovita influence the groundwater’s quality, detecting a slight degradation as the points of measurements approach the river (Figure no. 11 Figure No. 12). Thus, between the point S3, the most distant, and S1, the closest to Dambovita, a progressive increase in the indicators values for turbidity, conductivity, total dissolved hardness, nutrients and dissolved carbon dioxide and a
progressive decrease in pH and dissolved oxygen, can be noticed. However, due to the filtration that the water undergoes when passing through sand and gravel specific to this area, water samples collected from all three points fit the drinking limits, under the 458/2002 Law (Law on drinking water quality). Moreover, it is estimated that the infiltrations from Dambovita contaminate the groundwater, making the water unfit for human use, over a distance of about 100 m from the river [11]. The only problem posed is because of high hardness of the ground waters that exceeds 30 ° German at two points, which could be explained by the washing of clays present in the region’s substrate in question [12]. It is worth mentioning that the city’s residents of Budesti supply themselves with water derived from the centralized system, its origins being the deep ground waters at a distance of about 1.5 km from Dambovita.

![Figure 11. Measurement result for S1, S2 and S3 points (I)](image1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Turbidity</th>
<th>Phosphates (mg/l PO4)</th>
<th>Dissolved O2 (mg/l)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 12. Measurement results for S1, S2 and S3 points (II)](image2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Conductivity (μS/cm)</th>
<th>Total dissolved substances (ppm)</th>
<th>Nitrates (mg/l NO3)</th>
<th>Dissolved CO2 (mg/l)</th>
<th>Hardness (german grades)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>1804</td>
<td>1553</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>1553</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the determinations made within the national network for monitoring surface water quality on Dambovita and Arges rivers in the Bucharest area [8], the results are summarized in Figure no. 13 and no. 14. Looking at the river Dambovita an oscillation of the water quality state stands out in the Brezoaiele - Popesti section, between class II and III, due to a diffuse nutrient pollution from agricultural sources [1]. In contrast, between the sections Popesti and Balaceanca, section in which the discharge of untreated wastewaters from Glina takes place, there is a strong degradation of the quality status, waters becoming classified in the class V, because of registered overruns of the oxygen regime, nutrients and organic micro pollutants indicators, a situation that remains the same until the junction with Arges [1]. In the latter case, the degraded waters of Dambovita cause the decrease of water quality between the points located upstream (II quality class) and downstream (IV quality class) of the two river’s junction. Therefore, the results obtained from water quality monitoring within the national network are consistent with those extracted from our own determinations.

4. DISCUSSION

From the foregoing, a sharp deterioration of the water quality of Dambovita is considered to be located between the upstream and downstream of Bucharest. Concentrated sources of degradation in this region are represented mainly by the industrial and domestic ones. Domestic sources are responsible for enriching water with organic substances, nitrogen and phosphorus compounds, detergents, phenols and microorganisms [4, 5]. Industrial sources are the most important when it comes to water degradation, being responsible for the emergence of special toxic compounds [5]. Of these, the industrial
activities that use hazardous substances in the production process have the biggest impact [5]. For Bucharest, the industry units that stand out are:

- energy (that enrich the water with petroleum products, suspensions, detergents, acids, sulfates) [3], as Grozavesti CET, Progresul CET, South CET and West CET
- ferrous metallurgy (cyanide, substances with acidic and basic, heavy metals) [3], as Doosan IMGB;
- machine building (cyanides, chromates, various acids and bases) [5], as Turbomecanica, SC Urbis SA Sanitary Fittings, Grivita workshops;
- chemical (dyes, sulfuric acid, nitric, acetic, hydrochloric, different bases) [3], as Policolor, SC Prodplast SA, Rodmir Wizard LLC;
- building materials (mineral suspensions) [3], as Western Precast, Stirom SA;

Most of these industrial units have their own treatment plants, which have, however, technically outdated and ancient equipment (Dudesti industrial area - Policolor, 40 years, the industrial area of Military, over 30 years, in some cases even 70 years )[6].

Both domestic and industrial wastewaters are collected by the sewerage network of Bucharest, composed of about 2300 km of canals and collectors [2]. All these waters, plus the pluvial ones, end up in the wastewater box below Dambovita, which leads them to the Glina wastewater treatment plant. The latter is situated in the south-east of Bucharest, on the right bank of Dambovita, in the administrative territory of the village with the same name. In March 2011, the average flow of wastewaters returned to the river is between 13 and 13.5 cm/s [9]. Although the building of the station began in the mid 1980s, it has only partially worked for several months in 1996. In November 2010 the works at one of the two lines at which the station was designed to operate were completed [9]. Until April 2011, the station had not functioned as a series of tests to facilities in its composition were carried out. According to official statements [9], starting with the mentioned month, line one will operate at the designed parameters. This means the mechanical treatment of 10 cm/s of total flow that enters the station, 5 cm/s will be purified biologically and tertiary (phosphorus removal). Line two, which will ensure the complete purifying of the entire flow to enter the plant will be built in the period 2012-2015.

5. CONCLUSIONS

As a result of our personal measurements, confirmed by the measurements performed within the national system for monitoring surface water quality, we draw the following conclusions:

- The water quality of Dambovita changes from class II of quality upstream of Bucharest to class V of quality downstream of Glina, due to overruns recorded in the following groups of...
indicators: oxygen regime, nutrients and organic micro pollutants;

- Arges's waters pass from class II of quality to class IV after the junction with Dambovita, due to the overruns discovered in the nutrients group;
- Budeşti’s underground waters are altered by infiltrations from Dâmbvoiţa progressively as the distance from it decreases;

6. REFERENCES


Il y a deux ans que la littérature géographique roumaine a un ouvrage aligné aux intérêts géographiques européens. Il s'agit ici du nouveau champ de la géographie (une nouvelle perspective géographique) liés aux sites géographiques et qui s'appelle géosite ou géotope. Cette question d'actualité est installée au cœur des quelques perspectives géographiques actuelles. Il s'agit bien sûr des activités soutenues, dans les dernières années, par l'Université de Lausanne en tête avec le professeur universitaire et docteur Emmanuel Reynard.

Dorina Camelia Ilies et Nicolae Josan, enseignants du département de géographie d'Université d'Oradea, ont une forte expérience au sujet de la géographie physique. Cette expérience leur a permis de publier, avant de ce livre, quelques papiers avec le même sujet. Donc, cet ouvrage vient d'accomplir les recherches des deux auteurs et de remplir un espace vide de la littérature géographique roumaine.

En ce qui concerne sa structure, le travail est composé de sept chapitres condensés en plus de 230 pages. Plus orienté vers les questions de la géographie physique, cet ouvrage traite les aspects concernant les géosites notamment du point de vue géomorphologique et lithologique. C'est vrai, pour mieux comprendre les géopaysages on doit faire une telle analyse. Cependant, l'auteur opère la distinction entre les géosites et les géopaysages. Les chapitres dédiés aux géosites sont plus ou moins basés sur la théorie de la tectonique générale, la météorisation et sur les aspects de la géomorphologie dynamique tandis que les chapitres dédiés aux géopaysages sont attribués aux différents aspects de la surface de la Terre en ce qui concerne les caractéristiques climatiques. En revanche quelques regrets viennent émailler ce travail. Malgré des synthèses bien documentées et exposées, le travail ne comprend aucune modalité d'estimer, de calculer les valeurs intrinsèques/scientifiques/culturelles/écomomiques de ces géosites et géopaysages.  

En outre, l'ouvrage est attrayant parce qu'il possède de nombreuses ressources iconographiques (244), la plupart d'entre eux originales et en couleurs (voir l'expérience pratique des auteurs), notamment photos. La partie graphique est bien distribuée couvrant toutes les sections d'ouvrage.

L'ouvrage, destiné aux étudiants en géographie et à tous ceux qui sont conduits à s'intéresser au géopatrimoine, offre de nombreux points pour comprendre ces phénomènes géographiques.

Comment nous avons déjà dit, ce manuel est attractif aussi par tous les exemples étudiés et remarquablement illustrés.

Daniel Iosif
The seventh edition of the National Student Symposium of Human Geography and Tourism

On April 2, 2011, the seventh edition of the National Student Symposium of Human Geography and Tourism took place at the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest.

The National Student Symposium of Human Geography and Tourism, initiated by Phd. Silviu Costachie, became a traditional scientific event. This year, at its seventh edition, the Symposium gathered 29 students, Master and Phd. Students. The participants are young researchers passionate about Human Geography and Tourism, as research fields in different national universities having Faculties of Geography.

The Symposium took place in successful conditions due to the efforts of the Organizing Committee, with the support of Phd. Silviu Costachie, Deputy Dean at the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest.

Given the present financial conditions of austerity, the Symposium has received the support of Administrația Canalelor Navigabile SA Constanța, as main sponsor, represented by Mr. Ilie Valentin Zeicu, General Manager. The secondary sponsor of the event was Terra Magazin, represented by Mr. Costin Diaconescu, Manager. The Symposium was able to carry out its works due to the courtesy and effort of these two sponsors, whom we thank.

The Symposium was conducted under the auspices of the Research Center for “Regional Development and European Integration” (University of Bucharest) and gathered 29 scientific papers. They were presented as graphic and video projection, at the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest, in Simion Mehedinti Amphitheater.

The seven rewarded papers of the Symposium were assigned through the nominal and secret vote of the participants. In this sense, there were given three specific awards for each section of the Symposium – 1st, 2nd and 3rd prize for the Human Geography Section and the same for the Tourism dedicated papers. The paper voted as being the best received the Great Prize, consisting of an important amount of money, besides some significant scientific papers (books and University printed courses), as a way of encouraging the scientific activity of our
The papers presented during the Symposium covered a variety of Human Geography and Tourism themes. The research works of the participating students proved the extensive, varied and interesting Geographical preoccupations of universities around the country – Babeș-Bolyai University (Cluj Napoca), Al. I. Cuza University (Iași), University of Craiova and the West University of Timisoara, along with the University of Bucharest.

The aim of this Symposium is to offer to students passionate about Human Geography and Tourism the opportunity to present in public the results of their research work, but also to publish their first scientific papers. This student scientific event represents also a selection platform for future scientists concerned with Human Geography and Tourism.

We wish that this student scientific event be a successful one for the future as well, in order to celebrate a greater number editions. A future international specificity of the Symposium would be a proof of the high standards of the Romanian Geographical University research and education.

Conf. univ. dr. Silviu Costachie
Deputy Dean at the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest
CCDRIE Director

La cérémonie d'ouverture de la XVIIIème édition du Symposium National des Etudiants Géographes a été honorée par la présence de l'Académicien Prof. univ. dr. Dan Balteanu et de Mademoiselle vice-doyenne Conférencier universitaire dr. Laura Comanescu qui ont mis en évidence à travers leur discours l'importance du dévouement et de la participation des jeunes géographes dans les activités de recherche scientifique.

Le président du Comité d'organisation, Madame le Professeur Universitaire dr. Maria Patroescu, a mis en évidence que « Le symposium est devenu déjà une institution. Beaucoup de jeunes géographes ont passé par les biais de ses fourches caudines et on les retrouve maintenant dans des universités, des centres et des institutions de recherche, dans des institutions administratives en Roumanie ou à l'étranger ».

Les travaux scientifiques se sont déroulés dans un cadre très dynamique où les questions, les commentaires, les suggestions, les critiques ou les appréciations des cadres didactiques ou des étudiants ont été une composante très instructive pour les participants.

Les travaux de recherche ont impressionné par leur qualité, leur originalité et la modalité de présentation, surtout par la nouveauté des méthodes appliquées (techniques SIG, télédétection, évaluation multicritère). Remarquable pour cette édition n'a pas été seulement le nombre record de travaux de recherche présentés (50) et le nombre de participants avec travaux de recherche (68), mais surtout le très grand nombre de travaux basés sur une vraie et profonde connaissance des réalités sur le terrain. On a pu observer cet aspect même dans les notes accordés par les évaluateurs du Symposium, les étudiants participants avec des travaux, leur partisans, les étudiants curieux ou ceux...
qui n’ont pas eu le courage d’exposer leur résultats de recherche dans un tel cadre.


Le premier prix a été gagné par Iosif Ruben, étudiant dans le cadre du master Evaluation Intégrée de l’Etat de l’Environnement, avec un travail très bien réalisé du point de vue théorique et pratique, intitulé La Genèse du marécage de tourbe Moldivis et les effets de son drainage à partir des considérants hydro énergétiques. Le second prix a été aussi obtenu par le centre universitaire de Bucarest, l’étudiante en master Saghin Irina étant très convaincante dans sa présentation qui a eu un thème extrêmement actuel: Stratégies de l’aménagement du territoire dirigé vers l’insertion des terrains dégradés de la Municipalité de Suceava.

Même si pendant les trois dernières années les premières trois places du Symposium des Etudiants Géographes ont été monopolisés par le Centre Universitaire de Iasi, cette année ils ont obtenu seulement un troisième prix par l’intermédiaire de Mihail Eva qui a eu un travail avec un haut degré d’originalité, travail intitulé Pression anthropique spécifique aux espaces ruraux. Etude de cas Le Plateau de Moldavie.

Sauf les trois mentions obtenues par Gavrilidis Athanasios Alexandru (Bucarest), Csilik Ovidiu/Tatar Alexandra Maria (Timisoara) et Coheci Radu Matei (Bucarest), on a accordé aussi trois prix spéciaux, tous les trois obtenus par les représentants du centre universitaire de Iasi :

- Le Prix de la Régie Nationale des Forêts pour le meilleur travail scientifique dans le domaine des aires protégées- l’équipe formée par Ceuca Cosmin, Rosu Lucian, Rusu Sorin, Stoican Andreea avec le thème de recherche Considérations visant la fondation d’un géoparc dans la région de Bucovina. Etude de cas Obcina Mestecanis.
- Le prix du Centre Carpato-Danubien de Géoécologie pour l’étudiante Dobre Cristina Anca, Evolution diachronique des établissements humains dans le bassin de la rivière de Milcov pendant le dernier siècle.
- Le Prix du Centre pour la Recherche Environnementale et pour la Réalisation des Etudes d’Impact a été accordé pour le travail qui a supposé la plus ample activité de terrain, l’équipe formé de Stoican Andreea Elena et Tibuleac Catalin qui ont présenté le travail de recherche Contributions pour la connaissance de la distribution des principaux polluants atmosphériques dans la Municipalité de Brasov dans la période 2000-2010.

Il faut mentionner aussi les nombreux débuts louables à une manifestation estudiantine de certains jeunes géographes pour lesquels on espère que ça a été juste un premier pas.
Un élément de nouveauté du Symposium a été lié à l'opportunité de publier les résultats présentés dans la revue Cinq Continents.

Le succès de la manifestation n'a pas été seulement atteint grâce aux membres du Comité d'organisation, mais aussi grâce aux volontaires du master Evaluation Intégrée de l'Etat de l'Environnement.

Le Symposium National des Etudiants Géographes est resté une manifestation qui a défié l'histoire des dernières années et qui nous a montré qu'on peut construire quelque chose de durable, seulement par le travail, le sacrifice, l'enthousiasme et l'unité.

Conf. univ. dr. Cristian Ioja