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**C O N T E N T S**

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# THE POSITION OF TOURISM AND TERRITORIAL MARKETING IN THE CONTEXT OF PARADIGMATIC CHANGE TO TERTIARY GEOGRAPHY EDUCATION IN SLOVAKIA

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**Abstract:** In this paper we consider the position of tourism and territorial marketing in the context of paradigmatic change to tertiary Geography education in Slovakia. The theoretical framework of this paradigm is defined by the revised Bloom's taxonomy, Tuning methodology and the Dublin descriptors reflected in the Slovak normative framework. In the second part, we use the specific example University of Prešov and the structure of its bachelor study programme in Geography and Applied Geoinformatics. We focus primarily on the curricular structure of the Tourism and Territorial Marketing module, which is made up of 15 study subjects with an aggregate of 55 credits. We demonstrate how the paradigm is implemented to ensure learning outcomes through the example of the Destination Marketing subject. We emphasize these learning outcomes: the knowledge, skills and competences which the student gains through successful completion of the course. We also consider the subject content. Our aim is to point out the advantages of the programme's modular structure especially in terms of its professional profile and specific value for potential employers.

**Key words:** Destination marketing, geographical education, learning outcomes, place marketing, tertiary education, tourism.

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## INTRODUCTION

The socioeconomic and political transformation in Slovakia since 1989 has greatly influenced tertiary education here. In 1990 academic autonomy was restored together with the possibility for students to study not just masters degree courses but also bachelor degrees; at the time, however, such a degree was considered to be merely a stage towards full university study and not an end in itself. Universities could propose

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different courses of study and would then, after successful accreditation, be awarded by the education ministry the right to conduct state exams in these subjects. Key changes came in with the new university law of 2002 by which Slovak university education was brought into line with the ISCED international classification, with the ECTS credit system and with the structure of study in accordance with the Bologna Declaration on common European educational space (EHEA) of 1999 (Kosová & Porubský, 2011, pp. 108-109). Most Slovak universities were unable, however, to fully implement the Bologna system: traditional five-year masters degree programmes were artificially divided into two levels with minimal guarantee that the two levels of study would successfully overlap or dovetail (Matlovič, 2014, p. 83).

In recent years (2014-2015), there has been a comprehensive accreditation process conducted in Slovak universities. This has provided a new opportunity for thorough application of the Bologna system in order to redesign study programmes reflecting a change to tertiary education that focuses more on learning outcomes (LO), which is a part of educational relevance of geography (Matlovič & Matlovičová, 2012).

In this article we focus on the theoretical basis for such paradigmatic change as well as on its reflection within the Slovak normative framework. In the next part we present an institutional framework for tertiary Geography education; by drawing on the specific example of Prešov University, we show one of the ways the new educational paradigm can be implemented to create Geography study programmes containing the specialized Tourism and Territorial Marketing module.

## THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE NEW TERTIARY EDUCATION PARADIGM

The continuation of the Bologna process with priorities for the 2010-20 period is the cornerstone of European tertiary education policy. Emphasis is placed on quality of university education, on support of student and academic staff mobilities, on more straightforward recognition of titles and on promotion of lifelong education. Fulfilling these priorities creates the need to carry out paradigmatic transformation of tertiary education, acceleration of which has been prompted by the recommendation of the European Parliament and Council (2008/C 111/01) of 23.4.2008 for creation of a European Qualification Framework for Lifelong Education (EQF). It recommends EU member states "to use an approach based on learning outcomes when defining and describing qualifications" (Odporúčanie, 2008).

The European Parliament and Council recommendation for a European qualification framework for lifelong education is the culmination of recent changes in educational thinking. The essence of such changes lies in the gradual move away from emphasis on the role of the teacher and the procedural side of education focused on its forms and didactic methods, their efficiency and effectiveness. Instead of that, the stress is placed on the student and learning outcomes.

The introduction of the EQF was preceded by an initiative for creating a Qualification Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF EHEA), passed in 2005 in the Norwegian city of Bergen. This related to the three stages in university education for which the so-called Dublin descriptors were elaborated in 2004 (Vantuch et al., 2014, p. 29). These are generic statements about typical expectations or levels of competence of achieved academic results and abilities pertaining to the Bologna scale (Užívateľská, 2009, p. 9). They enable users to grade abilities and skills after completion of individual stages of university education according to their difficulty.

They consider the following five aspects:

a) knowledge and understanding,
b) application of knowledge and understanding,
c) making judgements,
d) communication,
e) the ability to go on learning.

The Dublin descriptors thus became one of the theoretical bases for implementation of the new paradigm in university education.

The EQF follows on from the QF EHEA, extending it to cover lower levels of education, its final form having eight levels. The EQF distinguishes between knowledge, skills and competences. As Verešová and Čerešník state (2013, p. 7) "knowledge is a result of acquiring information through learning and is made up of a complex of facts, principles, theories and approaches related to the fields of work and study. In the EQF context, knowledge is theoretical and/or factual. Skills are those faculties which help the person to apply knowledge in order to fulfil tasks and solve problems. In the EQF context, they are described as cognitive skills (including logical, intuitive and creative thinking) or practical skills (requiring manual skill and use of methods, materials and tools). A competence is the proven faculty to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities in work and study situations and in professional and personal growth. In the EQF context, a competency is described in relation to responsibility and independence" (Verešová & Čerešník, 2013, p. 7).

A key impulse behind the paradigmatic change is the question of providing and evaluating the quality of university education. Each university should implement its own internal system of quality assessment based on the norms and directives of the ESG (European Standards & Guidelines) drawn up by the ENQA (European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education) (ENQA, 2009). Part of this is a system of approving, monitoring and regular assessing of study programmes. Each study programme and its parts should have explicitly elaborated and declared learning outcomes. Learning outcomes are made up of knowledge, skills and competences which the individual is able to demonstrate after completion of the educational process within a given study programme, module or subject. Learning outcomes are not unique to the individual student but are benchmarks enabling the university institution to measure whether the student has achieved the required level of knowledge, skill and competence. This is connected to recognition of the qualification, which is a formal result of the process of assessment and validation within which the individual demonstrates to the relevant body (examiner or examining committee) their fulfilment of the learning outcomes at the level required.

Learning outcomes are thus a way of determining qualification standards and are formulated in order to guarantee transparency, comparability and more straightforward recognition of the qualification obtained or of the credits gained as part of it. Learning outcomes should be specific, exact, measurable, realistic and up-to-date. In accordance with the ESG, they should form a part of the graduate profile as well of the study programme accreditation application. They should also be appended to the degree certificate (Verešová & Čerešník, 2013).

The theoretical bases for formulating learning outcomes are the Dublin descriptors, the revised Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000) and the Tuning methodology (Lokhoff et al., 2010). The revised Bloom's taxonomy of educational aims is two-dimensional; its knowledge dimension is broken down into four areas: factual, conceptual, procedural and metacognitive; its cognitive domain is

divided into six areas: remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, assessing and creating. Whereas the first of these is expressed using nouns and/or adjectives, the cognitive dimension is expressed using verbs (Anreson & Krathwohl, 2000). The Tuning methodology (i.e. fine-tuning of educational structures) has very clearly defined educational results and competences in order to determine the separate roles of key players in the learning process – students and academics. It sees competences as being a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding, skills, abilities and attitudes, differentiating between those which are specific to a certain subject and those which are generic and thus transferable (Užívateľská, 2009, p. 10).

Learning outcomes can be formulated on the basis of the theoretical starting points listed above. Focusing on results rather than processes is recommended; every outcome should begin with an active verb (ideally only one); vague verbs should be avoided; the verbs used should clearly reflect the required level of education. The outcomes should be measurable and correspond to the objectives of the relevant study programme, module or study subject; they should reflect the knowledge, skills and competences necessary for performing the related profession. It is necessary to distinguish thoroughly between learning outcomes and educational objectives (Stašková, 2011).

## IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NEW PARADIGM IN TERTIARY EDUCATION IN SLOVAKIA

Following Resolution no. 105 of 2009, the Slovak government decided to elaborate its own National Qualification Framework (NQF), National Set of Qualifications (NSK) and National Set of Professions (NSP) (Uznesenie, 2009). In 2011, an eight-level Slovak national qualification framework was elaborated with proposed descriptors, each of the individual levels corresponding to EQF levels. University education covers stages (or levels) 6, 7 and 8, each corresponding to a specific level of formal education (6 is completion of a bachelor study programme, 7 is completion of a masters or engineering degree programme and 8 is completion of a doctoral study programme). As with the EQF, the NQF distinguishes between knowledge, skills and competences (Národný kvalifikačný...2011). The National Set of Professions (NSP) is a comprehensive informational system describing the standard demands of the labour market for specific job positions. It specifies the competences, specialized knowledge and skills, general capabilities and practical experience necessary for certain professions and for performing activities at workplaces as required by the labour market. Part of it is an employment register forming a database of national employment standards classified according to economic activities, the database containing the requirements of employers for applicants to different professions. Creating and updating the NSP is the task of the Slovak Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family (Verešová & Čerešník, 2013, p. 17). The National Set of Qualifications (NSK) is a publically accessible register containing description of partial and full qualifications recognized in Slovakia and required for certain professions. Its purpose is to compare educational results achieved in different ways – by formal or informal education and learning. This guarantees the public are informed about all nationally recognized qualifications and their weight in comparison with qualifications in other EU countries. The basic condition for inclusion of a specific qualification in the NSK is the existence of a qualification standard based on learning outcomes (http://www.sustavapovolani.sk).

Tertiary education in Slovakia is provided in areas of study listed in the List of Study Subjects issued in accordance with Ministry of Education resolution no.

2090/2002 of December 16th 2002 and as later amended. The list contains study areas in which universities in Slovakia may provide education with any changes to it first having to be approved by the Accreditation Committee. Included in the document are descriptions of study areas containing details according to §50 par. 5 points a) to f) of the University Law: the name of the study subject, the level of the university degree(s) awarded for the different subjects, the standard length of study for the individual courses, the content of the courses, explanation of the need for such a study discipline, examples of similar study disciplines abroad and description of similar study fields and the differences between them. At present there are six different Geography disciplines included in the list. These are included in the category of Natural Sciences, in the subcategory Physical Sciences: 4.1.35. Geography (for both the first and second level of study), 4.1.36. Physical Geography and Geoecology, 4.1.37. Human Geography, 4.1.38. Regional Geography, 4.1.39. Political Geography and 4.1.40. Geoinformatics (doctoral study is possible with each of these disciplines). While the first five of these were included in the very first list of 2002, the Geoinformatics discipline was added in 2013 (Sústava, 2002). Descriptions of these study subjects are an important starting point for design of study programmes and formulation of learning outcomes for the individual programmes.

Tertiary education in Geography is provided by five universities in Slovakia. The most famous is Comenius University in Bratislava, which offers eleven study programmes on all three levels of study. The only other university offering study on all three levels is University of Prešov. The other three universities provide study programmes on only the first and second level (University of Constantine the Philosopher in Nitra, University of Matej Bel in Banská Bystrica and the University of P.J. Šafárik in Košice). Training of future Geography teachers is provided by all these five universities as well as by the Catholic University in Ružomberok (Matlovič, 2014, p. 87).

## TRANSFORMATION OF GEOGRAPHY EDUCATION WITH THE EXAMPLE OF UNIVERSITY IN PREŠOV

University of Prešov is the only one of the above universities to have fully implemented the new paradigm within tertiary Geography education. It is also the only one to have created a modular study programme.

The whole process of implementation was divided into different stages. At the beginning there was lengthy discussion between course guarantors and key stakeholders working in the areas of tourism, regional development and land management from which it became clear that new study programmes should consider not just the new university education paradigm but also other factors.

Primary concerns were making the study programmes and specializations more attractive by introducing greater cooperation with workplaces and raising the professional profile of graduates so that they could find work more easily or establish their own businesses. One important step was foundation of a smart specialization workplace focusing on selected key study fields in order to limit overfragmentation of research interests and to create corresponding specializations in the area of education. The new programmes also reflected the new facilities which the workplace had gained thanks to modernization of the research and education infrastructure during the 2007-2013 period. The aim was to increase application of geospatial collection technology, cartographical interpretation and visualization of geographical data.

In accordance with these considerations, three study programmes were accredited within study areas 4.1.35. (Geography) and 4.1.38. (Regional Geography):

a) Bachelor study programe: “Geography and Applied Geoinformatics”;
b) Masters study programe: “Geography and Applied Geoinformatics”;
c) Doctoral study programm:e “Regional Geography and Regional Development”.

Compiling study programmes is based on the standard student requirement to obtain sixty credits during the academic year, thirty for each semester. The workload equates to 1,800 hours per year, one credit point being equal to thirty hours‘ work. Study subjects have been calibrated so that the overall number of direct contact hours for the student is twenty-two per week. This number of contact hours is such that the student still has enough time for self-study, work in the field and fulfilment of assigned tasks. Depending on their level of core importance, subjects are divided into compulsory, compulsory-elective and elective subjects. They are also divided into subjects which first require successful completion of another subject course and those which do not. The subjects have also been divided into subjects of Basic Geography (taken by students of all Geography study programmes) and specialized subjects (taken only by students who have chosen the given specialized module). The Basic Geography subjects are divided into theoretical, methodological, practical and subjects. Ours is the only Geography workplace in Slovakia which has applied this approach. We give here the bachelor study programme as an example.

**The structure of the Geography and Applied Geoinformatics bachelor study programme**

To successfully complete the study programme, the student must obtain 180 credits, the standard length of the study programme being three years. The study subjects are divided into modules. The first module (A.1.) is made up of theoretical Basic Geography subjects (Introduction to Geography, Introduction to Earth Science, General Physical Geography I-III, General Human Geography I-III, Regional Geography of the Slovak Republic I and II, Intruduction to Geoecology and Environmental Science, Introduction to Political and Regional Geography). These are compulsory subjects with a combined total of 48 credits (26.7 % of the overall number required). The second module (A.2.) is made up of methodological Basic Geography and Geoinformatic subjects (Methodological Propedeutics, Introduction to Cartography, Statistics for Geographers I and II, Thematic Cartography, Applied Geoinformatics I-III).

These are also compulsory subjects with a combined total of 23 credits (12.8 % of the overall number required). These are exclusively core subjects in terms of their description. The third module (A.3.) is made up of practical Basic Geography subjects (Fieldwork Practice I and II, Specialist Institutional Practice, Thesis Seminar, Thesis with defence and Geography Colloquium, Practical state exam in Geography and Geoinformatics). These are compulsory subjects with a combined total of 32 credits (17.8 % of the overall number required).

These are also exclusively core subjects in terms of their description. The fourth module (A.4.) is made up of support subjects developing relevant skills and competences (English Language I-V, Mathematics for Geographers, Informatics for Geographers, Economics for Geographers, Law for Geographers, Inbtroduction to Management and Marketing, Projects Management, Geography Entrepreneurship). These are compulsory subjects with a combined total of 22 credits (12.2 % of the overall number required). These are not core subjects in terms of their description. Within the study programme, compulsory subjects thus make up 125 credits (69.4 % of the overall credit requirement), the majority of which (56.6 % of the overall credit requirement) are core subjects in terms of the description of study area 4.1.35. Geography.

**Table 1**. Basic modular breakdown of the Geography and Applied Geoinformatics bachelor study programme at Prešov University

| TYPE OF MODULE | NAME OF MODULE | NUMBER OF CREDITS |
|---|---|---|
| A.1 - GENERAL COMPULSORY SUBJECT MODULE | THEORETICAL BASIC GEOGRAPHY SUBJECTS | 48 CREDITS |
| A.2 - GENERAL COMPULSORY SUBJECT MODULE | METHODOLOGICAL BASIC GEOGRAPHY SUBJECTS | 23 CREDITS |
| A.3 - GENERAL COMPULSORY SUBJECT MODULE | PRACTICAL BASIC GEOGRAPHY SUBJECTS | 32 CREDITS |
| A.4 - GENERAL COMPULSORY SUBJECT MODULE | SUPPORT SUBJECTS FOR BASIC GEOGRAPHY | 22 CREDITS |
| B.1 - SPECIALIZED MODULE OF COMPULSORY-ELECTIVE SUBJECTS[1] | TOURISM AND TERRITORIAL MARKETING | 55 CREDITS |
| B.2 - SPECIALIZED MODULE OF COMPULSORY - ELECTIVE SUBJECTS[1] | REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL POLITICS | 55 CREDITS |
| B.3 - SPECIALIZED MODULE OF COMPULSORY-ELECTIVE SUBJECTS[1] | LANDSCAPE PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT | 55 CREDITS |
| C - MODULE OF ELECTIVE SUBJECTS | ALL-UNIVERSITY OFFER OF ELECTIVE SUBJECTS | 9 CREDITS |

[1] – The student chooses one of the offered specialized modules

As well as compulsory subjects, compulsory-elective subjects are also a part of the study plan. These are organized into three specialized modules with a total of 55 credits (30.6 %), each student having to choose one of them. This has somewhat limited the students‘ absolute freedom when choosing compulsory elective subjects (they have to choose the whole module); on the other hand, it has increased the transparency of their profiles (this information is given in a supplement to their degree certificate), which may make it easier for employers to identify their speciality. The modular system thus has several advantages in comparison with other systems. It provides students with various profiling options, it is transparent and it guarantees a sensible combination of choice of individual compulsory-elective subjects. The first specialized module (B.1.) is focused on *Tourism and Territorial Marketing*. We will deal with its structure in another part of this article.

The second specialized module (B.2.) is focused on *Regional Development and Regional Politics* and consists of the following study subjects: Factors of Regional Development; The Labour Market and Employment Policies for Geographers; Microgeography; Regional Disparities and their Measurement; Regional Geography of Continents and Oceans I and II; Geography of Public Administration; Introduction to Landscape Planning; Political Regionalism; Local Development Projects; Regional Politics of the EU and SR; Regional Development in European and Non-European Countries; Strategic Regional Planning; Crossborder Cooperation and Euroregions; Geography of Marginalized Communities; Regional Development Projects.

The third specialized module (B.3.) is focused on *Landscape Planning and Management* (General Geoecology, Methods of Physical Geography Research, Microgeography, Regional Geography of Continents and Oceans I and II, Introduction to Landscape Management, Basics of Landscape Planning, Spatial Analysis of Land Use and Land Cover, Management of Natural Resources, Environmental Risks, Protection of Nature and Landscape, Ecological Agriculture, Environmental Planning, Mapping of Landscape Structures).

Within these modules there are least thirty credits (16.7 %) for core subjects according to the description of study area 4.1.35.Geography. This guarantees that every graduate of the course will have 73.3 % of study subjects belonging to this study area. Students may increase this share by enrolling for elective subjects offered by the department within the all-university offer of elective subjects (module C.).

**Learning outcomes and the profile of a Geography and Applied Geoinformatics bachelor study graduate**

The profile of the study programme graduate can be characterized according to the knowledge, skills and competences they gain during their study.

a) Knowledge: The graduate has comprehensive knowledge of the components of the physical and human geographical subsystems of the country and their mutual relationships, knows basic theoretical geographical concepts, has comprehensive knowledge about the laws of spatial differentiation of landscape and about horizontal and vertical relations in regional complexes and knows the basic approaches and methods of analysis of development, structure and processes in geographical complexes of various taxonomic levels along the local-global continuum. The graduate has deeper knowledge of their specialist field (Landscape Planning and Management, Tourism and Territorial Marketing, Regional Development and Regional Politics), including knowlege of practical connections and relationships with associated fields. The student successfully completing the Tourism and Territorial Marketing module knows and understands the basic concepts and approaches of territorial marketing and branding which can be used in practice and has knowledge about tourist destinations and regions in Slovakia and around the world. The graduate of the Regional Development and Regional Politics module knows and understands the basic concepts and tools of regional development, regional politics and regional strategic planning which can then be used in practice. The graduate of the Landscape Planning and Management module knows and understands the basic concepts and methods of landscape management, spatial and environmental planning and can then use them in practice when tackling specific problems.

b) Skills: The graduate knows how to actively gain geographical information and to use it for tackling practical tasks. They can solve specialized practical tasks using geographical, geoinformatic (GIS) and statistical methods and techniques of mathematical and field research as well as assess the suitability and adequacy of their use. They can use ICT for visualizing geographical data in graphic and cartographic form.

c) Competences: The graduate can solve specialist tasks, coordinate different activities and take responsibility for the results of a team; they can identify the ethical, social and economic implications of the problems being addressed, can obtain and process information independently and thus actively broaden their knowledge base. They can use the obtained knowledge for presenting arguments in expert discussion and can clearly present the results of their problem-solving both in Slovak and in basic English. Graduates gain knowledge, skills and competences which are of considerable value in the labour market. They are able to work in state administration, in local and regional government, in EU institutions, especially in those dealing with local and regional development, landscape planning, tourism, marketing and promotion, human resources, conservation and protection of the environment; they can also work in private surveying companies, non-profit organizations, development, marketing, real estate and travel agencies and offices, in opinion poll agencies, in institutionalized units and media. They are also able to start their own business using their geographical and geoinformatic expertise. The graduate can continue their study at the next level and do a masters degree in the study area 4.1.35., Geography.

## TOURISM AND TERRITORIAL MARKETING IN THE STRUCTURE OF THE GEOGRAPHY AND APPLIED GEOINFORMATICS STUDY PROGRAMME

University of Prešov is the only university which offers a modular system for its Geography degree courses in Slovakia. At the same time it is the only geography workplace in Slovakia which specializes in tourism and territorial marketing. As stated above, one of the three specialized modules within the Geography and Applied Geoinformatics bachelor study programme is the B.1. specialized module focusing on *Tourism and Territorial Marketing*.

**Table 2**. The structure of the Tourism and Territorial Marketing module

| Name of subject | Credits | Tuition L/S | Completed with | Year | Semester |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Destination Marketing | 2 | 1/1 | E | 2 | S |
| General Geography of Tourism | 4 | 1/1 | E | 2 | W |
| Tourist Regions of Europe | 4 | 2/2 | E | 2 | S |
| Tourist Regions of the World | 5 | 2/2 | E | 3 | W |
| Tourist Regions of Slovakia | 4 | 2/1 | E | 2 | W |
| Forms of Tourism 1 | 4 | 2/1 | E | 2 | S |
| Forms of Tourism 2 | 4 | 1/1 | E | 3 | W |
| Geography of Cultures and Civilizations | 2 | 1/1 | CA | 2 | W |
| Methodology of Tour Guide Activity | 4 | 1/1 | CA | 3 | W |
| Travel Agency Management | 4 | 1/1 | E | 3 | W |
| International Field Trip | 4 | 10 days | A | 2 | S |
| Global Problems and Tourism | 2 | 1/1 | CA | 2 | W |
| Work experience in public administration tourist institution | 4 | 7 days | A | 2 | W |
| Work experience in hotel and restaurant management in a tourist facility | 4 | 7 days | A | 3 | W |
| Psychology in Tourism | 4 | 0/2 | E | 3 | W |

L – lecture, S – seminar, E – exam, CA – continuous assessment, A – attendance, S – summer, W – winter

The module is made up of 15 subjects with a total of 55 credits or credit points. Two thirds of the subjects are theoretical in character: General Geography of Tourism, Tourist Regions of Slovakia, Tourist Regions of Europe, Tourist Regions of the World, Global Problems and Tourism, Geography of Culture and Civilizations, Destination Marketing, Forms of Tourism I and II, Psychology in Tourism. The other third are practical subjects these being: Travel Agency Management, Methodology of Tour Guide Activitiy, a International Filed Trip, work experience in public administration tourist institution, work experience in hotel and restaurant management in a tourist facility.

When preparing the conceptions of the individual subjects, we applied a new paradigm orientated towards learning outcomes. As an example we give here information about the subject Destination Marketing. The so-called informational sheet gives basic information about the subject. The form and content of the informational sheet is

stipulated by annex no. 1 of Regulation no. 614/2002 of the Slovak University Act about the Credit System as amended by Regulation no 155/2013. Among its most important parts relevant to this article are the following:

a) Type, extent and method of educational activities
b) Learning outcomes
c) Brief subject description

We can use the example of the Destination Marketing course to illustrate the practical application of the new paradigm. The concept of the subject differs from purely economistic approaches to the subject promoted in universities with an economic orientation. A key factor in successful territorial marketing is close interdisciplinary cooperation with regional geography. One example of this is the need for systematic and thorough studies of natural and cultural resources, of a place's identity and of the traditional and modern features of every destination (Ilieş et al., 2008, 2014).

**Table 3**. The Destination Marketing informational sheet

| **Name of subject:** Destination marketing |
|---|
| **Type, extent and method of educational activities:**<br>Overall number of study hours: 60<br>Number of teaching contact hours: 26 (1/1s)<br>• 13 hours - acitve participation in lectures<br>• 13 hours - active participation in seminars<br>• 17 hours – preparation for seminars – analysis of a chosen case study and conception of one's own design of a marketing strategy for a tourist destination<br>• Processing case studies and analysing data.<br>• 17 hours – self-study and exam preparation.<br>Method: blended learning |
| **Learning outcomes:**<br>*Knowledge of how*:<br>- to define and interpret in one's own words the object and subject of destination marketing;<br>- to describe and classify individual approaches within destination marketing and identify; interdisciplinary relations between destination marketing and regional geography;<br>- to characterize the basic methodological attributes of destination marketing;<br>- to characterize the development of destination marketing according to stages and interpret differences between the individual stages;<br>- to define and interpret in one's own words the basic concepts of destination marketing (destination, marketing process, marketing mix, destination image and identity, brand, brand image);<br>- to know the key stages in analysing a destination's market potential;<br>- to know and be able to apply basic principles of marketing communication;<br>- to know the institutional structures of destination marketing and the basic principles behind how they work (DMO);<br>- to describe ways of creating a marketing strategy for a chosen destination;<br>- to describe the main attributes of the destination marketing information system;<br>*Skills*:<br>- applying the right procedures when creating a destination marketing strategy;<br>- applying procedures when analysing the market position of a destination;<br>- independently obtaining geographic information from specialist texts and other sources;<br>- applying method of impact measurement;<br>*Competences:*<br>- presenting the results of study of literature and other sources;<br>- joining in expert discussion about the presented results. |

**Concise subject syllabus:**

1. Definition of basic terms
2. Marketing environment
3. Marketing MIX
4. Purchasing process
5. DMO (their functioning, financing, structure and types)
6. Destination identity and image
7. Destination brand and brand image
8. Destination market position and target markets
9. Marketing communication, PR destinations
10. Tourist resources (natural and cultural) destinations
11. Creation of destination marketing strategy
12. Implementation of destination marketing strategy
13. Analysis of the impacts of the implementation of destination marketing strategy.

## CONCLUSION

This article looks at the position of Tourism and Territorial Marketing in the context of the new paradigm in tertiary Geography education in Slovakia and refers to its theoretical framework (the revised Bloom's taxonomy, the Tuning methodology and the Dublin descriptors) and its reflection in the Slovak normative framework. In its second part it uses the example of University of Prešov to demonstrate the logical structure of its bachelor degree course in Geography and Applied Geoinformatics. This case has been chosen because it is the only Geography workplace in the country which has implemented a modular system in its course design as well as the only one which offers specialization in the field of Tourism and Territorial Marketing.

The article looks at the internal structure of the Tourism and Territorial Marketing specialist module and how it is made up of fifteen study subjects with a total of 55 credits. The effect of implementation of the paradigm on learning outcomes is illustrated by the example of Destination Marketing, with focus placed on the knowledge, skills and competences gained by the student who successfully completes the course. The aim of the article is to show the advantages of a modular system of study, especially in terms of the transparency of the graduate's professional profile and his/her clearer and more recognizable skills in the eyes of potential employers.

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# TOURISTS' KNOWLEDGE OF A VISITED ENVIRONMENT AND THE IMMEDIATE INFLUENCE ON THIS KNOWLEDGE OF COMPLETING AN INTERPRETIVE NATURE TRAIL: BESKYDY PROTECTED LANDSCAPE AREA, WEST CARPATHIANS

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**Abstract:** The aim of this article is to assess the relation between visitors' knowledge, visits to educational trails, and the leisure-time activities of the visitors within the protected area. This study was undertaken on the educational trail "Radegast" in the Beskydy Protected Landscape Area, Czech Republic. Visitors´ knowledge about the given area primarily depends on their interest both in nature and in history. Previous visits to the educational trails play a significant part in such education. Cyclotourism along the educational trail was identified as an activity indicating acquired knowledge.

**Key words:** environment, geography, tourism, West Carpathians, Czech Republic

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Large-scale protected areas are one of significant types of recreation area (Newsome et al., 2013). In the case of Carpathians this holds doubly true, as – with the exception of the Black Sea coastline – these are among the most significant areas in terms of concentration of the tourist industry in Romania, Poland, Slovakia, and the eastern part of the Czech Republic (Varsavova & Barancok, 1999; Kurzyca et al., 2009; Popescu & Petrisor, 2010;

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Erdeli & Dinca, 2011; Klauco et al., 2012; Svec et al., 2012; Barbu et al., 2013; Kroupova et al., 2014; Navratil et al., 2014; Bâca, 2015; Cappucci et al., 2015; Štrba, 2015). In this context, conflicts between conservational and touristic uses of these areas occur (e.g. Young et al., 2007). To prevent such disagreements, environmentally-friendly activities are supported when visiting these areas (Leslie, 2012; Nicholls & Kang, 2012). Educating visitors (Munro et al., 2008; Leung, 2012) and increasing environmental awareness (Ballantyne et al., 2011) seem to be of crucial importance. These include a whole range of activities, such as publications and websites, electronic educational resources, visitor centres, self-guided trails, and guided touring (Newsome et al., 2013). Even though the information provided may sometimes be biased (Braithwaite & Leiper, 2010) and the consequent behaviour of the visitors does not show, in the long term, any significant changes towards more environmentally friendly action (Hughes, 2013), their importance for environmental awareness is indisputable (Angelini et al., 2011), and under the conditions pertaining in CEE countries, interpretive nature trails are indisputably one of the most widespread types of environmental education within touristic regions (Foret & Klusacek, 2011; Foret et al., 2014).

In view of the fact that the number of interpretive nature trails is constantly rising (Dantzler et al., 2008), and that the literature largely concentrates on how guided tours influence environmental awareness (Madin & Fenton, 2004; Munro et al., 2008; Powell & Ham, 2008; Jacobs & Harms, 2014), the objective of this article is to assess the recreational behaviour within, and knowledge of, the visited area, assessing, above all, (1) the relation of behaviour to the level of a visitor's knowledge before visiting the interpretive nature trail, and (2) the change in the level of knowledge after visiting the interpretive nature trail.

## METHODS

### Study area

The Beskydy Protected Landscape Area was declared in 1973 and, encompassing 1,160 sqkm, is the largest protected area in the Czech Republic (Cetkovský et al., 2007). It stretches across the indented highlands of the West Carpathians and contains indigenous mountain primeval forest with rare species of animals and plants, meadow biocoenosis with species of all types, pseudokarstic phenomena, and aesthetically valuable landscapes created by the coexistence of man and nature. The interpretive nature trail "Radegast" was built between 2000 and 2001 and completely reconstructed in 2007, including the appearance and content of the information boards. It is nine kilometres long and there are nine stops with information boards describing its natural values, history, and the points of interest of the Radhošť ridge, which is also part of national geopark „Podbeskydí".

### Research approach

The data needed to meet the aim of this article was collected via questionnaire survey from a sample of visitors to the "Radegast" interpretive nature trail. These questionnaires were filled in face-to-face from June to September 2013. To secure the random character of the selection, visitors were questioned during both weekends and working days (Petrick et al., 2001), and the technique of treating the n-th visitor (Madin & Fenton, 2004) was applied – in our case every fifth visitor (yet only one per group provided there were more than 5 visitors in one group) – until 100 questionnaires were obtained. This questioning took place before the visitor set out on the trail loop. Every visitor who filled in the questionnaire received a printed, four-digit alphanumeric code. These visitors were asked to fill in the questionnaire again at the same spot when exiting the trail.

**Questionnaire**

In its first part, the questionnaire included questions concerning knowledge (Hughes & Saunders, 2005). These questions involved information mentioned on the information boards along the educational trail. There were six multiple-choice questions in total with four possible answers, one of which was the correct answer. The second part of the questionnaire was filled in just before starting the interpretive nature trail and requested basic demographic data about the respondent, including their sex and age. Furthermore a tool to measure the level of participation in individual recreational activities was applied, referring to hiking, cyclotourism, leisure-time and sport activities (e.g., swimming, tennis, etc.), wellness, nature observation, sightseeing, visitation to museums, galleries, historical festivals, etc.; games with children, relaxing, entertainment, and shopping. The level of participation was measured along a scale of one to five, one being "I don't take part in the activity" and five being "I primarily take part in this activity". Another activity studied was the number of educational trails visited in the course of the previous year using the categories "none", "one", and "two or more".

**Data processing and analysis**

To assess the relation of points gained from giving correct answers and detected by independent variables, Spearman´s rank correlation coefficient was applied with a level of significance of $p < 0.05$.

The test of the hypothesis of the first objective was carried out using logistic binomial regression with logit link and forward selection of variables. Only the questionnaires filled in before starting the interpretive nature trail were included within the analysis. Before performing the analysis, two separate groups of respondents were selected – (1) respondents with a highly below-average value of answers, i.e., the ones who obtained 0 or 1 points, and (2) respondents with a highly above-average values of answers, i.e. the ones who obtained 6 points. Predictors of the respondents´ affiliation in the group with a highly below-average value of answers were tested. Other measured variables in the questionnaire entered the model as independent variables, these being sex (as binary), age (as ordinal), and all activities (each as a ratio). The Hosmer-Lemeshow test and Cox and Snell's Pseudo $R^2$ were used as measures of model fit. The test of the hypothesis of the second objective was carried out using nonparametric regression. The explained variable was the difference between points obtained in the first attempts at the questionnaire and in the second tries following completion of the trail. The independent variables used were the same as in the evaluation of the first objective. The one-way ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc test for unequal n was applied for the subsequent tests of the differences among the selected groups of respondents.

**Results and Discussion**

The average value of the points obtained before the visit was 2.9 (standard deviation = 1.51; median = 3). This value is positively linked to the performance of hiking, nature observation, sightseeing, and a higher number of educational trails visited over the previous year. On the other hand, it is negatively linked to work activities, cyclotourism, and to no visits to the educational trail in the previous year (Table 1).

Using logistic regression, the affiliation of a respondent to the group with highly below-average values of answers on the basis of the respondent's low values of participation in the activities of nature observation and sightseeing when visiting the protected areas is shown in Table 2. Our model has an adequate fit, as the Hosmer-Lemeshow test criterion is 5.078 with p-value 0.650.

**Table 1**. Spearman´s Rank Order Correlations for the number of points obtained and observed independent variable, n = 100 (Data source: Own research)

| Items | Spearman´s Rank Order Correlations |
|---|---|
| wellness | 0.036 |
| sightseeing | 0.390 |
| work activities | -0.240 |
| visiting museums, galleries, historical festivals, etc. | 0.067 |
| shopping | -0.154 |
| entertainment | 0.062 |
| relaxation | 0.101 |
| nature observation | 0.367 |
| cyclotourism | -0.224 |
| leisure-time and sport activities (swimming, tennis, etc.) | -0.157 |
| hiking | 0.235 |
| games with children | 0.019 |
| female | 0.040 |
| age | 0.123 |
| no interpretive trail | -0.202 |
| one interpretive trail | -0.105 |
| two and more interpretive trails | 0.255 |

**Table 2**. Model of the dependency of affiliation to the group of respondents with the minimum of points before completing the trail (Data source: Own research)

| | Estimate | Standard Error | Wald Statistics | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| intercept | 5.231 | 1.739 | 9.047 | 0.003 |
| sightseeing | -1.163 | 0.504 | 5.314 | 0.021 |
| nature observation | -0.732 | 0.359 | 4.167 | 0.041 |

The value of pseudo $R^2$ is 0.55 as well, approximately corresponding to the value 0.90 for linear $R^2$ (Henshner et al., 2005), thus showing a rather high level of dependency of low value answers on these two predictors of behaviour chosen by the model.

This result is highly remarkable, as we must consider that it refers to the sample of visitors to the protected area who had already decided on visiting the interpretive nature trail; these visitors were presumably already more environmentally conscious than the average visitor to the protected area. Knowledge of the area before visiting thus depends on the visitor´s own interest in environmental education (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013; Jacobs & Harms, 2014), which is reflected in their behaviour in the protected area (Clark, 1997; Prah & Kolnik, 2007).

After the visit, the average number of correct answers was 5.68 (standard deviation =0.75; median = 6). Such a shift is big, and although it has been mentioned in other studies too (Powell & Ham, 2008; Jacobs & Harms, 2014), we suppose that the effect of handing out codes to identify the visitor was reflected here (the respondents naturally supposed that they were going to be asked once more). The average value of the change of points obtained before and after completing the educational trail follows the above mentioned results and amounts to 2.78 (standard deviation = 1.49; median = 3).

We tried to identify the predictors of these changes by nonparametric regression. Using the forward selection method, two predictors were chosen by the model, which were significantly involved in explaining the change in number of points obtained after completing the trail compared to the number of points obtained after the visit. It was higher among cyclotourists, while among hikers it was lower (Table 3).

**Table 3**. Model of the dependency of the difference in number of points before and after the visit to the educational trail

| | Estimate | Standard Error | Wald Statistics | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| intercept | 1.294 | 0.218 | 35.382 | 0.000 |
| wellness | -0.074 | 0.041 | 3.308 | 0.069 |
| cyclotourism | 0.134 | 0.049 | 7.427 | 0.006 |
| hiking | -0.151 | 0.053 | 8.037 | 0.005 |

This result must be interpreted with respect to the initial number of points obtained before visiting the trail. Cyclotourists obtained a lower number of initial points, so the rise was bigger among them than among the hikers, who had a higher number of initial points. Provided that we pull out from the overall file the ones with a higher level of activity in cyclotourism and the ones with a higher level of activity in hiking, we gain two groups of respondents – cyclotourists and hikers ($n_{(cyklo)}$ = 20; $n_{(hiking)}$ = 41). For the two groups the difference regarding the number of points obtained before and after the visit was assessed. In both cases the hikers' level of knowledge was shown to be higher than that of the cyclotourists (Figure 1).

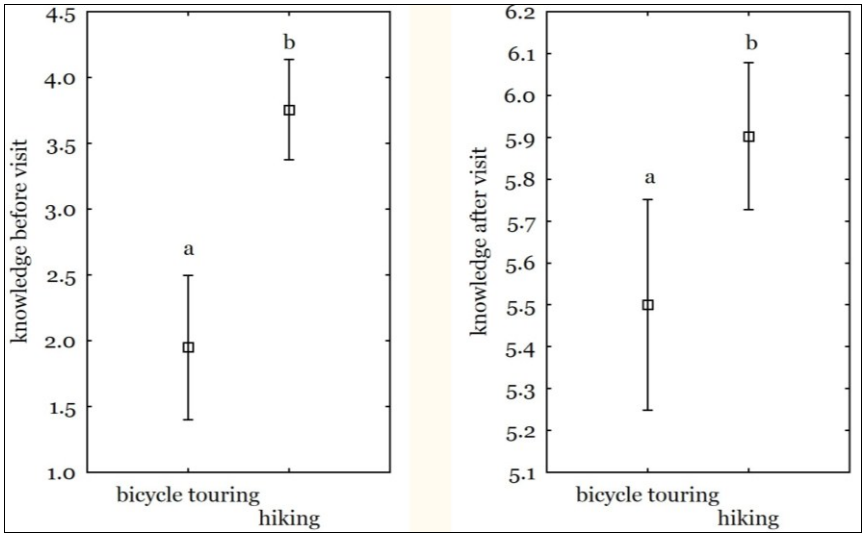


**Figure 1**. Average values and 0.95 confidence intervals of the points obtained before and after completing the educational trail for cyclotourists and hikers. The averages marked with the same letter do not significantly differ (Tukey's HSD post hoc test for unequal n; $p > 0.05$), n = 61

From the information acquired we can deduce that there is a significant dissimilarity between cyclotourists, here perceived as tourists who prefer cycling to walking when on holiday and performing recreational activities, and hikers (Carothers et al., 2001; Lamont, 2009). It might be related to the different motivations of cyclotourists and hikers when visiting protected areas (Needham et al., 2004). With cyclotourism, its environmentally friendly (Dickinson & Robbins, 2009) and economically significant (Lumsdon, 2000) way of travelling is often emphasized. It is becoming apparent, though, that cyclotourists cover a diversified group (Ritchie et al., 2010) in which the mass-type of tourists oriented more towards entertainment and relaxation than toward learning and self-education prevail (Navratil et al., 2011).

## CONCLUSION

The visitors´ knowledge about the given area principally depends on their own interest both in nature and in history. Previous visits to the educational trails play a significant role in this education. Cyclotourism was identified as an activity explaining the amount of knowledge acquired by completing the educational trail. Neither the influence of sex nor age was proved regarding the knowledge of the environment before or after completing the educational trail.

**Aknowlegments**

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# RESIDENTS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC PERCEPTIONS OF AN INTERNATIONAL FAIR

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**Abstract:** Events allow a community to celebrate its uniqueness, promote itself, develop local pride and enhance its economic well-being. Events also have the potential to negatively affect the social and cultural environment in hosting destinations. Therefore, it is important to examine possible impacts events have. This study aims to examine residents' perceptions of the socio-economic impacts of an international fair on the host community, and if these perceptions vary according to socio-demographic characteristics. The results indicate that residents perceive the fair to create community cohesion, increase the place image, foster family togetherness and results in economic benefits. Results also suggest that residents perceive the fair resulting in economic and social costs. It is also found that there are significant variations across select demographic characteristics of the residents in terms of their perception of the impacts of the fair. The study ends with a discussion of findings and theoretical and managerial implications.

**Key words:** fairs, perceived impacts, socio-demographic characteristics

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## INTRODUCTION

Event tourism is defined as the systematic development, planning and marketing of events (Tassiopoulos, 2005: 4). Events are mostly associated with the economic benefits that include tax revenues for government, more businesses for the locals and consequently employment opportunities, additional income and increases in the quality of life for local residents. Further, they contribute to improve public services, regenerate urban spaces and building new infrastructure (Bob & Swart, 2009; Kim & Petrick, 2005). Moreover, events result in long-lasting facilities created for the event used by locals. Consequently, events are organized by the communities to showcase their cultural heritage, promote their city, enliven the entertainment offerings for the residents, and attract tourists, thereby helping to improve the quality of life in destinations. Events also allow a community to celebrate its uniqueness, promote itself, develop local pride and enhance its economic well-being. Therefore, communities all

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around the world try to find creative ways to showcase their cultural heritage, and enlarge the cultural entertainment offerings for local residents (Rees, 2000; Cudny et al., 2012; Egresi & Kara, 2014). Consequently, destinations increasingly organize events such as festivals, fairs and celebrations in favour of expected benefits.

Literature on event tourism suggests that events also have negative impacts on the host community, local residents, local administrations and the environment (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Events may result in negative impacts such as: increases in prices of goods and services, crowding in public areas, traffic congestion, parking problems and an increase in crime and undesired actions (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996; Yolal et al., 2009). These negative outcomes of the events may result in disruption of quality of life at the destination. Expectedly, these impacts may result in visitor and community dissatisfaction. In that sense, residents oppose to events due to their dissatisfaction with the results of the events (Burbank et al., 2000). Moreover, residents may think that the public funds invested in event organization is a waste of taxpayers' money (Bob & Swart, 2009). Finally, Fredline (2004) suggests that conflict can occur between residents and visitors because of different standards of living, economic welfare, and purchasing power gaps. Therefore, an efficient planning and management of events require a thorough understanding of residents' attitudes and perceptions towards the event.

Among the several types of events, fairs lead the development of international business relations apart from their economic impacts on the destinations where fairs are organized. In accordance, there is a growing interest in events and fairs among academics. According to Getz (2008: 409-410), studies on the event tourism focused on economic impacts in 70's and 80's, then motivations of visitors and participants in 90's, and social, cultural and environmental impacts in 2000's. Further Getz (2008) notes that the perceptions of the local residents have been an important research topic in recent years. Studies on the fairs have examined motivations and purposes of participant firms, benefits of the fairs to the local economy, visitor motivations and experiences (Christopher & Emmanuel, 2012; Jung, 2008; Rinallo et al., 2010; Tanner & Chonko, 1995). However, the perceptions of the local residents towards the fairs are also important for successful planning and administration of the events. If host community believes that they are likely to benefit from the event, they are likely to feel good about attending and supporting the event (Yolal et al., 2015). Therefore, it is important for event planners and organizers to understand how local residents perceive the impacts of the fairs.

Although Turkey hosts numerous events, research on the impacts of the events on the local residents and their perceptions towards the impacts of events is limited. Thus, the purpose of the study is to examine the perceptions of the residents towards the impacts of Izmir International Fair.

It is expected that the findings of this study could help organizers, decision-makers and city officials to plan and manage the events thoroughly. The outcome of this research is likely to enhance our understanding of the perceived impacts of events, and thus provide useful insights for destination managers and marketers. This study utilizes social exchange theory (SET) as its theoretical framework. SET is a "general sociological theory concerned with an understanding of exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation" (Ap, 1992, p. 668). According to the SET, the participants as social actors should have the initial justification to participate in a social exchange process with others. Moreover positive resident perceptions of an event may lead to their support in the event.

The methodology utilized for the purpose of the study is explained in the next section. Thereafter, the findings are presented. Finally, findings are discussed and implications for the managers are presented in the conclusion section.

## METHODS

### Study Site

The study was conducted in Izmir International Fair (IIF) being organized annually in Izmir, Turkey. IIF is the oldest tradeshow in Turkey with various product groups, considered the milestone of Turkey's fair and exposition industry and is also notable for hosting a series of simultaneous festival activities. The fair itself is not limited to a theme where the participants are generally simply required to expose products with export or import potential. The musical and other cultural events that accompany the commercial fair and that had actually started out as an auxiliary to attract popular interest for the event have become, over the years, a school by themselves. The 82nd Izmir International Fair which was organized from 29th of August to 8th of September, 2013, hosted 1125 firms from several countries and attracted more than 1.6 million visitors.

### Data Collection

A structured survey instrument was used for the data collection. The survey instrument was developed in Turkish and had two sections. The first part of the questionnaire included a socio-economic impacts scale developed from the previous literature (Chen, 2011; Gursoy et al., 2002; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Sharma & Dyer, 2009; Yolal et al., 2012; Zhou & Ap, 2009). The scale was measured on a five-point Likert-type scale. Respondents were asked to indicate how strongly they agree or disagree with each item in the scale. The second part of the questionnaire included items to gather information about respondents' demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education level, occupation, and monthly income. Afterwards, a group of faculty members were requested to assess the content validity of the items that were identified from the literature. They were asked to provide comments on the content and understandability of each item in the scale.

Necessary changes on the items were made and the survey questionnaire was pre-tested on the first day of the IIF on 29th of August. A total of 38 respondents joined the pilot survey and they were asked to comment on the lucidity of the items. Based on the feedback and the results of the pretest, the questionnaire was finalized. Data were collected utilizing a self-administered questionnaire from individuals who visited the IIF between 30th of August and 8th of September 2013. The questionnaires were randomly handed out at the entrances of the fair area to the potential respondents and were collected upon their completion. A total of 500 questionnaires were delivered and of the 432 gathered questionnaires, 10 were incomplete and thus eliminated from further analysis. As a result, 422 usable questionnaires were retained for the analysis.

### Analysis

The analysis of the study consisted of three steps. First, a series of descriptive analyses were conducted to examine the normality and distributions of the study variables. Afterwards, a principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was performed to identify the underlying dimensions of perceived socio-economic benefits of the IIF. Finally, a series of ANOVAs and t-tests were conducted to examine whether delineated dimensions differ among selected demographic characteristics.

## RESULTS

The demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1. The gender distribution of the visitors was slightly uneven, with 64.9% male and 35.1 % female. Most of the respondents had a high school education (35.8%), followed by university graduates (29.6%). While 52.6% of the respondents were blue collar employees, almost one third of them were unemployed or retired. Slightly one third of the respondents reported a monthly income between 401 to 800USD.

**Table 1**. Respondents' demographic profile

| | Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Gender** | Male | 274 | 64.9 |
| | Female | 148 | 35.1 |
| **Age** | Younger than 20 | 51 | 12.1 |
| | Between 21 and 32 | 213 | 50.1 |
| | Between 33 and 44 | 79 | 18.7 |
| | Older than 45 | 79 | 18.7 |
| **Marital status** | Single | 241 | 57.1 |
| | Married | 162 | 38.4 |
| | Other | 19 | 4.5 |
| **Education** | Elementary school | 68 | 16.1 |
| | High school | 151 | 35.8 |
| | Vocational school | 61 | 14.5 |
| | University | 125 | 29.6 |
| | Graduate | 17 | 4.0 |
| **Occupation** | Blue collar | 222 | 52.6 |
| | White collar | 63 | 14.9 |
| | Unemployed/retired | 137 | 32.5 |
| **Income (in USD)** | Less than 400 | 98 | 23.1 |
| | Between 401 and 800 | 135 | 32.0 |
| | Between 801 and 1200 | 80 | 19.0 |
| | Between 1201 and 1601 | 21 | 5.0 |
| | More than 1601 | 22 | 5.2 |

The exploratory factor analysis of 28 items of impacts yielded six factors and explained 66.7 percent of the variance. Eight items were excluded due to their lower loadings. These factors were labeled as *community cohesion*, *destination image*, *social costs*, *economic benefits*, *family togetherness*, and *economic costs*. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of .840 also indicated that patterns of correlation were relatively compact and yielded reliable factors. Barlett's test results indicated the appropriateness of the factor analysis ($p<0.000$). Eigenvalues of these factors ranged from 5.71 to 1.01. None of the individual loading was less than .55, and the reliability coefficients of the delineated factors ranged from .898 for destination image to .645 for economic costs (Table 2).

A series of t tests and ANOVAs were conducted to examine if the delineated factor groupings of perceived impacts of the fair would vary across respondents' demographic characteristics of gender, age, education level and occupation. Findings indicated significant variations in perceived impacts across gender. Levene's tests for equality of variance results suggested that in all variables the variances were homogenous ($p > 0.05$ for all dimensions). A series of independent-samples t tests were conducted to identify the differences in respondents' perceptions due to gender of the participants. Results suggest that there was no difference in the scores of female ($M = 4.17$, $SD = .926$) and male ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.008$) participants in their perception of *community cohesion* $t(420) = -4.160$, $p = 0.678$. There was a significant difference in the scores of female ($M = 4.48$, $SD = .595$) and male ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .729$) participants in *destination image* dimension $t(420) = -3.884$, $p = 0.000$. These results suggested that female visitors placed significantly more importance on image. Similarly, a significant difference was found between the scores of female ($M = 2.63$, $SD = .957$) and male ($M = 2.83$, $SD = .940$) participants in *social costs* dimension $t(420) = 2.041$, $p = .042$. Significant differences were also found in the scores of female ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .635$) and male ($M = 4.18$, $SD = .669$) participants in *economic*

*benefits* t(420) = -2.284, p = .023. Finally, a significant difference was found in the scores of female (M = 4.62, SD = .501) and male (M = 4.45, SD = .589) participants in *family togetherness* t(420) = -2.923, p = .004. These results suggest that female visitors placed more importance on image, economic benefits, and family togetherness, while male visitors placed more importance on social costs.

**Table 2**. Factor analysis of fair's socio-economic impacts

| Impact items | Factor loadings | Eigenvalue | Variance explained | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Community cohesion** | | 5.713 | 27.204 | .797 |
| The fair increases the attachment of the residents to their community | .773 | | | |
| The fair provides visitors an opportunity to meet new people | .744 | | | |
| The fair creates a sense of pride among visitors | .736 | | | |
| The fair strengthens the sense of community and identity | .724 | | | |
| The fair contributes to the development of infrastructure | .561 | | | |
| **Destination image** | | 2.455 | 11.688 | .898 |
| The fair enhances the image of the city | .860 | | | |
| The fair contributes to the branding of the city | .829 | | | |
| The fair increases the attractiveness of the city | .814 | | | |
| The fair increases international recognition about the city | .761 | | | |
| **Social costs** | | 2.261 | 10.765 | .722 |
| The fair increases crime in the city | .832 | | | |
| The fair increases the use of alcohol/drugs | .821 | | | |
| The fair causes ecological damage | .710 | | | |
| The fair causes congestion and disorder | .632 | | | |
| **Economic benefits** | | 1.342 | 6.390 | .693 |
| The fair stimulates local economy | .769 | | | |
| The fair increases employment opportunities | .717 | | | |
| The fair provides residents an opportunity to attend an international event | .611 | | | |
| **Family togetherness** | | 1.228 | 5.847 | .732 |
| The fair provides parents an opportunity to have fun with their children | .835 | | | |
| The fair provides family based recreation | .826 | | | |
| **Economic costs** | | 1.018 | 4.849 | .645 |
| The fair overtaxes available community financial resources | .840 | | | |
| The fair increases the cost of living | .803 | | | |
| **Total variance explained** | | | 66.744 | .719 |

ANOVA results revealed some patterns that are worth mentioning (Table 3). It was seen that the perceptions of the participants did not vary according to their educational and income levels. Results indicated significant differences in participants' age groups in their perceptions of the benefits of the fair for *community cohesion* [F(3, 418) = 4.078, p = 0.007] and *economic costs* [F(3, 418) = 3.827, p = 0.010]. Post hoc comparisons suggested that participants under 20 group (M = 3.53, SD = 0.73) and the 21-32 group (M = 3.43, SD = 0.79) placed more importance on *community cohesion* compared to older than the 45 years and older group (M = 3.09, SD = 0.93). A similar pattern also existed on *economic costs* dimension that participants under 20 (M = 2.63, SD = 0.95) and the 21-32 group (M = 2.49, SD = 0.92) placed more importance on *economic costs* compared to the 45 years and older group (M = 2.13, SD = 0.94). Occupation groups also displayed differences in terms of

*economic benefits* [F(2, 419) = 3.241, p = 0.040] and *family togetherness* [F(2, 419) = 3.880, p = 0.021]. Post hoc comparisons suggested that unemployed/retired group (M = 4.34, SD = 0.56) placed more importance on *economic benefits* than the blue collar employees (M = 4.18, SD = 0.66). Similarly unemployed/ retired group (M = 4.62, SD = 0.45) also placed more importance on *family togetherness* than the blue collar employees (M = 4.45, SD = 0.59). Finally, results suggested that there were significant differences in *community cohesion* [F(2, 419) = 4.156, p = 0.016] dimension on the basis of participants' marital status. Single participants (M = 3.42, SD = 0.83) placed more importance on community cohesion compared to other group (M = 2.87, SD = 0.90).

**Table 3**. ANOVA results for perceived socio-economic impact factors

| Impact factors | | Elementary School N=68 | High School N=151 | Vocational School N=61 | University N=125 | Graduate N=17 | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Community cohesion | M | 3.34 | 3.31 | 3.59 | 3.26 | 3.54 | 1.853 |
| | SD | (.86) | (.92) | (.67) | (.82) | (.95) | |
| Destination image | M | 4.27 | 4.38 | 4.38 | 4.20 | 4.14 | 1.645 |
| | SD | (.76) | (.63) | (.67) | (.69) | (.24) | |
| Social costs | M | 3.02 | 2.69 | 2.69 | 2.79 | 2.41 | 2.267 |
| | SD | (.82) | (.95) | (.98) | (1.00) | (.79) | |
| Economic benefits | M | 4.15 | 4.27 | 4.36 | 4.18 | 4.05 | 1.407 |
| | SD | (.60) | (.59) | (.60) | (.75) | (.90) | |
| Family togetherness | M | 4.59 | 4.51 | 4.36 | 4.53 | 4.61 | 1.558 |
| | SD | (.53) | (.55) | (.66) | (.58) | (.45) | |
| Economic costs | M | 2.45 | 2.44 | 2.37 | 2.47 | 2.00 | 1.006 |
| | SD | (.90) | (1.02) | (.87) | (.95) | (.64) | |
| | | Under 20 N=51 | 21-32 N=213 | 33-44 N=79 | Older than 45 N=79 | | |
| Community cohesion | M | 3.53* | 3.43* | 3.27 | 3.09* | | 4.078* |
| | SD | (.73) | (.79) | (.94) | (.93) | | |
| Destination image | M | 4.37 | 4.33 | 4.30 | 4.18 | | 1.093 |
| | SD | (.59) | (.67) | (.77) | (.74) | | |
| Social costs | M | 2.79 | 2.80 | 2.70 | 2.68 | | .447 |
| | SD | (.93) | (.99) | (.93) | (.88) | | |
| Economic benefits | M | 4.21 | 4.25 | 4.25 | 4.15 | | .505 |
| | SD | (.59) | (.65) | (.74) | (.65) | | |
| Family togetherness | M | 4.53 | 4.52 | 4.48 | 4.51 | | .102 |
| | SD | (.59) | (.56) | (.59) | (.54) | | |
| Economic costs | M | 2.63* | 2.49* | 2.39 | 2.13* | | 3.827* |
| | SD | (.95) | (.92) | (.99) | (.94) | | |
| | | Blue collar N=222 | White collar N=63 | Unemployed retired N=137 | | | |
| Community cohesion | M | 3.36 | 3.40 | 3.31 | | | .313 |
| | SD | (.86) | (.83) | (.85) | | | |
| Destination image | M | 4.26 | 4.19 | 4.42 | | | 2.994 |
| | SD | (.73) | (.77) | (.58 | | | |
| Social costs | M | 2.77 | 2.97 | 2.65 | | | 2.599 |
| | SD | (.93) | (1.00) | (.95) | | | |
| Economic benefits | M | 4.18* | 4.15 | 4.34* | | | 3.241* |
| | SD | (.66) | (.81) | (.56) | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family togetherness | M | 4.45* | 4.50 | 4.62* | | | 3.880* |
| | SD | (.59) | (.64) | (.45) | | | |
| Economic costs | M | 2.45 | 2.45 | 2.38 | | | .299 |
| | SD | (.96) | (.93) | (.94) | | | |
| | | Less than 400 N=98 | 401 to 800 N=135 | 801 to 1200 N=80 | More than 1200 N=43 | | |
| Community cohesion | M | 3.47 | 3.34 | 3.20 | 3.31 | | 1.548 |
| | SD | (.80) | (.81) | (.95) | (.96) | | |
| Destination image | M | 4.37 | 4.29 | 4.16 | 4.19 | | 1.448 |
| | SD | (.66) | (.64) | (.83) | (.81) | | |
| Social costs | M | 2.77 | 2.75 | 2.87 | 2.52 | | 1.348 |
| | SD | (.88) | (.90) | (1.04) | (.87) | | |
| Economic benefits | M | 4.29 | 4.26 | 4.11 | 4.02 | | 2.376 |
| | SD | (.61) | (.54) | (.81) | (.92) | | |
| Family togetherness | M | 4.55 | 4.48 | 4.45 | 4.47 | | .543 |
| | SD | (.48) | (.59) | (.67) | (.54) | | |
| Economic costs | M | 2.60 | 2.47 | 2.31 | 2.23 | | 2.267 |
| | SD | (.98) | (.92) | (.92) | (.96) | | |
| | | Married N=162 | Single N=241 | Other N=19 | | | |
| Community cohesion | M | 3.30 | 3.42* | 2.87* | | | 4.156* |
| | SD | (.86) | (.83) | (.90) | | | |
| Destination image | M | 4.28 | 4.32 | 4.27 | | | .221 |
| | SD | (.74) | (.67) | (.60) | | | |
| Social costs | M | 2.80 | 2.74 | 2.64 | | | .326 |
| | SD | (.95) | (.95) | (.83) | | | |
| Economic benefits | M | 4.20 | 4.24 | 4.40 | | | .806 |
| | SD | (.68) | (.64) | (.70) | | | |
| Family togetherness | M | 4.45 | 4.53 | 4.76 | | | 2.906 |
| | SD | (.57) | (.56) | (.42) | | | |
| Economic costs | M | 2.35 | 2.50 | 2.10 | | | 2.394 |
| | SD | (.93) | (.95) | (1.10) | | | |

**CONCLUSION**

This study examines the residents' socio-economic perceptions of an international fair. Study findings suggest that local residents have a positive perception on the impacts of the fair. These findings are coherent with similar studies on the residents' perceptions of events (Turco, 1997; Jackson, 2008; Zou & Ap, 2009; Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010; Zou, 2010; Choe, 2011; Lorde et al., 2011; Yolal et al., 2015). Therefore, one of the main contribution of this study is that it examines not only residents' perceptions of socio-economic impacts of an international fair but their variation among select demographic variables. Findings indicate that residents have a reasonable perception on the impacts of the fair. This study contributes to the growing body of knowledge on events by furthering the understanding of how people from different socio-demographic groups perceive the impacts of an international fair.

Izmir International Fair participants are relatively younger; most of them are under 32 years old and mostly male. Considering the fact that the fair offers visitors to see products of international companies, larger male participation in the fair is not surprising. This finding suggests that fair organizers should pay close attention to the needs and perceptions of young male participants while planning the fair. On the other hand, strategies developed according to other age groups and females may help organizers to attract these groups.

Results indicate the importance of the fair on building community cohesion. It is understood that residents value the fair as a tool for increasing their attachment to their community, creating a sense of pride and a sense of community, and identity. This information is of great value for the fair organizers and also for the local authorities. As such, it is important to promote the fair as a tool for increasing residents' attachment to their community. Further, the fair is appreciated as a tool for creating and maintaining a destination image. This is particularly important for attracting visitors to the city. Study results also suggest that the fair creates opportunities for socialization and family togetherness. This is particularly important for the well-being of the society, and offers opportunities to increase the quality of life in the city. Therefore, fair organization should focus on the needs and expectations of the families, and increase the opportunities for socialization.

In line with several studies, study findings suggest that residents perceive that the fair itself causes negative impacts such as traffic congestion, and crowding in public services (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010; Chen, 2011; Choe, 2011; Gursoy et al., 2016; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999). However, contrary to the results of the previous studies, it is seen that the residents do not believe that the fair increases alcohol consumption and crime. This finding can be explained by the quiet and peaceful atmosphere of the city. This can also be explained by the SET that those who perceive benefits also perceive lower levels of negative impacts (Andereck et al., 2005). However, it is still important to take precautionary steps to maintain quiet and serene environment. The fair organization and local authorities should work collaboratively in order to reduce perceived negative impacts of the fair. Increasing the parking space around the fair area, and taking precautions to ease the access to the fair area may help solve the problem. Such measures may also help to diminish possible impacts of the fair on the built and natural environment.

Residents believe that the fair does not contribute to the development of social services and the infrastructure. This is coherent with several studies (Jackson, 2008). This finding can be explained with the fact that the fair has been organized for more than 80 years, and expectedly its contribution to the infrastructure is minimal. On the other hand, residents believe that the fair stimulates local economy and increases employment opportunities. Promotion and publicity about the fair, and increasing the participant firms and visitors will boost the economic contribution of the fair to the destination. Results suggest that female visitors place more importance on image, economic benefits, and family togetherness, while male visitors placed more importance on social costs. These findings are coherent with the previous studies (Lee et al., 2013; Weaver & Lawton, 2013; Zou, 2010). Therefore, increasing the awareness of male residents may change their perception towards the fair. However, it is important to focus both males and females equally, and getting them participate in the fair events together is crucial for the well-being of the society. In that sense, increasing the number of events suitable for both gender, and especially the ones for the families will be of great help for the success of the fair.

Results also show that residents' perceptions vary across their age groups. Younger residents focus on the economic costs of the fair. This is expected due to higher unemployment levels in Turkey. As such, it is important to inform younger people about the economic benefits of organizing events. Similarly, they should be informed about the possible impacts of attracting more companies to attend the fair, and the importance of attracting them to invest in the region. As such, local firms should also be encouraged to participate in the fair and make investment agreements with the participating companies.

Occupation and education are important factors that determine individual's social status and lifestyle. Consequently, study results show that residents' perceptions of the impacts of the fair differ across their occupations and education. For example, unemployed/retired group place more importance on economic benefits and family togetherness. Since this group does not have any work obligations, they have plenty of time, and place more importance on family togetherness and socialization. Therefore, fair organizers should find creative ways to get people visit the fair several times and spend more time in the area. As such, organizing recreational events during the fair such as concerts, shows and participatory events may help all groups to enjoy their time during the fair, and consequently result in their support for the event.

This study reports the findings of a research on the residents' perceptions of the impacts of an international fair, and offers insights for the organizers and planners for future events. However, the study is limited to perceptions of residents. In order to display a more comprehensive picture of the impacts of the fair, future studies should focus on other stakeholders and their perceptions of the fair. In that sense, studying the perceptions of participant firms may help to extend our knowledge about the fair. Moreover, this study examines the influence of residents' socio-demographic characteristics on their perceptions of the impacts of the fair. It is also possible to include other factors that may alter the significance of socio-demographic characteristics on the perceptions.

Although the fair consists of several events such as shows, concerts and galas, this study is limited to the visitors of the fair. As such, future studies can handle each event separately and conduct researches on different aspects of these individual events organized during the fair. Future studies are also needed to understand residents' perceptions of the success of the fair, organizers and local authorities, and their satisfaction with several aspects of the fair. These studies may offer a sound understanding of the residents for the fair organizers which is prerequisite for successful future events.

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# THE SPATIAL DYNAMIC OF THE ACCOMMODATION FACILITY IN MARAMUREŞ COUNTY IN THE LAST QUARTER OF A CENTURY

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**Abstract:** This study synthetically presents the current tendencies related to one of the most important elements of the tourism infrastructure (the tourism facility capacity) from Maramureş County, in the last quarter of a century, evolution characterized by different rates of growth of the accommodation categories. Starting from the main form of accommodation (*hotels*) that dominated the early 90s in Baia Mare, Sighetu Marmaţiei and Ocna Şugatag balnear resort, continuing with the youth hotels (*hostels*), *motels*, *tourist villas*, *tourist chalets*, *school camps* and not least the newest forms of accommodation (*tourist pensions* and *agrotourist pensions* – that exist and function due to private initiatives), Maramureş County benefited over the years of all the forms of accommodation. These categories enforce the size and structure of the accommodation facility in Maramureş County.

**Key words:** accommodation, number of beds, tourist pensions, agrotourist pensions

* * * * * *

## INTRODUCTION

In the geographical literature, the evolution of the accommodation facility in Maramureş County was presented starting with the 80s, in several monographic studies approaching the geographic domain at county level (Pop, 1980; Posea et al., 1980; Surd, 2008), at national level[1], as well as in the valuable work of Ciangă, 1997.

These studies are supplemented by a series of research studies that overlap the county region and that analyzed the concept of "the Land" [ţară] (Dezsi, 2006; Ilieş, 2007; Puşcaş, 2007), or of some unpublished Ph.D. theses about the accommodation in the Maramureş Depresion and Maramureş Mountains (Popa & Bota, 2003; Hotea,

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[1]Geografia României II, Geografia Umană şi Economică, 1984

2008; Simion, 2011). The research would be incomplete without the analysis of some touristic guides that provides a consistent support in the knowledge of the investigated field[2] (Istvan et al., 2009).

**METHODOLOGY**

To highlight the evolution and the problems of the tourism facility capacity in the Maramureş County we used datas offered by the Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database (https://statistici.insse.ro/shop) respectively the public database provided by the National Authority for Tourism (http://turism.gov.ro/informatii-publice).

The first step to processing the data was to make a series of representations in a tabular form, under which through extrapolation and interpretation we were able to develop the graphic and cartographic materials, elements that are helpful to track easily the analyzed issues.

The first sourse (TEMPO-Online) provides data regarding the number of accommodation units, the tourism facility capacity and the occupancy degree of all the existing accommodation units by accommodation categories. While the second sourse provides detailed information about the type, name, exact location, comfort degree, dimension, juridical statute, the registration number and the release and end data of the classification certificate of the accommodation units (Tofan & Niţă, 2014).

**THE EVOLUTION OF THE TOURISM FACILITY CAPACITY AFTER 1990**

The analysis for the extreme years taken into consideration (1990 and 2014) showed that the evolution of the tourism facility capacity oscilleted with different rates during the last quarter of a century, both as number of places and as repartition on accommodation categories (Ciangă, 2006).

In 1990 the accommodation facility in Maramureş County was insufficient represented to meet the demands of the intense and varied tourism circulation (Ciangă, 1997), summing only 35 accommodation units with a total of 3 281 beds, concentrated in *hotels* (15 units, 42,86%) with 1 718 beds (52,36%), *tourist chalets/lodges* (13 units, 37,15%) with 519 beds (15,81%), *villas* (5 units, 14,28%) with 444 beds (13,53%) and 2 *school camps* (5,71%) with 505 beds (15,40%) (Figure 1).

In the following years the number of accommodation units registred a fluctuating evolution, so that in 1999 we note a maxim of 114 accommodation units with a total capacity of 3 342 beds. The drastic decrease of the accommodation units (comparative with 1994 when there were registered a number of 44 units with 3 849 places) is due to the complet removal from the tourist circuit of the *school camps*. The reason for removing the school camps from the tourist circuit was the low comfort of some of this units.

The highest number of accommodation units was registered in 2010 (191) as a consequence of capital infusion in tourism activity through the EU financing programs, especially in the rural areas of the county (Niţă et al., 2013) and the highest number of beds was registered in 2013 (4 805). Thus, in the last 24 years we witness an increase in all the categories of accommodation units, so that in 2014 there were registered 168 accommodation units (Figure 2) (which represents 24,85% of the existing accommodation units in the North-West Region and 16,00% of its total number of beds) characterized through a higher tourism facility increased by 1 355 beds compared to 1990, namely a positive dynamic of 41,30%.

[2]Ghidul oficial „Cele mai frumoase sate din România", 2014

Since 1990 until 2014 Baia Mare city remains the most complex accommodation facility in Maramureș County, registering 14 accommodation units (40.00% of the ones in the county) with 1 521 beds (46,35% of the ones in the county) in 1990 and 37 accommodation units (22,02% of the ones in the county) with 1 796 beds (38,74% of the ones in the county) in 2014.

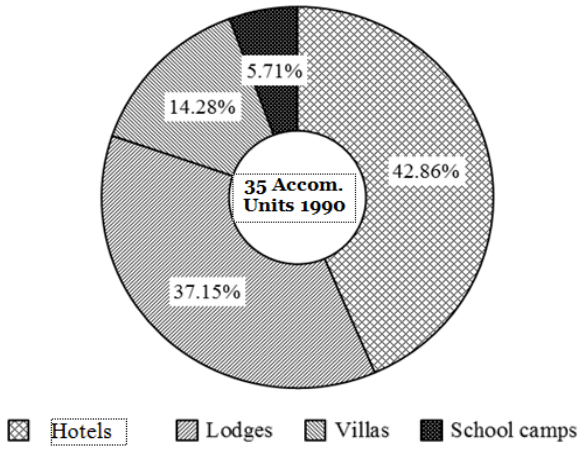


**Figure 1**. The percentage of accommodation units in Maramureș County in 1990
(Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database)

In 2014 we notice the same trend as in the 90s regarding the distribution of the accommodation units in the territory:

- the northen part of Maramureș County is represented by Sighetu Marmației city with 520 beds and Ocna Șugatag Balnear Resort with 292 beds;
- the western part is represented by Baia Sprie city with 221 beds;
- the central part, near Gutâi Mountains is reprezented by Cavnic city with 144 beds;
- the eastern part is reprezented by Borșa Climateric Resort with 346 beds and Vișeu de Sus city with 161 beds.

To all these, the accommodation units from Maramureș County are supplemented by other units with a smaller capacity, scattered along the major roads in: Botiza (102 beds), Bârsana (91 beds), Vadu Izei (87 beds), Recea (75 beds), Moisei (73 beds), Poienile Izei (69 beds), Şişeşti (68 beds), Săcălăşeni (67 beds), Deseşti (58 beds), Şomcuta Mare (57 beds) etc., or by units with a capacity under 50 beds located in Târgu Lăpuş, Onceşti, Săcel, Sălištea de Sus, Valea Chioarului, Budeşti, etc.

According to 2014 statistical data, on accommodation categories, in Maramureș County the situation is as follows (Figure 3):

-the *agroturist pension* category represents 42,26% of the total of the accommodation units and 22,70% of the total of accommodation places;

- *tourist pension* category 34,52% and 22,06%;
- *hotel* category 12,50% and 37,27%;
- *motel* category 3,57% and 4,07%;
- *tourist hostel* category 2,97% and 4,14%;
- *tourist villa* category 1,78% and 2,13%;
- *school camps* category 1,20% and 6,70%;
- *tourist chalets* category 1,20% and 0,90%.

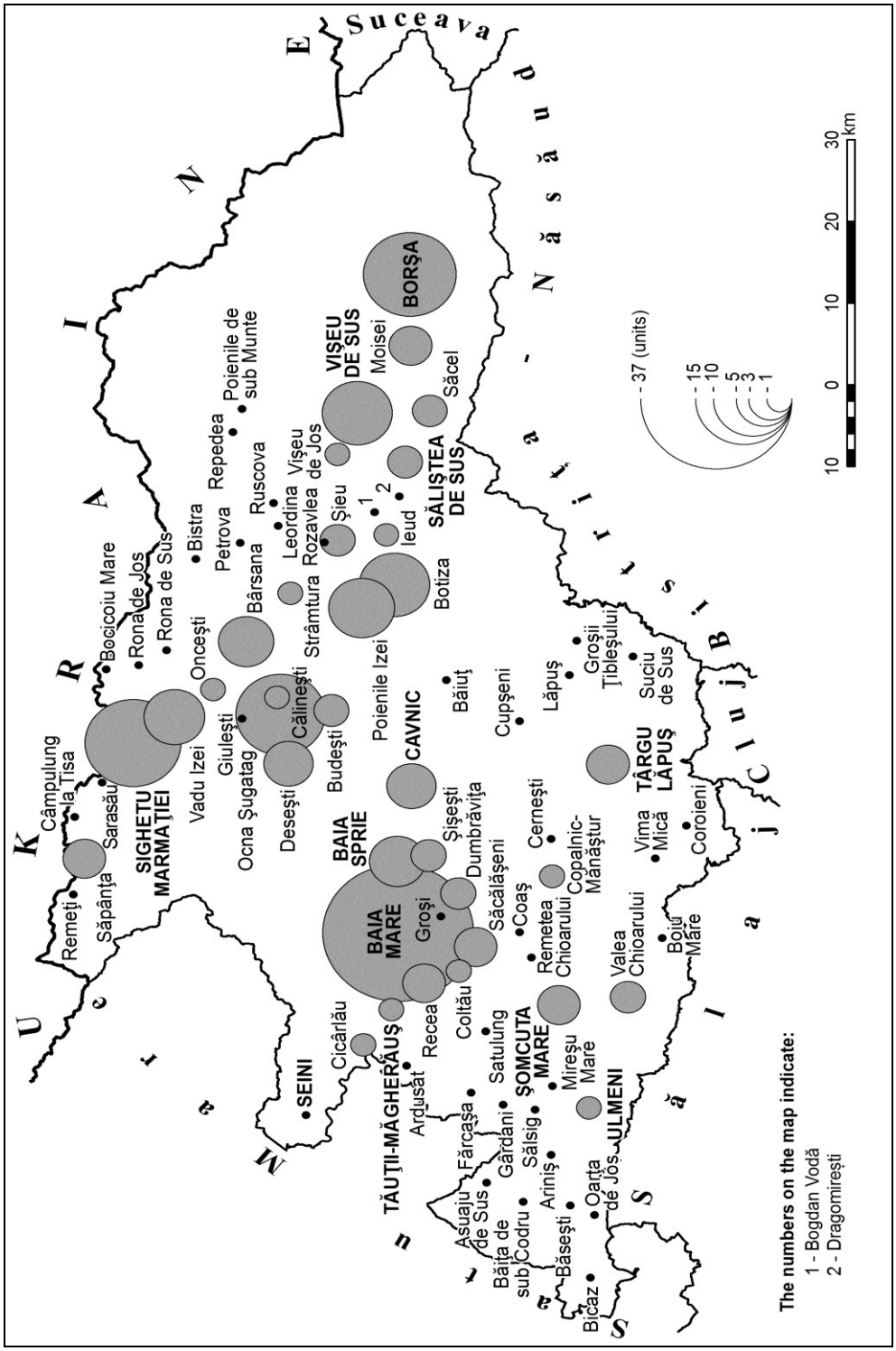


**Figure. 2.** The number of the accommodation units in Maramureş County in 2014
(Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database)

**THE FEATURES OF THE MAIN ACCOMODATION CATEGORIES IN MARAMUREŞ COUNTY**

The accommodation facility in Maramureş County consists of various categories, which can be grouped in main accommodation categories such as: hotels, tourist hostels, motels, tourist villas, tourist chalets, school champs, tourist pensions and agroturist pensions.

In Maramureş Country we can observe an increase of the number of **hotels** from 15 units in 1990 to 21 units in 2014, concomitant with a increase of the number of beds (from 1 718 beds in 1990 to 1 728 beds in 2014).

Nowadays most of the hotels from the studied region are included in the 3 stars category (15 units), 2 stars category (6 units), 4 stars category (2 units) and 1 star category (1 unit). As *size* more than half of the units (13) fall into the middle sized category (50-200 beds), followed by the smaller category (10 units) and the larger category (200-500 beds) represented by 1 unit.

As *territorial distribution*, the hotels are concentrated either in:

-municipalities such as Baia Mare (*Mara* 121 rooms and 230 beds; *Carpaţi* 96 rooms and 145 beds; *Rivulus* 60 rooms and 114 beds; *Europa* 37 rooms and 71 beds; *Maramureş* 33 rooms and 66 beds; *Lostriţa* 24 rooms and 50 beds; *Ambasador* 22 rooms and 43 beds; *Diafan* 11 rooms and 21 beds etc.) or Sighetu Marmaţiei (*Grădina Morii* 49 rooms and 92 beds; *Coroana* 43 rooms and 90 beds etc.);

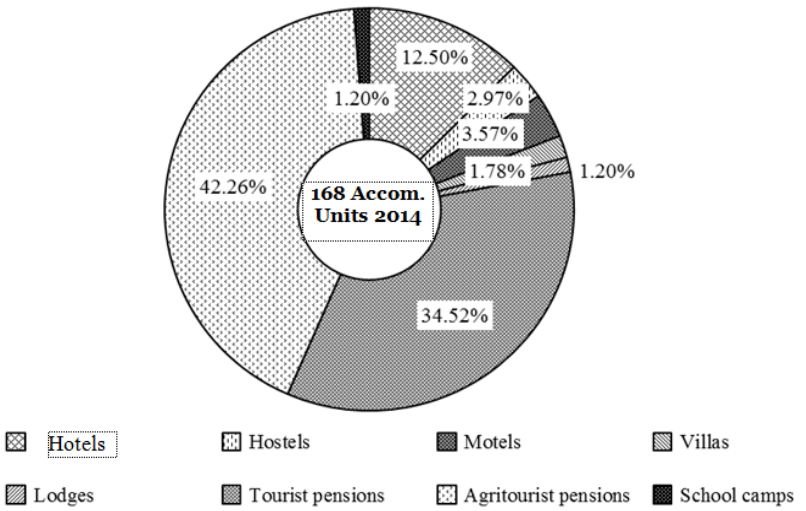


**Figure 3.** The percentage of accommodation units in Maramureş County in 2014
(Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database)

-tourist resorts like Baia Sprie (*Montan*a 10 rooms and 18 beds), Borşa (*Cerbul* 27 rooms and 54 beds; *Victoria* 21 rooms and 42 beds; *Păltiniş* 19 rooms and 38 beds); Vişeul de Sus (*Brad* 11 rooms and 18 beds; *Gabriela* 28 rooms and 50 beds); Cavnic (*Roata* 28 rooms and 61 beds; *Superski* 23 rooms and 46 beds); Ocna Şugatag (*Crăiasa* 75 rooms and 173 beds; *Salina* 38 rooms and 76 beds; *Eurosind* 24 rooms and 48 beds; *Will's* 24 rooms and 36 beds);

-rural localities such as Recea (*Romaniţa* 31 rooms and 62 beds) şi Şişeşti (*Secret Garden* 24 rooms şi 48 beds) situated in the proximity of Baia Mare and Baia Sprie (Figure 4).

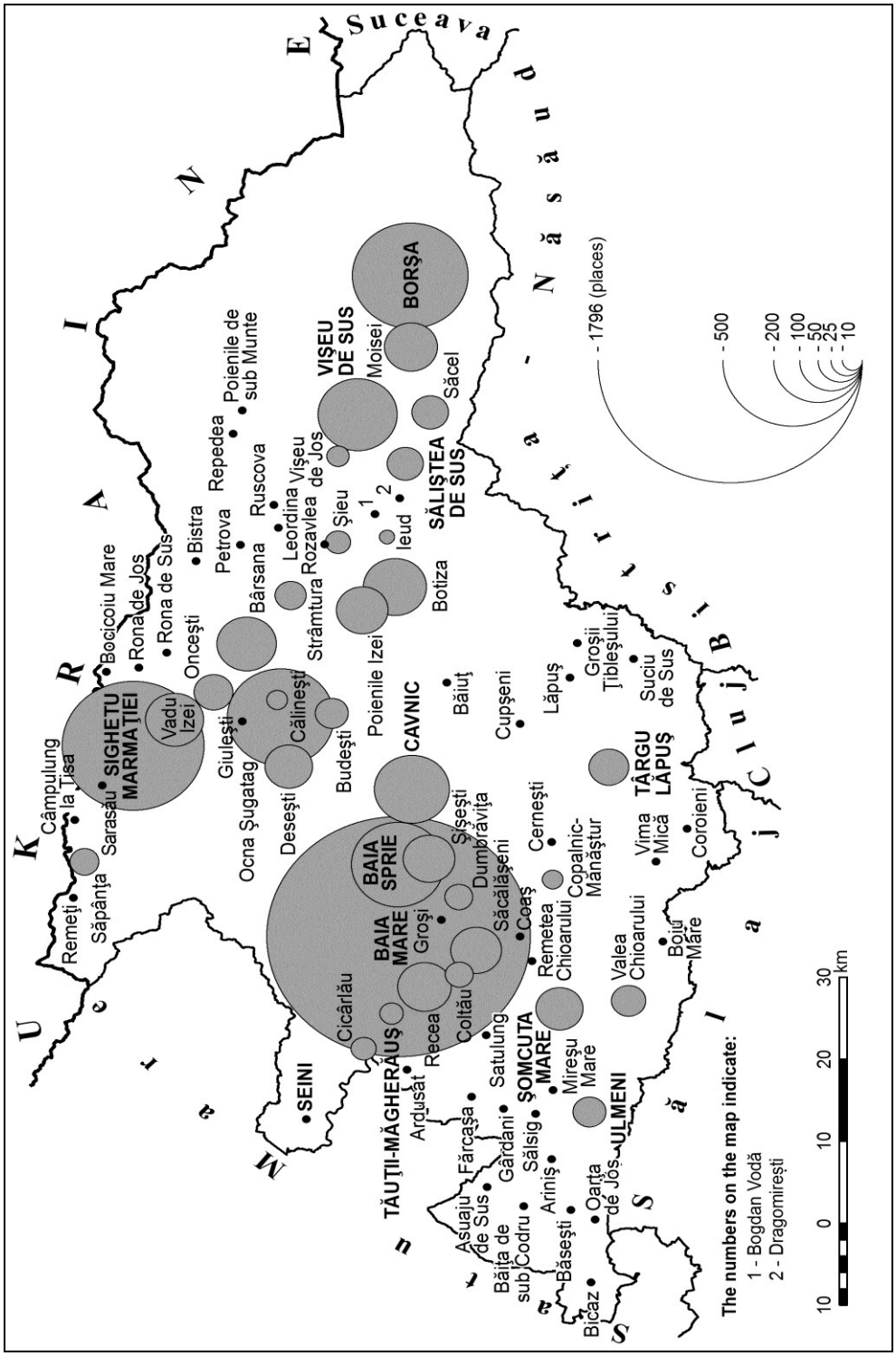


**Figure 4.** The number of beds in the accommodation units in Maramureş County in 2014
(Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database)

The **hostels** in Maramureş County are present since 2005, in that year they had a capacity of 25 beds, nowadays a capacity of 192 beds. All the units are located in urban areas: Baia Mare (*Casa Blanca* 8 rooms and 16 beds; *Centrul de agrement Mara* 38 rooms and 203 beds; *Crenguţa* 16 rooms and 32 beds; *Gran Gala Il Padrino* 11 rooms and 23 beds; *Hora* 14 rooms and 18 beds), Sighetu Marmaţiei (*Ancuţa* 13 rooms and 47 beds; *Iza* 6 rooms and 24 beds), Lăpuş (*Lăpuşul* 11 room and 22 beds) and Mânău (component of Ulmeni) (*La Conac* 4 rooms and 31 beds). Regarding the confort category, 5 of them are included in the 2 star category, 1 in the 3 star category and 1 in the 1 star category.

The **motels** in Maramureş County are located along the main roads near the urban centers of Baia Mare (*Centru* 26 beds; *Crista'l* 16 beds), Sighetu Marmaţiei (*Buti* 44 beds; *Siesta* 28 beds; *Perla Sigheteană* 22 beds; *Casa Tiple* 20 beds), Baia Sprie (*Cerna* 16 beds), Borşa (*Rodna* 42 beds) etc. and Săcălăşeni commune (*Moara Veche* 64 beds). The most motels are classified in the 3 stars category comfort and the others in the 2 stars category. The number of **villas** in the region has always been very low, for example in 1990 there were 5 units with 444 beds, and in 2014, 3 units with 99 beds (Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database). Regarding the last situation (the data from 2014) the National Authority for Tourism declares a number of 5 villas concentrated in the following localities: Bârsana (*Bârsana* 42 beds, 3 stars); Dumbrăviţa, satul Cărbunari (*Roseta* 10 beds, 3 stars); Ocna Sugatag (*Dalia* 6 beds, 3 stars); Săpânţa (*Perla Săpânţeană* 12 beds, 3 stars) and Sighetu Marmaţiei (*Ardealul* 28 beds, 2 stars).

Regarding the **tourist chalets**, in 1990 the accommodation facility was provided by 13 accommodation units with 444 beds, and in 2014 the number drastically decreased to 2 units with 42 beds. The same as in the previous case the datas provided by the National Authority for Tourism declares a number of 11 accommodation units with 216 beds. Included in the 3 stars category of comfort the tourist can access the following units: *Gutâi* (10 beds) situated in Baia Mare; *Mogoşa* (65 beds), *Pietrosu* (10 beds) and *Ţibleş* (10 beds) situated in Baia Sprie; *Ursu* (15 beds) situated in Borşa; *Filip* (27 beds), *Superski I şi II* (4 and 3 beds) situated in Cavnic; *Iza* (12 beds) situated in Bârsana; *Brazi II* (32 beds) situated in Deseşti and *Stana* (28 beds) situated in Ocna Şugatag resort. Among the **forestry hunting chalets** built and arranged by the forestry district, according to www.marasilva.ro these are situated in *Roata, Poiana, Vâlcele, Baicu, Minghet, Ţibleş, Fântâna, Făina, Coşnea, Asuaj, Ocna Şugatag, Apa Sărată*, etc. The **school camps** registered the same decreasing trend, their capacity diminished by 38,41%. The main reason was that some of them were not functional. Nowadays just *Stibina* and *Mara* school camps are functional, but the National Authority for Tourism classified them in the hostel category.

In Maramureş County the **tourist pensions** are recorded in data since 2000, when there were registered 7 units with 55 beds. In 2014 their number reached 58 units (representing 34,52% of the ones in the county) with 1 023 beds (representing 22,06% of the ones in the county). The most of the tourist pensions are classified as 2 and 3 stars comfort units, and they are concentrated in Baia Mare, Borşa, Botiza and Ocna Şugatag resort (Figure 5).

According to the datas provided by the National Institute of Statistics, the **agrotourist pensions** has registered the biggest expansion, from 22 units (33,33% of the ones in the county) with 164 beds (4,82% of the ones in the county) in 2000, to 71 units (42,26% of the ones in the county) with 1 052 beds (22,70% of the ones in the county) in 2014. The most of them are concentrated in Ocna Şugatag resort, Botiza, Poienile Izei, Vadu Izei, Moisei, etc.

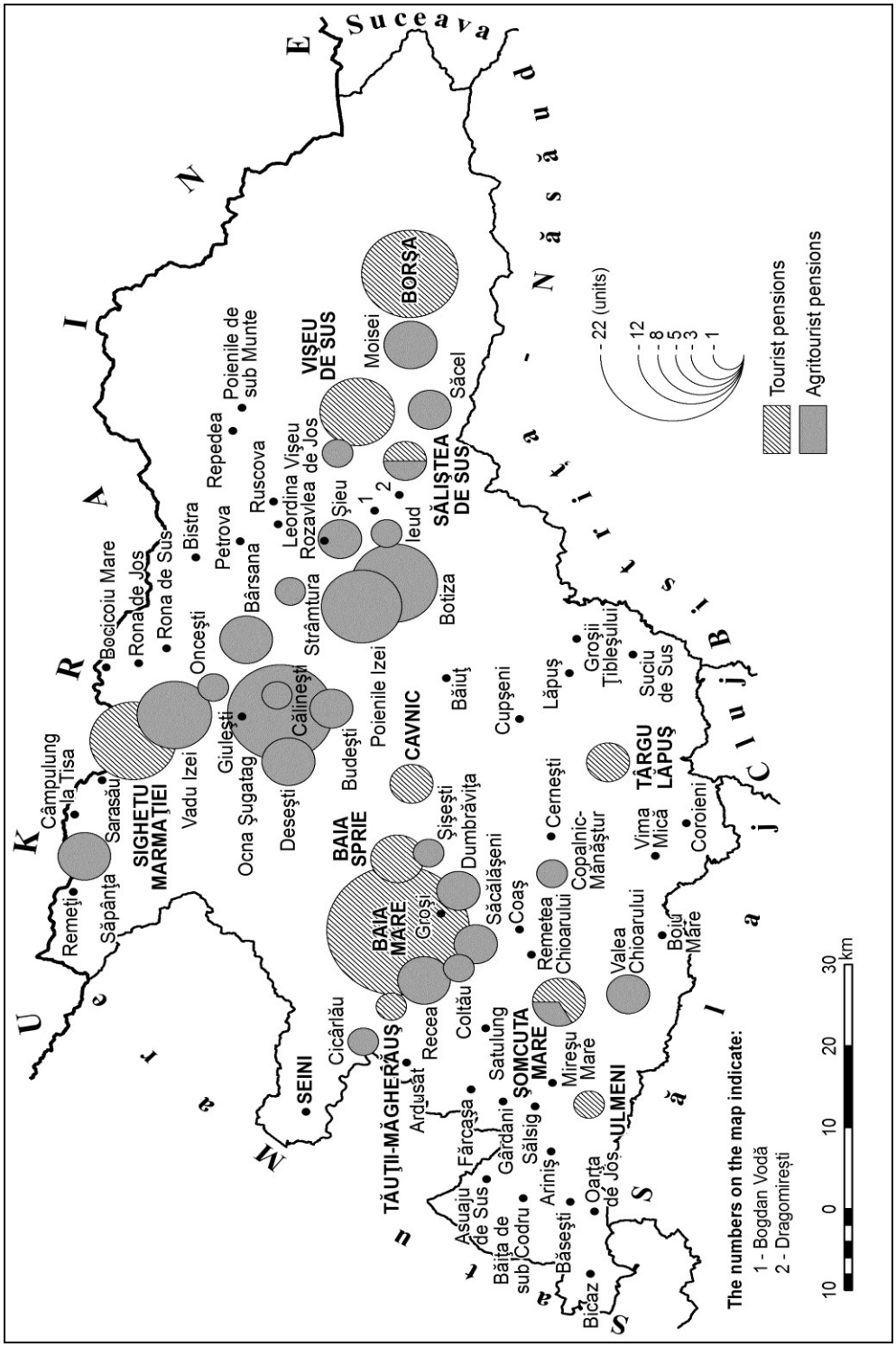


**Figure 5.** The number of tourist pensions and agrotourist pensions in Maramureş County in 2014
(Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics through TEMPO-Online database)

According to the same source cited above, we identify some complementary forms of accommodation units such as:

-*campings* are recorded in data just in the interval 1992-1998, when there were registered only a few dozen of beds (the maximum number being registered in 1994-1996 – 52 beds). According to the data provided by the National Authority for Tourism in 2014 this category of accommodation exists in Sighetu Marmaţiei (Iza, 44 beds), Ocna Şugatag (Babou Maramureş and Salzburg with 40 beads each) and Săpânţa (Poieni, 60 beds);

-*cottages* that are found in Bârsana (Bradova, 10 beds), Borşa (*Titi*, 20 beds), Moisei (*Călina*, 8 beds), Ocna Şugatag (*Manolo*, 12 beds), Poienile Izei (*Domniţa*, 10 beds) and Săpânţa (*Poieni*, 8 beds);

-*tourist stops* such of those found in Budeşti (*Fogădău*, 24 beds) and Groşi (*Poieniţa*, 16 beds).

## CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the main accommodation facility in Maramureş County in the last quarter of a century leads to outline several conclusions:

- although we are witnessing the increase of the number of accommodation units (from 35 to 168), we observe the decrease of the number of beds (4 636 locuri), due to the rise of the small tourist categories of establishments such as tourist pensions and agrotourist pensions. In the county these categories are not evenly distributed among the rural areal and the urban area;

- both in 1990 and 2014 the most of the accommodation units were concentrated in urban localities such as Baia Mare, Sighetu Marmaţiei, Borşa and Vişeu de Sus. The most complex accommodation facility from the rural area is represented by Ocna Şugatag resort, with 13 units (7,73% of the ones in the county) and with 292 beds (6,30% of the ones in the county) in 2014;

- the complex of factors determine an estimated tourist circulation of 191 843 nights of accommodation made by 109 083 tourists, with an average stay of 1,7 nights and an occupancy rate of 1 713 831 beds-days. All this resulted of the mix of balnear tourism, mountain tourism, winter tourism and itinerant tourism (Ciangă, 1997);

- the other remark of a great importance is the one of the inconsistencies between the official datas regarding the exact number of accommodation units and the number of beds. This situation make the analysis harder and can become inaccurate with the reality from the territory.

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# ASSESSING TOURISTS' SATISFACTION WITH THEIR SHOPPING EXPERIENCE IN ISTANBUL

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**Abstract:** Even though it is rarely the main motivator for travel, shopping is a very important activity once tourists have arrived at the destination. Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, this study has investigated whether or not tourists visiting Istanbul were satisfied with their shopping experience. We found that the great majority of them had indeed had an excellent or good shopping experience. With the exception of gender and "shopping as a secondary motivation to travel", demographic, travel, and motivation attributes were not found to determine statistically significant differences in shopping satisfaction levels. Most of the complaints referred to the behavior of the salespersons, considered to be too aggressive and, sometimes, dishonest, price variations and the culture of bargaining, the low quality and lack of originality of some products and the lack of variety in Turkish shops. Tourism planners could act to eliminate or, at least minimize, the main shortcomings to a satisfactory shopping experience as evidenced by tourists in our interviews while marketers could use the results to better target their customers.

**Key words:** shopping tourism, shopping satisfaction, Istanbul, Turkey

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## INTRODUCTION

Shopping has been part of the tourism experience from its earliest forms (Coles, 2004). Even in communist systems shopping played an important role in attracting tourists and in keeping them happy with a destination (Svab, 2002). We can safely say that shopping is one of the most important motivators for tourism (Timothy, 2005) and, in popular shopping destinations (such as Hong Kong), shopping may even be the main motivator for tourism (Mak et al., 1999; Lehto et al., 2004). Previous studies have highlighted the importance of shopping tourism in income generation, provision of foreign currency, destination attractiveness and tourist motivation (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991, Moscardo, 2004, Oh et al., 2004, Timothy, 2005, Egresi & Kara, 2015).

Moreover, attractive shopping areas, offering good tourist shopping experiences, could also be used in tourism marketing, to build a favorable image of the tourist

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destination (Tosun et al., 2007; Heung & Qu, 1998). In this sense, Kozak & Rimmington (2000) argued that satisfaction plays an important role in planning marketable tourism products and services. If tourists enjoy their shopping experience we could conclude that they will be satisfied (Dholakia, 1999) and satisfied customers will continue to consume those products and services in the future (Heung & Cheng, 2000). Indeed, it is hoped that satisfied tourists will sometime return and spend even more on shopping (Huang & Hsu, 2009). The practical conclusion is that shopping has an important contribution to the development of tourism in an area; therefore, creating ample shopping opportunities could entice tourists and make them stay longer and spend more (Murphy et al., 2011; Egresi & Kara, 2015).

This study attempts to assess satisfaction with shopping experiences of tourists visiting Istanbul, the largest city and the economic capital of Turkey. With more than 100 modern shopping centers (malls) and numerous traditional markets (bazaars), Istanbul has a very active commercial life (Egresi, 2015). While the city concentrates only 15% of Turkey's population, it has 34% of its shopping malls (Ertekin et al., 2008). This amazing retail growth is explained not only by the existence of a huge market of more than 14 million people (making Istanbul the largest city in Europe and in the Middle East) but also by the growing purchasing power of the population (Dokmeci & Berkoz, 1994) and the increasing number of tourists who visit the city not only for its numerous historical and cultural attractions but also for its shopping opportunities (Egresi, 2015). Situated in a strategic location between Europe and Asia, on the traditional international trade routes, the city was visited by over 11 million international overnight tourists in 2014 (7$^{th}$ rank in the world) who spent a total of almost 9 billion dollars (Anonymous, 2015).

In this study we wanted to understand to what degree tourists were satisfied with their shopping experience in Istanbul. We divided tourists into three groups based on their shopping experience (excellent, good and bad) and, using the Kruskal-Wallis test, we tested for statistically significant differences among the three groups. Moreover, using qualitative methods we analyzed the responses to two-open ended questions in our survey. The results of this study should have a number of practical implications. Tourism planners could act to eliminate or, at least minimize, the main shortcomings to a satisfactory shopping experience as evidenced by tourists in our interviews while marketers could use the results to better target their customers.

We will proceed next with a comprehensive review of the extant literature on shopping tourism, with a special focus on tourism satisfaction. Then, after a detailed description of the methods used, we will elaborate on our findings. Next, the results will be discussed and contextualized. The article will end with the concluding remarks.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

There are several types of shopping while traveling (Timothy, 2005). However, while tourists may do some utility shopping (for example when forced to buy new swimwear because they left the old ones home) most of the time shopping while traveling is perceived as entertainment and recreation (Jones, 1999; Bar-Kolelis & Wiskulski, 2012; Tömöri, 2010) as well as a social phenomenon and a cultural experience in which case it is not just the quality and price of the product or service that is important but also interaction with salespeople and fellow shoppers, as well as the venue (Tosun et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2011). Also, not everyone enjoys shopping; some do it out of necessity to fulfill personal and familial needs. For others, however, shopping could be "a fun, entertaining, or leisure activity from which hedonic or ludic pleasures can be realized" (Timothy, 2005: 12). The tourist shopping experience is derived from how tourists perceive their shopping experience compared to their expectations (Wong & Wan, 2013). It is based on a mixture of perception of products,

services and places (Murphy et al., 2011; Reisinger & Turner, 2001; Wong & Law, 2003). If the experience meets or exceeds the expectations they are satisfied, if not they are dissatisfied (Wong & Wan, 2013; Wong & Law, 2003). There are different factors that influence tourists shopping perception and satisfaction of shopping experience. Some of these factors are related to the characteristics of the place visited (including shopping venue, quality, variety and price of merchandise, service, and overall interaction as well as other attributes of the place not related directly to shopping) (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Wong & Law, 2003) and others to the tourists background (country of origin, ethnicity, religion, etc.) (Tosun et al., 2007; Turner & Reisinger, 2001).

Heung and Cheng (2000) when measuring tourist satisfaction with shopping in Hong Kong identified four dimensions of shopping satisfaction: tangible quality, service quality, product value and product reliability. Of these, the study showed that staff service quality is the most important in determining tourists' satisfaction level.

In a somewhat similar fashion Wong & Wan (2013) found that shopping satisfaction is based on:

1. Satisfaction with the merchandise value
2. Satisfaction with service product and environment
3. Satisfaction with staff service quality
4. Satisfaction with service differentiation.

In the Turkish region of Cappadocia, Tosun et al., (2007) examined tourists' satisfaction with local shopping experience. They gauged tourists' perception on the following attributes: local shopping culture, staff service quality, product value and reliability, physical features of shops, payment methods as well as a number of other shopping and shop attributes. They found that the majority of the respondents (64%) had a positive shopping experience. However, there were also critical views. More than 45% of the respondents were of the opinion that the area was overcommercialized and more than half (51%) believed that the sales staff was too aggressive when looking for customers and almost half disliked bargaining (in spite of its cultural significance).

This brings up two important issues. Firstly, tourists are interested in authentic local products, this being one of the most important factors for shopping tourism (Murphy et al., 2011). Because shopping while traveling is not only a leisure activity but also a way to experience local culture, it is important for visitors to have access to locally made handicrafts and souvenirs that genuinely represent local culture (Tosun et al., 2007). For example, a study examining tourists' satisfaction with the Victoria Market in Auckland, New Zealand, found that only four respondents out of the 25 were entirely satisfied. The majority had some critical opinion mainly related to perceived authenticity (Kikuchi & Ryan, 2007). Also, Le Hew and Wesley (2007) found that local shoppers were more satisfied with their shopping experiences at regional malls in the USA and Canada than tourist shoppers. Malls carry mainly global brands and are the very images of globalization. It is very unlikely that tourist shoppers will find authentic local products in a mall.

Secondary, Reisinger & Waryszak (1994) argued that the interaction between customers and salespeople is very important for determining satisfaction (also in Heung & Cheng, 2000; Yuksel, 2004; Yuksel, 2007; Choi et al., 2008). For shopping satisfaction, service of retailers could actually be more important than product attributes (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002) or price (Hui et al., 2007). A study by Chang et al. (2006) also argued that, besides the quality of products, the quality of service tourists receive in the process of shopping is also important in determining satisfaction for Taiwanese tourists. Attitudes and behavior of shopkeepers or salespersons are paramount for the satisfaction of tourist shoppers. Jones (1999) and Wang (2004) also confirmed that salespeople who cheat or insist too much can ruin tourists' shopping satisfaction.

Yuksel (2007) has argued that the goal of tourist shopping is not necessarily buying something but rather the excitement associated with the process. Therefore, location, convenience and size of the shopping area (Le Hew & Wesley, 2007; Yuksel, 2007) as well as the quality, attractiveness and safety of the shopping environment (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007) are very important for attracting tourists. Yuksel (2007) found that a pleasing shopping environment will influence the tourist shoppers' enjoyment of shopping, will determine them to spend more time and money and return with another occasion. Consequently, creation of an attractive shopping environment could be paramount in the planning of shopping destinations (Yuksel, 2004; Murphy et al., 2011). Yuksel (2007: 59) call this shopping environment the tourist shopping habitat (TSH), an area with a mix of retailers which unlike modern shopping are characterized by "atmospheric inconsistency", a term by which the author understands an unstructured environment in which "colors, scent and noises from different and often small shops are intermingled". This could eventually create a unique and appealing attraction for shopping and experiencing local culture (Hsieh & Chang, 2006). When all these conditions are right, Murphy et al. (2011) found that even tourists who are normally opposed to leisure shopping could be satisfied with their shopping experience.

Snepenger et al., (2003) and others (Choi & Chu, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Jansen-Verbeke, 1987; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Tayfun & Arslan, 2013; Michalko & Ratz, 2006) have argued that satisfaction is function of tourist expectations which then are related to personal and group attributes (based on ethnicity, religion, gender, age, stage in the family lifecycle, etc.). For example, in one study, male tourists reported higher satisfaction levels with their shopping experiences than females (Xu & McGehee, 2012).

Ethnicity could also be an important differentiating factor (Pizam & Sussman, 1995). For example, Mak et al., (1999) has reported that the shopping behavior of Japanese tourists is different not only from that of Western tourists but also from that of other Asian tourist groups. One dichotomy identified in the literature is between domestic and foreign tourist shoppers. In general, from a cultural standpoint we assume that local shoppers would be more satisfied with their shopping experience because of cultural match. Indeed, as we have mentioned earlier, Le Hew and Wesley (2007) found that local shoppers were more satisfied with their shopping experiences at regional malls in the USA and Canada than tourist shoppers. Other studies, however, found that the opposite was true. For example, Jafari (1987) argued that, when away, tourists behave differently than they would at home. In a shopping tourism context, it could be argued that this tourist culture is more tolerant to the conditions of a new environment than the original culture of the tourists (Tasci & Denizci, 2010). Similarly, Yuksel (2004) noted that domestic tourists are more critical of their shopping experiences than foreign tourists.

In another study made in Hong Kong, Wong & Law (2003) and Hui et al. (2007) found that there was a significant difference between Western and Asian tourists concerning the expectations and satisfaction with the shopping experience. The study found that western tourists were more satisfied with their shopping experience in Hong Kong than Asian tourists. This does not mean that Asian tourist shoppers are more difficult to satisfy as Chinese outbound tourists surveyed in Shanghai generally reported high satisfaction levels (Guo et al., 2008). The explanation may be that when further away from home, tourists tend to be less critical and more positive about shopping. To ensure satisfaction, retailers should adapt their approach when catering to tourists from different parts of the world (Wong & Law, 2003). Other studies (Armstrong et al., 1997; Huang et al., 1996) have shown that tourist motives and satisfaction may vary not only based on nationalities but also on the places visited. In a study measuring the preference of tourists between Hong Kong and Singapore based on their shopping satisfaction, Yeung et al.

(2004) found that Singapore outperforms Hong Kong in many areas such as language ability, attitude and efficiency of service staff. A similar study published by Mak et al. (1999) compared Hong Kong and Singapore in the eyes of Taiwanese visitors. The study found that differences between the two "shopping paradises" were minimal when looking at product and service quality. Hong Kong was reckoned to offer a wider selection of goods but salespeople there were perceived to be less honest than in Singapore.

**METHODS**

The great majority of studies on shopping tourism have relied on quantitative methods and only a very small minority has been based on qualitative methodology (Xu & McGehee, 2012; Baruca & Zolfagharian, 2013; Kikuchi & Ryan, 2007). Both procedures have advantages and disadvantages (Hara, 2008; O'Brien, 1992; Phillimore & Goodson, 2004). For these reasons, in this study we preferred to use a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

The main query instrument was a questionnaire distributed between October and December 2013. The survey was written in English and administered by five research assistants fluent in this language. It was conducted in a number of tourist locations situated on both sides of the Bosphorus such as: the Grand Bazaar, Eminönü, Sultanahmet, Taksim, Galata Square (on the European side) and Üsküdar (on the Asian side). A number of questionnaires were also collected in hotel lobbies as well as on the premises of three major transportation hubs (Atatürk International Airport, Sirkeci train station and Harem bus station).The assistants were instructed to approach each $n^{th}$ person where n was based on the volume of the human traffic in those places. If the persons approached confirmed their tourist status they were asked to spare a few minutes of their time to answer some questions for a tourism study. More than 90% percent of those approached, a total of 417 tourists, agreed to be interviewed.

The first part of the interview was structured and included four sections. The first set of questions was designed to collect information on the demographic profile of the respondents (country of origin, gender, age, education, occupation and income). Because the question related to income is perceived in certain cultures as a very personal one and is therefore considered to be very sensitive and because the tourists interviewed could potentially come from very different economic systems (where income could be expressed as pre-tax or post-tax - with the tax varying between 0% in some Middle Eastern countries and over 60% in some north European countries – and in different currencies) we preferred to ask the respondents to self-evaluate their income within the following categories: excellent, good, satisfactory and not satisfactory.

The second set of questions asked tourists about their trip to Istanbul (means of transportation) and their stay in the city (length of stay, type of accommodation) and the places they have visited or intended to visit. The third set of questions inquired about our respondents' motivation to shop while visiting Istanbul. The results from this set of questions are the subject of another article and will not be discussed here. The last part of the structured questionnaire included questions related to the tourists' satisfaction with their shopping experience in Istanbul.

The responses from the 417 questionnaires were then processed, evaluated and explained using the latest version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). We used descriptive statistics to create the demographic and tourist behavior profile of the respondents and the Kruskal-Wallis H test to test for statistically significant differences in our data sets related to shopping satisfaction. The survey included also two open-ended questions. The first asked respondents to mention some problems they encountered while shopping as tourists in Istanbul. The second asked them to propose solutions that would

make the city more shopping-friendly and more attractive to international tourists. The responses to these two questions were recorded and analyzed using qualitative methods. Based on qualitative content analysis methods (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Burnard et al., 2008; Elo & Kyngas, 2008), the two authors' thoroughly read all the comments to the two questions trying to find common themes. These were then coded using categories and subcategories. While we started from the four categories for shopping satisfaction discussed by Wong & Wan (2013), we kept an open mind for possible new categories. After a second reading, the categories and subcategories used in the coding were revisited, some of these being eliminated in the process while a few new ones were added. The final version resulted from merging the two lists and after a thorough discussion between the two researchers of the resulted categories and subcategories.

## FINDINGS

### Demographic Profile

More than 63% of our respondents were from Europe. The top five countries based on the number of respondents were: 1. Germany (35), 2. UK (31), 3. The Netherlands (30), 4. Italy (20), and 5. Spain (18) (table 1).

**Table 1.** Geographical origin of surveyed tourists

| Region | Total number | Percent of total | Valid Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Europe | 253 | 60.7 | 63.1 |
| Middle East and North Africa | 54 | 12.9 | 13.5 |
| Other Asian countries | 33 | 7.9 | 8.2 |
| Subsaharan Africa | 33 | 7.9 | 8.2 |
| The rest of world (America and Oceania) | 28 | 6.7 | 7.0 |
| No country declared | 16 | 3.84 | |
| Total | 417 | 100 | 100 |

Respondents were almost equally distributed between males (52.9%) and females (47.1%) (table 2) . The majority of our respondents was young (almost 74% under 40 years old and 10.6% under 20) and highly educated, with almost 80% having a university bachelor's degree or higher. They came from all walks of life, with the highest numbers being managers (24.3%) and students (18.2%) (table 2). Our study showed that 51% of our respondents shop regularly (of which half shop often or very often) and less than 20% shop rarely or almost never (table 2).

**Table 2**. Demographic profile of respondents

| Attribute | Freq. | Valid % | Attribute | Freq. | Valid % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Total number of respondents** | 417 | | | | |
| **Gender** | | | **Income level** | | |
| Male | 218 | 52.9 | Very good | 95 | 23.6 |
| Female | 194 | 47.1 | Good | 189 | 46.9 |
| Valid | 412 | | Satisfactory | 85 | 21.1 |
| Missing value | 5 | | Not satisfactory | 34 | 8.4 |
| | | | Missing | 14 | |
| **Age** | | | | | |
| Under 20 years | 44 | 10.6 | **Frequency of shopping** | | |
| 20-39 years | 264 | 63.3 | Very often | 31 | 7.7 |
| 40-59 years | 87 | 20.9 | Often | 70 | 17.4 |
| 60 and older | 22 | 5.3 | Regularly | 104 | 25.8 |
| | | | Rarely | 124 | 30.8 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Education** | | | Very rarely | 56 | 13.9 |
| Post-graduate | 91 | 21.8 | Almost never | 18 | 4.5 |
| University | 240 | 57.6 | Valid total | 403 | 100.0 |
| High school | 65 | 15.6 | Missing | 14 | |
| Less than high school | 21 | 5.0 | | | |
| **Occupation** | | | | | |
| Farmer | 3 | 0.7 | | | |
| Factory worker | 10 | 2.4 | | | |
| Service employee | 18 | 4.4 | | | |
| Education sector | 39 | 9.5 | | | |
| Health care | 27 | 6.6 | | | |
| Management | 100 | 24.3 | | | |
| Housewife | 8 | 1.9 | | | |
| Unemployed | 13 | 3.2 | | | |
| Retired | 13 | 3.2 | | | |
| Student | 75 | 18.2 | | | |
| Other | 105 | 25.5 | | | |
| Total valid | 411 | 100.0 | | | |
| Missing | 6 | | | | |

### Information related to travel and accommodation

More than two-thirds of our respondents have traveled to Istanbul with family and friends, close to 21% have traveled alone and the remaining 11% have arrived to Istanbul with an organized group. Almost 96% have traveled by air with very few using other means of travel. Close to 63% were staying at hotels (mainly 4-5 star hotels), about 20% preferred other forms of accommodation and only 9% were staying with family and friends (table 3). More than two-thirds of all visitors surveyed were first timers and only one-third was repeat visitors, of which about 12% have visited the city many times. Over 72% of the tourists we surveyed had stayed or planned to stay in Istanbul for at least three nights (table 3).

**Table 3**. Travel and accommodation attributes and motivation to travel

| Attribute | Freq. | Valid % | Attribute | Freq. | Valid % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Total number of respondents** | 417 | | | | |
| **Number of persons traveling with respondent** | | | **Previous visits to Istanbul** | | |
| Alone | 87 | 20.9 | Many times | 51 | 12.3 |
| With Friends | 139 | 33.4 | A few times | 37 | 8.9 |
| With family | 145 | 34.9 | One time | 47 | 11.3 |
| With group | 45 | 10.8 | Never | 281 | 67.5 |
| Missing | 1 | | Missing | 1 | |
| **Means of travel** | | | **Length of stay** | | |
| By air | 397 | 95.7 | More than a week | 65 | 15.7 |
| By train | 7 | 1.7 | Between three nights and a week | 235 | 56.6 |
| By bus | 9 | 2.2 | 1-2 nights | 79 | 19.0 |
| By private car | 2 | 0.5 | A few hours | 36 | 8.7 |
| Missing | 2 | | Missing | 2 | |
| **Accommodation** | | | **Primary motivation for traveling** | | |
| Hotel 4-5 stars | 158 | 38.3 | Business | 83 | 19.9 |
| Hotel 1-3 stars | 101 | 24.5 | Pleasure | 275 | 65.9 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Other forms of accommodation | 84 | 20.3 | Visiting family and friends | 29 | 7.0 |
| With family and friends | 37 | 9.0 | Transit | 30 | 7.2 |
| Other | 33 | 8.0 | | | |
| Missing | 4 | | **Pleasure - subcategories** | | |
| | | | Visit historical and cultural sites | 146 | 50.5 |
| | | | Shopping | 27 | 9.3 |
| | | | Experience a new culture | 116 | 40.1 |
| | | | Missing | 2 | |

**Shopping experience**

All in all, our respondents had a good shopping experience in Istanbul as only 2.4% of our respondents complained for having a bad experience. More than 41% rated their experience as excellent while 56% encountered some small problems while shopping so they rated their experience as good (table 4)

**Table 4.** Evaluation of tourists' shopping experience

| Shopping experience | Frequency | Percent | Valid percent | Cumulative percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Excellent | 160 | 38.4 | 41.3 | 41.3 |
| Good | 217 | 52.0 | 56.1 | 97.4 |
| Bad | 10 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 100.0 |
| Valid | 387 | 92.8 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 30 | 7.2 | | |
| Total | 417 | 100.0 | | |

Kruskall-Wallis H test was run to determine if there were differences between the three groups of participants with different shopping satisfaction levels: excellent, good and bad satisfaction level groups. We first visually inspected the boxplots to check if the distribution shapes of the groups were similar. If the distribution was found to be similar for all groups then the median scores were used in the computations. If the distribution shapes were not found to be similar for all groups in the boxplot mean ranks were used instead. When analyzing the differences in shopping satisfaction levels based on demographic characteristics, we found that they were statistically significant only for gender ($X^2(2)=11.103$, $p=0.004$). Female tourist shoppers were more likely to rate their shopping experience as excellent whereas men were more likely to rate their shopping experience as good or bad (table 5). World region of origin ($p=0.688$), age ($p=0.978$), education ($p=0.480$), income ($p=0.202$), and frequency of shopping in home country ($p=0.110$) were not found to determine statistically significant differences in shopping satisfaction levels.

**Table 5.** Gender-based differences in shopping experience

| Gender | Shopping experience – percent total same gender percent total this satisfaction level) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Excellent | Good | Bad | Total |
| Male (n=204) | 33.8 (43.7) | 62.7 (59.3) | 3.43 (77.8) | 100.0 (53.3) |
| Female (n=179) | 49.7 (56.3) | 49.2 (40.7) | 1.1 (22.2) | 100.0 (46.7) |
| Total (n=383) | 41.3 (100.0) | 56.4 (100.0) | 2.3 (100.0) | 100.0 (100.0) |

When we looked at travel characteristics (number of persons traveling in the party, travel means, type of accommodation, number of previous visits to Istanbul, and length of stay) we found that none of these determined statistically significant differences in

shopping satisfaction levels. Similarly, primary motivation to visit Istanbul (p=0.213) was not found to be a reliable predictor for shopping experience rating. However, shopping as a secondary motivator to travel was shown to produce statistically significant differences in tourists' satisfaction with their shopping experiences ($X^2(2)=9.349$, p=0.009) with those for which shopping was a secondary motivator being more likely to have an excellent shopping experience (table 6).

**Table 6.** Differences in shopping experience based on attitudes towards Shopping as a secondary motivator for travel to Istanbul

| Shopping as a secondary motivator to travel to Istanbul | Shopping experience – percent total response (percent total this satisfaction level) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Excellent | Good | Bad | Total |
| No (n=154) | 32.5(31.2) | 63.6 (45.4) | 3.9 (60.0) | 100.0 (39.9) |
| Yes (n=232) | 47.4 (68.8) | 50.9 (54.6) | 1.7 (40.0) | 100.0 (60.1) |
| Total (n=386) | 41.4 (100.0) | 56.0 (100.0) | 2.6 (100.0) | 100.0 (100.0) |

As already mentioned, our questionnaire also included two open-ended questions. The first question asked tourists to discuss the main problems they encountered while shopping in Istanbul. Their responses are synthesized in table 7.

**Table 7.** Main problems with shopping while in Istanbul

| Code categories | Code subcategories | Percent complaints in this category |
|---|---|---|
| Problems with the merchandise value | Low quality products | 9.5 |
| | Fake products | |
| | Expensive products | |
| Problems with service product and environment | The culture of bargaining | 28.8 |
| | Price variations/dual pricing | |
| | Very crowded shopping venues | |
| | Problems with infrastructure | |
| Problems with staff service quality | Aggressive salespersons | 46.3 |
| | Dishonest salespersons | |
| | Salespersons did not speak foreign languages/communication barrier | |
| | Low quality of service | |
| Problems with service differentiation | Too many shops with same or similar goods/lack of variety | 18.4 |
| | Lack of information on shopping centers in Istanbul | |
| | Difficulties with exchanging money | |

The table reveals that more than 46% of all complaints were related to staff service quality. Many tourists felt intimidated by the aggressive behavior of the salespersons. For example, this is how a female tourist from a Western country characterized the behavior of Turkish staff in the shops she visited: *"I don't like their behavior; if I want to know something about the things I want to buy I'm able to ask myself. They should let the customers decide when he or she wants help. Most of the tourists feel disturbed when they come close while saying: 'Yes, please, beautiful lady…' They should stop doing that"*. Another tourist customer explained: *"They keep coming after you when you saw something. It doesn't matter if you want to buy it or not." (young man from the Netherlands.* This behavior may be acceptable at the beginning, perhaps even considered interesting by some tourists. But *"if this happens several times a day it is inconvenient"* (middle-aged male tourist from a

European country). Eventually, this attitude may *"ruin the cultural interaction and cheapen the experience"* (man from the USA with good income). The attitude of many sellers was considered not only aggressive but also rude to the point where when they find out you don't intend to buy anything *"they start to treat you like garbage and with no respect"* (young man from Belgium). Many tourists also complained of the lack of honesty of many salespersons. Sometimes tourists ask for a price only to find out later, when they express their intention to buy, that the product actually costs more (woman from Spain with very good income). Moreover, some have tried to cheat tourists while returning change: *"Shop assistants return less change. For example, a bottle of water costs 5 lira. Gave them 20 lira and they gave 5 lira back"* (woman, 40-59, from the United Arab Emirates). Many respondents have opined that, at least to a certain extent, these problems with staff service could be due to communication barriers as many salespersons do not speak English (or any other foreign language for that matter).

The second major group of problems (28.8% of all complaints) could be labeled as "problems with service product and environment". One major issue for foreign tourists is that *"You don't know the price of the products: the same thing has really different prices being the same quality"* (woman, 20-39 years, from Argentina). This is confusing for many tourists because, as one respondent put it: *"It is not easy to know if the vendor is multiplying prices or giving the real prices. Sometimes tired to discuss over price"* (man, 20-39 years, from Argentina). Many tourists resent the fact that prices are not fixed because they *"do not know how to bargain which is a necessity when shopping in Istanbul especially if one wants to get a good deal"* (tourist from Germany). Without bargaining, prices in Istanbul could be quite high, to the point where the same products could be *"cheaper in Turkish shops in Belgium"* (middle-aged female tourist from Belgium). Prices that are not fixed create distrust among the tourists as they are not sure whether they are getting a good deal or are being cheated. Many believe they are paying more because they are foreigners: *"I feel like I am expected to pay triple price because of the color of my skin. While bargaining, many shopkeepers will not even sell me things at a normal or above normal price" (*woman from Greece, 20-39 years*)*.

A number of tourists have also complained of the crowds that characterize many Turkish retail centers (modern or traditional) which could make the shopping experience quite uncomfortable especially for Western tourists. The situation is exacerbated by infrastructural problems that make it more difficult for tourists to find the shopping centers or to get there. Also, tourists were displeased to see that many shopping areas were filled with tourists as they were looking for places with a more local feel.

Some tourists have found that information about shopping opportunities and shopping centers in Istanbul was limited. Others have reported problems with exchanging money or dealing with taxi drivers. Many tourists have complained about lack of diversity in Turkish shops as most were selling the same range of products.

Finally, almost 10% of our respondents complained about the low quality or value of some products on sale. For example, this is the shopping experience one respondent shared with us: *I bought a leather jacket and it wasn't very good quality. I was very disappointed* (woman, 40-59, with university degree, from Germany). Another observation related to the products on sale was that, while many products had the logos of famous brands, these were fake which concerned our respondents because they were generally of low quality and because they "*violated industrial rights*" (man, 20-39 years of age, with university degree, from Czechia). Moreover, there were relatively few products that tourists could buy as souvenirs or to offer as gifts to their friends and relatives at home. Most of the products that were sold as souvenirs were actually not representative for the Turkish culture and/or were not made locally (most were made in China).

## CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has attempted to gauge international tourists' level of satisfaction with their shopping experience in Istanbul, the largest city not only in Turkey but also in Europe and the Middle East. The results highlight a number of important issues.

We found that the great majority of the tourists had a good shopping experience in Istanbul, only 2.4% rating their shopping experience as bad. This has also been very clearly evidenced in our respondents' answers to our second open-ended question (see table 8). Almost 28% of all the tourists we interviewed argued that, although retail may be different in Turkey than in their country of origin, this is part of Turkey's cultural attractions so nothing should be changed.

**Table 8.** Solutions suggested by respondents to improve tourists' shopping satisfaction

| Code categories | Code subcategories | Percent in this category |
|---|---|---|
| Improve merchandise value | Increase authenticity | 8.1 |
| | More local products | |
| | More souvenirs | |
| Improve service product and environment | Price regulation | 36.5 |
| | Mark prices on products | |
| | Improve service quality | |
| | Improve infrastructure | |
| | Put more signs in English | |
| Improve staff service quality | Hire more polite and more honest salespersons or train them in this direction | 21.8 |
| | Hire shop assistants with good language skills | |
| Improve service differentiation | Better marketing/advertising | 5.6 |
| | Reduce the number of shops | |
| Don't change anything/keep it as it is | | 27.9 |

Unlike previous research we found that only gender influenced significantly tourists' level of shopping satisfaction, women being more likely than men to have an excellent shopping experience (consistent with previous findings by Tayfun and Arslan, 2013 but contrary to the findings of Xu & McGehee, 2012). Other demographic and travel attributes were shown to play an insignificant role as predictors for tourists' shopping satisfaction. This contradicts previous studies that found that, at least, some of these attributes could determine statistically significant differences in shopping satisfaction (Jansen-Verbeke, 1987; Turner & Reisinger, 2001).

Most surprising finding was that tourists' region of origin did not matter significantly in determining shopping satisfaction. Based on our literature review (Tosun et al., 2007; Yuksel, 2004; Kikuchi & Ryan, 2007; Barutçu et al., 2011, among many others), we were expecting to see significant differences in how Western tourists and tourists from the Middle East, Asia and Africa rate their shopping experiences, yet our results could not substantiate such claim. However, our study is different from other studies in the sense that it included tourists' satisfaction with both traditional and modern forms of retail in Istanbul which may have caused a dillution of cultural differences. It may be interesting to replicate this study in regards with traditional forms of retail (bazaars) exclusively and see if the results would turn out to be different.

Based on our findings, we have to agree that demographic and travel attributes are not significant predictors for shopping satisfaction. This may lead us to the conclusion that authorities and retailers do not need to engage in differential marketing except to

take into account the lower shopping satisfaction levels for male tourists compared to female tourists. As a matter of fact, the gender-based difference in shopping satisfaction found by this study should be an invitation to more detailed research into this issue. How can we explain this discrepancy? It may simply be because, men, in general, are less likely than women to find pleasure in shopping? However, as previous research has shown, when traveling people behave differently than when in their home environment. Many tourists who consider themselves "necessity shoppers" at home enjoy shopping when visiting other places. Due to this, we consider that further research is needed to understand why male tourists are less confortable with shopping in Istanbul. May it be because the range of products, their presentation, the service, the general atmosphere, etc., is more geared towards pleasing women tourist shoppers? If this is the case, perhaps, by changing some of these shopping attributes to make them more attractive to male tourist shoppers, these tourists would rate their shopping satisfaction higher which would, in turn, result in higher rates of tourist return and higher profits for the retailers.

When we look at the foreign tourists' recommendations to improve the shopping environment in Istanbul we see that more than 36% of them are concerned with the problem of pricing and bargaining. This is confirming previous findings (Timothy & Butler, 1995; Hobson, 2000; Heung & Cheng, 2000) that price differentials is an important motivator for tourist shopping. On the other hand, we should point out that these recommendations take issue with the un-fixed prices and the culture of bargaining which seems to dominate retailing in Istanbul's traditional markets. Here we agree with Tosun et al., (2007) and Barutçu et al., (2011) that, although tourists perceive bargaining as a cultural characteristic of the region, not having an indication of what the real price should be makes the game less fun and tourists end-up losing trust in the sales staff. We believe that local authorities together with the administration of the major retail centers should publish a "guide to bargaining" in all the major foreign languages and offer it to international tourists. This would help tourists better understand the art of bargaining and make them more willing to join the game. Tourists should also be advised on alternative shopping places offering approximately the same range of products but at fixed prices. This way tourists can make their own choice: if they want to experience the culture of bargaining they can shop at certain traditional markets and if they'd rather not do that they have the choice of alternative markets with fixed prices and western retailing practices.

The third category of recommendations (almost 22% of all recommendations) are targeting better service and staff education. In the previous section we have seen that one of the most vehement criticisms was of the salespersons who were perceived by our tourist respondents as agressive and even rude for following them around the store and for being very persistent (same findings also in Barutçu et al., 2011; Yuksel, 2004). This, in the opinion of our respondents was bad customer service. However, different cultures value good customer service in different ways (Yuksel, 2004). For example, Turks prefer high context communication (non-verbal) whereas most western customers prefer a more direct, explict and unambiguous communication. In Turkish culture, when a sales staff follows customers through the store this is an indicator of good quality service. Also, calling out loud to potential customers, which our respondents perceived as a very aggressive selling technique, is considered normal in Turkish culture (Tosun et al., 2007). Therefore, we believe that sales staff have no intention to behave aggressively towards customers and are not trailing customers because they don't trust them around the merchandise, as some tourists seem to believe; they simply do what their culture tells them is good customer service. However, we agree with Tosun et al. (2007) and Chang et al., (2006) that sales staff should be educated on how to interact with tourists/shoppers visiting from other cultural regions in order to increase their level of satisfaction.

The second major complaint of tourists in this category is that the sellers do not speak English and/or other languages which complicates communication with tourists and reduces satisfaction. This problem was previously highlighted by Barutçu et al. (2011) in a study on shopping tourism in Alanya. As Reisinger and Waryszak (1994) indicated, the ability of salespersons to speak the language of the tourist customers is considered of great importance by tourists because this is perceived as a sign that they are welcome and will be treated with consideration. However, as a foreign academic who has lived in Istanbul for over six years, the first author has never experienced any problem communicating with sale staff anywhere in the tourist districts. Many shops have staff who can speak at least two or three different foreign languages. We believe that the problems arise when, hoping to find more authentic (and cheaper) products, tourists prefer to visit shopping venues that are patronized mainly by local people.

Many tourists were also concerned with the authenticity of the goods on sale, especially when they intended to buy them for gifts to family and friends back home or as souvenirs to remind them of their trip in Istanbul. This supports the findings by Reisinger and Turner (2002) who argued that many Japanese tourists were dissatified with their shopping experience in Australia because of the shortage of locally-made souvenirs and products, representative for the local culture. Lin and Lin (2006) made the same observation when studying the satisfaction of mainland Chinese with shopping in Taiwan. Tourists in both cases were displeased to see that the products on sale were actually made elsewhere and sold at much higher prices.

Finally, a number of respondents have highlighted the fact that shopping centers, beyond the very "touristy" ones, such as the Grand Bazaar, are not advertised properly. This problem is not exclusive to Istanbul. Almost two-thirds of the tourists visiting Cappadocia complained about the lack of information on shopping opportunities and venues (Tosun et al., 2007). We believe that, if local authorities believe in the advantages of shopping tourism, they should design a better strategy to attract tourists to shop in Istanbul and to keep them satisfied. Tourists would like to spend more money on shopping but they need access to more information. Many are not interested in markets catering chiefly to foreign tourists as they find them more expensive and less authentic. They would like to shop in places where local people shop.

Others are bothered by the Turkish-style customer-service culture (loud calling for customers, trailing customers around the store, bargaining, etc.) and would like to shop in more western-oriented shopping centers. We believe that when tourists check into their hotel they should be handed a brochure highlighting all major shopping opportunities and venues in Istanbul. The brochure should include a map to display location of each shopping center followed by directions to get there. The brochure should also include a short description of each of these shopping centers.

The results of the study also have significant theoretical implications. One of the principal ideas that has arisen from our research is that, although cultural differences are important motivators for tourism, they can also constitute barriers to tourist satisfaction. This is in line with Spierings and van der Velde's (2008: 501) argument that although one of the main motivators for tourism is "difference", its consumption should happen in "familiar" environment or atmosphere in order to avoid uncertainty or the annoying and unexpected experiences.

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# GEOSYSTEMS GEOECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE BASIN OF RIVERS FOR TOURIST VALORIZATION. CASE STUDY OF ILEK RIVER BASIN

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Nowadays in many regions of Kazakhstan a universal transformation of radical natural geosystems into geosystems natural and technogenic, especially used took place, i.e. directly or indirectly changed by economic activity of people, like e.g. industry, agriculture or development of tourism. In this regard geo-ecological researches are topical, especially for valorization and evaluation of tourism potential. This work contains conceptual and methodological approaches to ensuring geo - ecological assessment of geosystems. The analysis of the interaction of the natural, economic, social subsystems and control systems with modern geosystems, based on the ecosystem services, provided by natural subsystem demanded by society and economy. A model of technogenic geosystem and a series of the indicators reflecting properties, quantitative and qualitative features of each block of subsystems has been developed. Structural variations which arise in geosystem as a result of anthropogenous transformation let you establish quality of technogenic geosystem and to rank them from steadily functioning to the actively degrading.

**Keywords:** geosystem, geo-ecological assessment, anthropogenesis, technogenesis, GIS-technology, functioning of geosystem, tourism potetial

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## INTRODUCTION

In recent years the geosystem - basin approach is actively being developed in the Kazakh, Russian (Zhanalieva, 2010; Ramazanova & Dzhanaleyeva, 2012), as well European geographical science (Wyżga et al. 2012; Pantović & Stamenković, 2013; Obrenić et al., 2015) and involves development of new conceptual and methodological researches in regional geo -ecological researches of geosystems. One of the main features of basin approach is that the considerable part of the globe consists of the river basins of various ranks having properties, characteristic for any natural system: set of structures and functions, hierarchy of a structure, integrity, and ability to self-development. The most important feature of river basins is their dynamic activity defining change of ecological situations; it depends on intensity of an exchange of substance and energy between the adjacent geosystems entering them.

This circumstance allows to consider river basins as *para* dynamic systems which possess typological heterogeneity except landscape heterogeneity. Thus *para* genetic linkages are expressed during transfer of substances and energy from up to down, from radical slopes to the bed of the river, from a source to the mouth. From the given circumstance we come to a methodical conclusion, important for an assessment of geo-ecological situations, that the river mode, inundated alluvia and characteristics of a drain in the closing alignments are indicators of an ecological condition of the basin in general (Korytnyi, 1991; Zhanalieva, 2008), what play important role in tourism development or any other anthropogenic activities (Obrenić et al. 2015).

Nowadays in many regions of Kazakhstan radical natural geosystems transformed into technogenic geosystems, which caused directly and indirectly by economic activities of people, e.g. agriculture, industry and tourism. River valley are green channels with very high biodiversity and habitat for many species. These valleys are also a key element landscape. The changes taking place in their area, even those that apply only to the river, have an impact on the structure of the whole landscape (Wyżga et al. 2012). Evaluation of process of degradation support process of valorization natural values and tourism potential of natural landscape (Nahraoui, 2011; Angelevska-Najdeska, 2014).

According the growing importance of the development of tourism, this activity has increasing importance in the modern economy. The direction, intensity and scale of changes are diagnosed by the natural and anthropogenic processes operating in geosystem and by intra structural changes. In total they define a geo-ecological condition of modern geosystem which depends on intensity and an orientation of streams of substance and energy therefore it is expedient to carry out control and management of an ecological situation within this system on the basis of basin approach. And the ecological condition plays the basic role in evaluation of tourism potential (Ilieş & Wendt, 2015).

The analysis of the geosystem functioning intensity degree of intensive technogenic pollution zones is created at the first stage of geo - ecological assessment. That was done on the example of the Basin of Ilek River. For the realization of this task we had to make a landscape map of the territory of Ilek river basin. That was done on the basis of typological approach, and also the map of modern geosystem (Figure 1).

## OBJECTS AND METHODS

As it is known, that the modern geosystem is a formation with complex structure, which fulfill definite functions and provides conditions of human's life activity. The definition and cartographical display of geo-ecological systems on the basis of these key sites recorded during field researches of 2013-2015 has been analyzed in the work.

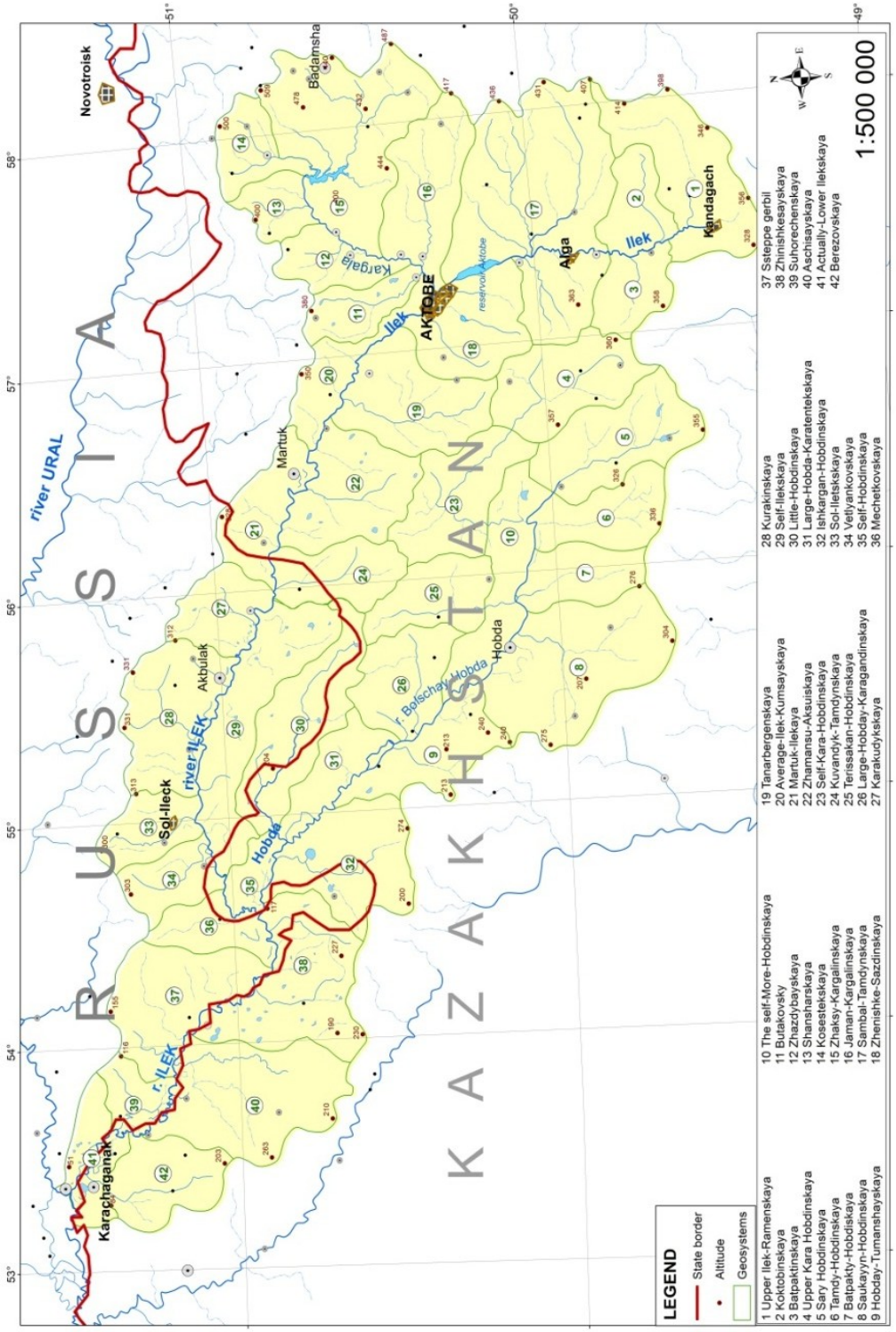


**Figure 1.** Map of modern geosystems of the basin of Ilek river

The technogenic geosystem consists of several subsystems, and the main of them according to time of formation and importance is – natural one. From the position of geo-ecological analysis natural ecosystem (landscape) is characterized by definite geo-ecological services and resources, which it provides to the society (this terminology is used in the fundamental work prepared according to UN International program "An assessment of ecosystems at a turn of the millennia"). This concept included various natural resources or properties, useful to the person, thanks to which in general there is possible an activity of society and the certain person as a species (Burenkov et al., 1997). Application of model of technogenic geosystem for a geo-ecological assessment of concrete geosystems demands indicators, the describing separate blocks of subgeosystem, their property or processes (Milkov, 1981).

Collection of information, its processing and formalization are necessary procedures for computer systematization of extensive volumes of information and creation of classifications of technogenic geosystems. As a part of natural subgeosystem it is a series of indicators of a lithogenic basis of a landscape (the morphological structure of a surface, the soil-forming material, etc.) the hydro climatic and biogenic indicators. They determine the natural and resource potential (NRP) of geosystem, on a basis by which series of the practical actions necessary for improvement of environment and further use of natural and resource capacity of the region are developed. Natural and resource potential is estimated from positions of various branches and sectors of economy: for industrial and residential development, for the solution of tasks water, recreational and agriculture. In each case specialized indicators are used.

The main objective of the research is solved on the basis of introduction of indicators of the ecological potential of geo-ecosystems, which is poorly used when studying degree of a disturbance of areas under strong techno genesis. The main agents at transformation and violation of interconnections in geosystem are the factors of a production activity: industries, development of minerals, residential systems, development of potential tourism. The results of functioning of production objects, exploration of natural resources can be agents of such types (for example, emissions of waste, volume of the biomass alienated with a crop, density of infrastructure networks) and others. Geo-ecological approach to the analysis of modern geosystem forces to include a social subsystem into the model in addition to natural and economic factors. Indicators of these blocks are usually integrated, each indicator is calculated with use of several indicators, and their values reflect significant impact they have on the state of geosystems.

## RESULTS OF RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION

Geo-ecological quality of geosystem is understood as two of its characteristics:

1) a set demanded by society resource-making and the environment forming functions of geosystems;

2) consequences, arising at various technogenic and social influences.

The last quality depends on functions of natural geosystem, from that how successfully the geosystem copes with various anthropogenous processes, not peculiar to technogenic geosystem, but developing in it in response to the made impacts. Thus, consequences define a geo-ecological state of geosystem, degree of its stability under conditions of technogenic impact. These characteristics allow ranking geosystems from steadily functioning to degrading (Table 1). In each case information on indicators and indices is formalized, is entered into the ArcGIS10.1 program and processed according to a scale of assessment of geo-ecological quality.

**Table 1.** Assessment of geo-environmental quality of some of Ilek river basin geosystems

| Geo-system | Type of geosystem | Economic development | Structural changes | Natural and anthropogenic processes | Quality |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9, 23, 25, 27, 29, 31 | Weak and concave plain with channels of permanent streams with feather- wormwood. | Deposits, pastures, sowing grounds. | 90% – pasture, 10% - crops. | Weak erosive processes of plane wash out. | Steady |
| 5, 6, 7, 8, 21, 22 | Wavy - sloping plain with fragments of large natural levee trees. | Pastures, recreational areas, crop lands | 70 % - pastures, 20 % - crops, 10 % - sat. | Blackness of pastures, deflation. | Moderated the steady |
| 10, 26, 30, 40 | Wavy - sloping plain with large beds of temporary and permanent watercourses. Natural and anthropogenic. | Fields of dry farming, pasture. | 80% - an arable land, crops, 20% - pastures. | Intensive processes of plane washout, the territory changed by water and erosive processes. | The poorly steady |
| 1, 2, 3, 14, 15 | Erosion - denudation plain with hills and hollows in the dark chestnut soils. Natural and man-made. | Industrial blades, heath developed areas, hayfields, recreation. | 30% - mining activities, 50% - open cuts, dumps, 15% - pastures, 5% tourism and recreations. | Point bar accumulation of the weighed particles, deflation, degradation goes on. | Not steady (the degrading) |
| 17, 18, 41 | diluvial- proluvial plain with dry sais with warmwood - aneurolepidium vegetation on dark chestnut soils calcareous technogenic. | Industrial zones, large settlements, wastelands anthropo-genic, fields of dry farming. | 60 % - industrial and residential area, transport, 20% of wasteland, 10 % -dry farming field, 10% pastures. | Heavily degraded modified by erosion. | Not steady (strongly degrading) |

Now the territory of the basin is characterized by high degree of industrial and agricultural production. As a result in huge volume various wastes are formed (liquid, firm, and gaseous). In 2013 total of the greenhouse gases which are thrown out in air by the Aktobe large plants (CO – 55,2 thousand tons, $SO_2$ – 89,4 thousand tons, $NH_3$ – 148 thousand tons, etc.). To soils and reservoirs of the territory at the same time 250 thousand tons of nitrogen and 50 thousand tons of phosphorus, apart from heavy metals came from different technogenic sources (The information and analytical REPORT, 2013). Annually on the territory of the Aktobe region 52477,72 tons of solid waste are formed, from them about 0,208 tons are processed (Kaz Waste, 2015).

However, the sources of common man- stimulated material flows on the basin sharply differentiated. Most part of emissions of gaseous issues comes to environment from industrial facilities and densely populated centers. Figure 2 shows anthropogenic impact of environment according to our researches. It is known that in large industrial zones practically all natural components – from a lithogenny basis, a relief, and geo-morphological processes to bioclimatic are exposed to radical reorganization. Technogenic geosystems represent natural and anthropogenic form with the most powerful impact on environment.

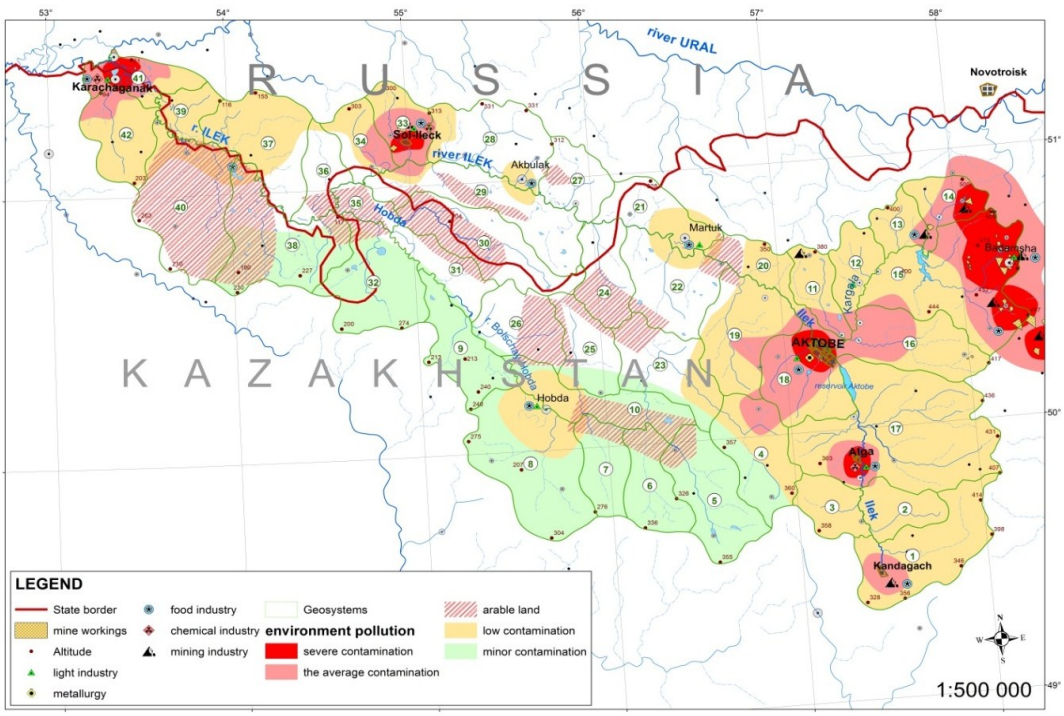


**Figure 2.** Map of anthropogenic intensity of geosystems of the basin of Ilek river

To assess the degree of anthropogenic impact on the ecosystem into account the parameters of a violation of medium components were evaluated geochemical changes. Finally got the classification model, the parameters of which are linked to certain anthropogenic load, differ in kind and degree of exposure (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Scale of valuation indicators of anthropogenic pressures on ecosystems

| Index | Mark | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Area of settlements (%) | not | ≤ 10 | 1,0-2,9 | 3,0-7,0 | ≥ 10 |
| Population density (persons / km²) | not | ≤ 10 | 10-20 | 21-30 | ≥ 30 |
| Transportation load (km / km²) | not | ≤ 0,1 | 0,1-0,19 | 0,2-0,3 | ≥ 0,3 |
| The area of technogenic formations (%) | not | ≤ 0,5 | 0,5-1,0 | 1,1-3,0 | ≥ 3,0 |
| The area of arable land (%) | not | ≤ 10 | 10-40 | 41-60 | ≥ 60 |
| The area of pastures (%) | not | ≤ 20 | 20-40 | 41-70 | ≥ 70 |

To determine the degree of anthropogenic loading and transformation of all types were introduced ballroom expert assessment showing the relative degree of anthropogenic transformation.

For this purpose, the normalized indicators of anthropogenic pressures on ecosystems (Vaganova & Kovalchuk, 2012; Jasinski, 2000; Ryumin, 1990). The following rules limit the use of environmental Geosystems allow us to rank the territory according to the degree of anthropogenic load on geosystems, and, moreover, reasonably use the results to optimize the structure of nature.

In assessing the degree of anthropogenic impact on the ecosystem of the quantitative indicators for each parameter were translated into scores (0 to 4), which are then summed. The result of the summation is an integral indicator (U), the proposed K.M. Petrov (1998:157), the formula (1):

$$U = \frac{1}{n} \Sigma xi\ ki, \qquad (1)$$

where:

*n* - the number of factors;
*xi* - Scoping i factor;
*ki* - i weighting factor.

The weights are established by experts, based on the ranking of indicators on the extent of human impact on geosystems. Indicators characterizing these factors formed the basis of the zoning (ranking) of the basin on the degree of anthropogenic impact. Upon receipt of the integral indicator (U), the following graduation degrees of anthropogenic impact on geosystems: <0.5 - insignificant in points; 0.5-1 - small; 1-2 - mid; 2-3 - intense, 3-4 –extevely.

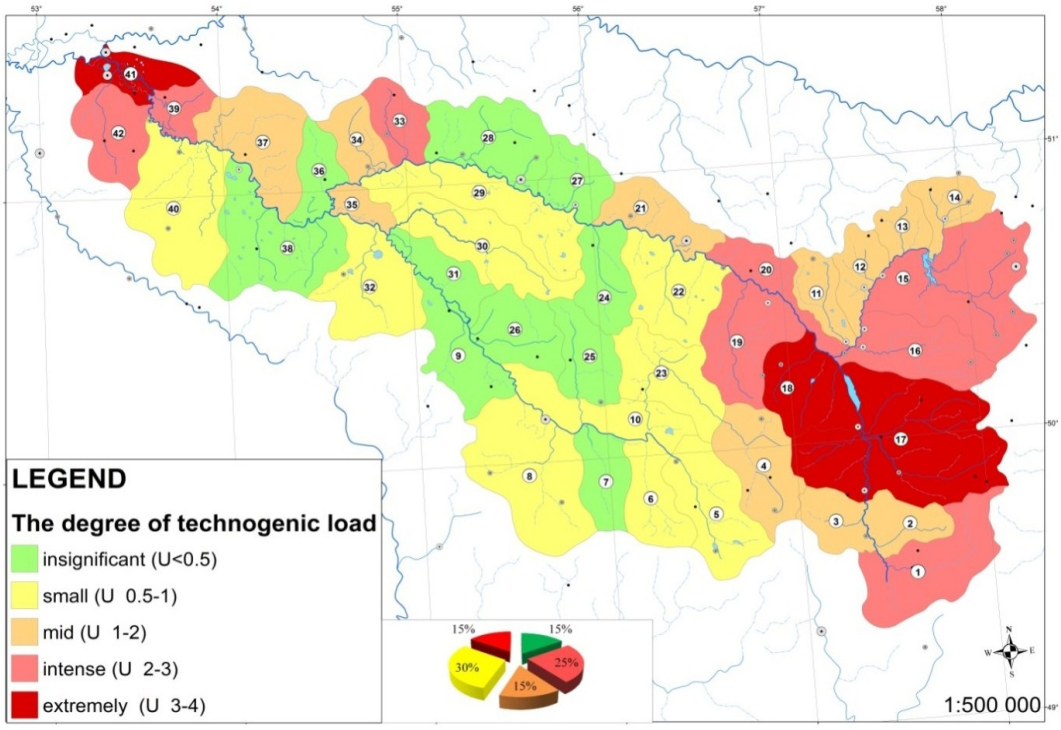


**Figure 3.** The map of geosystems degree of change under technogenic influence

As a result, spatial modeling of natural and anthropogenic factors produced a set of raster maps in a single coordinate system is a continuous surface distribution of the estimated parameters. Now all component geo-ecological information on 12 indicators of

functioning of ecosystems is entered into database program ArcGIS10.1 on the basis of which integrated characteristics of consequences of economic impact on geosystems by the algorithm described in the book (Tikunov, 1997). According to the materials of a database and calculations a series of cards on the territory of the basin of the river Ilek is created. In this piece of work the technique developed by the grant of the Russian Scientific Foundation was used (Project No. 15-17-30009).

The integral assessment of geo-ecological quality of geo-ecosystems is based on the following assumption: if at least one of ingredients of pollution excess of critical levels was found or intensity of anthropogenic processes became catastrophic, such complex belongs to category of the degrading. To determine the degree of anthropogenic impact on the river basin ecosystem Ilek us areal considered indicators of disturbed land to create a comprehensive assessment of the ecological state of the card geosystems in scale 1: 500 000 (Figure 3).

## CONCLUSION

Development and processes of anthropogenic load on the basin clearly illustrated geosystem transformation of the natural environment. Unstable water regime of rivers, annual fluctuations in water availability caused significant changes hydromorphic geosystems. They endure various stages of change under the influence of technological processes and acrogenic changes. Besides the morphology developed on lithological formations, the morphology generated by anthropogenic activities is also a significant recovery with geotouristic potential (Gavrila et al., 2011).

Geosystem approach became the main thing at an assessment of influence of processes of degradation of geosystems in the formation and development of new ecological situations, identifications of the centers of geo-ecological tension. Evaluation of process of degradation support process of valorization natural values and tourism potential of natural landscape. Accumulated in the geo-ecological research, information about the structural organization of geosystems of the basin of the river Ilek allowed to come to a conclusion about the need to consider the fact of their dynamic states on the basis of a temporary system analysis. Carried out the assessment of the tourism potential of river basin Ilek clearly it shows them a small role in the development of tourism. However, studies are a good tool to evaluate any basin river from the point of view of its tourist value and suitability for tourism (Nawieśniak et al., 2015).

The developed model of technogenic geosystem and the cartographical model created on its basis in the ArcGIS10.1 program, allows to analyze one of the most important industrial regions of Western Kazakhstan for identification of the existing geo - ecological systems and their high-quality differentiation. The considerable part of geosystems of the basin of the river Ilek is in a state of strong tension. The most changed geosystems function in techno agro-industrial hubs, created by city agglomerations (Aktobe, Kandagash, Alga, Sol – Iletsk, Khromtau, Nikeltau and others).

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# SPATIAL ASSESSMENT OF RENEWABLE ENERGY FLOWS IN THE AGRARIAN MARA RIVER WATERSHED (MARAMUREŞ LAND, ROMANIA) AS A POTENTIAL TOOL FOR LOCAL AND REGIONAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT POLICIES

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**Abstract:** Watersheds have been described often as one of the most intelligible forms of natural hierarchical organization and as appropriate holistic spaces for a sustainable water and natural resource management at local and regional scales. In a time when resource scarcity has become a major preoccupation and concepts like auto-sufficiency, resource optimization or sustainability in general are guiding principles in the development process of territorial planning policies and strategies, both for urban and rural environments, we propose an integrated approach that imagines watershed spaces as hierarchical energy systems, quantifying its renewable energy flows by encompassing the premises of Emergy methodology and GIS. The purpose of the study is to identify and describe the spatial distribution of available renewable energies in the Mara River System, especially identifying areas of high energy concentration, an assessment usable as a tool for a more effective territorial planning and management.

**Key words:** watershed, energy systems, renewable energy flows, Emergy analysis, GIS

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## INTRODUCTION

### Watersheds – natural units for territorial management

The management of watersheds has become a major research focus for many institutions that are preoccupied by resource availability and distribution in a given territory, especilally for those subscribing to an environmental paradigm. Entitling this concept, one can understand watersheds through the study of relevant characteristics aiming at the better use and distribution of natural and human-made resources.

From a philosophical point of view, the watershed management is associated with an intelligent, adaptive and integrated process that looks to optimise the ecological, social and economic conditions within it (http://www.rdrwa.ca/node/27, with adnotations). This management approach provides a conceptual and methodological framework that can assist the decision making process when it comes to evaluating resource availability and potential territorial disfunctions. A healty watershed, unbalanced by destabilizing human interventions, functions as a complete and optimal system with a minimum level of risks

* Corresponding author

associated with floodings, erosion, default water contaminants and sediment filtering that can affect the quality of surface and ground water. A vibrant economy, even in remote rural areas, has as a base function clean water resources. Any type of human infrastructure, being it a simple household, an institution or a production system, needs a water connection in order to properly operate. From a social and economical point of view, unbalanced natural areas represent the core of recreational and tourism related activities.

**Watersheds – energy systems**

From the moment rain falls on land, it interacts with the surface topography, creating under the influence of gravity streams that carve the landscape. Wherever an elevation gradient is present, rain water will have the capacity to do work, by eroding, transporting and depositing sediments, creating stream channels and forming one of the most intelligible and visible patterns of natural hierarchical organisation. „Like everything else, the watershed is organised as an energy hierarchy network" (Odum, 2007, p.117). Economically speaking, the geopotential energy of rivers (energy of elevated water) represents the most effective and ready to use energy flow for direct human use.

**Natural renewable energy flows in the Mara Watershed**

Technically speaking, an energy flow is defined as the energy transfer rate per surface unit / per time, as a measure of intensity and its capacity of doing work. In the departments of Earth Sciences, the geological processes of orogenesis, associated vulcanism and earthquakes or the formation of mineral ores and fossil fuels reservoirs can be explained through the radioactive properties of internal energy from the core of the Earth, while at the surface, the action of energies responsible with erosion or building biological stocks are the result of solar energy's transformation throughout climatic and biological processes. Solar energy, the primordial form of energy, can be stored in various forms. For example, either as geopotential energy of rainwater and rivers, either as chemical energy stored in water vapour within the atmosphere or as energy stored by biological organisms. All these types of energies capable of doing geological and biological work at a global scale are called renewable energy resources, the quantity available today having no impact whatsoever on the quantity available tomorrow. The *major forms of renewable energy resources available in intracontinental areas are: solar energy, geothermal energy, wind energy and rainfall energy* and as disparate as they are in terms of origin, materialisation and scientific quantification, it is possible to agregate them all using a single unit of measure – the solar Joule.

**METHODS**

The Emergy evaluation method that is proposed here derives from Howard Odum's observations regarding the study of energy's qualitative variations within ecological systems (Odum, 1988, 1996, 1998, 2001). The mentioned author stresses the fact that energies flowing through a system have different capacities of doing work, therefore must register variations both in quantity and quality, further suggesting complex methodologies for the process of quantifying them. One method though was emphasized more, mainly due to its versatility and ability to evaluate disparate energy resources both as flows and stocks using a common denominator.

**Emergy** is the energy used directly and indirectly in the past to create a product or deliver a service (Voora et al., 2010). It can be defined also as the energy incorporated and used as a tool to measure the cumulative actions of energies operating in a chain (Ianos, 2000). The researchers in the field of Environmental Sciences for example, that have used this method in various studies (Ascione et al., 2009, 2011, Brown et al., 2001, 2012, Franzese et al., 2009, 2013, Mellino et al., 2014, 2015, Odum, 1988, 1994, 1996, 2000, 2001, 2007, Pulselli et al., 2008, 2010, 2011, Raugei et al.,

2014, Ulgiati et al., 2011, Viglia et al., 2011, etc.) are emergy supportive, saying that it presents itself as an appropriate method in the evaluation process of ecosystem „goods and services", representing the essential amenities used by a community from the surrounding environment in order to function properly.

The Emergy evaluation procedure is based on fundamental elements regarding energy distribution and hierachy. The fundamental principle endorsing this statement posits that energy builds hierachy but also that energy is a hierachy in its own. According to Odum (1988), all known energy transformations can be connected through a series according to the energy quantity of one kind resulted from a transformation process, necesary for the next transformation process. With each transformation step the energy quantity decreases but its quality increases. An energy transformation is nothing else but the conversion of one form of energy into another, as for example solar energy to wind or rain. Respecting the second principle of thermodynamics, in the process, the energy is transformed with loss of heat, representing a degraded form of unusable energy. Where diverse forms of energy converge in order to sustain a natural or anthropogenic process, or even a territory, in order to measure their effects, one must be able to quantify and compare them using a single unit of measure. *The emergy concept and associated procedures resulted out of this necessity*. Total amount of emergy flowing through a system within a year represents a value that characterises the system's state function at a certain time and is noted with the prefix em (emcalories, emJoules etc.). *Geographically speaking, the spatial distribution of emergy commonly uses the hectare as a surface area unit of reference. In this paper, the emergy distribution is expressed in emJoules and is represented spatially on hectares* using the technical capabilities of GIS 2.6.1 Brighton. The emergy will disappear when the entire quantity is transformed into degraded heat as the system reaches maximum enthropy.

Following the range of energy tranformations withing a network, the emergy necesary for the activation of a superior process will carry the emergetic signature (information) of all past procesess. This in itself speaks about energy quality and is stated by another specific notion – transformity.

Solar transformity (UEV), after the main unit of measure for emergy, is defined as the quantity of solar emergy necesary to produce one Joule of usable energy empowered within a flow, good or a service. It represents the relation between the quantity of emergy necesary to produce it and its energetic or material content (Odum, 1996). It is expressed as emJoule / Joule (seJ/J) or emJoule / gram (seJ/g), the latter being known as specific emergy. The more energy transformation needed in order to obtain that flow, product or service, the higher the transformity / specific emergy will be. Goods and services delivered to societies directly or indirectly need large quantities of emergy to be produced. Therefore, their transformity / specific emergy will be high, although their energy content is low.

## MARA RIVER SYSTEM – SPATIALIZATION, DESCRIPTION AND DIAGRAMMING

From a systemic point of view, the strict delineation process of a geographycal space for analysis purposes with respect to neighbouring systems represents a dull procedure, mainly due to the open system's permeability, especially in the spaces of interference and also due to the imposibility of segregating exchanges between them based on rigourous and strict limits. Take for example the differences between authors in establishing the vertical limits of what is considered the object of study for Geography (Mac, 1996, 2000; Petrea, 1998, 2005; Roşu, 1987). The task becomes even more difficult when one analyses a morphologically varied space, humanized through rural establishments without a urban infrastructure that could lent it a unitary and convergent character.

**Spatial delineation**

The delineation process of Mara River system is facilitated in particular by the decision to impose system limits based on the morpho-hydrographical criteria. The watersheds as systems are one of the few primary natural organisation patterns that present a coherent, functional and intelligible structure and allow the imposing of clear limits, at least in two-dimensional space. Mara Basin is a third order, medium scale, 41.000 hectare watershed, tributary to the river Iza, a main contributor to the Tisa river, the major denudational axis of historical Maramureş Land, a well known tourism brand (Ilieş et al., 2015), found today in two countries, Romania and Ukraine (Figure 1). The river Mara at its origins drains a typical tectono-structural caldeira in the south-east of Igniş Plateau, delineating itself from the Săpânţa Basin in the area of Pleşca Mare Peak throughout an interfluve characterised by petrographic prominences and structural saddles. The watershed limit descends to the depressionary sector and follows to the north-east the piedmontan broad ridge that separates the Mara from the Şugău watershed.

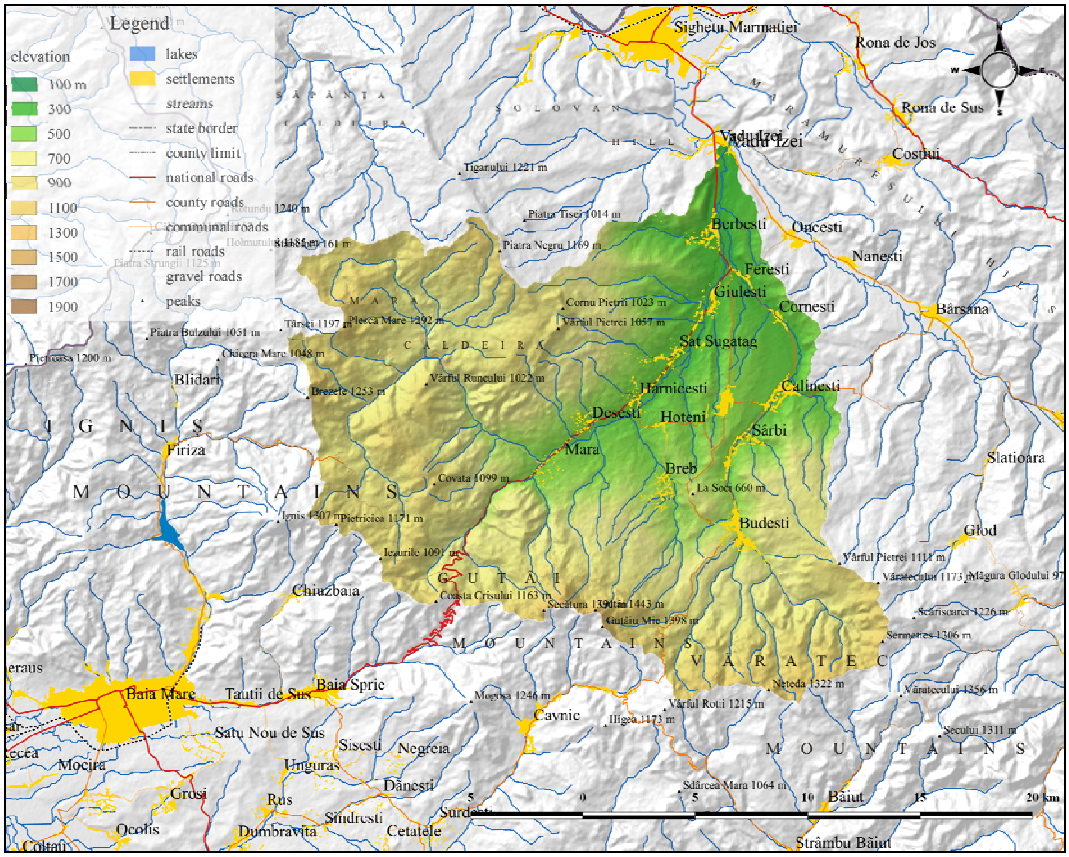


**Figure 1**. The Mara Watershed – a geographic and spatial reference

The upper Iza-Mara terraces outline the crossing from the confluence zone in the perimeter of Vadu Izei village to the area of Văratec Piedmont and mountain range. The watershed limits crosses the peaks of Călineşti Hills, in our opinion a monoclinic sedimentary structure. The Călineşti-Văratec range flanks the entire eastern limit with Iza Basin on the following alignment: Coman's Peak (495 m) – Pietrii Peak (1111 m) –

Sermetieş Peak (1306 m). The southern part of the Mara basin is separrated by Lăpuş and Cavnic watersheds through the Văratec and Gutâi main range, with altitudes between 1300-1400 meters. Gutâi and Văratec ranges constitute the elements of higher altitude in the Mara watershed. A large spatial unfold is characteristic to the limit between Mara and Săsar watersheds on the south-western and western side, on the same interfluvial petrographic and structural series typical for the Ignis Plateau: Secatura Peak (1391 m) – Gutâi Pass (987 m) – Iezurile Peak (1091 m), Pietricica Peak (1171 m) – Brezele Peak (1253 m) – Pleşca Mare Peak (1292 m).

**Diagramming the Mara watershed as a thermodynamic system**

The delineation processes is followed by a inventory procedure resulting in a system diagram that portraits the defining characteristics of the system in terms of essential energy fluxes and equivalent stocks, processess, production and infrastructure subsystems (Figure 2). The resulting diagram incorporates two-dimensional graphic design elements specifically used in drawing up energy systems (Odum, 1996 p. 73) and describes at first, in a qualitative manner and in a graphycal bi-dimmensional form the energy flow network of the system alongside with the restrictions imposed by the laws of thermodynamics. If the energy flows are represented through arrows oriented from left to right, suggesting the irreversibility of the process, the restrictions are symbolised by arrows drawn to the bottom side of the diagram. The degraded heat resulted with each process is oriented out of the system into a thermal sink. The first law of thermodynamics is respected by balancing all energy influx to the outflux. The heat generated by the multiple forms of work being done inside storage units are also represented by arrows toward the heat sink. In the process of establishing the main energetic components inside the Mara river system, defining morpho-hydrographic, climatic and socio-economical features of the watershed were taken into consideration. Here are some on the main attributes of the watershed that influenced the drawing procedure. The structural, tectonic and fluviatile relief supporting the system has been conceptualized as a massive stock on energy. This approach has taken into account the fact that the vulcanic andesitic rocks from the upper mountain side are primary resources exploited and exported from the system as construction materials. Moreover, the variated topographic index suggests the relief's potential in activating the energetic potential of elevated water.

Soils, products of synthesis considerred as non-renewable resources are another major control variable taken into consideration and represented on the diagram as stocks of energy. The entire anthopic suprastructure comprising a network of 15 rural settlements organised into six communes has been represented as an agro-pastoral / agro-forestry subsystem. The human-made capital, as a form of energy build-up inside the subsystem is represented in principal by the habitable infrastructure along side the road network and mechanical features such as vehicles and agro-forestry machinery.The landcover (forestry) and land use (agriculture) have been represented as primary and secondary production subsystems in the Mara watershed.

The basic consumption needs of the local population are emphasised by a series of imported products, energy sources and services and reflect the consumption patterns and degree of dependence towards resources found outside the system. The main mass and energy vector in the system, the river Mara, together with its tributary, river Cosău, were represented as a steady stade water flow and adjuster of the main energy input - the annual rainfall that falls on land.

The natural renewable energy sources influencing the thermodinamic signature and balance of the Mara River system are represented by the solar energy, geothermal, wind and precipitaion energies, the latter being the main active element in territorial dinamics. The article concentrates solely on these types of resources.

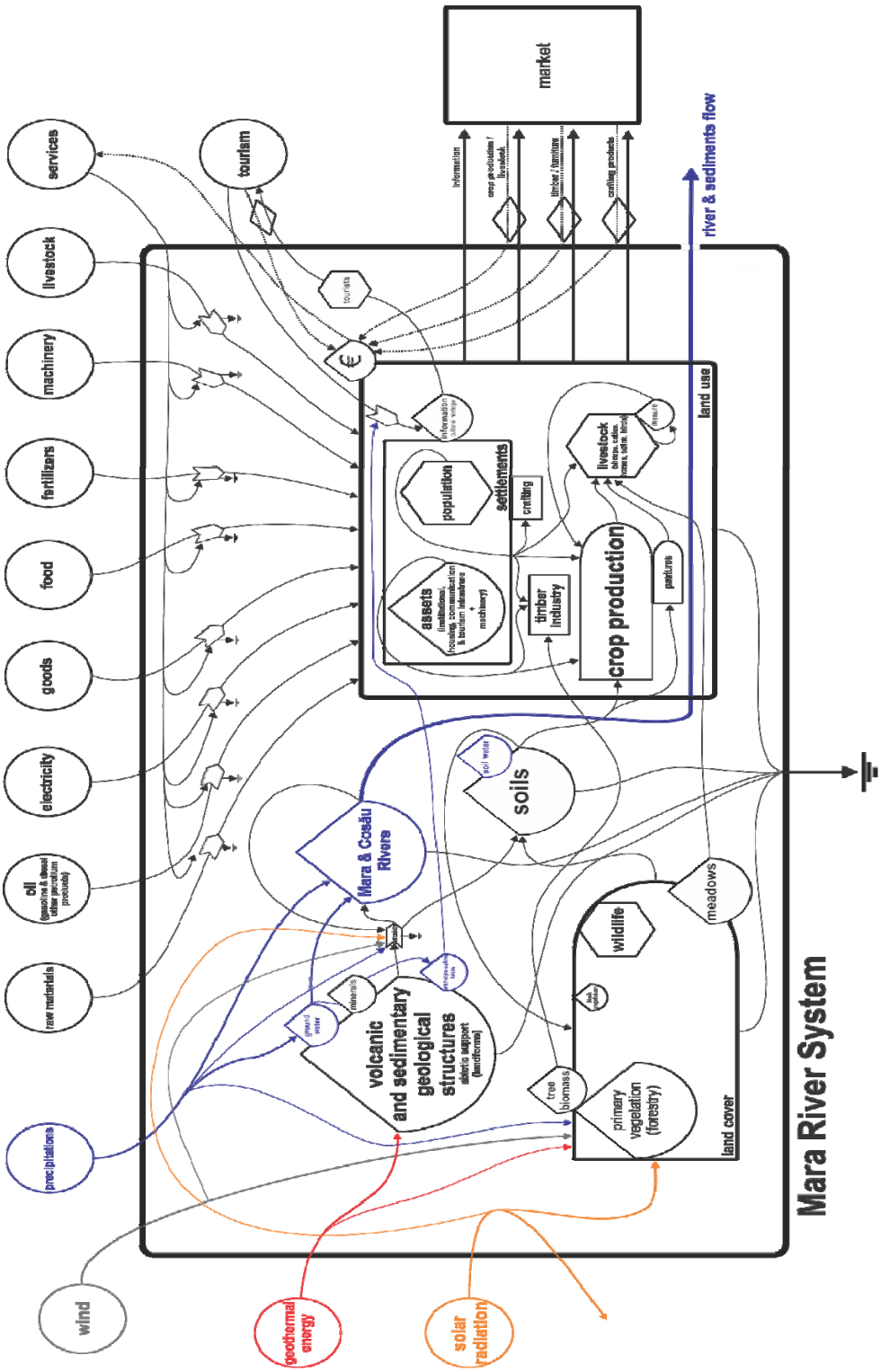


**Figure 2.** Mara Watershed as a system

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

Because of the fact that any type of useful energy for humanity has at it's origin a natural renewable or non-renewable energy source, we define the flows of natural renewable resources as those types of energies available in unlimited quantities, even when actively used in natural or human made procesess (Odum, 2001). From the perspective of territoriallity (territory as a humanised space), the more these types of resources are used efficiently, the bigger the emergy incorporated in the resulted products. Even if the renewables are not actively present in the local economy, the Mara Basin communities enjoy the work done by these indirectly, through the ecosystem services privided to them by nature.

**Geothermal energy potential**

Considered as a renewable energy source, the geothermal energy is understood not just as the heat coming from within the Earth's core, but as a fraction of that heat used to generate useful work for society (Dickson&Fanelli, 2004 in Norden et al., 2011). The temperature grows with depth based on a geothermal gradient. Near surface, in the areas unaffected by vulcanism or tectonic activity, the geothermal gradient has a constant of about 2.5 degrees Celsius / 100 meters. Local and regional variations of this parameter can be registered based on discrepanties regarding the thermal conductivity of rocks in the area. The geothermal energy can lose this status due to heavy exploitation in areas were the thermal potential in based on remnant heat provided by extinct vulcanism. In Island, a country known for its active vulcanoes and were geothermal energy is considered at home, the potential is exploited only in areas were measurements indicate a geothermal gradient of over 4 degrees Celsius / 100 meters. The constant heat flux towards the surface is measured in W/m$^2$ and the average values in continental regions is estimated at around 0.06 W/m$^2$. Unfortunately, globally speaking, the potential of geothermal energy exploitation is limited. The average value of Mara Basin's geothermal heat flux at surface is situated around 0.09 W/m$^2$/s (Table 1) / 5.7E+14 seJ/ha/yr (Figure 3) insufficient for a large scale and centralised exploitation as thermal energy.

| item | units | raw data | energy units | energy J / yr | UEV** sej / J | emergy seJ / yr |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GEOTHERMAL ENERGY | | | J/an | 1.17E+15 | 2.00E+04 | 2.34E+19 |
| geothermal heat flux | W/m$^2$ | 9.00E-02 | J/m$^2$/an | 2.85E+06 | - | - |
| | W/ha | 9.00E+02 | J/ha/an | 2.85E+10 | - | - |
| watershed surface | m$^2$ | 4.10E+08 | - | - | - | - |

**Table 1**. Emergy of geothermal heat flux **UEV 2.00E+04 sej/J (source: Brown&Ulgiati, 2010)

For the Mara watershed, the geothermal potential was quantified using relevant data regarding the surface geothermal heat flux identified on http://harti.igr.ro/geofizica-v1/ visualization platform. Data expressed in mW/m$^2$ was gathered for a number of 30 points covering the entire basin and having distinct geographical coordinates. The point values were introduces in Quantum GIS 2.6.1 through a vector layer superimposed on the digital model. The values were interpolated using GDAL Interpolation function, followed by a series of algebric operations in Raster Calculator in order to express this potential in energy and emergy values after the formula:

1. [geothermal heat flux (W/ha)*time(seconds/year)*surface(ha)]*UEV(sej/J)** (Odum, 1996)

The Igniş Plateau, formed of basaltic rocks, registers higher values compared with the rest of the basin and the numbers can be explained through the thermal properties of these rocks, known to be good heat conductors (1.87-2.26 W/(m K), Eppelbaum et al., 2014). From an economical point of view, the Mara watershed is situated in a area with higher values of this potential with respect to the rest of the country, mainly because of its

remnant Neogene vulcanic activity. According to the proposed clasiffication of geothermal resourcses by Norden (Norden et al., 2011), which takes into account the reservoir temperatures among others, the basin is enclosed in an area characterised by an energy class of low enthalphy, the temperatures being situated under 150 degrees Celsius.

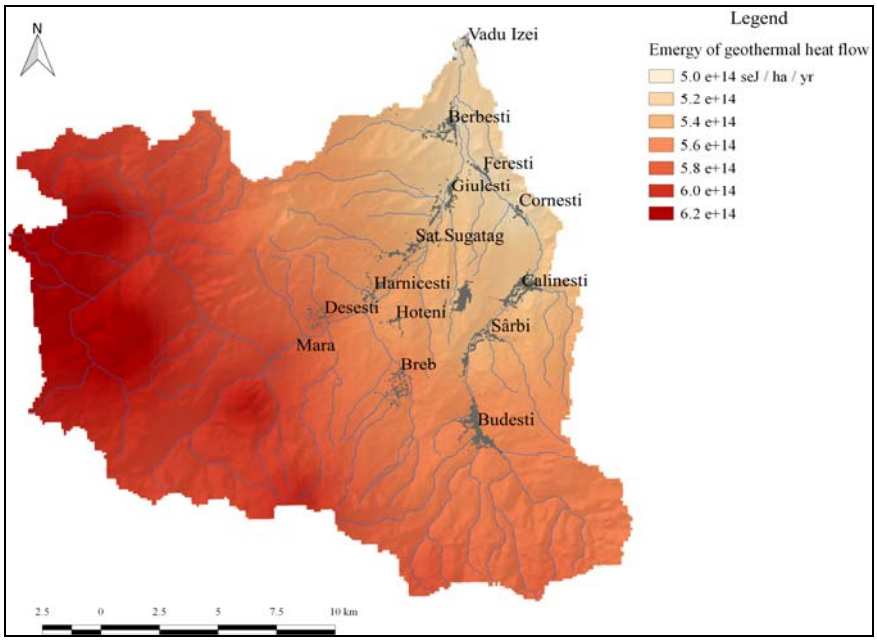


**Figure 3**. Spatial distribution of geothermal emergy flow at the surface of Mara watershed

This means that preferably, the geothermal potential in the Mara watershed can be exploited through a decentralised system based on individual, low-depth geothermal instalations used as heat providers for households. *High performance instalations installed in the most geothermally attractive areas, can be used for electric power generation, an aspect that would reduce the preassure on rivers as producers of clean electricity and on reducing dependence on outside electricity flow towards the system.*

**Solar energy potential**

The solar energy represents a diluted form of energy, especially if we make reference at the historical time frame. This type of energy is at the core of every energy transformations within a system and is the main denominator in the proposed methodology. Quantitatively, for the Mara watershed, the solar energy represents the third source of energy after geothermal energy and the energy of rainfall.

Practically, solar energy is efficient when used actively by plants through photosyntesis and pasively by humans. The simple building orientation on a proper cardinal direction and the community can benefit at no extra expense from passive heating of walls. At a larger spatial and temporal scale, the solar energy is performing geologic work, modelling the landscape directly or indirectly (Odum, 2001).

The biosphere represents the most efficient solar energy user, activating through photosyntesis it's biomass production capacity via a series of bio-chemical reactions that transform solar energy into storages of organic matter. The larger the storage time interval, the larger the energy / emergy content. A self-evident example is provided when the caloric energy of secular forests are compared with the same type of energy contained

in forestry plantations. Compared with geothermal energy, solar energy isn't always available. It has a cicardian rithm due to Earth's rotation, aspect that deviates from the classical definition of renewable resources availability. Due to Earth's geoidal shape, this potential cannot be exploited at all latitudes. Also, the distribution of solar energy at surface is strongly influenced by topographic curvature and direction.

At a national level, Romania is a category B country (http://www.cnecc.org.cn/uploadfile/Solar%20Energy%20in%20Romania.pdf) attractive for potential photovoltaic investments, especially in the southern and south-eastern Oltenia and Dobrogea regions.

In the Mara watershed, the direct solar radiation potential, taken into account in the evaluation of total solar energy flow at surface, is strongly influenced by relief's topography combined with surface ALBEDO and particular climatic conditions. In the process of estimating the yearly quantity of direct solar radiation at the watershed's surface, the Arc GIS 9.3 area solar radiation analysis tool was used, combining positional, elevation, direction and curvature atributes of the Mara basin's digital elevation model (30 arc second resolution), along side ALBEDO values derived from a LandCorine 2012 vector layer. The emergy values were obtained in kcal/m$^2$, furtherly estimating the quantity per hectare in terms of Joules and emJoules using the following algebric algorithm:

2. [direct solar radiation at surface (kcal/ha/yr)*surface (ha)*4184 (J)]*UEV(sej/J) (Odum, 1996)

The basin's solar potential is situated around the values of 8.58E+05 kcal/m$^2$/yr (Table 2)/ 3.6E+13 sej/ha/yr (Figure 4).

| item | units | raw data | energy units | energy J/yr | UEV**sej/J | emergy seJ/yr |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SOLAR ENERGY | | | J/yr | 1.47E+18 | 1.00E+00 | 1.47E+18 |
| direct solar radiation | Kcal/m$^2$/yr | 8.58E+05 | J/m$^2$/yr | 3.59E+09 | - | - |
| | Kcal/ha/yr | 8.58E+09 | J/ha/yr | 3.59E+13 | - | - |
| watershed surface | m$^2$ | 4.10E+08 | - | - | - | - |

**Table 2**. Emergy of direct solar radiation **UEV 1.00E+00 sej/J (source: Odum, 1996)

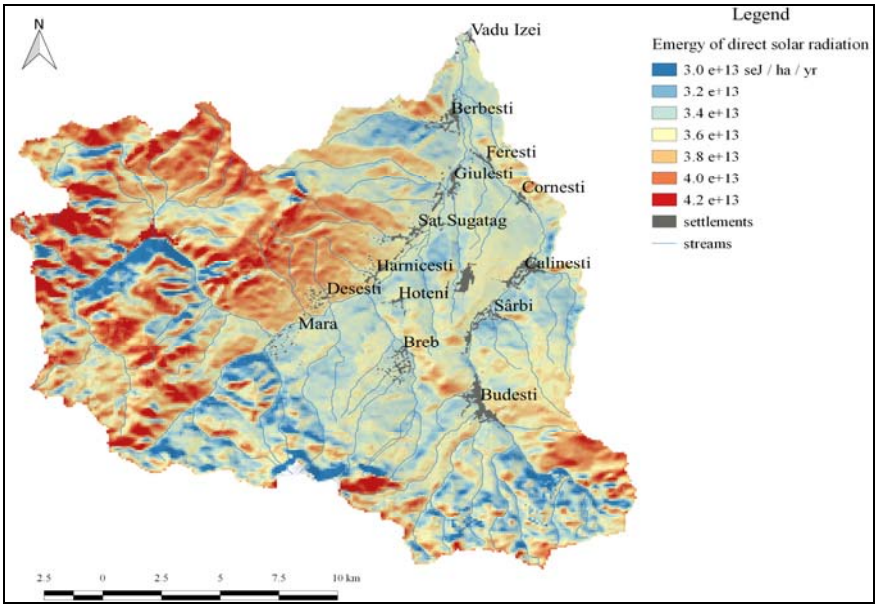


**Figure 4**. Spatial distribution of direct solar radiation's emergy content at the surface of Mara watershed

In a very pragmatic way, and avoiding implementing high cost technological systems, the passive use of local solar potential represents a cushy modality for Mara Basin's communities to harness this potential. The household's maintenance costs can be substantially reduced by applying discrete building design features capable of increasing the storage capacity of solar power during winter daylight, releasing it during night time. The same principle can be applyed for building summer cooling.

**Wind energy potential**

Albeit without a major role in local economy, wind energy indirectly participates to it by co-generating atmospheric systems, energising the evapotranspiration process or polenisation. The contribution in the process of rock weathering, a crucial step in soil formation is also significant. The local population uses this resource passively as for example in drying hay stacks and linen or drying up wood material in a pre-processing stage. In the quantitative evaluation process of this potential in the Mara watershed, the raster calculator capabilities of Quantum GIS were enabled in order to process and represent spatially, in terms of emergy values, the wind speed at surface and the geostrophic wind speed, values gathered from relevant bibliography. The calculation were done based on the following algebric formula and considering the fact that, due to the spatial dimension of the Mara Basin, the wind represents a uniformly distributed parameter:

3. [air density(g/m3)*dragg coefficient(%)*geostrophic wind(m/s)^3*surface(ha)*s/yr]* UEV(sej/J) (Odum, 1996)

Even though wind represents a more concentrated form of energy in comparision with solar energy, an aspect reflected through a higher transformity coefficient, it is so spatially dispersed that it needs large and costly technological infrastructures to be captured and converted into useful, ready to use energy.

| item | units | raw data | energy units | energy J/yr | UEV**sej/J | emergy seJ/yr |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| WIND ENERGY | | | J/yr | 1.24E+14 | 1.58E+03 | 2.04E+17 |
| air density | kg/m3 | 1.30E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| geostrophic wind at 1000 m/15oC | m/s | 1.37E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| velocity absorbed | m/s | 1.70E-01 | - | - | - | - |
| dragg coefficient | % | 3.00E-03 | - | - | - | - |
| watershed surface | m2 | 4.10E+08 | - | - | - | - |
| seconds/yr | s | 3.15E+07 | - | - | - | - |

**Table 3**. Emergy of wind power **UEV 1.58E+03 sej/J (source: Brown & Ulgiati, 2013)

Low speed winds have low energy potential. Wind speed yearly variability is another factor that burdens the harnessing process. In the Mara watershed, the wind registers the lowest renewable energy potential, with an estimated emergy value of around **5.0E+12 seJ/ha/yr** (Figure 5). The community is being able to harness it passively, throughout building design features meant at easing building ventilation.

**Rainfall Energy Potential**

Solar energy is the propellant of nature's water circuit in general and of rainfall in particular. Atmospheric precipitations are the major supplier of fresh water stocks, fluid or solid around the world. The contribution of rainfall's energy budget can be separated into two separate flows:

- the physical flow consisting in the actual rainfall geopotential as it falls on land and river geopotential as a the rain organises itself into streams once in contact with the topography;

- the chemical potential of rainfall (potential evapotranspiration) and rivers, used primarily by vegetation in the process of primary production and secondary by local atmospheric cycles.

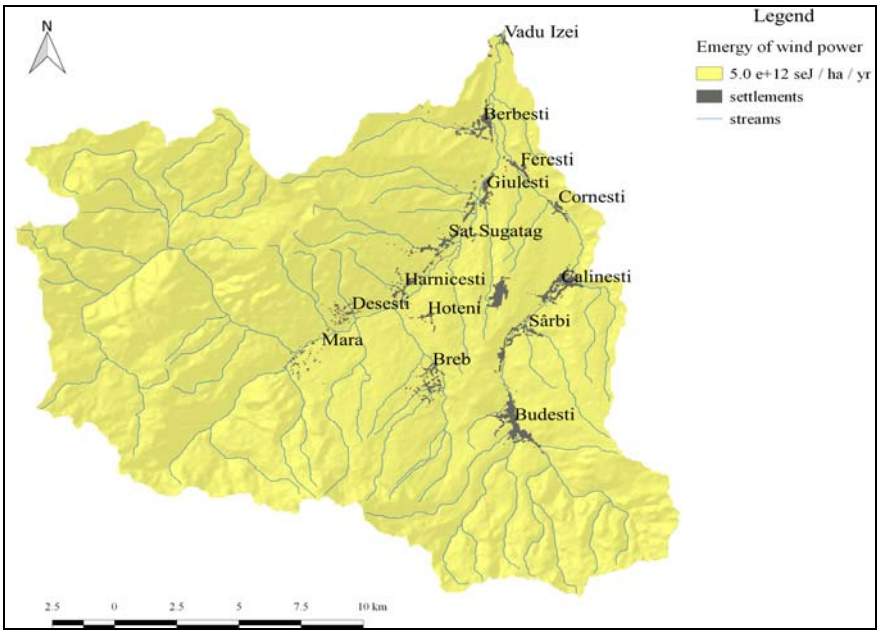


**Figure 5**. Spatial distribution of wind power's emergy content at the surface of Mara watershed

**Potential evapotranspiration (PET)**

In its circuit, water carries its chemical potential related to the purity of sea water from which it originates through the combined action of solar and wind energy that evaporated and transpored it. Potential evapotranspiration represents the amount of water that can be evaporated and transpired from a certain area if there were sufficient water available and it must be multyplied by the surface coefficient. In this way, it can be compared with the average annual precipitation for the same area. The simple term of evapotranspiration means that the calculus was made for a reference point, such as a climate station. The potential evapotranspiration is a complex parameter, often determined using a series of important climatic variables – temperature, wind speed, atmospheric humidity etc. and controls the energy exchanges between the active surface and atmosphere (Croitoru et al., 2013)

This potential can be quantified using a series of different algorithms, the most known and recommended being the Pennam-Montheith equation (Croitoru et al., 2013). However, another empirical algorithm offers similar results and has been used in estimating the potential evapotranspiration in the Mara watershed. The Turc equation (Turc, 1961, 1963 in Mellino et al., 2014) gave satisfactory results in estimating the potential evapotranspiration in regions with average annual temperatures varring between 0 and 25 degrees Celsius (Kriiger et al., 2001, in Mellino et al., 2014). The calculus was made according to the following formula:

4. $ET_m = \frac{P}{\sqrt{0.9+P^2/L^2}} /1000$ (Turc, 1961, 1963, Mellino et al., 2014)

were:

Etm – potential evapotranspiration (m)

P – average annual precipitation raster for the Mara watershed between 1950-2000 ($m/m^2$)

L - 300 + 25T+0.05T, T – average annual temperature in the Mara watershed (7.6° C)

5. ET(J) = ETm* ρ * G ( Odum, 1996)

were:

ET(J) – rate of potential evapotranspiration expressed in Joule

ρ – water density (1000000 g/m$^3$)

G – Gibbs free energy (4.94 J/g)

The Mara watershed potential evapotranspiration has a value of around 429 mm/m$^2$/yr / 1.35E+14 seJ/ha/yr (Table 4) and approximates the reference value obtained in the Maramureş Depression using the Pennam –Montheith formula (Croitoru el al., 2013), the value describing the watershed as having a moderate, intracarpathic character.

| item | units | raw data | energy units | energy J / yr | UEV** sej / J | emergy seJ / yr |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| POTENTIAL EVAPOTRANSPIRATION | m/yr | 1.76E+07 | J/yr | 8.70E+14 | 6.36E+03 | 5.53E+18 |
| | m/m$^2$/yr | 4.29E-01 | J/m$^2$/yr | 2.12E+06 | - | - |
| | m/ha/ayr | 4.29E+03 | J/ha/yr | 2.12E+10 | - | 1.35E+14 |
| annual average precipitation in the Mara watershed (1950-000) | m/yr | 3.26E+08 | - | - | - | - |
| water density | g/m$^3$ | 1.00E+06 | - | - | - | - |
| gibbs free energy | J/g | 4.94E+00 | - | - | - | - |

**Table 4**. Emergy of potential evapotranspiration **UEV 6.36+03 sej/J (Brown & Ulgiati, 2013)
(Source: precipitation data – WorldClim-Global Climate Data portal)

**Rainfall and river geopotential**

The precipitations fallen on land and resulted following the release of energy encapsulated in water vapours through condensation process in the lower atmosphere represents a new type of energy – geopotential energy. Geopotential energy, either that we speak about rain drops mechanical action over soils and vegetation, or that we speak about rainfall channeling through a hierarchical flow network or glaciers, has the capacity of doing active geological work and represents in many of Earth's regions the prime landscape modeler. In the watershed organization process following rainfall on land, the geopotential energy derives from the friction between water and topography under the gravity. Surface and river drainage models the relief upstream, transporting and depositing sediments downstream. Due to its complex genesis, precipitations have a high transformity compared with the other renewables. Therefore, the amount of emergy contained within it is the highest. For the Mara watershed, the rainfall geopotential has an yearly emergy revenue of around 6.8E+17 seJ/ha/yr (Figure 6)**.**

*In emergy terms, it registers the highest values among renewables and is considered to be the main driver of the system from this perspective.* The geopotential energy of the basin's hydrological network, represented here by the river Mara, is calculated as a fraction from the total average annual amount of precipitations minus potential evapotranspiration. Here are the algotihm under which the values were obtained:

6. rainfall geopotential = [average annual rainfall(m/ha/yr)*surface(m)*mean elevation of watershed(m)*water density(g/m$^3$)*gravity(m/s$^2$)]*UEV(sej/J) (Odum, 1996)

7. river geopotential = [run-off(m$^3$/yr)*water density(g/m$^3$)*height at entry(m)* gravity (m/s$^2$)]*UEV(sej/J) (Odum, 1996)

8. river chemical potential = [run-off(m3/yr)*water density(g/m3)* Gibbs free energy (J/g)]*UEV(sej/J) (Odum, 1996)

The relatively constant flow of water for the Mara river and its high emergy content (approximately 5.10E+14 seJ/s / 1.61E+22 seJ/yr) (Table 5) together with the low sedimentary transportation budget transform the stream into an attractive opportunity for micro hydropower plants, an exploitation design fashionable in recent years in all mountain landscapes across the country.

Upon designing a micro hydropower plant, the river's geopotential is reduces and the geological and biological work diverted into producing cheap electrical power. Such as rain itself, the rivers possess a high transformity coefficient due to their colossal geologic effort in modelling the relief. Estimating the emergy contained within the rivers means estimating how much geologic effort the rivers do in a year.

| item | units | raw data | energy units | energy J / yr | UEV** sej / J | emergy seJ / yr |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| RAINFALL GEOPOTENTIAL | m/yr | 1.76E+07 | J/yr | 1.61E+18 | 1.76E+04 | 2.83E+22 |
| | $m/m^2/yr$ | 7.96E-01 | $J/m^2/an$ | 2.37E+09 | - | - |
| | m/ha/yr | 7.96 E+03 | J/ha/yr | 2.37E+13 | - | - |
| annual average rainfall (1950-2000) | m/yr | 3.26E+08 | - | - | - | - |
| watershed's average altitude | m | 4.99E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| water density | $g/m^3$ | 1.00E+06 | - | - | - | - |
| gravity | $m/s^2$ | 9.81E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| RIVER GEOPOTENTIAL | $m^3/yr$ | 1.51E+08 | J/yr | 1.48E+18 | 1.09E+04 | 1.61E+22 |
| Q Mara river at Vadu Izei | $m^3/s$ | 4.78E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| average height at source | m | 1.00E+03 | - | - | - | - |
| water density | $g/m^3$ | 1.00E+06 | - | - | - | - |
| gravity | $m/s^2$ | 9.81E+00 | - | - | - | - |
| River Chemical Potential | $m^3/yr$ | 1.51E+08 | J/yr | 7.45E+14 | 1.80E+04 | 1.34E+19 |
| water density | $g/m^3$ | 1.00E+06 | - | - | - | - |
| Gibbs free energy | J/g | 4.94E+00 | - | - | - | - |

**Table 5**. Emergy of rainfall and river geopotential / emergy of river chemical potential
**UEV 6.36+03 sej/J (Brown & Ulgiati, 2013)

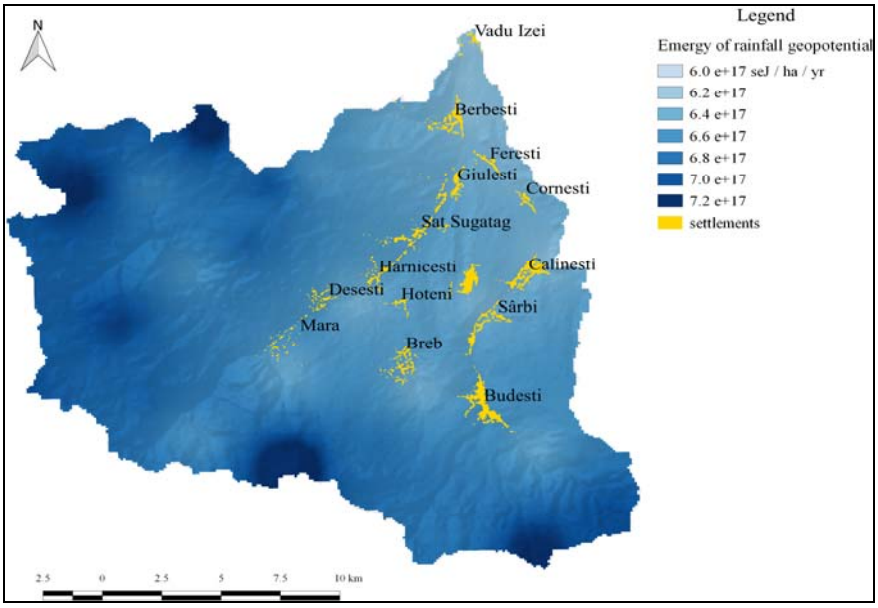


**Figure 6**. Spatial distribution of rainfall's emergy content at the surface of Mara watershed

**Emergy empower index of renewable energy flows**

The emergy empower index represents the total amount of renewable emergy of the highest intensity that converges at the surface of the watershed and sustains the

functionality of the Mara river system in the time frame of one year (Table 6). Measuring the quantity of renewable energy that flows through the system in a year and their aggregation within an empower index allows for the assessment of their intrinsic value and importance in the total emergy budget for the Mara watershed. It also allows for the identification of the most important energy flows that contribute the most in operating the system from a natural point of view. The resulting visualization materials presented above emphasized the individual distribution and quality (through the order of magnitude) of renewable energy resources at the surface of Mara watershed. The visualization of empower index spatial distribution allows (Figure 7) for the identification of those areas were a higher concentration of emergy occurs. This means that, from an emergy perspective, the identified areas have a higher energy value and probably there one can identify the most valuable forms of natural capital.

| crt. | item | units/yr | daw data | UEV sej/unit | UEV references | Emergy seJ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | solar energy | J/yr | 1.47E+18 | 1.00E+00 | Odum, 1996 | 1.47E+18 |
| 2 | geothermal energy | J/yr | 1.17E+15 | 2.00E+04 | Brown & Ulgiati, 2010 | 2.34E+19 |
| 3 | wind energy | J/yr | 1.24E+14 | 1.58E+03 | Brown & Ulgiati, 2013 | 1.96E+17 |
| 4 | rainfall potential evapotranspiration | J/yr | 8.70E+14 | 6.36E+03 | Brown & Ulgiati, 2013 | 5.53E+18 |
| 5 | rainfall geopotential | J/yr | 1.61E+18 | 1.76E+04 | Odum, 2000 | 2.83E+22 |
| 6 | river chemical potential | J/yr | 7.45E+14 | 1.80E+04 | Brown & Ulgiati, 2013 | 1.34E+19 |
| 7 | river geopotential | J/yr | 1.48E+18 | 1.09E+04 | Brown & Ulgiati, 2013 | 1.61E+22 |
| | **TOTAL (R)** | - | - | - | - | **2.79E+22** |

**Table 6**. Intensity of renewable emergy flows index in the Mara watershed

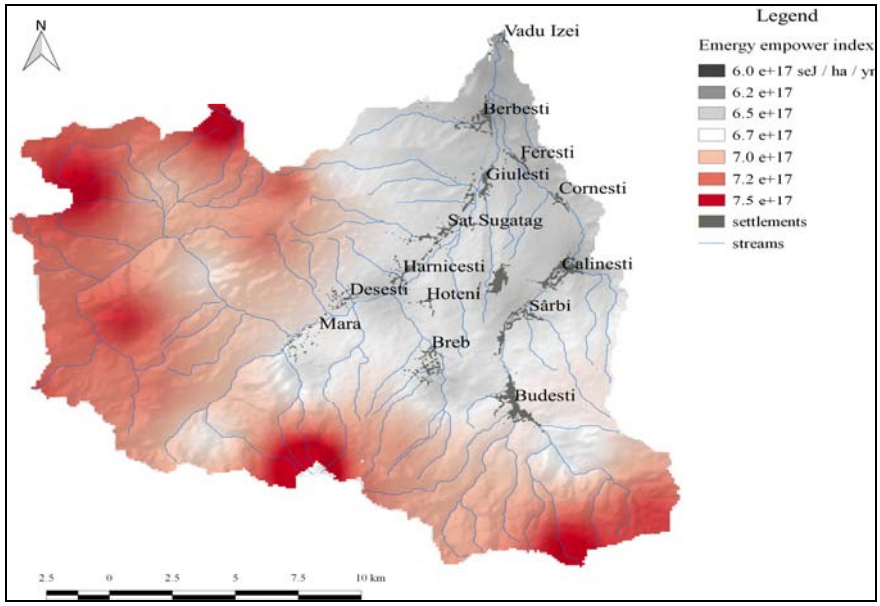


**Figure 7**. Emergy empower index at the surface of Mara watershed

The visualization material is presented as a Quantum GIS product and becomes:

- *information for better understanding the spatial distribution of renewable energies available within the watershed;*

- *an instrument partially useful in the decision making process regarding the conservation of local natural resources.*

According to the methodological framework, all forms of renewable energies are derived from the solar energy and become by-products. Therefore, the emergy empower index cannot be calculated by summing up all energies converging at the surface of the watershed, but by aggregating and extracting the highest value from them all for each surface unit – the hectare.

Rainfall and associated drainage represent the most important renewable energy source in the Mara watershed. From an emergy point of view, the quantification process leads to the identification of large differences in rainfall emergy quantity compared with the other types of energies. Nontheless this aspect can be visually observed through landscaping. Compared with the values registered in the depression the index decreases as we approach the habitable areas on the valley corridors.

## CONCLUSIONS

Speaking about flows in general and about energy flows in particular, inoculates the idea of an interaction phenomenology, materialized as an exchange of matter, energy and information, both natural and anthropic that has a modelling capacity over the spaces it occurs. In geographic space, the flows indicate a superior form of organization of different entities bonded by causal relations.

In this paper, the description and quantification of the main renewable energy flows in the Mara watershed using the premises of Emergy methodology aid in portraying the most important renewable energy resources in the basin, their hierarchical position and their heterogenous spatial distribution within the territory. The resulted visualization materials become information that can assist the decision making processes regarding useful local resource allowance and conservation.

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# SATISFACTION DEGREE RATING OF TOURIST SERVICES IN BUZIAŞ SPA, TIMIŞ COUNTY, ROMANIA

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**Abstract:** Due to its features, Buziaş spa, from Timis County, mainly addresses curative tourism based on the physical and mental recovery of tourists. Given the services it provides and the specific tourist product, the largest share of tourists is made up of pensioneers, therefore the current study aims to monitor the retirees' satisfaction degree who benefited of treatment procedures. The used method was that of sociologic survey based on a questionnaire, as well as the quantitative, primary and secondary data collection and analysis methods.

**Key words:** satisfaction degree, tourist services, spa tourism

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## INTRODUCTION

The origin of spa tourism stems back to thousands of years, the first spa being attributed to Queen Cleopatra of Egypt who has established the first spa on the shores of the Dead Sea in about 25 BC, but the Romans, in their territorial expansion towards Europe, the Middle East and North Africa left behind a wide variety of facilities built across more centuries from 54 BC to 450 AD (Cooper & Cooper, 2009).

In Romania's case the sea water of *"Callatis"* and *"Tomis"* was used for treatment as well as the sulphurous spring and thermal waters since the Roman expansion period. Natural cure factors, in particular mineral water, have been in human attention since ancient times, a fact proven by the numerous archaeological findings that have revealed parts of the old Roman baths facilities in spas such: Geoagiu (known since the time of the Dacians under the name *"Germisara"* and in Roman times *"Dodonae Termae"*), Herculane, Călan, Săcelu - Gorj, Ocna Sibiului, Moneasa, Buziaş, Călimăneşti (Pricăjan, 1985).

The paper focuses on the spa of Buzias from western Romania (Figure 1), frequented by patients who suffer of cardiovascular diseases. On Romania's territory

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there are also such treatment resorts in Balvanyos, Băile Tuşnad, Borsec, Buziaş, Covasna, Lipova, Vatra Dornei and Vâlcele (Neacşu & Băltăreţu, 2006).

The focus of the current paper is to make an analysis of the evolution of Buzias spa in terms of tourist consumption across time and to reveal to which degree tourists are satisfied with both curative treatments and related-tourist services such as accommodation, food and cleanliness.

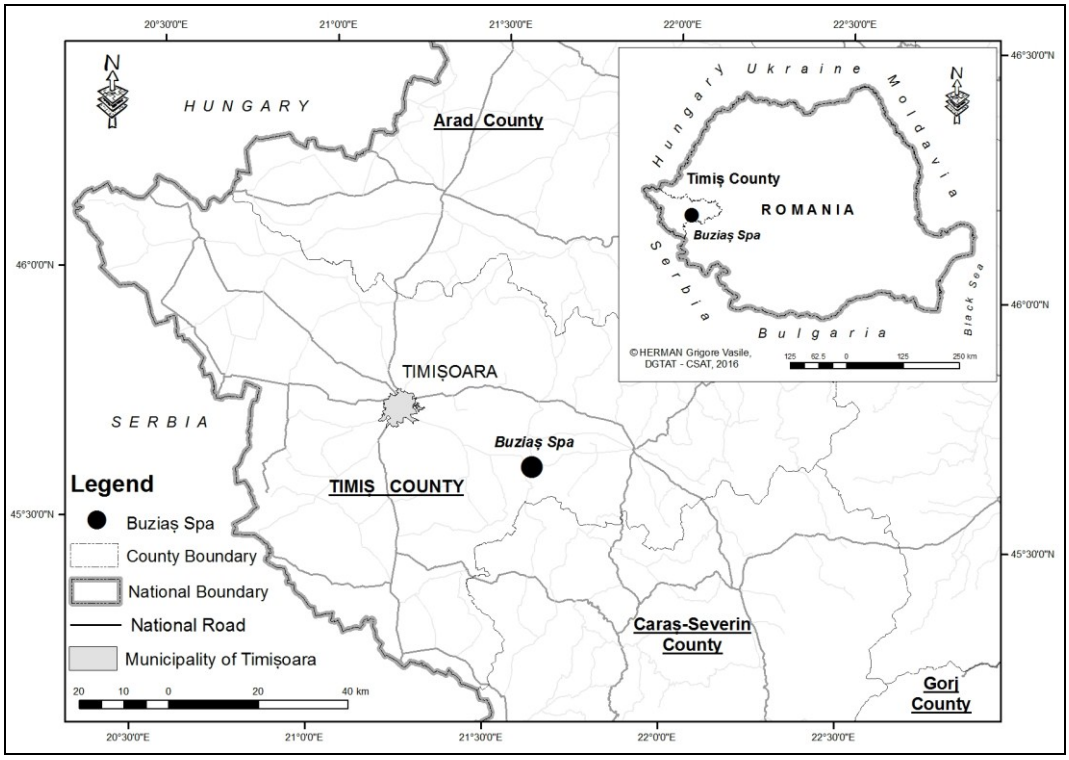


**Figure 1.** Buziaș Spa Location

## METHODOLOGY

The paper is based on desk research where the related references available within Romanian libraries were consulted and field research. The scope of the research was to apply a satisfaction questionnaire to retiree persons who have received curative and treatment procedures within the spa and reveal their statisfaction level.

The used method was the survey and investigative technique through face-to-face questionnaire (Chelcea, 2007; Bryman, 2012; Babbie, 2010; Herman et al., 2015) which was conducted by the authors.

As a tool for investigation, choice questions were used. Ten retiree people were interviewed per day (30 May, 31 May, 1st of June 2015), amounting to a total of 30 respondents. From a structural viewpoint, the questionnaire was made up of two distinct parts. The first part aimed for information related to the respondents' socio-professional structure, and the second part was made up of nine items which aimed to collect information related to the diseases of the interviewed, the diet followed and the satisfaction degree versus the quality of treatment, food and accommodation services, the doctors' and physiotherapists output and cleanliness degree.

**EVOLUTIONARY TRENDS ACROSS TIME IN BUZIAS SPA**

For a better understanding of the spa's evolution across time, the accomplishment of the spa's life cycle was hereby drafted.

Known in the Roman times as *"Ahibis"*, the resort is documented in the year 1320 and was declared a fully-fledged resort as early as 1819. There are numerous traces and evidence of life-related age and continuity in this territory. The oldest discoveries revealed in Silagiu village date from 18 - 17 BC.

The cultural complex Basarabi illustrates the state of civilazation of Geto-Dacian tribes (Sfetcu, 2001) on this territory, a spa-consumption, later on completed by the Dacian-Roman people, as asserted by the botanist Al. Borza who said: *"Buziaş was certainly known and exploited, because there have been discovered Roman water pipes and bricks."* (Borza, 1943, apud Simuţ & Simuţ, 1986). In the same respect, Tudor (1968) wrote: *"We have archaeological evidence that in Roman times in Banat were also used thermal waters (actually, minerals) from Buziaş (Timiş county). Around these springs, a whole assemble of masonry, tile pipes, coins, bricks, sculptures and inscriptions on stone, unfortunately all scattered, without any previous study can be noted"*. Unfortunately researchers could not undertake systematic research leading to discovery of conclusive material evidence, so there is still uncertainty regarding the period of using mineral waters from Buziaş. Nonetheless, more doctors have researched and applied water as a healing procedure for patients such as doctor Lindenmayer Adalber, doctor Gheorghe Ciocârlan (1764-1848), doctor Mahler Julius, a cardiologist and gynecologist, who introduced external cure (in baths) inspired by the German resort Bad Neuheim.

The discovery of mineral waters in 1805, which has contributed to designate Buziaş as an administrative center of the 31 municipalities of the Timiş Regional County Fund, marked the beginning of the output from a secular anonymity. In the evolution of the settlement, an important role was played since it was declared a spa in 1819. The therapeutic value of mineral waters soon became known both in Hungary and neighboring countries. Planning of the springs *"Michael"* and *"Joseph"* in 1837 for internal cure and research work carried out by the Romanian doctor Gheorghe Ciocârlan in the period 1838-1848 led to the growth of the fledgling renowned resort. Hungarian doctors and the naturalists' Congress held in Timisoara in 1843 also brought Buziaş spa into the spotlight (Simuţ & Simuţ, 1986).

As with most tourist destinations of the time, the elite class were the prevailing clients. The number of those who were treated in Buziaş grew considerably from 662 in the year 1872, up to 10966 in the following period 1885-1895. In recognition of the prestige enjoyed by the resort, in September 1898, Emperor Franz Joseph and heir, Prince Franz Ferdinand visited Buziaş.

On the 17$^{th}$ of December 1903 the artesian aquifer was discovered, very important both quantitatively and qualitatively, a fact which created the prerequisites for diversification of spa treatment and bottling of carbon dioxide mineral water. Thus, a bottling plant was built in 1907. The bottled mineral water, back then well ranked at national and international exhibitions was awarded with a Gold Medal (at Bratislava in 1908). Currently the mineral water from Buziaş is no longer bottled.

In 1906 the Muschong family bought the resort and restored Bath no. 1 and Bath no. 2, thus achieving increased bathing procedures that were performed daily. On 11 June 1948 the spa nationalization occured – thus the private Muschon-owned property passed to state-owned property and an economic enterprise was created which was designated to ensure the accomodation and treatment of patients. Since year 1991, the enterprise is called *"Buziaş Treatment Trading Company"*.

Further on, three hotels were built between 1975 - 1984: Buziaş, Parc and Timiş currently known as Phoenix, Parc and Timiş, the last being in conservation. The latest data processed according to the national statistics shows that there are currently five hotels (of which three are functional) in the resort along with 2 guesthouses, villas which used to be trendy in the spas up to the '90, but the latter are nowadays obsolete and not planned for tourism accommodation. The tourist frequency was further on analyzed (Figure 2), the highest level recorded for arriving tourists was in the year 2011 followed by year 2013.

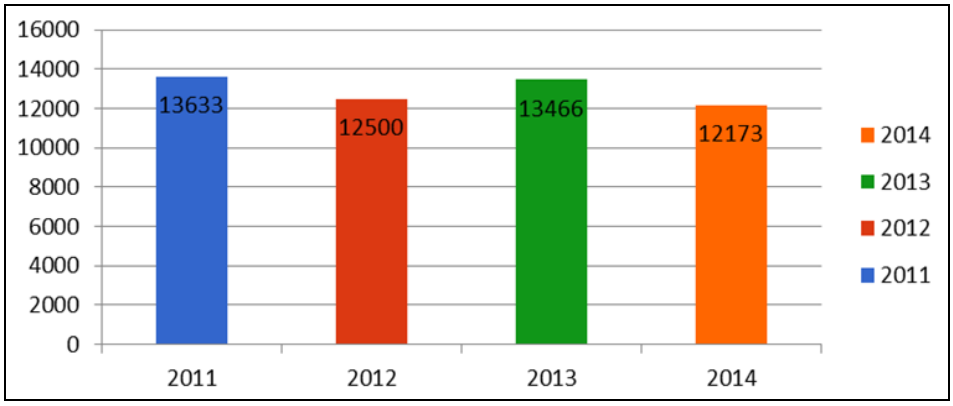


**Figure 2.** Tourist arrivals in Buzias during 2011-2014
(Source: National Institute of Statistics)

The average length of stay in the resort, based on own calculations has increased from 7,11 days/tourist in 2011 to 8,83 in 2014, despite the decreasing number of tourists in the latter year. In 2014, 41% of the net accommodation capacity in function was used.

The accomplishment of the spa's life cycle was based on all the above indicators, i.e. earliest historical proves of tourist consumption, persons involved in the spa's development, buildings erected across time to accommodate tourists with cardiovascular affections mainly, the form of property of the spa, private or state-owned, statistical indicators and qualitative surveys which all allowed to spotlight the old and current situation of the spa and its evolution across time (Figure 3). As with most Romanian spas, we can see how its ascending path to success was cut on the analyzed timeline in 1948, along with the territory nationalisation and thus a production and consumption uniformisation of most Romanian spas.

This occured along with the onset on the Communist Party, in 1945, when all spas fell in the hands of the state, the result being of a product standardisation. So cutting away rich investors, not taking into account former local architecture of the spa has triggered a great disrupture for the local tourism bussiness whose results can bee seen today when the spa is struggling to adjust to the contemporary needs of the clients. Nonetheless there are slight burgeons of tourism revirement with the new accommodation units, i.e. guest houses that have appeared after 1989 in the democratic era. Guesthouses are on the second place of the market share with a total of 28.58% preceded by hotels which hold 71.42% of the existing tourist accommodation capacity in Buziaş. If in 1990 there weren't any guest houses, only 18 villas and 5 hotels and in 2014; there are 2 guesthouses, 5 hotels and no functional villas (INS, 2016).

The spa's future may lie in the small local entrepreneurship, such as the small folk museum and aviation shows held on a regular basis. Such a positive example resides in Iulia

Folea-Troceanu's folk art collections exhibit with clothing items, costumes, sewing and fabrics made by the hands of hardworking women, old items of furniture and other objects which can be admired within the the small etnographic folk museum which exhibits an impressive number of local folklore items from Banat. Based on this model of local entrepreneurship further small sustainable local projects can be developed which will help differentiate among cardiovascular spas in Romania and create branding strategies with local specificity.

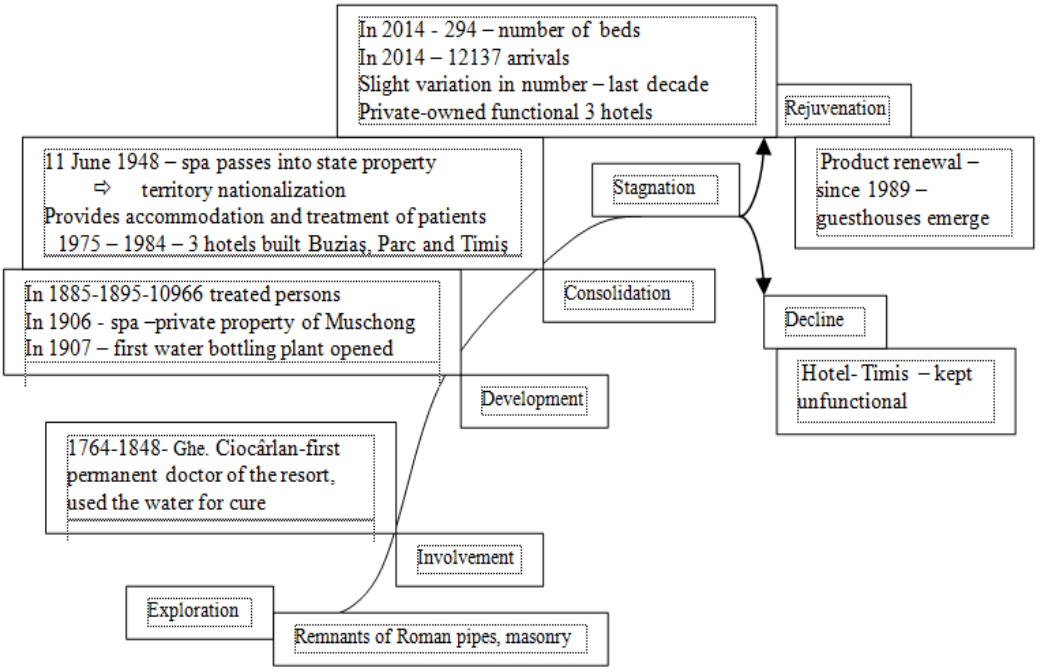


**Figure 3.** Evolutionary trends across time in Buzias spa
Source: adaptation after Butler (2006)

**Figure 4.** Parachute jumps
Source: www.buzias.ro

**Figure 5.** Aircraft fleet
Source: www.buzias.ro

As far as the tourist product differentiation is concerned, an aerodrome is located in Buziaş, the private property of Aero West aviation school. Ocassionally, they organize

air shows. People from Timişoara and from the county come to see the great air show. Other than aviation classes, Aero West organize parachute jumps (Figure 4) and offer services like air taxi, parcel post, advertisement banner fly and various activities in agriculture. The aircraft fleet (Figure 5) consists of eight AN2 aircrafts, two Cessna 152 aircraft and one Cessna 172 aircraft. This attracts a younger segment of tourists or day-trippers versus the ones taking baths within the treatment centres of the resort.

So, the cardiovascular resort has all premises for becoming a sustainable resort with a diversified supply and also capable to attract a younger segment of population. Currently in Buzias live 8388 permanent residents, which divided to the number of tourists allowed the calculation of the tourist density, which in the year 2014 amounted to 1,45 tourists/resident, thus renderening a sustainable carrying capacity in the territory.

## CURE FACTORS AND THERAPEUTICAL INDICATIONS

The resort is specialized in the treatment of cardiovascular and central nervous systems. Other associated diseases can be treated such as diseases of the digestive tract, neurasthenia, occupational diseases, nutrition and metabolic disorders and certain rheumatic diseases. Climate, free $CO_2$ and mineral waters are the natural cure factors representative for Buziaş resort. Many patients and tourists benefit from the healing properties of climate influenced by local relief. Sunbathing and field cure (brisk walk in the park) are boosted by the ionization air present in the area of Buziaş resort. The sedative bioclimate characterized by very weak request to autonomic nervous system and the endocrine glands allows the rapid acclimatization of the patients.

The four springs with healing factors are named: *23 August, Phoenix, Fenix and Mos Bîzieş*. These waters are indicative in cardiovascular diseases, the preventive treatment as well prevention of disease evolution towards more advanced stages and are recommended against: Dyslipidemia, Primary hypertension (stage I), Raynaud's disease. The therapeutic treatment (for consolidating medication results or boost the effects of a current medication treatment) is recommended in: stage II of myocardial infarction (convalescent) three months after hospital discharge; stage III of myocardial infarction (post convalescence) in summer; primary hypertension (stage II); secondary atherosclerotic hypertension and varicose veins. For recovery it is recommended for: peripheral vascular disease, varicose veins without trophic disorders (Pasztai, 2011).

For Central Nervous System diseases, therapeutic treatment is recommended for Hemiparesis (two years after onset), for the treatment of circulatory, osteoarticular or trophic complications; also for treatment of basic diseases (primary hypertension, diabetes, etc.) Recovery treatment is also is recommended for hemiparesis (six months - two years after stroke). For diseases of the digestive system, the preventive treatment is recommended for irritable bowel syndrome.

For nutrition and metabolism disorders, preventive, therapeutic and recovery treatment is recommended for obesity with cardiovascular complications. For occupational diseases, preventive treatments are recommended for maladies of the musculoskeletal system augmented by professional conditions (Pasztai, 2011). There are also some general counter indications: acute illness, cancer, repeated and abundant bleeding of any kind, pathological pregnancy in any month, normal pregnancy starting from 3rd month, epilepsy and leukemia (Simuţ & Simuţ, 1986).

## RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

A satisfaction questionnaire was applied to 30 retiree persons who have received treatment procedures, namely 17 male and 13 female respondents. Several sets of medical conditions were given and respondents indicated of which they suffer.

Respondents were also asked to rate general aspects of their stay, the assistance given by the resort's doctors, physiotherapists and other staff and a specific indicator of personal satisfaction: treatment results.

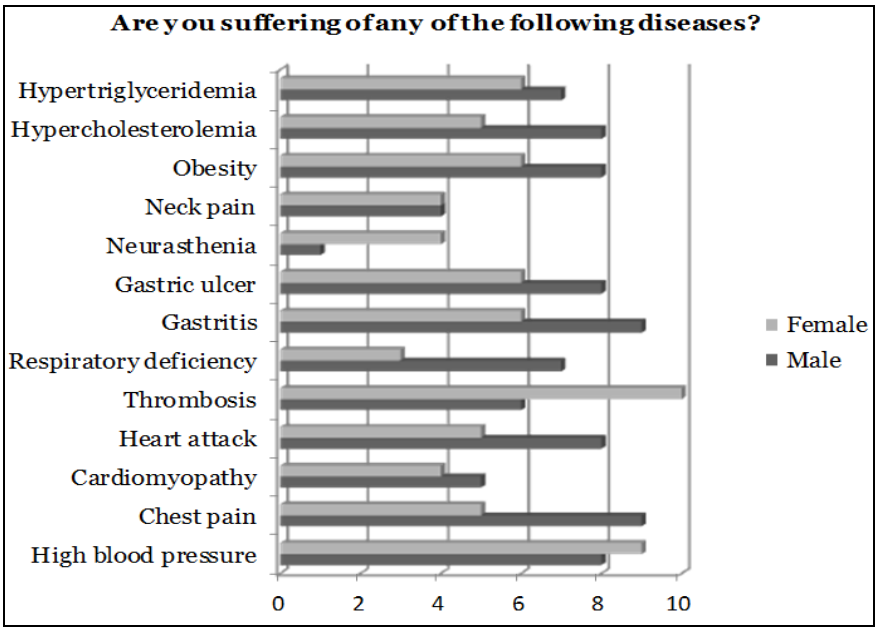


**Figure 6.** Medical conditions indicated by female and male respondents

As a result of the data analysis it came out that there are certain differences among the male and female respondents, among the male population the most frequent deseases being chest pains, gastritis and high blood pressure whereas among the female population the most acute desease is thrombosis and high blood pressure (Figure 6, Table 1).

**Table 1.** Medical conditions indicated by female and male respondents

| The affected system | Name of the disease | Number of cases |
|---|---|---|
| Heart and Circulatory system diseases | High blood pressure | 17 |
| | Chest pain | 14 |
| | Cardiomyopathy | 9 |
| | Heart attack | 13 |
| | Thrombosis | 16 |
| Respiratory system diseases | Respiratory deficiency | 10 |
| Digestive system diseases | Gastritis | 15 |
| | Gastric ulcer | 14 |
| Nervous system diseases | Neurasthenia | 5 |
| | Cervical spondylosis | 8 |
| Nutrition and Metabolism Disorders | Obesity | 14 |
| | Hypercholesterolemia | 13 |
| | Hypertriglyceridemia | 13 |

### The respondents' assessment with relation to the followed diet

Diet has an important role in improving the medical conditions along with the therapy procedures. Under the strict guidance and supervision of a nutritionist,

patients may serve menus from different diets. For example, a menu can be recommended only for those who suffer from diseases of the liver and stomach and some forms of cardiovascular diseases. For those medical conditions, the most severe menu is served since that excludes fat, salt, spiced and fried food. Another menu is dedicated to diabetic people where foods rich in carbohydrates are excluded. The current study revealed that 57% of the respondents were following a diet despite the age. The remaining 43%, despite being aware of its benefits and the desease improvement, do not follow it for various reasons (Figure 7).

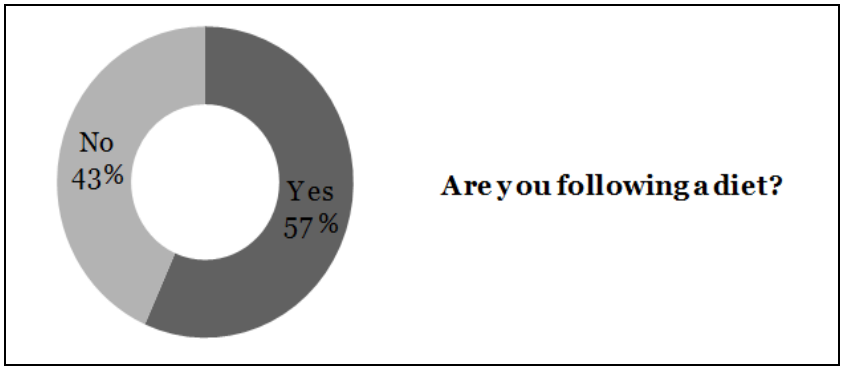


**Figure 7.** Percentage of respondents following or not a diet

**The assessment of the respondents' satisfaction degree related to the medical services**

The assessment of the respondents' satisfaction degree who followed a treatment procedure in Buzias was centered on the following satisfaction-related indicators: the doctors of the resort, the physiotherapists, the quality and quantity of food during the stay, cleanliness, accommodation and treatment. The doctors of the resort constitute an important indicator with relation to the respondents' satisfaction degree, decisive in the case of repeat customers. From the resuts' analysis it came out that only 40% were very satisfied with the doctors' output, the remaining part being somewhat satisfied (27%), somewhat unsatisfied (30%) and very unsatisfied (3%) (Figure 8).

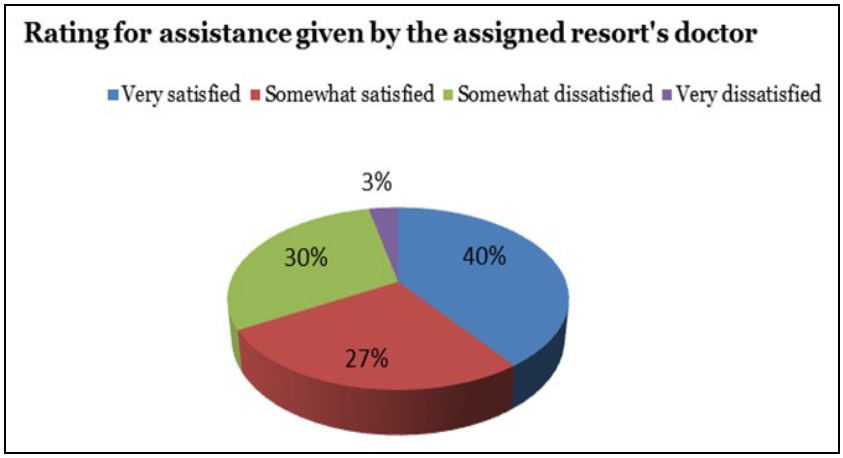


**Figure 8.** Rating for assistance given by the assigned resort's doctor

**Assessment of the respondents' satisfaction degree related to the physiotherapists' services**

As in the case of the spa's doctors, physiotherapists reveal a sensitive indicator as far as the respondents' satisfaction is concerned with a decisive role in generating the tourist motivation. From the analysis of the respondents' replies, no person was unsatisfied, while 47% declared themselves to be somewhat satisfied by the physiotherapists services, 30% very satisfied and 23% somehow unsatisfied (Figure 9).

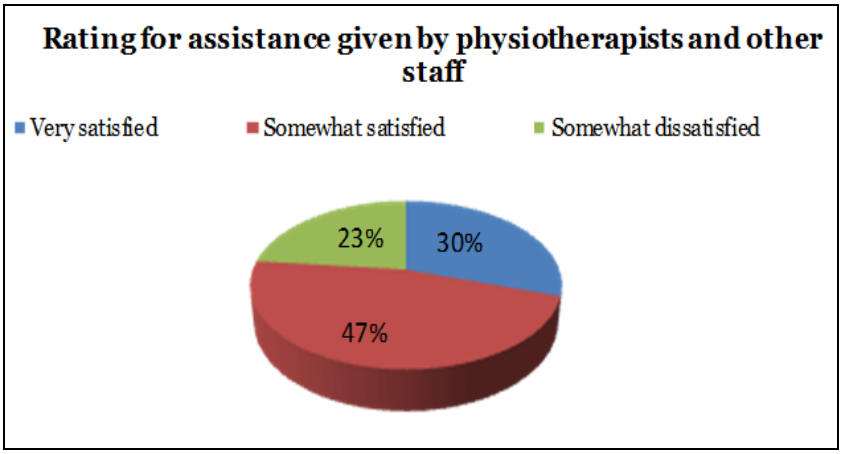


**Figure 9**. Rating for assistance given by physiotherapists and other staff

Comparing the satisfaction degree of pensioneers who followed a treatment with relation to the services of the two professional categories, the one of doctors and physiotherapists, the latter category is preferred.

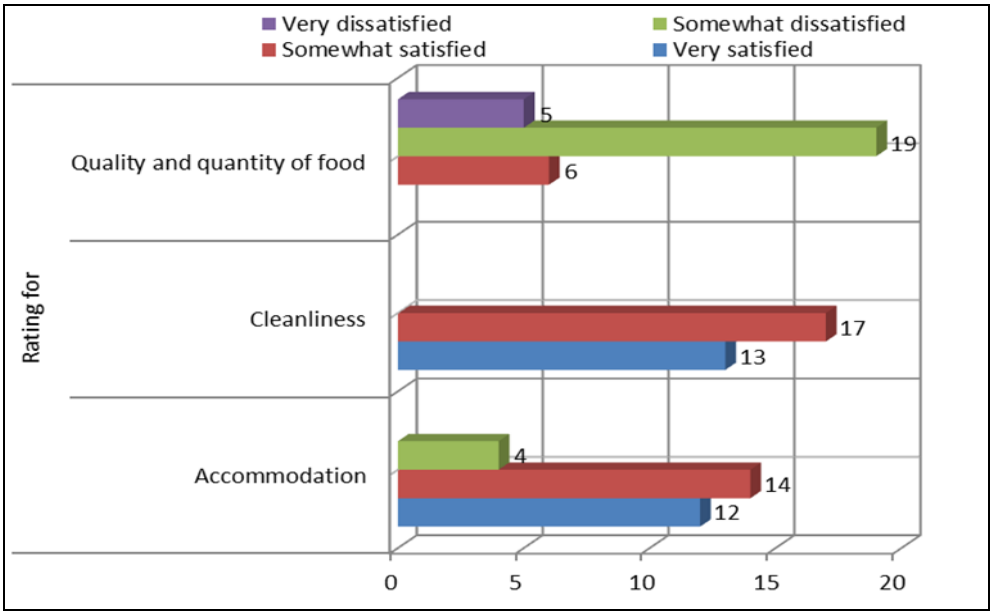


**Figure 10.** Ratings for quality and quantity of food, cleanliness and accommodation

**Rating the respondents' satisfaction degree with reference to the quality and quantity of food**

The respondents' satisfaction degree with reference to the quantity and quality of food also concors to the socio-professional category which he/she belongs to. Nonetheless the global image reveals that the answers are somewhat unsatisfactory (19 persons), followed by the somewhat satisfactory (6 persons) and very satisfied ones (5 persons) (Figure 10).

**Assessment of the respondents' satisfaction degree with reference accommodation and cleanliness**

The analysis of the obtained data with relation to the respondents' satisfaction degree highlights a somewaht similar situation for the two indicators. Thus, the largest share of respondents have declared themselves to be somewhat satisfied and very unsatisfied whereas in the case of the indicator related to accommodation, merely 4 persons declared themselves to be unsatisfied (Figure 10).

**Assessment of the respondents' satisfaction degree about the treatment procedures**

The spa treatment consists of heated strong carbonated mineral water baths and Carbon-dioxide healing bath "mofetă". The two main types of treatments in the resort are known as major procedures and with recommandation from doctors, other adjuvant procedures are available: thermotherapy, electrotherapy, aerosols, physiotherapy, medical gymnastics as well as internal cure with mineral water.

In the northern part of the resort there are three therapy and wellness centers: the one from three-starred Hotel Parc which includes a swimming pool, Jacuzzi, sauna and general treatment procedures such as: electrotherapy, kinetic therapy and hydrotherapy, Carbon-dioxide healing bath "mofetă", massage therapy, hydro-massage, hydrotherapy, paraffin wax treatment, ultrasound treatments; the one from the two-starred Hotel Timiş (currently unfunctional) and the last one, the newly buit two-starred Hotel Silvana (2014) therapy center which also includes general treatment procedures. To be eligible for treatment in the spa, it is necessary for patients to come to the resort with a reference form with the specified diagnosis and a medical record. The treatments will be determined by the doctor as a result of the initial consultation and analyses presented by the patient (Simuţ & Simuţ, 1986).

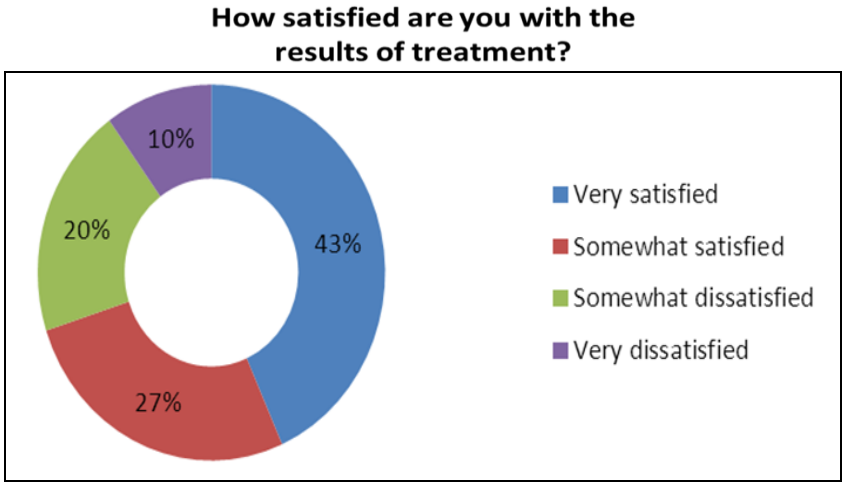


**Figure 11.** Satisfaction of treatment result

A great percentage of respondents (70%) considered that the results of treatment were satisfactory. Nevertheless, 30% of respondents considered that the results of treatment were not good enough. Of the total 30 interviewed retirees, 40% of them were there for the first time in Buziaş; among them 60% came form the urban background while 40% from the rural background (Figure 11).

## CONCLUSIONS

Buziaş spa resort is the only one in the Western Plain of Romania specialized in treating cardiovascular diseases. The importance of natural cure factors on the human body from this area dates from ancient times, based on the the archeological vestiges and the written documents. Currently, treatments offered by the resort's therapy and spa centers are opened all year round.

Satisfaction with both medical services and the ancillary ones (food, accommodation, cleanliness) is an important issue both approached in the Romanian references (Berlescu, 1998; Gaceu & Herman, 2010; Gaceu & Teodoreanu, 2013; Herman & Tătar, 2015; Ilieş et al., 2015) as well as in the foreign ones (Bowen, 2001; Bramwell, 1998; Chon & Olsen, 1991; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Liu et al., 2010; Huang & Hua, 2014). The research is up-to-date given the period in which the study was conducted, but it encounters some limitations given the representativeness degree, the group size limited to 30 retirees.

The resort has good premises for development and product diversification, the number of tourists revolving around 12000 tourists/year, sustainable local entrepreneurship should be stimulated and proliferated as in the case of the local folk museum and air-borne activities, a good investment would also be the re-opening of the former mineral water bottling plant, smaller wellness spa centres so a to attract a younger segment of population, as the vast majority of tourists in the resort are retirees. Accommodation units have diversified across time, guesthouses come to the forefront in this respect, nonetheless most medical services are carried out through the hotels and their associated medical staff.

As the study emphasized, most respondents declared themselves to be satisfied with most medical services, treatments, accommodation and cleanliness-related services, while the restoration-related area needs improvement for the quality and quantity of food served to its clients.

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# SILVER TOURISM IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

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**Abstract:** The silver economy is an area of growth. Almost all economic sectors are expected to benefit from the silver economy. Sectors like cosmetics and fashion, smart homes, ITC, health services (including medical devices, pharmaceuticals and eHealth), fitness and wellness, robotics services, finance and insurance, safety, culture, education and skills, entertainment, transport and of course tourism are expected to gain the most from the emerging new field of economy. The elder generation's enthusiasm for travel is growing rapidly. However, "senior tourism" is not yet a clearly defined segment. The elderly are a heterogeneous population group with different consumption demands that can only be met by a correspondingly differentiated range of products and 4services. As a result of the growing demand, senior tourists are foreseen to become a powerful consumer group in the near future. According to our research, the 50+ population have their own preferences whilst travelling, and thus, the good understanding of their needs is becoming extremely important for silver tourism providers, especially because Europe is expected to be the biggest actor in the silver tourism market.

**Key words:** age-friendly cities, health care, well-being, medical tourism, senior tourism, silver tourism, silver economy

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## INTRODUCTION

The population worldwide is showing an ageing tendency, both in developed and developing countries. Modern gerontology research is expected to increase average life expectancy, and as a result, the average standard of living is also foreseen to rise. According to scientific prognoses, the second largest region affected by ageing will be the

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European Union after Japan. After the grey hair of senior people, European Union experts have named this phenomenon of ageing-related business and service provision opportunities "silver economy". Silver economy is expected to affect almost every segment of the world economy in the near future. Of course, many scientists think that the existing economic models will be able to adapt to the upcoming trends, but the results of our research show that fundamental changes will be needed both at economic and social levels. The age group above 50 cannot be considered as a homogeneous group of elderly people; on the contrary, the group can be divided into different fragments.

Age is a main distinctive feature: there can be decades of difference, which means that we can talk about "younger" and "older" senior people. Beyond this, there are other differentiating factors like gender, cultural background, acquired skills, life experience or health status. Taking into account all the various factors, we can say that senior people are different (Zsarnoczky, 2016 a). Our study will focus on silver tourism, examining the aspects of tourism, demography, ITC, health sector, gerontology, life coaching and security technology. I have conducted interviews with gerontology experts and then analysed their answers and opinions on silver tourism. Our primary research consisted of surveys taken in 5 segments of the 50+ age group on their travel habits. As a result of our research, I aim to define the demand side of silver tourism, and I also wish to explore the forecasted trends and special characteristics of "grey hair" tourism in the near future.

**The significance of the silver economy**

Silver economy has different perceptions worldwide. In Japan, the "robotic revolution" is considered as the only possible solution; meanwhile, in the Anglo-Saxon regions of the western hemisphere – in the USA, Australia and New Zealand - silver economy is planned to be narrowed down to designated and easily controllable zones and city parts. In this aspect, the European Union has a clear and different vision of the possible solution, in line with the historic principles of solidarity. Based on the fundamentals of social and economic cohesion and by linking generations together, the EU aims to introduce the latest results of gerontology research and innovation technology into the daily life of the elderly.

**Table 1.** Top Ten Ageing Countries 2015-2030 (Source: European Comission, 2016)

| | 2015 | 2030 |
|---|---|---|
| **1.** | Japan | Japan |
| **2.** | Germany | Germany |
| **3.** | Italy | Italy |
| **4.** | France | South Korea |
| **5.** | Spain | France |
| **6.** | United Kingdom | Switzerland |
| **7.** | Canada | United Kingdom |
| **8.** | Ukraine | USA |
| **9.** | Poland | Australia |
| **10.** | USA | China |

It is evident that the population of Europe is ageing (Rédei, 2006). The trend is at the same time a great challenge and a huge possibility for the people of the continent (Table 1). Based on the analysis of various research results, experts of the European Union have started to develop new programmes that aim to offer new solutions and alternatives for those who are willing to participate in the respective schemes. The three main programmes: Active and Assisted Living Programme (AAL), Horizon 2020 and European Innovation Partnership on Active and Healthy Ageing (EIP AHA) unite

market operators, high level business representatives and experts of the non-profit sector to work together and to get to know each other's demands better. As the increase in the number of senior people is well predictable, the first step was to name the segment by creating the term "silver economy". Silver economy includes the total economic activity of the 50+ population with all its expenditure-related products and demands (European Parliament, 2015). Actors that wish to fulfil the new market niche had already started experimental projects within the frameworks of the so called Living Lab programme that aims to assess senior consumers' demands under controlled circumstances and develop the best solutions and services for them. Among EU countries, the most advanced projects are in Lãnsi-Suomi, Finland, but new innovative experimental projects can also be found in Hungary; e.g. the Park Royal Resorts in Parádsasvár, where privately financed new innovative experimental projects targeting senior people are at the beginning of their implementation phase.

**Specificity of the silver economy**

The next figure (Figure 1) shows that the spending willingness of senior people affects almost every economic sector. As indicated by the figure, elderly people represent a huge market segment; however, marketing experts had not yet exploited this possibility.

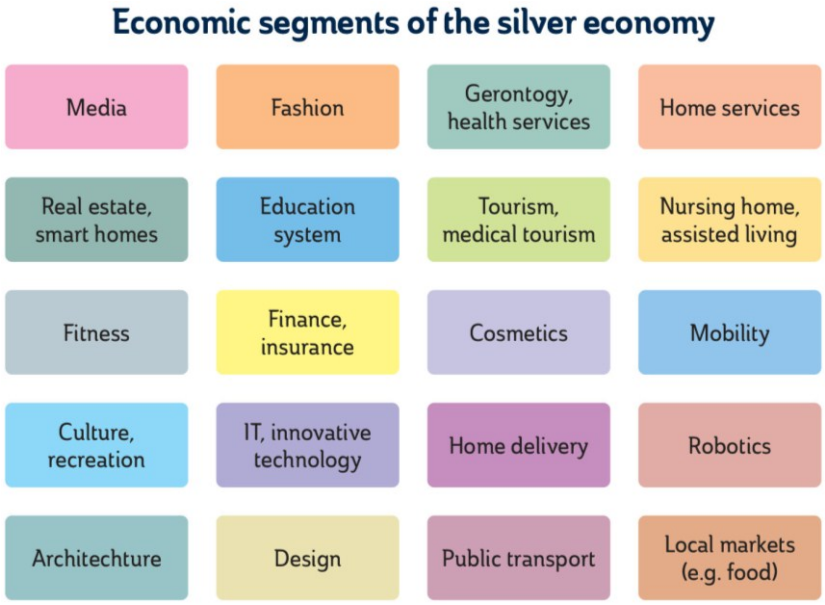


**Figure 1**. The impact of the silver economy on economic segments (Source: Zsarnoczky M., 2016)

Service providers shown in the Figure 1 and the elderly people are gradually starting to realise the importance of a healthy lifestyle. In fact, there is a tendency among them to open up towards regular physical activity and physical-emotional-intellectual harmony, and as a result, a higher level of empathy will emerge towards them (Zsarnoczky, 2016b). In response to the challenges of the "greying century", new scientific fields have emerged. There are important research efforts going on in order to have a greater understanding of biological processes related to ageing.

The science of gerontology examines the chronological changes in human life processes that affect everybody equally. For example, it is a general statement that the ageing of the body is a normal biological process, not necessarily accompanied by

pathological lesions or diseases. However, the biological processes of natural ageing increase the vulnerability to diseases and accidents. With ageing, the body mass decreases, the movement ability decreases, cellular loss becomes continuous, the pain threshold becomes lower, blood pressure increases, lung capacity declines and muscular strength decreases; service providers must take all these aspects into account when developing targeted services for the elderly. Hereditary factors, environmental impacts, personal lifestyles developed in younger years, behaviour, social status, emotional and cognitive development, moral and ethical values and the accessibility to quality free time all affect ageing and life expectancy (Imre, 2007).

The most important results of gerontology research are:

- human life expectancy can be expanded up to 150 years, including an additional 30 years achieved by healthy lifestyle, genetic modifications and implant technologies;
- intellectual performance can be enhanced by chemical, psychological and psycho-biological methods;
- the defensive-protective operation of the immune system can be influenced and modified by targeted dietetic programmes;
- the role function of elderly age is transforming, but there is no general pattern of ageing, because diseases affect life quality.

Different risk factors can emerge at any stage during ageing, but there is a so-called "healthy ageing process" (Czigler, 2000). According to this, elderly people become ill because they are affected by a disease, and not because they are old. Health issues directly related to ageing are more like movement coordination disorders, lack of stamina or dementia (Halmos, 2002). I think that elderly people are gradually starting to realise the importance of a healthy lifestyle, and there is a tendency among them to open up towards regular physical activity and physical-emotional-intellectual harmony, and as a result, a higher level of empathy will be shown towards them.

**Senior-friendly tourism scene**

According to present tendencies, the process of ageing goes on in parallel with today's trends of urbanisation. As a result, the population "urbanises" from rural and peripheral regions towards central areas (Enyedi, 2002) in the majority of the developed countries. Municipal governments and urban planners will have to cope with huge challenges in the near future, when the development of senior-friendly spaces becomes a priority. The changes will greatly affect local people, living environments, existing road and pavement systems, utility and transport services, community spaces and parks, workplaces, shopping facilities, doctors' offices, schools, hospitals, public institutions and the whole settlement area and everyday life (Piskóti, 2012).

The newly introduced term of senior-friendly accessibility will not only refer to a space developed especially for elderly people, but it will also mean a more user-friendly environment for the whole population. The decreased level of noise and electro-smog, the re-design of allotted passing time at crosswalks, the allocation of covered benches and resting places, the targeted distribution of public toilets and the re-organisation of the crossings of bicycle routes and pavements used by the elderly are all important innovations which will have a positive response from the senior citizens first. Such spaces with a higher level of safety will not only be suitable for the elderly: children, young single women and disabled people will also benefit from the changes. Safety is also a priority when it comes to tourism – as a matter of fact, it is the most important factor of decision making about destinations.

The definition of tourism space requires caution (Michalkó et al., 2007). In terms of settlement marketing, the existing image of a destination is extremely hard to change (Piskóti, 2000). The implementation of senior-friendly tourism scenes is a long-term

process in which the transformation of urban spaces is only part of the development. According to tourism experts, the possible innovative brand of "designed for older people" will spread only gradually. During our research, some further questions have emerged beyond the scope of this current analysis; however, urban planners and toursims decision makers should take these questions into consideration:

- To what extent can a local community be senior-friendly?
- To what extent do local actors support senior-friendly development?
- To what extent can a tourism destination be senior-friendly?
- Which one is more probable: senior tourism or senior-friendly tourism?

**Silver tourism**

The older generation is getting increasingly more committed to tourism. Members of the "silent generation" (Kotler et al., 2012) have significant spendable income and are interested in exploring the world. A typical group of them is the Baby-boom generation, born between the late 1940s and mid-1960s. They typically buy travel packages, put an emphasis on the length of their stay at the destination, are interested in other cultures and open towards novel gastronomy trends. From another point of view, senior tourists cannot be defined as a homogenous group (Zsarnoczky, 2016). This is partly due to the fact that the age group of senior citizens (generally referring to 50+ people) itself consists of different generations. A two-generation model of parent and child (ren) can easily belong to the same group; in regions with higher life expectancy, even three generations: grandparent-parent-child(ren) can fall into the same category. In the figure (Figure 2) above, five different groups are defined based on their age. Of course, other group definitions are also possible, but our statements below were developed on the basis of this differentiation, where the following conclusions are true in case of every group.

| Age group | Life stage | Main characteristics (statistical majority) |
|---|---|---|
| 51-64 | Mature | Married<br>Very active social actor<br>Large household<br>Large income (one or multiple resources)<br>Medium disposable income |
| 65-74 | Young-old | Married<br>Active social actor<br>Medium household<br>Multiple income resources<br>Medium disposable income |
| 75-84 | Middle-old | Married / Single<br>Follows social processes<br>Small household<br>One resource of income<br>Large disposable income |
| 85-94 | Old-old | Single*<br>Follows social processes<br>Independent household<br>Large disposable income<br>*usually female |
| 95+ | Very old | Single*<br>Passive social actor<br>Outsourced household<br>One resource of income<br>Medium disposable income<br>*usually female |

**Figure 2.** Phases of Aging /5 ageing groups (Source: Zsarnoczky, 2016)

## METHODOLOGY

### Analysis of silver tourist surveys

The Silver Tourist surveys were taken at 4 locations in Hungary within a time frame of 8 weeks. The locations of the interviews were: Liszt Ferenc International Airport, the most popular tourist spots of Budapest, the city centres of Eger and Hévíz. The respondents were tourists visiting Hungary, all belonging to one of the 5 ageing groups within the 50+ population segment. The analysis of the answers resulted in the following data.

Objective data:

- Number of fully completed surveys: 119; 30% of the total of completed questionnaires (397).
- Gender ratio of respondents: female: 63%, male: 37%
- Ranking of respondents' countries of origin (1-10): Austria, Slovakia, Italy, Poland, Serbia, England, Spain, Russia, Germany, Romania. Ratio of EU countries: 86%.
- Age of respondents: the majority fell within the age group 51-64 (78%), followed by the 65-74 age group (17%). 4% of the respondents were between 75-84 years, while 1% represented the 85-94 age group. The age group of 95+ people was not represented in the surveys.
- As for the level of education of the respondents, 1% had a PhD, 44% of them had graduated from higher education (university or college), 31% had finished secondary education, 20% had graduated from VET education, while 3% had finished primary education, and only 1% had not finished any school at all.
- Marital status of respondents: married and lives with kin: 55%; divorced and single: 15%, widow(er), single: 13%, unmarried and lives with partner: 7%, married but lives with another partner: 3%, unmarried and single: 3%, divorced and lives with partner: 2%, married but lives separately: 1%, widow(er), lives with partner: 1%.
- Latest job of respondents: miscellaneous intellectual activity (without higher education degree): 33%; employment related to higher education degree: 29%; skilled worker (non-agriculture): 9%; intellectual freelancer: 6%; high level management (above head of department): 3%; lower level management (below head of department): 3%; farmer (agriculture): 2%; trader: 2%; mid-level management (head of department): 2%, trained worker: 1%; craftsman (manufacturer): 1%.
- 43% of the respondents claimed that they travel abroad at least once a year; 34% travels at least twice; 11% at least three times, 9% at least four times and 3% travels five times or more frequently towards international destinations annually.
- As for the means of transportation (within the last 5 years), 30% of the respondents claimed to use air transport, 22% opted for organised bus trips; 13% chose to combine air travel with car rental; 11% travelled by own car; 5% by train; 5% by river boat; 5% by rented car; 3% by motor home; 3% by ocean cruisers; 1% by domestic bus lines; 1% by community shared car and 1% by other two-wheeled vehicle.
- The survey also examined how many times the respondents' discretional income would allow them to travel abroad, based on their own preferences (A: longer than 1 week, B: minimum 1 week, C: minimum 3 days, D: less than 3 days). The answers were as follows: 51-64 age group: A: 1 B: 1 C: 2 D: 5; 65-74 age group: A: 2 B: 2 C: 2 D: 2 ; 75-84 age group: A: 1 B: 1 C: 2 D: 3; 85-94 age group: A: 0 B: 1 C: 2 D: 3.
- 75% of the respondents prefer to use the services of travel agents; 25% of them claimed to organise their trips for themselves or with the help of their family members, while only 11% of the silver tourists organise their trips exclusively online.
- As for their preferred destination, 99% of respondents claimed that they prefer to travel within the European Union. It is interesting to note that 90% of them also

expressed that they would not want to travel outside Europe. The second most popular destinations were Canada and the USA.

Analysis of results

The analysis of the surveys revealed a significant amount of information regarding the socio-economic status and personal preferences of silver tourists; another emphasis was placed on their opinion and suggestions. From the interviews with staff members of travel agencies, tourist information offices and the results of the surveys led to the following conclusions: General characteristics of silver tourists;

- they have sufficient discretionary income,
- based on demographic data, the majority of silver tourists are women,
- safety is a priority for them, they avoid disaster areas,
- they have more free time, thus they are willing to travel at any season of the year,
- they can and are willing to extend the length of their stay, even at multiple times,
- they belong to the group of 'curious tourists',
- they need more communication,
- they are willing to buy medical and recreational services,
- when choosing their means of transport, accessibility is more important than the type of vehicle,
- Europe is their priority destination.

The list above clearly shows that senior tourists require personal care and attention. This indicates that they will prefer the customer-centred services of classic travel agencies over the information overload of internet sites. According to our research, the following tourism sectors are expected to be the most popular among silver tourists:

- medical and health tourism,
- visiting friend and relatives,
- luxury trips,
- luxury cruises,
- wellness/recreation/rehabilitation and life coaching,
- milestone tourism focusing on celebrating anniversaries,
- generation trips (grandparents with grandchildren),
- "bucket list" trips,
- sex tourism (David et al., 2008),
- holiday clubs, time—sharing,
- trips including anti-aging services, organ transplantation or genetic therapy.

One of the most noteworthy conclusions is that none of the interviewees was interested in becoming familiar with other religions and religious habits. Although previously great expectations were associated with religious tourism including visits to different holy places, the decreased sense of safety among senior people due the international migration crisis could be seen as one of the major factors behind the decline of this type of activity.

## RESULTS

### Hungary's position in the silver tourism market

Hungary has a great potential in the silver economy, and with successful management, the country can break into the world market as a destination. Since Hungarian society experiences an ageing process in itself decision makers are expected to provide an effective response resulting in a huge potential where economic sub-sectors and multinational companies will be able to test their developments and innovations in a smaller regional market. In comparison with the neighbouring regions, Hungary has excellent environmental conditions, can serve as a tourism gateway and offers cost-

effective solutions. The demographic statistics of former political emigrants and the amount of foreign state pensions paid for non-resident citizens in Hungary indicates that there is already a significant group of so-called "social senior tourists" living in the national silver economy. This means that Hungary is already a popular destination, where elderly people are willing to habitually spend their income received from another country.

Taking into account the characteristics and niches of the tourism sectors of Hungary, the most significant growth is expected in medical and health tourism among senior visitors. Health tourism has now become a constantly developing tourism product with a great innovation potential. The main attractions of the product are health improvement and general well-being (Michalkó, 2012). Because the market of the product offers services both for healthy consumers and for those aiming to improve their health, the terms "wellness", "prevention", "therapy", "rehabilitation" and "fitness" have become widespread and common expressions among the whole population. Regardless of this phenomenon, the two sub-sectors of health tourism have not experienced fundamental changes. Medical tourism offers curative services, while wellness tourism attracts visitors who wish to sustain their healthy condition and well-being. In case of senior tourists, both sub-sectors can provide beneficial services to maintain good health and prevent diseases. It is a special Hungarian feature that – to some extent - both sub-sectors of health tourism are connected to the excellent and easily accessible thermal waters. When examining international trends, it is clear that in other countries, these sub-sectors are connected to different factors, both in terms of service providers and consumers.

The newest wellness trends of health tourism do not require on-site thermal water resources, because thanks to modern industrial technologies, the water does not leave the external operational site and the whole water capacity is recycled, in line with the requirements of sustainability. In the frameworks of international health services, the greatest income of spas does not come from entrance fees, but from related services like plastic surgery, cardiovascular health services, ophthalmology, fertility therapies and dental services that can also be obtained separately. Future innovation and development objectives have significantly surpassed the possibilities of today's health tourism offers; regional services like surrogate mother programmes in India, or genetic therapies in Russia and China are already advertised as health/medical tourism services. These segments raise serious questions about general and medical ethics and initiate sincere professional debates.

## CONCLUSION

Our research focused one of the most exciting phenomena of today: the ageing of western civilisation and its complex effects on tourism. I have analysed the significance of the silver economy, examined its effects, and as a result it was clarified that it has an impact on almost the whole economy. During the "greying century", the Living Lab experimental programmes were started in the European Union, implementing complex developments and exemplary models focusing on solutions in connection with the ageing process. Finland plays a leading role in the experimental research, but the planning process of Park Royal Resorts in Parádsasvár, Hungary had also been finished, opening the way for the practice-oriented implementation of silver tourism innovation.

Previously marketing experts did not consider senior people as a significant market factor; moreover, the group was identified as a homogenous segment. Yet our research results have shown that based on numerous variants, instead of one large homogenous group, senior people should be divided into various heterogenous segments. Thanks to new scientific fields like gerontology, our knowledge of the aging process and its principles is constantly increasing. These results are extremely important for silver

tourism professionals because the new findings can prepare them for the upcoming challenges of the market. The market of senior tourists represents a key economic segment that has a variety of general characteristics. Since today's tourism destinations are not prepared to receive elderly visitors, settlement marketing experts should realise the importance of implementing senior-friendly developments.

Through tourism, the whole society can benefit from such improvements, and thus, the purpose of general "well-being" will be served. The tourism sector has the potential to strengthen its sectors through development, and the innovation of existing capacities will promote an instant response to the demands of silver tourism. Based on its characteristics, Hungary can become a regional destination country, especially in the fields of medical and health tourism. Taking into account the existing medical capacities and international trends, further specialisation towards the needs of the elderly will be required in order to retain the country's competitiveness. As for the possible future trends of silver tourism, I think that the most successful senior tourism products will be those complex developments that require longer length of stay and consist of health tourism services combined with innovative packages of nursing care and monitoring services.

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# SELECTIVE ISSUES ON BUZIAŞ TOURISTIC RESORT OF ROMANIA BETWEEN EMBLEMATIC TOURISM ECONOMIES AND POST-COMMUNIST DERELICTION

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**Abstract:** Since the post-socialism breakdown, the post-90 Romanian capitalist economy fuelled by chaotic interventions in local urban restructuring changed the urban functionality, the local ways of life of the locals and the inner-urban landscapes of the cities and towns regardless of their size, rank or functionality. Against such a background, this article examines the post-communist changes in the town of Buzias, emphasizing both the consequences of the local transition to a market economy and the implications of the local urban restructuring process. Using quantitative and qualitative research, the article explains the local attributes of Buziaş post-90 redefining and the spatial results of economic restructuring. From emblematic tourism economies under the earlier capitalism, and with important touristic development under the state-socialist governance, since 1990 Buziaş faced with major problems at the local scale, with its local economic culture being altered. These issues are important in designing further proper interventions in local development, pushing out the local development strategies beyond theories, indifference, and the local community neglecting.

**Key words:** urban restructuring, tourism, economy, dereliction, ruins, Muschong, Buziaş, Romania

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## INTRODUCTION

As many scholars argued, during the last decades of Eastern European Countries post-socialism, this part of the world was the scene of multiple transformations in the post-communist urban identity formation (Stenning, 2000; Stanilov, 2007). On the one hand, there have been outstanding assessments on it and on the other, critical reflections on the spatial results of urban changes, referring on the global economic integration, urban and regional resurgence and consolidation of supranational and cross-border institutions and cooperation (Brenner, 2004). Against such a background, as Brenner (2004) points out, it is important to (re)conceptualize the scale as processes of places, where the things that happen are responsible for the local ways of life of the residents. This is in line with Ianoş (2010) arguments regarding the nano-structural analyses and with micro-scale spatial approach, because at this level the local processes are determinant for the local development of communities influencing both the upper spatial

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structures and the urban systems. Consequently, localization, as process, and local approach on post-communist transformation in post-90 urban restructuring contribute to the local policies of urban remaking improvement in line with the global trends of present municipalities' identity formation. Considering multiple changes in all social, cultural, economic and political fields, many studies unveiled the relevance of post-90 transformations in Central and Eastern European Countries (EECs). Embodying changes of urban post-socialist (re)development, many authors highlight the impact of post-90 political order, framing post-communist urbanities and reshaping the post-socialist societies (Ilieş, 2004; Stanilov, 2007; Kideckel, 2008). Consequently, this paper critically examines the post-90 changes, tracing the most important issues in urban spatial redefining. Considering the places' local importance, the study concerns on a specific site, from its emblematic economic status under the earlier capitalism, to the present post-90 capitalism governed by the oriented-market economies umbrella and to the contemporary neoliberal contradictions in local urban planning (Taşan-Kok & Baeten, 2012). Therefore, economic changes due to the political shifts from one type of governance to another continue to shape the inner-patterns of the cities (Paddison & Hutton, 2015; Hutton, 2015). To decipher these issues, Buziaş resort is analyzed. It is a particular Romanian geo-site according to its cultural integration in the Romanian national patrimony (Ilieş & Josan, 2009a). In time, it was one of the most important touristic sites both in the western part of Romania and in the Romanian touristic system. Furthermore, Buziaş embodied relevant cultural issues and a large cultural heritage with merit in the contemporary research on touristic resorts, related to the recent social and cultural transformation (Ilieş et al., 2008; Ilieş & Josan, 2009a, 2009b; Matlovičová et al., 2013; Matlovičová & Pompura, 2013) and to the economic shifts in urban areas. The latter is topically framed in the contemporary urban geographies and cities' regeneration, since economic changes remain the main processes in the present ongoing urban restructuring (Paddison & Hutton, 2015; Hutton, 2015) with multiple and different spatial results, particularly at the local scales. In all, structuring the paper in several sections, the study presents the most important issues of local dereliction from the formerly tourism economies to the present-day economic restructuring. Considering scientific research of different scholars as fertile groundwork for further decisions of the local actors, the following section highlights theoretical insights on the urban post-communist redefining and the purpose of the study to emphasize the present issues of Buziaş municipality.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The point of departure in the study of urban redefining of Buziaş from its emblematic tourism economies to the present dereliction bases on literature review, with relevant sources emphasizing the former onsite cultural values of this place. In addition, repeatedly visits in the town of Buziaş confirm both difficulties of post-communist transition and the new problems in the local community adjustment to the contemporary capitalist economy. Participatory in-field observations were useful in reflecting on the peculiarities of the post-socialist changes in Buziaş. Furthermore, the present status of this site illustrates divergent processes, actions and patterns in urban redefining, as they are common issues for many Romanian post-socialist cities (Chelcea, 2012, Ianoş et al., 2015). There are a plenty of studies conducted on the post-90 identity formation of the cities and towns, topically differentiated according to their specific approaches on the investigated issues (Stenning, 2000; Stanilov, 2007; Chelcea, 2008; Kideckel, 2008; Smith & Timár, 2010). The post-communist urban changes generated multiple shifts in urban spatial and functional (re)formation, much of them with uneven development, with some places developed and other left behind and sometimes ignored (Jucu, 2015).

Against such a background, while some parts of the towns where regenerated other ones failed and turned to ruins. This trend argues uneven development within the cities and towns as a common feature of post-socialist urban restructuring (Stenning, 2000; Hirt & Stanilov, 2009; Ivanov, 2010, Jucu, 2011; 2015). On the scene of these spatial unequal shifts, urban ruins and derelict places are present in all Romanian cities and towns, altering the local culture of places (Chelcea, 2008; 2015; Voiculescu & Jucu, 2014; Jucu, 2015; 2016). The local urban dereliction, urban ruins, redundant and marginalized spaces are important topics in present scholarly debates illustrating the outcomes of capitalist expansion (Edensor, 2005a, 2005b; DeSilvey & Edensor, 2013; Mah, 2010; 2012; Turok, 2015). The problem fits to Romanian post-socialist cities and towns, in their transition to a market economy from the state-socialist rules to a neoliberal regulation in local urban planning. Furthermore, it is applicable to all Romanian urbanities, regardless of their size, rank or functionalities.

Considering that, during post-90 period all economic sectors encountered multiple difficulties with important declines in all fields (Jucu, 2011; 2015; 2016). Accordingly, the paper analyses the spatial and functional transformation in a town based on tourism activities. The post-communist changes altered the local cultural tradition with many important cultural sites left subject to degradation, failure and abandonment. While many Romanian studies critically examined this issue in the context of industrial restructuring and local deindustrialization (Ianoş, 2004; Rey et al., 2006; Chelcea, 2008, 2015; Pavel, 2011; Jucu, 2011; Stupariu, 2014; Voiculescu & Jucu, 2014, etc) the problems of urban ruins production in touristic and local cultural sites remain peripheral in the present scholarly debates (DeSilvey & Edensor, 2013). Thus, on the scene of post-communist spatial changes of Romanian cities and towns, this paper aims to contribute to this field, analyzing the topic of dereliction in a touristic resort, from its emblematic economies under earlier capitalist period of 19th and 20th Centuries, to the post-communist spatial shifts.

## STUDY AREA, DATA, MATERIALS AND METHODS

Buziaş resort is located in the western part of Romania positioned in the southeastern part of Timiş County (Mihalache & Nini, 1971; Trâpcea, 1975; Creţan, 2006; Creţan & Frăţilă, 2007; Bar et al., 2016) of a distance about 35 and 25 kilometers, respectively, away from Timişoara and Lugoj - the most important municipalities of Timiş County. In time, the resort assumed an important position in the national economy with local tourism being one of the key features in local economic development. Based on this economic sector, related activities had sooner developed, with Buziaş resort being up to 1990 an important small municipality and a touristic spa resort in Romania (Ianoş, 1987; Ghinea, 2000; Voiculescu, 2004). Since Romanian state-socialism breakdown, back in 1989, the town encountered important spatial and functional transformation traced by the post-90s transition and by the new capitalist economy. Against such a background, its local urbanity engendered multiple consequences of local post-communist (re)formation that now faces in the local inner urban landscapes and in the local way of life of the residents and tourists. Based on the post-communist changes of Romanian urban settlements, this contribution examines local spatial and functional changes from the formerly emblematic local economy, to the present issues of urban restructuring with multiple consequences at the local scale. The starting point of the research was repeatedly in-field observation during 2014-2015. Empirical data gathered bases on multi-methods approach, crossing quantitative approach and qualitative research. Literature review provided meaningful insights on the spatial and functional evolution of Buziaş, with multiple resources in-depth and critical analyzed, from specialized academic literature, to local media resources (local online newspapers, magazines and journals). Krieger (2011)

suggests the latter method as a research tool in the present studies on urban transformation. To examine the local economic changes, statistical data were used to portray the local economic evolutions, especially in touristic sector. Semi-structured interviews, personal conversations and talks with different individuals were useful in gaining an understanding on the local problems of the investigated site. Oral histories of local residents also provided meaningful insights towards post-communist urban processes of local restructuring and dereliction.

This is in line with historical approach in methodological flow on urban research (Gehl & Svarre, 2015). The self-approach on urban space and first-person reflections of the author through individual perception of investigated places internalization bases on direct own experience through field-trip observation. They were useful to assess the local processes of post-communist transformation and its spatial outcomes and consequences as well. To demonstrate these effects, multiple photographs were repeatedly taken, being useful (Bernstein, 2013) to highlight the real spatial results in local decline from the former emblematic local economies to the current dereliction. Summarily, I followed the methodological flow, mainly based on ethnographic analysis recommended by Edensor (2005a, 2005b), Mah (2010, 2012) and DeSilvey & Edensor (2013). To understand the local spatial and functional evolution of Buziaş as well as their restructuring consequences in tracing local post-socialist processes of urban redefining and local restructuring, the research was structured in few sections. The first illustrates the former emblematic economies of Buziaş since its appearance to the state-socialist intervention. Then, a short overview on the state-socialist dynamics was included for the next section to be concerned on post-90 transformation and their local spatial implications.

## FINDINGS AND RESULTS

### A short history of Buziaş resort

The settlement of Buziaş was attested since 1369, but historians appreciate the place existence since ancient times, but with its mineral water resources known during from the Middle Age (Ivănecu et al., 2005; Lovasz, 2006; Creţan, 2006; Creţan & Frăţilă, 2007). The local a-thermal waters dated back to 1805. As many other localities in western part of Romania, during 18th and 19th Centuries, important colonization with German population was made (Creţan, 1999; Voiculescu, 2004; Jucu, 2011), this issue being traced in the local culture and the local economy of this place. Consequently, in 1819, Buziaş turned to a spa resort with 5 mineral water sources and with important treatment facilities. Later on, emblematic pavilions have been built in the water-sources areas, generating local cultural landscapes and highlighting the local tradition in spa tourism and resort facilities. This feature emphasizes the role of the local water resources related to the local culture of water and to the particular landscapes of a place based on water resources (Voiculescu, 2009). Since 1892, E. Schottola from Budapest purchased the resort, for in 1906 to be owned by J. Muschong, an emblematic personality of those times in local economy (Ivănescu et al., 2005). He built important spa facilities and a mineral water factory, whose production intensely increased during 20th Century. The water was distributed all through this part of Europe under the name "Muschong Mineral Water from Buziaş", further called as "Buziaş Borviz" (Ivănescu et al., 2005). After Muschong death, back in 1923, his daughter and his son-in-low, continued to manage his business, up to the nationalization process, back in 1948 (Ivănescu et al., 2005).

Those times have significantly marked both the local economy and the cultural landscape of Buziaş. The earlier Muschongs' interventions in local economy remained as important features for local culture of this community through the industrial and touristic facilities produced under his ownership. Once that nationalization has been implemented,

the resort was included in the state ownership (Bar, et al., 2016). The Ministry of Health would manage the resort, while the Public Food Ministry coordinated the mineral water manufacture. Between 1950 and 1970, the resort continued to develop under the state-socialist rules. New hotels appeared as for instance Buziaş, Silvana, Silagiu, Timiş Spa Complex and Parc, as well as new local touristic infrastructures. Since 1976, collective state-socialist residences have been built (Ivănescu et al., 2005) for local workers employed both in the field of tourism and in local industry.

It was the time when the state-socialist intervention in local spatial structures overlapped previous cultural patterns. Under the state-socialist rules, the town functioned as a tourist resort intensely visited by tourists that came from all-through Romania. Since 1990, once with transition to a capitalist economy, Buziaş encountered important spatial and functional unfavorable transformation (Lovasz, 2006) with important social and economic consequences at the local scale. Urban dereliction, local poverty, damaged landscapes, and ruined sites are some of the main features altering the local culture enhanced by the earlier capitalist interventions. To understand this topic, the next section, briefly, presents the Muschongs' economic implication in Buziaş resort.

**Jacob Muschong and its role in local and regional development**

As it was already stated, Jacob Muschong was an emblematic entrepreneur under the earlier capitalism (Toma, 2006), with its economic contribution remaining an important feature in the regional identity formation of the Western part of Romania up to the first post-socialist years. Born in Kikinda of Serbian Banat he was the son of a former well-known manufacture person in the field of bricks industry. Continuing the family tradition, J. Muschong was known both as 'the Brick King' and as a 'real John Ford of Romania'[1] due to its personal contribution in local and regional economic development. In 1888, he built a brick factory in Lugoj (Jucu, 2011) and purchased those manufactures of his rivalries at those times. Furthermore, he built many bricks manufactures in Banat and Budapest, with their quality production distributed all- through Austrian and Hungarian Empire as well as in the Romanian regions. He also was the owner of different other bricks and tills manufactures and factories as for instance, those from Sânnicolau Mare (in Timiş County) and Sântimbru (in Alba County). Important and large forest real estates were also in Muschongs' ownership in Petroşani and Nădrag areas. Of these, significant landmarks still stand as proof of what was at once the Muschongs' economic empire. In 1906, he purchased Buziaş resort, this place remaining under his ownership until Romanian nationalization (Ivănescu et al., 2005; Toma, 2006).

In 1907, he started the construction of the mineral water manufacture „Phoenix", some spa resorts (including Phoenix Spa) and hotels. Grand and Phoenix hotels are just two examples. All these spa and tourist resorts and Apemin (the manufacture producing mineral water) belonged to Muschong and to his family. Since 1914, the tourism started to develop in Buziaş with important outstanding tourists coming here from Wien region. Considering the issues of transportation needs of raw materials, Buziaş was the sole resort with rail access. The rail route opened back in 1914 and linked the railway station of Buziaş with the spa resort. It had an important cultural value in the local economy. During Romanian nationalization, it was under the state ownership. This local rail route had important cultural and touristic meanings both for the local community and for the national Romanian culture. 'The little train', originally known as 'Die Kleine Bahn' started operating since 1914, with its steam engines Etelka and George being legendary at those times. They were made by German manufacturers and circulated up to 50s (Ivănescu et al., 2005). The rail and touristic facilities were in the Muschongs' ownership. Nowadays,

[1]According to: *http://www.banat.ro/academica/book.htm; and http://redesteptarea.ro/jakob-muschong-stapanul oraelor_185291.html 2 Ian 2012*, online accessed March 2015

of these local facilities remained only ruins, derelict sites and abandoned places. Since 1918, Muschong was inquired by the authorities, accused by opposition to the economic development and an important press campaign on his denigration started.

Further, he died back in 1923. Under the state-socialism, J. Muschong was completely denied and blamed for its related origins to the bourgeois system. The state-socialist regime of those times disliked investors with other origins than Romanian. Although Muschongs' properties were estimated about one-milliard dollars, his daughters also died poor in misery conditions.[2] During post-90 period in the national contexts of real estates restitution, the properties owned by Muschong started being claimed, but the legal procedures of restitution are slippery and complicated with the main part of the former owned properties being vacant, ruined and abandoned. This issue raise on the scene of multiple national problems on real estate restitution and on serious difficulties on real estate private ownership since it was of no interest for the formerly state-socialist regime. Accordingly, Romania still face now important problems considering the real estate ownership from local to regional and national levels.[3] Against such a background, under post-socialism, Buziaş resort encompassed multiple difficulties and faced major problems that ended with failure, dereliction and abandonment.

**Emblematic economies, local cultural identity and post-socialist dereliction**

As an old attested human settlement on the western part of Romanian space (Creţan & Frăţilă, 2007), Buziaş turned to an important tourism resort under the earlier capitalism. Since mineral water and their related curative properties has been discovered, back in 1809 (Mihalache & Nini, 1971; Trâpcea, 1975), this place turned to a significant resort in the formerly Austro-Hungarian Empire. An outstanding issue of Buziaş resort is assumed by J. Muschongs' ownership on it. As it was stated, descending from a manufactures family, Muschong built an important economic empire[4] purchasing Buziaş resort. Symbolic and cultural value rose from the former mineral water manufacture. As it was previous mentioned, considered an opponent of the Romanian capitalist development, Muschong was unjustified accused in 1918 by many wrongs interventions in economic development and suddenly died in 1923.[5] Against such a background, a large part of the old resort overlaps its capitalist interventions, with Buziaş turning both to an important touristic spa resort and to an outstanding producer of mineral water. Furthermore, at those times Buziaş was the sole touristic spa with own railroad. Since 1914, the medical tourism engendered a continuous development, with important rich tourist from entire Austrian-Hungarian coming in Buziaş, as it was the case of the formerly royal family from Wien. In this respect, an important local building (Figure 1) reminds of those past realities often ignored in the present local community.

The historic tradition altered by present post-socialist interventions in local urban restructuring negatively damaged these cultural sites. From emblematic places, the ruined buildings left behind remind the formerly cultures only by ruins and marks on the ruined and abandoned buildings. Figure 1 reveals the existent image of the formerly royal villa (upper-left), now abandoned, with uncertain ownership. A detailed glance on the building highlights this derelict villa with real marks of degradation of its architecture (upper-right). A plate situated above the front entrance of the building reminds that members of the former royal family of Austro-Hungarian Empire accommodated here (lower-left). As it

[2] According to http:/www.banat.ro/academica/book.htmlhttp:/www.romanialibera.ro/actualitate/transilvania/ hranit-cu-10-milioane-de-euro-buziasul-renaste-in-criza-197386.html http://enciclopediaromaniei.ro/Jacob_Muschong, online accessed March 2015.

[3] According to public statements of a employee in a cadastral agency of Timisoara, online accessed March, 2015.

[4] According to http:/www.banat.ro/academica/book.html,http:/www.romanialibera.ro/actualitate/transilvania/hranit-cu-10-milioane-de-euro-buziasul-renaste-in-criza-197386.html http://enciclopediaromaniei.ro/Jacob_Muschong, online accessed March, 2015.

[5] According to: http://redesteptarea.ro/jakob-muschong-stăpânul-oraşelor-185291.html, 2.01, 2012; see also Toma, 2006, online accessed March, 2015.

stands now the royal villa is closed being sealed with a padlock. A phone number noted in a piece of paper posted on the door window is the sole contact between potential visitors and the current potential owners. However, this fact argues the local indifference of the stakeholders in this area. It is only a simple evidence of the ruined and derelict sites that at once had large importance in the local and regional touristic field. The same abandonment and vandalized features fits to other emblematic buildings in Buziaş resort. Presently, many of touristic facilities of the former spa resort are ruined. Figure 2 shows another traditional construction left in ruin and marginalized. It belonged to the former local touristic structure, as is the case of the building illustrated in figure 3.


**Figure 1.** The former Royal Villa in Buziaş resort now derelict and locked

**Figure 2**. A derelict spa building belonged to the former Buziaş spa resort


**Figure 3**. Ruined and abandoned building in the resort of Buziaş with high potential of risk for local community. A glance on the lower-right image meets the message: "Caution, danger of crash"

These estates are located in the central touristic park of the resort. Another sampled site detected during the in-field investigation is placed in the central area of the park. Close aboard to its derelict status with ruins standing to crash, these constructions are subject to danger and risk for local community and for visitors as well. The emblematic building showed in figure 3, reveals these aspects with a caution marked by

some of the local residents. While the outward parts of these ruined places remains as waste redundant depository with weeds embracing the buildings, unveiling the local ignorance to the local urban environment, the inside sector of the buildings show the same issues of indifference: waste, destruction, abandonment and the absence of locals' civic spiritedness, environmental education gaps, insensibility and the respect absence for local cultural values. Nevertheless, these places' landscapes, whether they are inner or outer, are repulsive and obsolete, harming both the local community and the local culture.

**Figure 4**. Inner landscapes of abandoned touristic buildings with waste and destruction

In other words, these places with important cultural buildings are now sites of devastation, vandalism and local indifference with neglection and crash risk being their main attributes. These disagreeable sites unveil what was once the local traditional culture in tourism and economic customs and practices are now places that host waste and rubbish with local disregard being the main reason for their present status in local urban environment (figure 4). In spite of their derelict status of the local ruined sites, the access on their inner-sites is completely restricted. As a partly conclusion, the failure of the former local earlier capitalist economy managed by Muschong turned to ruins during post-90 period, with obsolete, marginalized and vandalized sites framing repulsive landscapes. This post-socialist trend translates to other places, as is the case of the central part of the historic park from Buziaş with multiple cultural features destroyed. Furthermore, beside the park area and the all-traditional buildings, another peculiar cultural feature of the local resort passed away. It is the case of the local railroad built and owned by Muschong. Of these old investments, up to now nothing remains. Only old documents and personal memories in old local residents' own perception still stand as proofs of what was once the local flourishing economy of Buziaş touristic resort. It is argued by the feelings of regrets and nostalgia for everything that was once in Buziaş (Ivănescu et al., 2005).

**The state-socialist intervention**

The post-1948 period set the scene for other interventions in local spatial and functional evolution of Buziaş. The state-socialist regime started to design a strong flow of urban development based on the centrally planned economy. Consequently, touristic activities remained important in local development. Simultaneously, industrial activities appeared. However, Buziaş resort preserved its service-led economy based on touristic activities, with more than 50 percent of local employees hired in local services and, especially, in tourism. As it was stated, during state-socialist domination in Buziaş appeared important new hotels as for instance Buziaş, Silvana, Silagiu, Parc and Timiş, in order to accommodate potential tourists and visitors (Bar et al., 2016). The accommodation capacities of the resort continuously increased for in 1990 in Buziaş to exist 24 accommodation units. Of these, five were hotels and 19 touristic villas. In all, they

included 1762 accommodation places (NIS, 2015). In line with the increasing number of touristic buildings and with those related facilities, the state-socialist intervention redesigned the local urban landscape and touristic flows. It is important to note that under the state-socialism the mass tourism was a common practice for Romanian workers but not limited only to the workers groups in state-socialist industry. Children and elderly-retired persons also benefited by different facilities in order to maintain their health or ensuring leisure and recreation. Consequently, tourists came from all-through Romania, all year long in continuous shifts.

Their stays varied from one to three weeks. It was the time when touristic activities in Buziaş peak the top. Against such a background, the service profile of the town based on tourism grounded in the local, regional and national economy, with Buziaş resort being an important town in the local system of urban settlements and an outstanding tourism resort in Romania. Furthermore, the local agriculture and industrial sector tends to frame new economic activities to supply the tourism field and related services for both the locals and tourists. The economic background of Buziaş resort based primarily on services continues up to 1990, when a new period opened in the face of the local social and economic activities. The transition from the state-socialist economy to a new capitalist order generated important shifts in the local urban and economic dynamics often with negative consequences for the town, for the local economy and for the local way of life of the residents. They are discussed bellow, in the next section.

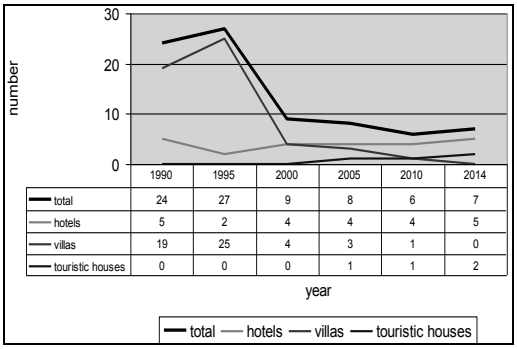
**Post-socialist transformation of local urban restructuring**

Started with 1990, a complicated process of urban restructuring opened. It was the time of multiple spatial and functional transformations both in the local economy and in the inner-landscape shifts of the town. Whether, the first part of transition maintains inherited economies, with services field prevailing, the second part of the '90s encountered multiple negative consequences in local community altering both the local way of life and the local urban landscape. The major impact of transition to a new market economy and to a private capital rule turned to failure different economic activities. The latter, further encompassed urban dereliction. Significant declines encountered both the tourism field and local industrial sectors of the town.

**Decline of local tourism**

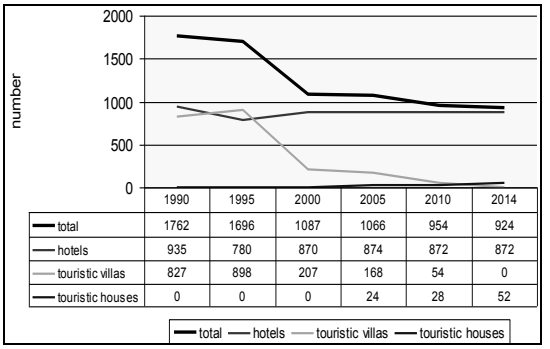
A massive decline in local tourism activities occurred since the beginning of post-socialist times. It was due to the national economic background decline generated by the transition to a market economy. An uncertain and weak law background, doubtful interventions and a complicated framework in real estate restitution related to difficulties in all processes of privatization and miss-management in local development (Kideckel, 2008) are key factors in the failure of the spa resort of Buziaş as it was for all Romanian cities and towns due to economic changes. The main decline occurred also in the tourism sector (Bar et al., 2016). The decreasing number of touristic accommodation structures argues this trend. Thus, from 24 accommodation units existing in 1990, in 2014 only 7 remained (Figure 5). During privatization struggle, statistically, the hotels preserved their data in local statistics. The major decline encountered was in the cultural and historic touristic villas, of which from 19 units in 1990, in 2014, the official statistics reveal that they are no more operating. An appropriate trend fits to the total accommodation places, illustrated in figure 6. It reveals the continuous decreasing tendency considering both the hotels and touristic villas of Buziaş. According to local official statistics, in all, the accommodation capacity halved, with 924 accommodation places remaining. On the other side, counter partly, a slow-go pace in private entrepreneurship initiative in local tourism development started. Private investors with real trust in local potential touristic resources assume their interventions in local urban development. New private individual

tourist houses appeared in Buziaş after 2000, when Romanian economic background became more stable (see Soaita, 2013). According to official statistics, these new entrepreneurial initiatives are bashful and hesitating with one new touristic house appeared up to 2010, for in 2014 to be registered only two touristic houses.




| | 1990 | 1995 | 2000 | 2005 | 2010 | 2014 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | 24 | 27 | 9 | 8 | 6 | 7 |
| hotels | 5 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| villas | 19 | 25 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| touristic houses | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |

**Figure 5**. Post-socialist decreasing trend of accommodation units in Buziaş resort




| | 1990 | 1995 | 2000 | 2005 | 2010 | 2014 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | 1762 | 1696 | 1087 | 1066 | 954 | 924 |
| hotels | 935 | 780 | 870 | 874 | 872 | 872 |
| touristic villas | 827 | 898 | 207 | 168 | 54 | 0 |
| touristic houses | 0 | 0 | 0 | 24 | 28 | 52 |

**Figure 6**. Post-socialist decreasing trend of accommodation places in Buziaş resort

(Source: data gathered by NIS, 2015, tempo online data basis, accessed April, 2015)

They cumulate only 52 accommodation places (Figure 6). In spite of these private interventions related to the local economic restructuring of local activities, important places with emblematic marks in local culture remain sites for poor tenants or worse derelict, abandoned and ruined as the third section of our findings revealed. As it was stated, some of the real estates included in the formerly tourism activities lost their previous functionality and presently are subject to degradation, abandonment and ruination with other being used in the local community for poor families as tenants until the restitution of these buildings by the real heirs and right-owners will be claimed.

**Social and economic consequences in local community**

The post-socialist consequences of local economic changes are serious and multiple, from the local standard of the way of life to the residents behavioral issues. The first approached topic is about the local tenants. The in field observations and personal conversations conducted to different local residents unveiled interesting aspects concerning the former spa and touristic estates. Nevertheless, many of these buildings are abandoned and ruined, while others accommodate poor people. Walking on the local historic park, a peripheral site captured my attention. It included some historical spa buildings with important cultural relevance, presently in advanced degree of degradation. As I brought near this site (Figure 7 and Figure 8) I saw a family around. Approaching a man sitting down on the chair outside, he told me that he and his family presently live in these buildings as tenants, paying a rent-tax to local authorities that own these places. He told me about the local degradation of the former touristic facilities. Managing further my conversation, he stated that these once emblematic buildings are either ruined sites or damaged buildings hosting local poor tenants. It is just a single evidence of many of its kind mentioned in this analysis. On the other hand, he stated that his family indwelling in this place would be ensured until the restitution claim of the right heirs to the local authorities. Although, the building was not in his family ownership, he restored a part of it in order to maintain a proper residence, while the local authorities do nothing with these historic buildings. This personal intervention in building restoration generated tensions between his family and the other tenants in the building that preferred to live in bad conditions. In some extent, this personal conversation led us to conclude that the local authorities' involvement in the

restoring process of these real estates is in a limited extent, with this emblematic sites remaining subject to indifference and ignorance. Furthermore, ignorance is all around. Beyond local government indifference to these historic sites, this issue fits with both local residents and visitors. This is argued by damaged status of the historic touristic park (Figure 9) and by throwing randomized trash on it. In this regard, the inner alleys of the park nearby historic and cultural buildings are sites with piles of garbage (Figure 10).

**Figure 7.** A derelict building, once included in the spa resort

**Figure 8.** A former building belonged to the spa resort, presently hosting local tenants

**Figure 9.** Damaged section of Buziaş touristic park

**Figure 10.** Trash left in the inner alleys of the park

**Figure 11.** Collapsed roof above a park alley

The responsibility for this issue exceeds this time the authorities' responsibility failing on the local behavior of the locals whether they are local residents or tourists. Consequently, the local community assumes the local degradation of these formerly cultural sites. It is however, unfortunate to face with these local landscapes of misery and ignorance related to their relevance for the Romanian national culture.

On the other hand, as it was already mentioned, many of these cultural and historic sites, whether they are buildings or related touristic facilities have an important potential of risk for local community and for those that cross the park alleys. The wood roofs of the park alleys are ready to crash being a real risk source (Figure 11) for local residents, tourists and visitors. From place to place, there are some plates cautioning this local risk potential but this issue claim for immediate regeneration. An overview on the local residents' ways of life illustrates the local decline in both the local economy and in the urban post-socialist evolution. In this regard, conversation and personal talks with individuals in Buziaş emphasizes and sustains this argument. Thus, an interviewee stated: "During the post-90 period, the town encountered a massive decline. The inherited

touristic field and local industry failed. I think that the most responsibility fails on the political frame of the earlier post-socialist decisions. Sometimes I think that under Ceausescu's regime was better. You cannot imagine how this resort was at those times. The resort was full of tourists and visitors. Although the communist times were hard to support, the former state-socialist regime cared about the workers providing facilities for them with touristic programs, sometimes with three weeks long. Under post-socialism, the tourists' number decreased and the local spa and touristic facilities failed to a large extent with much of them turning to dereliction. Rarely I saw and met foreign tourists in Buziaş. Then, the local teenagers often leave this town due to the few investments and to local limited opportunities for their further welfare." (Interviwee /I.P./ 59 / female).

These reflections argued the post-socialist decline in Buziaş and the low standard of the resident's way of life. Another resident living all his life in Buziaş expresses a comparative statement. He stated: „Whether in other formerly state-socialist countries it was something that could be done to adjust their transition to a new market economy in Romania nothing survived. Industry, tourism, local commerce, education and health, all failed down. This fits to Buziaş. The local mineral water that was intensely used for different curative properties remains presently as a symbol of nostalgia... ." (Interviewee /C.P./ 71/male). This personal talk highlights the local cultural heritage of this resort that remains subject to indifference. Furthermore, the issue of total decline in all social and economic fields of post-socialist Romania is interesting. Paradoxically, the local tourism potential could represent a key field in the local urban and economic restructuring and (re)development, but this trend is not unique in this resort. It is a common issue for many Romanian resorts in their post-socialist redefining.

Whether elderly people put some blame on the post-socialist times, revealing regrets and nostalgia, the local teenagers are unfamiliar with these topics. Accordingly, a young woman told: "I did not know what was here, but I remember that we played in all those ruined places when we were kids. I did not know that these places are full of symbols and special cultural value. For us, the kids, these sites were simple playgrounds." (Personal conversation with A.M./20/male).

This affirmation raised a new important issue with merit in this analysis. The loss of the local cultural tradition of the formerly spa facilities is proved. In such circumstances it is important to note that further regeneration urban programs focusing on the revival of local cultural heritage is mandatory. Considering a comparative manner, tourists argue the loss of the local cultural value of these sites. In this regard, an old tourist that came to Buziaş since the 80s said: "I used to come in Buziaş for spa treatments since 1984. I come to these resort yearly and I witnessed during all this time the local failure and the touristic facilities degradation.

It is tragic what happened here but there is nothing to do. For my wife and me the mineral water of Buziaş is propitious for our cardiovascular disease. We came from Ineu, and we will continue to come in Buziaş. Perhaps in the next future this resort could reborn both its touristic sector as well as its local culture." The statements above set the scene of the local urban decline and the failure of the former emblematic economies that was here at once. They are only few samples of personal conversations and talks conducted with different local residents and tourists. They raised important reflections that cumulated into a voice claiming for further urban regeneration. The next section, briefly unveil the issue of this assertion calling for further fruitful research.

**The local culture framed by present and further urban development programs**

A review on the local development programs and strategies launched by the local government illustrate concerns on the urban investments in urban infrastructure and on the

historical park of Buziaş. Regarding the first preoccupation, there can be mentioned the local road improvement, the water supply substructures, the restoration of some parts of the local building stock, the cultural house rehabilitation and sewerage system. Furthermore, the project focused on the water supplying system was recently completed. Considering the second issue, the regeneration of touristic park is still an ongoing process (Figure 12). There are parts of restoration in progress (Figure 13) with peripheral parts of it awaiting for further regeneration interventions. On the other hand, there are still multiple derelict sites belonged to the former historic spa resort.

All of these illustrate the slow-go pace of local urban regeneration programs. It is important to note that while some spatial touristic structures from Buziaş have been restored, other ones are left behind with many derelict places. According to the Memorandum, launched by the S.C. Tratament Balnear Buziaş SA, it seemed that the period between 1990 and 2003 was so complicated due to the post-socialist transition when the local development processes stagnated with many of the local buildings being subject to degradation. Since, 2000 a complex investment program through private capital started concerned on the hotels regeneration.

The Phoenix Hotel (Figure 14) is relevant evidence in this regard as an outcome of the development strategy of the above-mentioned society. On the other hand, some interventions in the park restoration started. These actions portray the positive feedbacks of the public-private interventions in local urban redevelopment but at the same time, the slow evolution of these projects. Notwithstanding, important sites in Buziaş resort remained derelict, claiming for further regeneration programs. In this regard, further research on this site is welcomed, like the intersection of the public-private capitals in local development as well. Furthermore, cooperation between local actors in urban development, different stakeholders, investors, researchers and the local community envois could be a successful forward step in order to redesign the local urban development agenda.

**Figure 12**. The central regenerated section of the park from Buziaş resort


**Figure 13:** Restoration in pro-gress in the central part of the Park

**Figure 14:** Hotel Phoenix in Buziaş

Furthermore, beyond the local urban regeneration processes of touristic resort of Buziaş, a key action that has to be concerned is the revival of the local cultural heritage left behind in the wake of transition from the state-socialist economy to a new capitalist system. Against such a background, further research on these issues represents properly actions to contribute to local urban development, to cultural heritage preservation and to reconstruction of the cultural identity of Buziaş touristic spa resort.

## CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

This article dealt with the local urban post-socialist spatial transformation in Buziaş resort, an important settlement in the western part of Romania. The paper

unveiled the major transformation of this site from emblematic economies raised under earlier capitalist period to the state-socialist stage and mostly approached the post-socialist changes that altered the local community. Of these, one of the key problems emphasized in the article is the post-communist evolution of Buziaş that faced with multiple difficulties once that transition to a market economy started.

Furthermore, the issue of the ruined places in Buziaş and their related processes has been highlighted, illustrating both the local community indifference and the authorities go-slow pace interventions in the local urban regeneration. Not to blame anyone, the research set the altering scene of the local cultural heritage appeared since the earlier capitalism, back in 19th Century. Against such a background, the interventions of J. Muschong, a prominent entrepreneur of those times economy, has been portrayed to understand both the local traditions in touristic activities and the cultural valuable sites of Buziaş spa resort. As one of the most important touristic resorts in Romania, Buzias continuously developed under the state-socialist domination, when tourism was the main activity in local economy. The former communist interventions in local development were framed by the previous facilities in local touristic infrastructure and in the local urban pattern. These facilities framed the new development actions being the basis for tourism development under communism.

During post-socialism, once that transition to a capitalist economy started, Buziaş resort faced with multiple difficulties in its post-communist identity formation. These translate to the local welfare of the community and in the appearance of different places of abandonment and dereliction. They totally overlap the old cultural buildings of the former touristic infrastructures as well as to the touristic park of Buziaş. Beyond their inner-urban repulsive landscapes and urban ecologies raises other important issues: defacement, degradation, failure and communities neglecting. Furthermore, these ruined sites are with high-risk potential for both the local residents and for tourists. The local interventions in local urban regeneration have to be further approached for local resort improvement (Bar, et al., 2016). In such circumstances, there are evident efforts, actions and interventions on the local regeneration made by the local authorities.

However, important areas remain derelict and abandoned places illustrating the complexity of the local problems in the face of the post-90 transition to a capitalist economy, to the return to the private capital and to the market economy background. The post-90 spatial dynamics show a real decline of the settlement but the possibilities of further restoring actions are sustained by the local spatial and economic strengths. Thus, rethinking local development programs related to the new approaches in urban regeneration items of the local government agendas could revive this place. The public and private capitals, actions in solving the problems of the real-estate ownerships, more involvement of different stakeholders and the tensions' reduction between national, regional and local policies and between centralized management and self-government approach, are timely possibilities to frame new pathways for further development. In addition, further research on local urban development issues is important to design new intervention in local cultural identity (re)formation of Buziaş touristic resort.

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# WATER, TOURISM AND SPORT. A CONCEPTUAL APPROACH

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**Abstract:** The article deals with the complex connections between water, tourism and sport, generating reciprocal conceptual and development connection. For sport and tourism, water is an important asset, since ancient times being used in either physical activities or in complex balneo plannings with curative purposes. The water-based sport-tourism activities are connected and related to surface and underground water resources, supporting this way the recreational or sport aspects (e.g. navigation, sailing, swimming, rafting), while the chemical and thermic features (of the underground waters, or the salt lakes, sea and ocean waters etc.) support the curative aspects. Water-based facilities should be incorporated spatially and functionally in the complex sustainable development processes.

**Key words:** water resources, water-based activities, tourism, sport

* * * * * *

## INTRODUCTION

Water is the essence of life on Earth, it is a magic, unique „substance which so well hides the consequence of our actions upon it. And which is seemingly so plentiful" (Wilkens et al., 2002). The seas and oceans, together with the major rivers of the world Tigris, Euphrates, Nile, Ganges, Indus, Changjiang, Huanghe, have favored the emergence of the great ancient civilizations. Their heritage is based on the rich cultural-architectural and historical treasures, combined with the natural settings, like great lanscapes with cliffs, peninsulas, bays, estuaries, islands along the seasides, or spectacular geological and geographical forms from the valleys, like gorges, canyons, waterfalls and cataracts. All these combined resources represent nowadays powerful attractions turning these areas into important tourist destinations, designed for cultural visits, water sports, recreational or curative activities. Since ancient times, in addition to the efforts for meeting the basic needs (eg. shelter, food procurement) the mankind promoted diverse physical activities correlated with water.

This fact can be stated as early as the Neolithic (7000-3000 BC), when the first forms of fishing emerged. During this period, the main physical activities were running,

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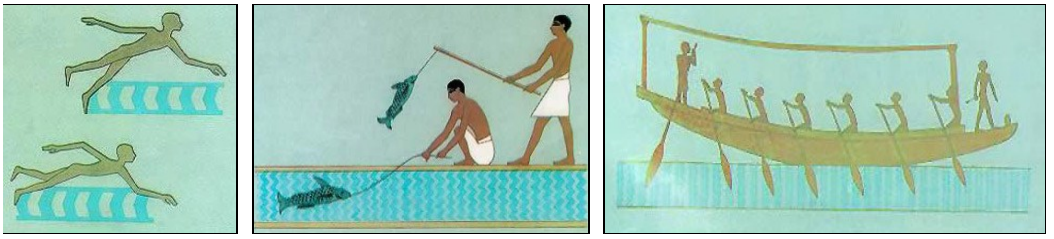
jumping, fighting but also activities that brought mankind to or into water, i.e. swimming or rowing[1]. The ancient Egyptian sports included a lot of team sports, but also sports practiced on water, like swimming, fishing and rowing (Figures 1). For rowing they used to have a leader to control their movements, similar to what we have today.[2] The ancient Egyptians were using the boats for fishing and traveling, but also for a sport activity.[3] It's well known the fact that the Egyptians practiced swimming. Men used a swimming style very similar to the nowadays „*crawl*" style, while women used a style similar to nowadays „*bras*".

In the Museum of Louvre we can find statues explaining mankind practicing swimming (Lupan, 2001). The ancient Egyptians practiced swimming on the Nile, where they hold swimming competitions, but also in the swimming pools from the palaces. Fishing was a sport practiced by kings and princess[4].



**Figures 1.** Swimming, fishing and rowing in the Ancient Egypt
(Source: http://www.touregypt.net/historicalessays/ancsportsindex.htm)

Besides the physical activities, the ancient times records complex balneo planning designed especially for remedial purposes, that were using the underground mineral water resources. This initial stage of tourism activity, specific to the Antique Civilations deeply impacted the evolution of tourism to the present days, being the roots of the modern days health tourism. Hippocrates, the classic philosopher, physician of the Hellenistic Age, the *father of modern medicine* understood the natural healing power of water, using it both externally and internally in treating various diseases[5]. Various ancient civilizations, i.e. the Indian Ayurvedic (5000 BC), the Egyptians (3000 BC), the Chinese (1000 BC), the Greeks (700 BC), the Persians (600-300 BC), the Hebrews (200 BC), the Romans (100 BC – 400 AD), understood the importance of water using it in engineering projects (e.g. the Rome aqueduct water supply), at bathroom and bath pool facilities for recreation or treatment (e.g. the Roman baths daily capacity was 6000–8000 bathers), for spas, steams and mud baths based on the thermal springs (e.g. Spa in Belgium before 100 AD, Baden – Baden in Germany in 211 AD, Baths of Caracalla near Rome), for spiritual purposes in combination sometimes with healing purposes (e.g. ritual purification through immersion in the Dead Sea, or the purification baths during the Greeks Temples visits) (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Smith & Puczkó, 2009). The phenomenon evolved and expended in the upcoming centuries, so we mention the Turkish Baths (800 AD), the Finish Saunas from the Baltic (1000 AD), the travels for healing to the thermal waters (eg. to Buda, or Carlsbad), or the affluent citizens travels for recovering or healthy experiences to Bath, Wiesbaden, Vichy, Aix-en-Provence (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Smith & Puczkó, 2009).

[1] http://cyd.ro/izvoarele-istoriei-educatiei-fizice-si-sportului/
[2] http://www.touregypt.net/historicalessays/ancsportsindex.htm
[3] http://www.ancient-egypt-online.com/ancient-egypt-sports.html
[4] http://www.touregypt.net/historicalessays/ancsportsk1.htm
[5] *** (2006), *Hippocrates*, Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia. Microsoft Corporation

At a later moment this phenomenon decreased in intensity by the fear of disease spreading, or in other cases bathing was considered immoral by religious purposes, situation changing during the European Renaissance (the 16th century), when the water therapy (balneotherapy) was appreciated (eg. the sulfurous springs in Abano, the mud baths in Padua, Lucca and Caldiero, the 200 Spas in Venice, Italy), further the 17th century, based on a better understanding of waters properties besides temperature (e.g. chemical, mineral), records the use of water in other ways (e.g. drinking, bathing cures), while the 18th century acknowledges the healing effects of the seawater (France) and finally the 19th century brings packages of treatment (modern Spas in Germany using the combined healing properties of fresh air, cold water and the diet) (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Smith & Puczkó, 2009).

Based on its physical-chemical properties and the diversity of the organization forms and spatial distribution (Teodorescu et al., 1973), water is considered in the 20th century an important economic resource, where the curative and healing characteristics, in addition to the water based experiences for recreational, leisure and sport are highly appreciated. The great diversity of the water environments, i.e. *rivers, streams, lakes, estuaries, beaches, coastlines, marshes, small-islands, wetlands* offer specific opportunities for tourism and sport activities, with a multitude of water based activities for different age categories, education levels and personal preferences. The water resources planning and management for sport and tourism activities should incorporate specific sustainable development practices and *s*ystematic approaches for meeting the basin needs considering the safety of water supply sanitation, for protecting the ecosystems, for promoting cooperation between the water users stakeholders, for managing risks (e.g. floods, pollution) and for valuing water in all its diverse values (economic, social, environmental, cultural) (Gupta, 2011).

**DATA AND METHODS**

This complex research paper analyses from a theoretical perspective the specific interaction between three elements, water, sport and tourism. Water is a valuable resources and it could be the ground for development and implementation of sport and tourism water-based activities and facilities. In order to elaborate the study, several methods of geographical research have been used (Cocean, 2005). The innitial stage was represented by the bibliographic documentation, when various works, projects, scientific articles, books of geographical and sport nature have been consulted, directly or indirectly connected with the topic of the article. The water resources issues are widely approached in the scientific, i.e. the underground waters (Pricăjan, 1972), the water role for tourism and regional planning of the destinations (Gunn & Var, 2002; Ilieş et al., 2014), the water as a tourist resource (Cocean, 2007; Cocean & Deszi, 2009), the water for the wellness and health tourism (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Smith & Puczkó, 2009), the water potential and its complex use (Bătinaş & Sorocovschi, 2012).

The field observation helped us better understand the geographical phenomenon, to learn more about the projects implemented by the water stakeholders (local authorities, private investors, non-profit etc.), to find out about the current status of sport and tourism water related activities and facilities. Water-based sport-tourism activities are developed in connection to the surface and the underground resources, generating specific sport, tourism, recreational, curative and cultural activities. All the data obtain was analyzed and synthesized, in order to be able to elaborate the conclusions. Considering the socio-economic importance of the water-based activities in the growth of a region, the specific facilities and activities should be incorporated in the development mechanism and strategies from regional and local level.

## DISCUSSIONS AND RESULTS

### Water-Based Sport & Tourism Activities

The paper analyzes the interrelation between water, tourism and sport, linking this three elements into a mutual reciprocal conceptual relation, in the same time building constructive connections between water-tourism-sport. The article considers the water as a valuable and powerful resource, recognizing its importance for tourism and sport (Vasvári et al., 2015). The article does not deal with issues like water sanitation or safety, resources availability or quantity.

Further, the paper understands the water as a resource that increases the attractiveness of a destination, stressing the importance of the many tourist and socio-economic activities based on water resources which uses the hydro-tourist potential, like the landscape and its energy, curative, recreative potential (Bătinaș & Sorocovschi, 2012). Water is not consumed in the sport-tourism activities, but these activities can have a great impact on the quality of the water resources, so the attractions can be affected when the water resource quality is affected (Gunn & Var, 2002), therefore for sport and tourism to maintain the water quality is a real need.

For example, the Blue Flag is the voluntary international eco-label system, awarded to authorities (municipalities or marinas) that consider the environment is vital for the local tourism development, being directly connected to water management, so this prestigious eco-label for tourism certifies the quality of environment in the very complex sustainable development mechanism (e.g. the Blue Flag is applied in Europe, Morocco, South Africa, Canada, New Zealand and the Caribbean)[6]. An example of a Blue Flag certified beach, where surf practicing is possible, is the beach located in north-western Portugal, in Mathosinhos (Figures 2), near the city of Porto. This beach offers surfing opportunities and for beginners there are several surfing schools, which provide all the necessary equipment and certified instructors.

**Figures 2.** Surfing in Mathosinhos (Portugal), a Blue Flag Beach

The aquatic environment is a sensitive issue, i.e. the streams, rivers, lakes, estuaries, shorelines, marshes, or islands are systems with a high natural-ecological, cultural or scientifically value, offering therefore specific opportunities for education and nature understanding, recreation and relaxation, being in the same time vulnerable to tourist activities (Grecu & Iosif, 2014). These fragile natural environments are surrounded by human impacted landscapes, so within delineated territory marked by borders, legal measures have to be imposed for protecting and conserving the nature and its elements

[6] http://www.blueflag.global/

important for the landscape, geology, paleontology, speleology and biodiversity (IUCN, 2012; Newsome et al., 2013), in addition to these elements also the protection of the economically important species and their habitats, of the drinking water catchments, the special zones for bathing should also be considered.

The protected areas are in close connection with the water and the aquatic environment, these fragile environments are valuable assets for the local communities, their values and resources should be used to promote integrated sustainable development mechanism through emergence of new types and forms of tourism, where education, conservation and protection should be achieved, as these areas can be viewed as destinations. Beyond relaxation and recreation, the educative focus should be promoted, as the tourist understand the protected areas, without damaging them, these combined activities supporting new forms and types of tourism within the region. The visits should be integrated into appropriate approaches to the protected areas planning and management, enhancing local economic opportunities, protecting the natural and cultural heritage, enhancing the overall quality of life (Eagles et al., 2002), raising the environmental awareness of the locals considering the natural assets (Ilieş et al., 2015).

Water-based sport-tourism are activities undertaken in connection and relating to water resources, to the surface resources (running waters, lakes, seas and oceans, waterfalls, glaciers) and to the underground resources (thermal and mineral springs, endokarst rivers, karst springs, geysers) (Gayle, 2007). Part of these activities benefit from the energy potential, based on the mechanic energy (of the water courses, the river sinuosity, the waves, the tides, the currents), supporting the recreational aspects (the river sectors for extreme sports, navigation, sailing, swimming, rafting, or recreative activities), on the chemical and thermic energy (heating exchanges) supporting the curative aspects (based on the physico-chemical characters of the underground waters and on the salt lakes, sea and ocean waters, e.g. heliothermy) (Bătinaș & Sorocovschi, 2012). In addition to the above elements, the specific landscapes and geolandscapes, i.e. lake, deltaic, marine, glaciar, generates even more attractiveness and enhancing the mentioned sport and tourism activities (Ilieş & Josan, 2009).

**Water, Sport and Recreation**

The main "*tool*" for moving on water is the boat with all it's diverse types that we can find. Boats can be motorized or human powered. Considering mankind's competitive nature, but also it discoverer gender, boating led to the development of different activities, some of which we may call or benefit in full of the term "*sport*". Depending on the type of water, the type or shape of the boat or the "*rules*" implied in boating, we can today define specific sports or activities, i.e. white water rafting and kayaking. Both are consolidated sports today, both use the manpower, the rivers in the process and the boats. But, the similarities end here. In white water rafting, we use an inflated boat from one up to 12-15 people, on a very rough, fast and technical course, while kayaking is a discipline less technical but more physical demanding.

Another "*tool*" very fashionable today is the "*board*". Again, like with the above example of the boat, the board has different shapes, and is used in different styles on different "*terrain*", to define different disciplines. Water skiing, surfing or wakeboarding or kiteboarding are the most common disciplines today. The main "*sans tools*" water activity is the swimming with all it's different shapes and styles, weather it's used just as a relaxation or as an intense physical activity. A discipline that combines all of the above could be wakeboarding in some situations. Of course one can't swim while in the boat and riding a board, all at the same time. But wakeboarding does imply after all, boating, swimming and riding a board. Without one of these three, wakeboarding would be impossible. Wakeboarding implies the use of a board to slide on the surface of the water,

very similar to the snowboarding, but it implies some form of towing. The tow could be either from a motorized boat, either from a closed cable course. Wakeboarding is addressed at all genders starting from ages of 14, without a limit of age.

**Figures 3.** Sport and tourism facilities in Omszk Wakeboarding Centrum, Budapest (Hungary)

As we mentioned previously, it is very similar to snowboarding, surfing or skateboarding in the fact that the rider has a similar stance on the board, with a sideways trajectory. The shape of the board is a lot smaller, with convex radii on the heel and toe edges and with straight edges on both ends. In general, the board has directional fins on the lower side and is bidirectional, allowing the rider to ride both ways, "*regular*" with the left foot forward or "*goofy*" with the right foot forward. Considering that these board sports are all closely related, the trick nomenclature is mostly the same (e.g. backside 360 would describe the same move and it would be called the same in all the other mentioned board sports). Even though wakeboarding becomes more and more popular among teengers, it is still not an Olympic discipline.

In fact in 2016 it was presented as a trial sport, and it is still in discussion weather the 2020 Olympics will contain wakeboarding[7]. In the relationship with tourism, wakeboarding is dependable on the location of the practitioner and the location of wakeboarding facilities, nearby or far away. Usually, wakeboarding requires big open spots with calm water, either lakes or wide and smooth rivers. In some cases, the use of the boat for towing can be replaced with a an artificial closed loop cable installation. An example of a wakeboarding cable park is the Omszk Wakeboarding Park (Figures 3) from Szentendre, Budapest (Hungary). In this location it is possible to practice wakeboarding from April till October, and the beginners can take learning classes with professional instructors. For beginners, lower speed at the cable installation are offered, so they can learn how to ride. This park offers the possibility to rent or even to buy the equipment for wakeboarding. The location of the park has an easy access, close to the highway. Rafting is practiced worldwide at a large scale. In Romania, river rafting is not as popular like in other countries, despite the fact that Romania's rivers have the needed features (e.g. the water flow capacity, the river sectors technical characteristics).

A great place for practicing river rafting is on Crişul Pietros in the Apuseni Mountains (Figure 4). The route is wild and dangerous, suitable for advanced athletes, with a lot of experience. It is available in spring when the flow capacities are high, but unfortunately there are no rafting facilities available. The section of the river which is appropriate for rafting is the Boga-Pietroasa sector.

[7] http://www.wakehq.com/article/wakeboarding-for-the-2020-olympics


**Figure 4.** Rafting routes on Crişul Pietros River (Romania) (Source: Pop, 2014, 134)

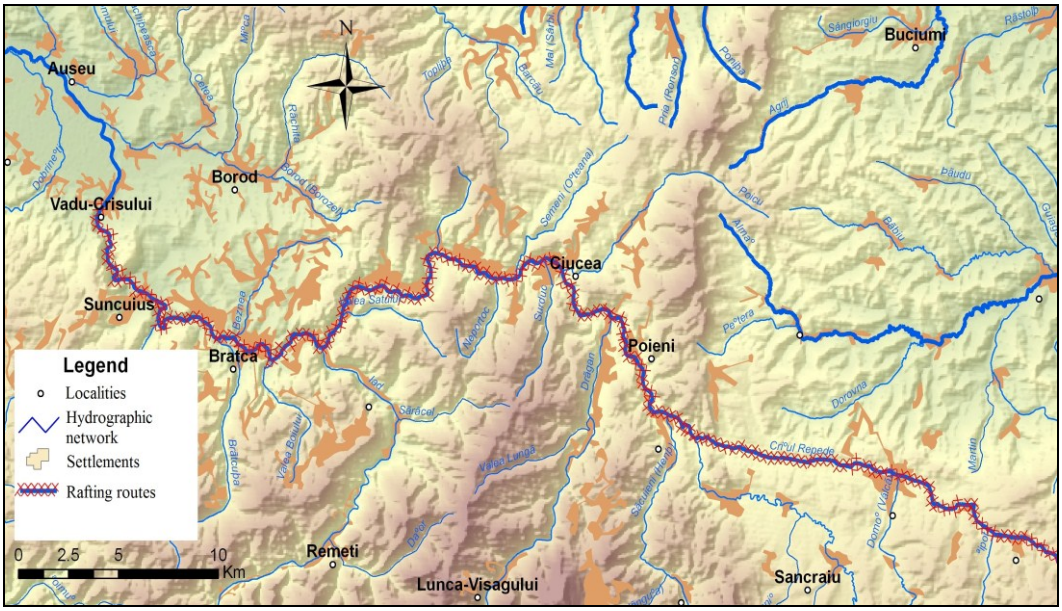



**Figure 5.** Rafting routes on the Crişul Repede River (Romania) (Source: Pop, 2014, 136)

Further, the Crişul Repede River offers rafting experiences'opportunities between Izvorul Crişului and Vadu Crişului (Figure 5). The sector Şuncuiuş-Vadu Crişului is very complex, the river and its shorelines offering sport and tourist activities of recreational character of a dispersed nature (Gayle, 2007), including viewpoints, fishing, camping, rafting, boating, tube floating and swimming (Figures 6).

**Water, therapy and culture**

Spa tourism deals with *"the relaxation or healing of the body, using mainly water-based treatments, like mineral or thermal pools, steam rooms and saunas"* (Smith & Puczkó, 2009, 85). Spa tourism enhances the well-being, offering relaxation for stress management, reflect for meditation, revitalize for energy and rejoice for happiness and entertainment (Smith & Puczkó, 2009, after ISPA 2007). Spas have various forms of water-based treatments, for instance the mineral waters (loaded with a quantity of minerals of more than 1 g/l) are quite diverse (Pricăjan, 1972), i.e. the carbonated, ferrous, chlorine, iodine, sulfide etc waters are located in either the underground or at the surface (e.g. lakes), in combination with other physical properties (termality and radioactivity) do have curative properties and they are used externally (water spa baths used for the external treatment or internally), or internally (the internal treatment cures), while the thermal waters do also have healing effects (Pricăjan, 1972), in the same time representing a main motivation to "*turistify*" a specific area (Cocean, 2005; Ilieș et al., 2011).

**Figures 6.** Rafting on the Crișul Repede River (Romania)

Worldwide, spatially or historically, there are different perspectives over spas, for example in Eastern Europe in the present days, the spas are connected with balneology, based on the historic Roman and Medieval spas heritage, also it uses the natural settings, the climate, the mineral waters and have a strong therapeutical component, involving healing or treatment of locomotion or circulatory diseases, requiring longer stays or repeated visits (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Smith & Puczkó, 2009). In some cases the water treatment based on the springs with therapeutic waters, healing gases, spas facilities and seaside resorts, bioclimatic and healing climate, can be combined with recreational, leisure, or adventurous activities (e.g. leisure spa tourism based on aqua parks, beach fronts, pools, saunas, with artificial thematic environments (e.g. Mediterranean features, specific Asian architecture, tropical rainforests) (Smith & Puczkó, 2009, after European Spa Association (ESPA), 2007). The North American approach deals with the so called Day Spas, facilities offering beauty, fitness, wellness services, without accommodation and for a period no longer than a day (Smith & Puczkó, 2007, after North American Associations for Spas (ISPA), 2007). Spa classification differentiates club spas, day spas, hotel spas, holistic spas, baths, resort spas, sport spas and structured spas (Smith & Puczkó, 2009, after International Association for Spas (ISPA), 2007).

Thalasso tourism is based on the seawater cure, thalassotherapy found along seacoast, very popular in Western Europe. Thalassotherapy deals with the use of seawater to revitalize the body, skin, to tone, moisture and improve circulation (Smith & Puczkó, 2007). Thalasotherapy centres use various packages, underwater showers, mud baths,

massage, seaweed, mud and algae wraps. In some other cases the water resources act as spiritual-cultural attractions, the spiritual activities, being integrated with the cultural visits, with learning, relaxation or meditation (e.g. Yoga).

In this idea travelers to religious edifices, i.e. churches, cathedrals, temples, synagogues, mosques, for visits dedicated to religious practices are part of the religious tourism, or spiritual tourism, as they are dedicated to the spiritual enhancement (e.g. the holy places dedicated do religious ceremonies from the Delphie Sanctuary, or pilgrimages became very popular especially in the Middle Ages when churches became known as sacred places where sick pilgrims are reputed to be miraculously healed by Lourdes water for example, or the modern days bathing in sacred rivers, e.g. mass pilgrimage during Kumbh Mela, in which Hindus gather to bath in the Gange sacred river). In the same time the non-religious motivation for the travel also exist as these religious edifices are true historical, cultural, architectural and art monuments, based on their age, size, style and artistic treasures (Cocean, 2007; Cocean & Deszi, 2009), therefore the culture is a strong motivation for travel in this case.

**CONCLUSIONS**

Beginning with ancient times, people understood the benefits and the importance of practicing water sports. In the beginning, there were just the basic needs (e.g. food, shelter, defense), then other needs emerged, like the need of competing (the water sports), or the need of recreation (the water-based tourism). Water-based sport-tourism are activity undertaken in connection and relating to water, to the surface resources (running waters, lakes, seas and oceans, waterfalls, glaciers) and to the underground resources (thermal and mineral springs, endokarst rivers, karst springs, geysers). Part of these activities benefit from the energy potential, based on the mechanic energy (of the water courses, the river sinuosity, the waves, the tides, the currents), supporting the recreational aspects (the river sectors for extreme sports, navigation, sailing, swimming, rafting, or recreative activities), on the chemical and thermic energy (heating exchanges) supporting the curative aspects (based on the underground waters physico-chemical characters, on the salt lakes, sea and ocean waters, e.g. heliothermy) (Bătinaş & Sorocovschi, 2012).

In addition to the above elements, the specific landscapes i.e. lake, deltaic, marine, glacial, generates even more attractiveness and enhancing the mentioned sport and tourism activities. The need of practicing the water based physical and tourist activities led to the development of new facilities for water sport and tourism disciplines. The demand for practicing the water sports activities increased and new technics, stiles and branches had to be developed. In the recent years, in Romania the demand for practicing water sport and tourism activities disciplines increased (e.g. river rafting, or wakeboarding). This increasing demand requires appropriate sport-tourism facilities to support these activities. For example, these new and diversified tourism types and forms could successfully complete the existing traditional tourist products, generating these way additional benefits for the local communities, as tourism supports the local economies, being integrated in communities with minimum socio-economic and environmental negative impact (Morar, 2013).

In some cases the lack of collaboration between the local or regional water users' stakeholders, the limited promotion of the water based tourism products, the underdeveloped specific infrastructure endangers the sustainable development mechanism and processes. All the elements needed in tourist planning should be spatially and functionally interconnected, grouped to work together in an integrative manner for the benefits of the visitors flows, benefiting of the water-based activities.

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# SOCIALIST HERITAGE AND SYMBOLS IN FOOTBALL TEAMS (1981-1989) IN MARAMUREŞ COUNTY (ROMANIA)

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**Abstract:** The foundation of a sports club in socialist Romania used to be a priority for each existing economic unit within the Romanian political-administrative area. Football, according to the number of teams, localities and competitions existing during 1981 and 1989, was by far the best represented sport. By analyzing the data, five categories of team names were identified, grouped according to the local specificity of the natural elements or economic domains. Each club would "borrow" its name from the financing economic institution, thus each name was identified with an economic domain. 76 names were identified, belonging to 162 teams, which reflected the representative economic domains of 100 localities (8 towns and 92 villages), being at the same time a specific form of institutional advertising. By analyzing a string of data from the period of time between 1981 and 1989, a map was created reflecting the socialist symbols in amateur football of Maramureş County, a novelty element in the specialty literature.

**Key words:** map, symbols, amateur football, economic units, socialist system

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## INTRODUCTION

On institutional level and especially on sports level, each entity identifies itself with symbols under the form of a flag, pennon, crest, logo (Figure 1) etc. During the socialist period, the financial support for sports clubs was fully provided by the economic units structured on domains and clearly prioritized within the same domain (Luh, 2003). Each club from a locality would register in a sports competition under a name which was usually similar to the economic unit or industrial domain represented by the respective club. The logo would also contain representation elements specific to the represented

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industrial domain. Practically, the sportive system, because of the total financing provided by economic units, was completely dependent on them and, implicitly, there was a certain hierarchy of clubs according to the place occupied by the economic unit or locality in the hierarchy of the industrial domain. In the present study, we have analyzed the situation of Maramureş County (Ilieş, 2006), considered one of the most industrial counties during the socialist period and with wide representation on Romania's economic map. On county level, the most representative economic domains were the following: mining, extraction industry, wood processing industry, metallurgy and ferrous metallurgy, engineering, textile industry and the agricultural sector represented by communal Agriculture Entreprises of State (AES) and Agriculture Cooperative of Production (ACP). The map of socialist sports symbols heritage represents an element of novelty for the specialty literature. The analysis, interpretation and spatial representation of a sports phenomenon (Rooney & Pillsbury, 1992; Slocum et al., 2009; Ilieş et al., 2014a; Ilieş et al., 2015b) represents the essence of geography of sports (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Bale, 2003; Conner, 2014; Gaffney, 2014; Ilieş et al., 2014a; Ilieş et al., 2016b).

**Geographic and administrative background**

Maramureş County represented for the period 1981-1989 one of the most industrialized administrative-territorial units where the extractive industry and the wood processing industry had the highest share. For the analyzed period, the approximately 530,000 inhabitants (1989) were distributed in 62 Local Administrative Units (LAU), out of which 8 urban centers (two cities) and 61 communes with 227 villages. Almost each locality had on its territory an economic production unit. Depending on its hierarchic position in this integrated system, the economic unit would be reflected also into the financial support (Vermeulen & Verweel, 2009; Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2010) and hierarchic representation potential in sports competitions. Football, considered a mass sport and the gatherer of the highest number of spectators, would become a wanted sport by the economic units (Kassimeris, 2009; Hudson et al., 2010; Wiliams & Hopkins, 2011). Each locality wanted to have a football team to represent it in the competitions with the neighboring localities in territorial, county, regional championships (B and C divisions) and in national championships (A division). In each industrial domain there were clubs which would reflect the position of the respective locality in the national hierarchy.

**DATA BASE AND METHODOLOGY**

The data base is made up of the information gathered from field activity and publications specific to the socialist period *Pentru Socialism*[1]. The information has been verified at the Maramureş County Football Association, referring to the number and the clubs which existed during the period 1981-2016 (*Main map*). After using methods and tools certified in the geographic speciality literature referring to spatial analysis (Kozma et al., 2015; Ilieş et al., 2016b) or with interdisciplinary character (Reilley & Gilbourne, 2003; Davies, 2011; Goldblatt, 2011; Wendt, 2012; Matlovič & Matlovičová, 2016) or from examples with the same specificity (Baias et al., 2010; Gilchrist & Holden, 2011; Buhaş, 2015; Dragoş, 2015; Ilieş et al., 2016a), the result is a representational cartographic model (Muehrcke, 1986; Slocum et al., 2009; Ilieş et al., 2014b; Ilieş et al., 2016a) of sportive symbols specific to the socialist system.

The data base administered with GIS, processed through statistical methods, quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed, is represented through cartographic methods which suggestively reflect the relation between the economic component of a locality or region (Henry, 2005; Bairner, 2011; Ilieş et al., 2013; Ilieş et al., 2014b; Ilieş et al., 2015a; Herman et al., 2016;) and the representation fidelity through adapted symbols. Pictograms have been created, representing as faithfully as possible

the name of the team in conjunction with the industrial or agricultural branch or with the local symbols. Other pictograms have been taken from the specialty literature, from websites[1] with sports domains or by reediting existent pictographs specific to certain economic geography objectives.


**Figure 1**. Symbols and flags of the main socialist footbal teams from Maramureş County (1981-1989) (Source: http://www.boleynbadges.eu/romania/)

## ANALYTICAL BACKGROUND. DISCUSSIONS AND RESULTS

The string of analyzed data includes 10 editions of national, county and territorial championships to which football teams from Maramureş County took part during 1981 and 1990. Out of the 100 localities represented during the entire analyzed period (38.3% of the total), 92 were from the rural area. The name typology was extremely varied, the 74 identified names representing 162 football teams (*Main map*). All 8 urban centers were represented, each according to its economic potential with a representative number of teams. The 57 teams from the urban area (35% of the total) had 41 different names (57.7%

of the total number of names), distributes as follows: Baia Mare 15 teams; Vişeu de Sus 12; Sighetu Marmaţiei 8; Borşa 4; Târgu Lapuş 4; Cavnic 2; Seini 2 and Baia Sprie 1. In the rural area there were 105 teams (65%) representing 92 villages (36.1%; Table 1).

Grouping the teams on localities reflects to a large extent the structure of their industrial branches, especially in the urban area. For example, in Sighetu Marmaţiei, the 8 teams which used to function in the 1990', during the socialist system, represented as follows: the wood industry: *CIL* with 3 teams on three levels; industrial and urban constructions (Maramureş Construction Trust): *Constructorul* and *AEI*; engineering-mechanics: *Mecanica* and *Maramureşana*; the sector of agriculture mechanization (*Gloria SMA*); the textile industry: *Voinţa* and *Mara* (the second name was borrowed by the economic unit from the river with the same name); services (*SEA*).

Out of the 76 team names, the most used ones (Figure 1; Table 1) were: *Voinţa* (Will Power) (12), *Viitorul* (Future), (11), *Minerul* (Miner) (11), *Recolta* (Harvest) (8), *Avântul* (Enthusiasm) (6), *Unirea* (Union) (6), *Gloria* (Glory) (5), *Luceafarul* (Morning Star) (4) *Someşul* (River) (4) etc. According to the proposed methodology and according to the chosen names for the teams during the analyzed period, we have proposed 5 categories (Table 1). A detailed analysis of each category has emphasized the existing connection between the names chosen by the football teams and the economic territorial realities specific to the socialist period. Out of the 5 categories, the I and the IV can be considered the least influenced by the party politics, the slogan being substituted by names inspired from the representative elements of the local natural background (the I), or inspired from the Romanian traditional high performance football (V).

**I. The names inspired by elements specific to the natural and celestial elements** represent the category which has strong connections in the local specifics and less with the stimulating "slogans" of the socialist system. Within this category we have proposed 4 subcategories (*Main map*; Table 1):

*a) Relief units / toponyms: Dumbrava, Măgura Pietrosul, Ţibleşul* and *Poiana*;

*b) Flora and fauna: Bradul* (The Fir tree), *Făgetul* (The Beech tree); *Paltinul* (The Sycamore tree), *Stejarul* (The Oak tree), *Teiul* (The Lime tree); *Şoimii* (The Falcons);

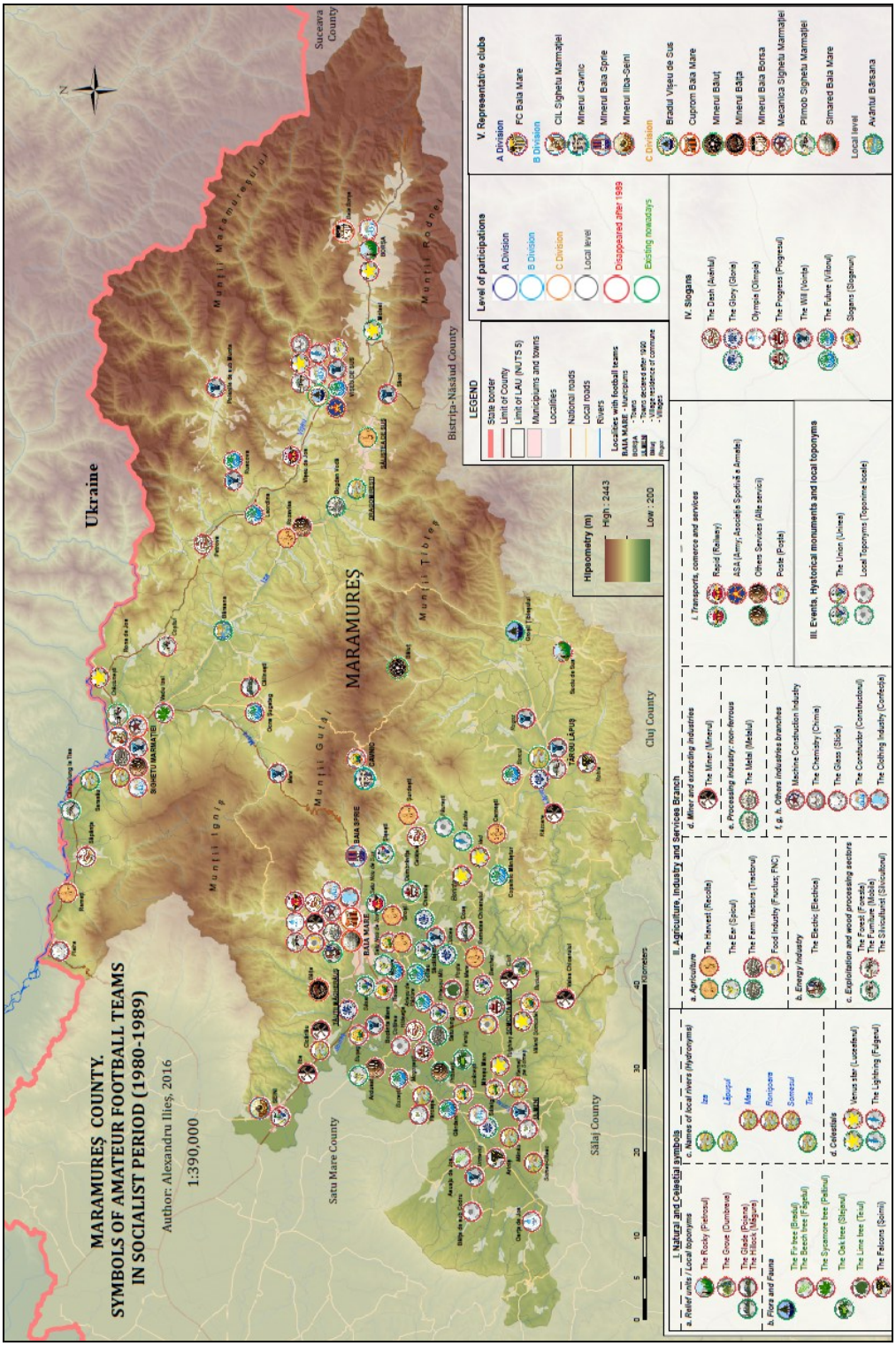
*c) Names of local rivers: Iza, Lapuşul, Mara, Ronişoara, Someşul* and *Tisa*;

*d) Celestial: Luceafărul* (The Morning Star), *Fulgerul* (The Lightning), Steaua (The Star) and *Zorile* (The Dawn).

Besides the symbolis present on the flag of *Bradul* (The Fir-tree) team from Vişeul de Sus (Figure 1), for the other names we propose in table 1 representative and useful symbols in cartographic representation. On name types, the most used are *Someşul* and *Luceafarul* (Morning Star) (four localities each) and *Steaua* (Star) in two localities. Some names from this category have equally represented the names of economic units from the respective locality, being connected, in most cases, to the manufacturing industry (manufacturing co-operation centers). In this category we have identified 21 names (25.3%; four in urban areas, 19 in rural areas and three in mixed areas) representing 34 teams (eight in urban areas and 26 in rural areas) from 30 localities (four towns and 26 villages; Figure 1; Table 1). The towns Vişeu de Sus (with four teams) and Borşa (two) were the most prolific in this category, an important part being played by the natural background and the geographic position of the two localities from the foot of Maramureş, respectively Rodna Mountains.

**II. The names derived from economic activities** represented eight activity sectors and implicitly the names of the economic units or activities which would financially and materially support the football club (*Main map*).

*The agricultural, exploitation and wood processing sectors and the mining industry* were best represented at county level (Table 1).




**Main map**. Maramureş County. Symbols of amateur football teams in socialist period (1980 - 1989)

If in the *agricultural sector* the name *Recolta (Harvest)* represented eight localities, the exploitation industry: *Foresta, Forestiera* or *Silvicultorul* and the wood processing: *Mobila* (Furniture), *CIL, IPP* were represented on the county football map by 11 teams from six localities (Tab. 1). Generally, the names from the processing industry represented urban centers such as Viseu de Sus (five teams), Sighetu Marmaţiei (two), Baia Mare (one), Târgu Lăpuş (one), and only two localities from the rural area: Câmpulung at Tisa and Costiui. The team *CIL* Sighetu Marmaţiei was the most representative, activating in B Division and *Bradul* Vişeu de Sus and *Plimob* Sighetu Marmaţiei (after 1990) in C Division.

**Table 1.** Names of football amateur's teams, level of representations and localities in Maramureş county (*Main map*) in period 1981-1989 (data sources: Newspaper *Pentru Socialism*, editions 1981-1989)

| no | Name of the football teams | | Localities with teams in: A, B and C divisions; Competions of Local and County levels (BORŞA – urban; Ciolt – rural) | No of teams | Symbols used on the map |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | In Romanian | *In English* | | | |
| **I.** | **NATURAL AND CELESTICAL BACKGROUND** | | | | |
| **a.** | **Relief units/Local toponyms** | | | **5** | |
| 1 | Dumbrava | *The Grove* | Ciolt | 1 | |
| 2 | Pietrosul | *The Rocky* | BORŞA | 1 | |
| 3 | Ţibleşul | - | Suciu de Sus | 1 | |
| 4 | Poiana | *The Glade* | Călineşti | 1 | |
| 5 | Măgura | *The Hillock* | Coaş | 1 | |
| **b.** | **Flora and Fauna** | | | **9** | |
| 1 | Bradul (Abies) | *The Fir tree* | VIŞEU DE SUS; VIŞEU DE SUS, Groşii Ţibleşului | 3 | |
| 2 | Făgetul (Fagus) | *The Beech tree* | Asuaju de Jos | 1 | |
| 3 | Paltinul (Acer) | *The Sycamore maple tree* | Vadu Izei | 1 | |
| 4 | Stejarul (Quercus) | *The Oak tree* | Fersig | 1 | |
| 5 | Teiul (Tilia) | *The Lime tree* | Poşta | 1 | |
| 6 | Şoimii | *The Falcons* | Ariniş, Rohia | 2 | |
| **c.** | **Names of local rivers (Hydronyms)** | | | **10** | |
| 1 | Iza | | Dragomireşti | 1 | |
| 2 | Lăpuşul | | TÂRGU LĂPUŞ | 1 | |
| 3 | Mara | | SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI | 1 | |
| 4 | Ronişoara | | Rona de Jos | 1 | |
| 5 | Someşul | | Cicârlău, Fărcaşa, Mânău, Remeţi pe Someş, Someş-Uileac | 5 | |
| 6 | Tisa | | Sarasău | 1 | |
| **d** | **Celestial** | | | **10** | |
| 1 | Luceafărul | *Venus (star)* | BORŞA, Tulghieş, Văleni Şomcutei,Vad | 4 | |
| 2 | Steaua | *The Star* | Crăciuneşti (Military), VIŞEU DE SUS, | 2 | |
| 3 | Zorile | *The Daybreak* | Berinţa, Moisei | 2 | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | Fulgerul | *The Lightning* | VIŞEU DE SUS, Lăschia | 2 |  |
| | ***Total = 21*** | | ***4 Urban +26Rural =30*** | ***8U+26R=34*** | |
| **II.** | **AGRICULTURE, INDISTRY, TRANSPORT AND SERVICES** | | | | |
| **a.** | **Agriculture branch** | | | **15** | |
| 1 | Recolta | The Harvest | Cernești, Groși, Sălișteа de Sus, Satu Nou de Jos, Șurdești, Remetea Chioarului, Remeți, Rozavlea | 8 |  |
| 2 | Spicul | *The Ear* | Ardusat, Mocira | 2 |  |
| 3 | SMA | --- | SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI | 1 |  |
| 4 | Tractorul | *The Farm Tractors* | Satulung | 1 | |
| 5 | FNC | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |
| 6 | Fructus | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 | |
| 7 | IPIC-CF | --- | Șomcuta Mare | 1 | |
| **b.** | **Electricity branch** | | | **1** | |
| 1 | Electrica | The Electricity | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |
| **c** | **Exploitation and wood processing sectors** | | | **12** | |
| 1 | Bradul (Abies) | *The Fir tree* | VIŞEU DE SUS; VIŞEU DE SUS | 2 | Figure 1 |
| 2 | CIL | *CIL* | SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI, SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI | 2 | Figure 1 |
| 3 | Foresta | *The Forest* | Câmpulung la Tisa, TÂRGU LĂPUȘ, VIŞEU DE SUS | 3 |  |
| 4 | IPP | *IPP* | Coștiui | 1 | |
| 5 | Mobila | *The Furniture* | BAIA MARE, SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI, VIŞEU DE SUS | 3 | |
| 6 | Silvicultorul | *The Silviculturist* | VIŞEU DE SUS | 1 | |
| **d.** | **Miner and extracting industries** | | | **13** | |
| 1 | Minerul | *The Miner* | FC BAIA MARE, BAIA SPRIE, CAVNIC, Ilba-SEINI; Băița, Băiuț, BAIA BORŞA; BAIA MARE, Cicârlău, Ilba, Răzoare, Valea Chioarului | 11 | Figure 1  |
| 2 | Marmura | *The Marble* | Ciolt | 1 | |
| **e.** | **Processing industry: non-ferrous industry** | | | **4** | |
| 1 | Metalul | *The Metals* | Bogdan Vodă | 1 |  |
| 2 | Metalomin | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 | |
| 3 | Antena Simared | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |
| 4 | Cuprom | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 | Figure 1 |
| **f.** | **Engineering and construction machine tools industry** | | | **5** | |
| 1 | IMUAS | | BAIA MARE | 1 | |
| 2 | Mecanica | *The Mechanics* | SIGHETU-MARMAȚIEI, VIŞEU DE SUS | 2 |  |
| 3 | Maramureşana | --- | SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI | 1 | |
| 4 | Motorul | *The Engine* | BAIA MARE | 1 | |
| **g** | **Chemical, glass and materials of constructions industries** | | | **9** | |
| 1 | Chimia | *The Chemistry* | VIŞEU DE SUS | 1 |  |
| 2 | Sticla | *The Glass* | Fărcaşa, Piatra, Ulmeni | 3 |  |
| 3 | Faimar | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |
| 4 | Prefabricate | *The Prefabricated* | Mireşu Mare | 1 | |
| 5 | Constructorul | *The Constructor* | BORŞA, SIGHETU MARMAȚIEI, VIŞEU DE SUS | 3 | |
| **h.** | **Textile Industry** | | | **1** | |
| 1 | Confecția | The Clothing factory | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |

| i. | **Transports, Comerce and Services** | | | **12** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Rapid | *Rapid* | BAIA MARE, Satu Nou de Sus,VIŞEU DE JOS | 3 |  |
| 2 | PTTR | *The Poste* | VIŞEU DE SUS | 1 |  |
| 3 | ASA | *Military* | VIŞEU DE SUS | 1 |  |
| 4 | Complex | *The Complex* | Ardusat | 1 | |
| 5 | Comerţul | *The Comerce* | Rozavlea | 1 | |
| 6 | AEI | --- | SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI | 1 | |
| 7 | EGCL | --- | BAIA MARE | 1 |  |
| 8 | Solaris | --- | Pribileşti | 1 | |
| 9 | SEA | --- | SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI | 1 | |
| 10 | Tipograful | *The Typographer* | BAIA MARE | 1 | |
| | ***Total = 40*** | | ***8 URBAN + 30 RURAL = 38*** | ***42U+30R=72*** | |
| **III** | **EVENTS, HYSTORICAL MONUMENTS AND LOCAL TOPONYMS** | | | **9** | |
| 1 | Unirea | *The Union* | Berchez, Finteuşu Mic, Săcălăşeni, Săsar, SEINI, Şişeşti (Figure 1) | 6 |  |
| 2 | Faurul | *The Ironsmith* | Făureşti | 1 | |
| 3 | Farul | *The Lighthouse* | Colţirea | 1 |  |
| 4 | Băiţana | | Băiţa de sub Codru | 1 | |
| ***T*** | ***4*** | | ***1 Urban + 8 Rural = 9*** | ***1U+8R=9*** | |
| **IV** | **SLOGANS** | | | **47** | |
| 1 | Avântul | *The Enthusiasm/ The Dash* | Bârsana (Figure 1), BAIA MARE, Cetăţele, Hideaga, Petrova, Săpânţa, | 6 |  |
| 2 | Gloria | *The Glory* | Chechiş, Culcea, Sălsig, Tăuţii Măgherăuş, TÂRGU LĂPUŞ | 5 |  |
| 3 | Olimpia | *Olympia* | BAIA MARE, Oarţa de Jos, | 2 |  |
| 4 | Progresul | *The Progress* | Dumbrăviţa, Mogoşeşti, Şomcuta Mare | 3 |  |
| 5 | Speranţa | *The Hope* | Satu Nou de Jos | 1 | |
| 6 | Sportul Muncitoresc | *The Workers Sport* | CAVNIC | 1 |  |
| 7 | Stăruinţa | *The Assiduity* | Buciumi, Lucăceşti, Recea | 3 | |
| 8 | Viaţă Nouă | *The New Life* | Mireşu Mare | 1 | |
| 9 | Victoria | *The Victory* | Buşag, Finteuşu Mare | 2 | |
| 10 | Viitorul | *The Future* | Arieşul de Pădure, Borcut, Buzeşti, Coltău, Copalnic-Mănăştur, Gârdani, Leordina, Mocira, Ocna Şugatag, Ruscova, VIŞEU DE SUS | 11 |  |
| 11 | Voinţa | *The Will* | Bozânta Mare, Mara, Poienile de sub Munte, Rogoz, Ruscova, Săcălăşeni, Săcel, SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI, TÂRGU LĂPUŞ, Ulmeni, Urmeniş, VIŞEU DE SUS | 12 |  |
| ***T*** | ***11*** | | ***5 Urban + 38 Rural = 44*** | ***8U+39R=47*** | |
| | **TOTAL = 76** | | **8 Urban + 92Rural = 100** | **57U+105R+162** | |
| **V** | **The names of representative footbal clubs from Romania and Maramureş (Leagues A and B)** | | | | |
| 1 | CIL | | SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI, SIGHETU MARMAŢIEI | 2 | Figure 1 |
| 2 | Farul | | Colţirea | 1 | |
| 3 | FC Maramureş | | BAIA MARE | 1 | Figure 1 |
| 4 | Gloria | | Chechiş, Culcea, Tăuţii Măgherăuş, TG. LĂPUŞ | 4 | |
| 5 | Luceafărul | | BORŞA, Tulghieş, Văleni Şomcutei,Vad | 4 | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | Minerul | BAIA SPRIE, CAVNIC, Ilba-SEINI; BAIA BORŞA, Băiţa, Băiuţ; BAIA MARE, Cicârlău, Ilba, Răzoare, Valea Chioarului; | 11 | Figure 1 |
| 7 | Olimpia | BAIA MARE, Oarţa de Jos | 2 | |
| 8 | Progresul | Dumbrăviţa, Mogoşeşti, Şomcuta Mare | 3 | |
| 9 | Rapid | BAIA MARE, Satu Nou de Sus,VIŞEU DE JOS | 3 | |
| 10 | Steaua | Crăciuneşti, VIŞEU DE SUS | 2 | |
| **T** | **10** | **8 Urban + 18 Rural = 26** | **33** | |

*The extracting industry,* extremely present in the economy of socialist Maramureş, had also the best sportive representation. Out of the 13 teams named *Minerul* (Miner), six were in C National Division (Băiuţ, Băiţa, Baia Borşa, Baia Sprie, Cavnic and Ilba-Seini) and five in the county and territorial championships (Baia Mare, Ilba, Cicârlău, Răzoare, Valea Chioarului). Even though the name of the A Division team known as *FC Maramureş* Baia Mare represented the entire county, the financial support was provided by the mining headquarters from Baia Mare. It is noticeable the fact that the names of localities (Baia, Băiuţ, Băiţa) symbolize their history and their appearance in direct connection to the mining industry. From this category, the teams from Baia Sprie, Cavnic and Ilba-Seini also activated in B Division.

The branches of *the processing industry* in the domain of non-ferrous metallurgy reached the level of C Division with the teams *Cuprom* and *Simared* from Baia Mare. The domains of engineering and construction materials were represented only on county level, except *Mecanica* Sighetu Marmaţiei who activated in C Division. On the level of other economic branches (Tab. 1), the number of representative teams is smaller, yet the names are more diverse in the *service* sector, 12 teams with 10 different names from 8 localities. This category can be considered the most representative for the analyzed period by the number of participating teams (72; 44.4% of the total), the number of localities (38; 40%) and by the 40 (52.65%) different names. All eight towns and other 30 localities, important for the county economy, were represented. As number of teams, it can be noticed the predominance of those from the urban area (42; 69%), compared to the number of those in the rural area (30; 40%), from the total number of teams in this category.

**III. The category of historical monuments and events,** there are identified four types of names, the most frequent being *Unirea (The Union)*, the name of six times from six localities (*Main map*; Table 1). The names *Faurul* and *Băiţana* are derived from the names of the localities they represented. With a total of eight teams (one from the urban area), the four names are present in eight localities.

**IV. Slogans** (*Main map*; Table 1) represent the most represented category for the socialist system and the second as importance for the 47 teams (29%) and 44 represented localities. The 11 identified names (15.5%) represented 47 teams from the rural area (39 villages) and eight from the urban area (five towns). Borşa and Seini are not among these towns. The most used names were *Voinţa* (Will Power) (12 teams), *Viitorul* (Future) (11), *Avântul* (Enthusiasm) with 6 and *Gloria* (Glory) (5). We must mention that some of the teams with these names belonged to economic units with similar names, specific to the socialist period, especially *Avântul, Stăruinţa* (Insistance) or *Progresul* (Progress) which usually represented the light and food industry. Thus, they could be associated with economic branches from the second category (Table 1).

**V. The names of representative clubs for Romanian and Maramureş Football** (Table 1) represent a special category as the identified teams can be found in categories I-IV. We have proposed this category in order to emphasize the territorial impact of "big football" upon the local and the regional one by "borrowing" and implementing "representative names" at the level of socialist amateur football ("for fun")

of Maramureş County. Out of the 10 names identified, *Steaua* and *Rapid* were the most representative, these names being found in military structures (*Steaua*) and railroad domain (*Rapid*) from the territory of the respective ministry. The situation was similar in the case of the mine ministry for the teams *Minerul* (Miner).

By comparison, the 4 categories emphasize a *team numbers/name numbers* and *locality numbers/name numbers* ratio favorable to category IV (5.4; 4.1), being the most homogenous category, while category **I** is the most diversified (1.5; 1.3).

## CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of a representative set of data for the final part of the socialist period (1981-1990) has allowed us to create a complex and expressive data base for the objective of our scientific endeavor. Identifying resemblances between the socialist economy and football teams shows the fact that on the level of national marketing, the socialist system was extremely efficient, well organized and financially supported. Each team could benefit of its own sports base and sometimes of "unlimited financial resources" in order to reach an objective. The five large categories identified and analyzed are the territorial reflection of the county economy for that period, fact emphasized also by the team ranking on activity branches, on one hand and within the same branch, on the other hand. In the case of mining, exploitation and wood processing, the representative teams reached performance levels similar to the position of the unit in the economic sector ranking. For example, in the case of mining there were three levels: Baia Mare (I), Baia Sprie, Ilba-Seini and Cavnic (II) and Baia Borşa, Băiţa and Băiuţ (III), with the notice that other teams reached the second category from the third category, but additionally and not changing place with Minerul Cavnic. Similarly, within the wood processing industry, *CIL* Sighetu Marmaţiei (I) was always places on a higher representation level than the team *Bradul* Vişeu de Sus (II), level III in this branch being the county level. The situation was similar on the level of ranking branches from the same locality. The rank of the economic unit on national level was also reflected in the representation level within the structure of the localities. The cities Baia Mare and Sighetu Marmaţiei were expressive in this respect since mining and the wood processing industry were the main branches and they had national rank units. It is also interesting the symbols taken over and the proposed one with a total of 52 symbols. With this representation manner and the accomplished cartographic material, we propose an element of novelty in the specialty literature, the use of which can be valorized in education, marketing and the management of sports units. The map resulted is an important tool of territorial reflection through the symbols and the presence of football teams, of territorial strategies and planning politics specific to the socialist system.

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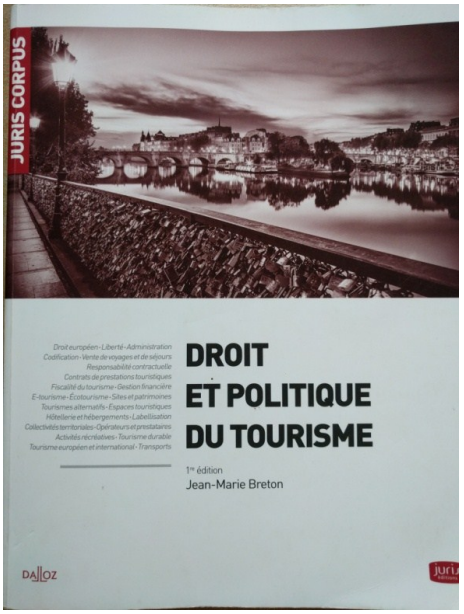


Jean Marie BRETON (2016)
***Droit et politique du tourisme***
Editions Juris, Lyon
ISBN 978-2-24-716277-2, 717 pp.

As tourism is becoming ever more complex through a higher flow of people, contractual undertakings and legal approches are necessary for its proper functioning. Due to its complexity which covers many areas such as travel agencies, transportation regulations, sustainability of the tourist activity and the fact that many actors are involved into its unfolding, so are the legal and political approaches that need to be taken into consideration, therefore a an optimal jurisprudence is indispendable for its clarification and application.

The legal framework for the unfolding of tourist activity is approached in the case of France with the most updated reformes and legal acts, such as law and orders operational since 2015 related to many areas from this smokeless industry. The book that meets all these ends and develops topics related to policies and laws of tourism is entitled *Droit et politique du tourisme* and is written by the Emerite Professor Jean-Marie Breton of the University of the Antilles (Gouadeloupe), a counsulting member of the Overseas Academy of Science.

The seminal work is a considerable step forward in the field of tourism-related policies and laws, and covers a wide range of well-referenced topics which in the first part refers to the framework and foundations of tourism with its dichotomy related to classical and sustainable tourism; over the second and third parts of the book it approaches the public and private actors involved in the deployment of the tourist activity; the fourth part approaches the activities and facilities of tourism; the fifth part compiles the contractual management of tourism, so that in the last part of the book it tackles issues related to the financial management and fiscality in tourism. Over the seven hundred pages of the book, the approached topics are illustrated by examples, prompts with term clarification and case study illustrations.

The legal aspect under which tourism business takes place is mandatory for a good functioning and France is not lagging behind in this aspect as there are many regulatory measures, laws and acts, all synthetized in the book. Just to mention a few, the policies concerning the granting of labels recognized by the state, such as quality tourism; the nicest detours of France; world heritage; the most beautiful villages in France; cities of art and history; grand sites of France; blue flag; friendly villages for children, etc. The books further on dwells on public and private bodies and their policies involved in the well-functioning of tourism-related activities in France, illustrated in the book within well-organized chapters and subchapters.

The institutional framework of the overseas territories of France (Guadeloupe, Guyana, Martinique and Reunion) and their regional policies in terms of tourism are also presented. Among many, one that is debated in the text refers to rendering some competences so as to boost the overseas local tourism development in the region. Certain overseas Caribbean collectivities such as Saint Martin and Saint Bartholomy

(formerly part of the Gouadelupe archipelago regional collectivity) gained a certain political and administrative autonomy since the referendum of 15 June 2007, nonetheless they still abide by the same tourism-related policies and laws (pp. 286). Local tourism in these territories revolves a lot around cruising and ecotourism. Ecotourism is an up-to-date issue which targets a collaborative relationship between local communities, tourism stakeholders and resource protectors for the preservation of natural areas meant to support regional development (pp. 61).

Within the regional development policies, a strategic plan followed by a certain regional destination can give it advantage over another thus capitalizing its resource in a sustainable manner over the short, medium and long term according to the region's objectives. The tools to put the regions' goals in practice (including financially) are foreseen by laws such: i.e. the distribution of competences (of Dec 1992) in the field of tourism, the financial policies (Schema regional de development du tourisme et des loisirs) as well as institutional bodies such as the regional tourism committies, set up as early as 1942 and 1943 by the Government of Vichy (pp. 275).

The book covers exhaustively the different facets of French and communitarian laws and policies of tourism with its institutional tools and normative acts thus creating a panorama of all the manifestations and mutations within the modern and contemporary tourism-driven society.

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