



ANALELE UNIVERSITĂȚII BUCUREȘTI

G E O G R A F I E

2 0 1 3

SUMAR • SOMMAIRE • CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| M. BOUGHALEM, M. MAZOUR, F. GRECU, A. ABDELLAOUI, A. HAMIMED, Évaluation par analyse multicritères de la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion : cas du bassin versant de l'Isser – Tlemcen – Algérie | 5 |
| MARIA ALBU DINU, Les terrasses fluviatiles du bassin de Călmățui (Teleorman) | 27 |
| ATIK MOHAMED, ABDELLAOUI ABDELKADER, Urban Dynamic Analysis Using Satellite Images and Multisource Data. Case of Grand Agadir – Morocco – between 1988 and 2005 | 37 |
| FLORENTINA-CRISTINA MERCIU, ANDREEA-LORETA CERCLEUX, Le patrimoine maritime. Études de cas en Europe | 57 |
| L. FELOUSSIA, B. KHALFALLAH, Réalité urbaine et planification – Cas du P.O.S. (Hamman Dalaal) – M'Sila – Algérie | 73 |
| ALENA DUBCOVÁ, JOZEF PETRIKOVIČ, LUCIA ŠOLCOVÁ, Globalization and the Hotel Industry in Slovakia | 87 |
| IRINA-MARIA NECHEŞ, Exploring the Mythological and Religious Value of Geoheritage. Case Study: The Bucegi Mountains | 103 |
| FLORINA GRECU, ANDREEA-LORETA CERCLEUX, ROBERT DOBRE, CRISTINA GHÎTĂ, DANIEL IOSIF, Monuments culturels historiques dans la Plaine Roumaine | 117 |
| ANA IRINA DINCĂ, AUREL GHEORGHIU, Tourism Destination Marketing Study Workpaper – An Operational Working Instrument for Geographers | 135 |
| MIRCEA CRISTIAN VIȘAN, LAURA COMĂNESCU, SORIN CARABLAISA, Les particularités géographiques des établissements urbains au bord de la Mer Noire, situés au Sud du Cap Midia (Roumanie) | 147 |
| GEORGE-BOGDAN TOFAN, Specific Features of the Tourist Flow in Borsec Resort | 155 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| ELENA MATEI, LAURA TÎRLĂ, GABRIELA MANEA, IULIANA VIJULIE, Urban, Environmental and Tourism State of the Romanian Carpathian Small Towns | 163 |
| MIHAI IELENICZ, ANA-IRINA DINCĂ, The Evolution of Romanian Tourism – A Geographical Perspective | 173 |
| LILIANA DUMITRACHE, MARIANA NAE, Urban Regeneration and Affective Connections to Place in Bucharest City Centre | 187 |
| * | |
| <i>Viața științifică</i> | 203 |
| MIHAI IELENICZ, MARIANA NAE, Le savant français Emmanuel de Martonne et la géomorphologie Roumaine | 203 |
| ANA IRINA DINCĂ, The International Conference – Understanding Land, People and Environment: Research and Teaching Perspectives on Geography | 217 |
| OANA PUIA, Teze de doctorat susținute în perioada ianuarie 2012-decembrie 2012 – Sistemul Bologna | 219 |

ÉVALUATION PAR ANALYSE MULTICRITÈRES DE LA VULNÉRABILITÉ DES SOLS À L'ÉROSION : CAS DU BASSIN VERSANT DE L'ISSER – TLEMCEN – ALGÉRIE

**BOUGHALEM M.¹, MAZOUR M.¹, GRECU F.²,
ABDELLAOUI A.³ HAMIMED A.⁴**

The drainage basin of Isser, space weakened by the periods of drought and characterized by exposures of marls and very fragile clays, presents a high sensitivity to erosion. In addition to the deterioration of the quality of water, the erosion phenomenon in this zone presents risks of depletion of topsoil, loss of fertility, loosening of plants and pollution by pesticides dissolved in surface water runoff.

The erosion results from the conjunction of many permanent factors (as those related to the soil or to the topography), that are evolving or presenting a random character (such as precipitations) and intervene at different levels in erosion processes. The purpose of the work is to produce a map of soil vulnerability to the erosion by integrating field data, different thematic maps and satellite images through GIS solution. This map should be a basis for the development of the anti-erosive land use plan adapted to the specific context of the drainage basin of Isser. We do integrate four factors which determine the erosion: precipitations, topography, lithology, and vegetation cover. For combining these different factors, we use a cutting space in regular meshes. The resulting map of the vulnerability to the erosion should reveal homogeneous areas for priority interventions.

Keywords: Isser, Algeria, erosion, soil vulnerability, grid analysis.

Introduction

L'érosion des sols par la pluie et le ruissellement est un phénomène largement répandu dans les différents pays méditerranéens (Bou Kheir *et al.*, 2001). Elle résulte de l'intensification agricole, de la dégradation des terres et de très fortes variations climatiques.

En Algérie, les régions de montagnes présentent un enjeu socio-économique important (agriculture, forêt, patrimoine, ...). Elles sont très vulnérables au

¹ Laboratoire de conservation de l'eau, des sols et des forêts, Univ. Tlemcen, Algérie;
Corresponding author : boughalem_2000@yahoo.fr

² Faculté de Géographie, Université de Bucarest, Roumanie

³ EEEA et Univ. Paris XII, Département de Géographie, France

⁴ Laboratoire d'Analyse des Systèmes Biologiques et de Géomatique, Univ. Mascara, Algérie

phénomène de l'érosion hydrique. Les relations entre la végétation, le sol et l'eau y sont largement perturbées (Benchetrit, 1972). Dans certains endroits, l'érosion a atteint un niveau d'irréversibilité et par endroit elle a transformé le paysage en «badlands». En Algérie, environ 6 millions d'hectares sont exposés aujourd'hui à une érosion active et en moyenne 120 millions de tonnes de sédiments sont emportés annuellement par les eaux. Les pertes annuelles des eaux dans les barrages sont estimées à environ 20 millions de m³ dues à l'envasement (Remini, 2000). La subsistance des populations est de plus en plus menacée par les pertes en sol.

L'apport des aménagements agro-sylvo-pastoraux dans les bassins versants où les risques d'érosion sont les plus intenses aura d'autant plus d'efficacité que les facteurs du milieu naturel sont bien connus. Or, les problèmes de dégradation des sols ne se posent pas avec la même acuité dans les différentes parties de la zone (Boughalem *et al.*, 2012). C'est pourquoi il est utile de délimiter des zones d'aménagements prioritaires.

Dans ce contexte, la présente étude a pour objet la réalisation d'une carte de vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique sur le bassin versant de l'Isser. Le risque peut se définir par le croisement de deux dimensions : aléa x vulnérabilité. L'aléa est le phénomène physique aléatoire, par définition à l'abri ou à l'écart de toute installation ou enjeu humain. Ce dernier aspect se traduit par la vulnérabilité qui est le pendant, en termes économiques ou en termes de vies humaines, de l'aléa en question (Glossary, 1992).

En réalité, la vulnérabilité des sols peut être définie comme leur fragilité face aux agressions extérieures telles que le climat et les actions anthropiques. Elle dépend donc de facteurs intrinsèques et extrinsèques. Elle peut être hiérarchisée en fonction du degré d'exposition aux risques. L'érosion des sols dépend ainsi de nombreux facteurs. Pour le présent travail, quatre facteurs principaux ont été considérés : le climat (plus exactement les précipitations), la topographie, la lithologie et le couvert végétal. Ce choix est fait en nous appuyant sur des études régionales relatives à l'érosion des sols (Mazour, 2004; Morsli *et al.*, 2004; Roose *et al.*, 1996; Talbi *et al.*, 2002). Ces mêmes auteurs s'accordent pour considérer les facteurs déclenchant de l'érosion cités plus haut, comme étant les plus pertinents et les plus discriminants. En effet, les précipitations constituent l'élément climatique essentiel par leur variabilité spatio-temporelle aussi bien annuelle que mensuelle. Ce sont les gouttes de pluie et les eaux de ruissellement sur les terrains en pente qui détachent et entraînent les particules terreuses en favorisant la fermeture du sol et la formation de croûtes de battance. Pour la zone d'étude, les versants nord sont plus arrosés que les versants sud. Les mois les plus pluvieux de l'année sont généralement Février, Mars et Avril. Les pluies maximales journalières dépassent assez souvent 60 mm (Mazour, 2004).

De même, le couvert végétal intervient sur le volume ruisselé et les pertes en terre. La végétation protège le sol contre la battance des pluies, donc maintient l'ouverture du sol et réduit le ruissellement. Sa litière entretient la mésafaune (laquelle creuse la macroporosité) et absorbe une grande quantité d'énergie du ruissellement. Le phénomène d'érosion se manifeste sur le bassin versant de l'Isser chaque année pendant les épisodes pluvieux hivernaux, lorsque les sols sont encore peu couverts, ou lors des violents orages de fin d'été et d'automne sur des sols que les récoltes laissent également peu couverts. Les résidus de culture et la végétation protègent le sol de l'impact des gouttes de pluie, tendent à ralentir la vitesse de l'eau de ruissellement et permettent une meilleure infiltration (Bannari *et al.*, 1999; Roose, 1994).

En plus des facteurs favorisant le ruissellement, l'entraînement des particules du sol est facilité par les caractères du sol comme sa texture, sa minéralogie et sa stabilité structurale. La lithologie est considérée comme le facteur principal contrôlant la stabilité des versants. La succession de roches dures et tendres (marnes et grès) ; là où les roches sont résistantes, on trouve les pentes les plus fortes et des transports des sédiments faibles ; mais sur les roches argileuses tendres et les marnes on peut trouver des pentes relativement modérées et des transports abondants de sédiments (Heusch, 1970). Ce sont les zones marneuses du Miocène au nord du bassin qui sont les plus exposées aux différents processus d'érosion (Mazour, 2004).

Sur ces terrains, lorsque les sols sont sensibles à la battance, une petite augmentation locale de pente peut être à l'origine d'une aggravation importante de l'aléa érosion. Selon Roose (1994), la longueur de la pente est moins importante que son inclinaison et sa forme. Lorsque l'inclinaison de la pente augmente, l'énergie cinétique des pluies reste constante mais le transport s'accélère vers le bas, car cette énergie augmente et l'emporte sur l'énergie cinétique des pluies dès que les pentes dépassent 15%.

Les variables d'analyse sont connues à diverses échelles et selon divers découpages de l'espace ; afin d'homogénéiser l'appréciation des paramètres, nous avons opté pour un découpage du territoire en mailles régulières ; ce type de découpage a été testé pour d'autres régions et plusieurs thématiques par Abdellaoui *et al.* (2010), Abdellaoui *et al.* (2012), Grecu (2002) et Huzui *et al.* (2011). Ceci nous a permis de réaliser une carte faisant ressortir des zones homogènes d'intervention par ordre de priorité. Ce modèle n'a pas encore été appliqué au niveau du bassin hydrologique étudié.

LA ZONE D'ÉTUDE

Le bassin versant de l'Isser se situe au nord ouest algérien, entre les longitudes 1° 20' 31" W et 0° 52' 28" W et les latitudes 34° 41' 22" N et 35° 9' 37" N. Il s'étend sur une superficie de 1122 km² pour un périmètre de 207,7 km (*Fig. 1*).

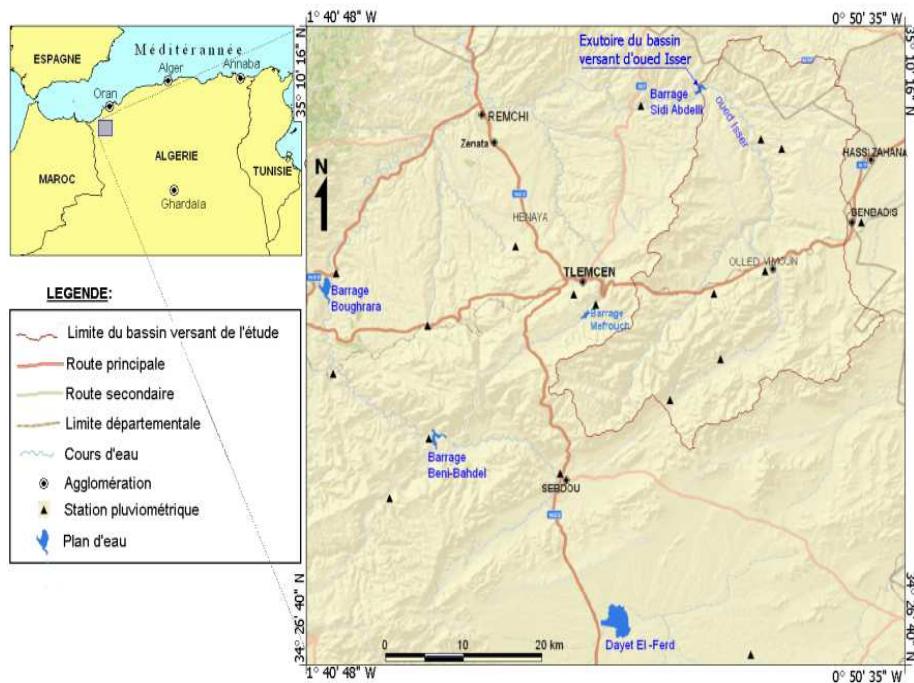


Fig. 1. Carte de situation de la zone d'étude

Affluent rive droite de la Tafna, l'oued Isser est long de 81 km. Il prend sa source à Ain Isser au Sud d'Ouled Mimoun. Il est caractérisé par :

- Un climat de type méditerranéen semi-aride avec des pluies annuelles qui varient de 280 mm à 500 mm. Ces pluies sont déterminées par une irrégularité spatio-temporelle et par un régime de courte durée et à forte intensité (l'intensité maximale peut atteindre 84 mm/h en 30 mn) ;
- Un relief très escarpé et fortement disséqué, ayant souvent de fortes pentes et un réseau de drainage très dense ;
- Une lithologie définie par des roches en majorité tendres (marnes et grès tendres) ce qui prédispose ces zones aux différents processus d'érosion ;
- Des formations végétales très dégradées, caractérisées par de faibles densités de recouvrement et de mauvaises conditions de régénération.

Le paysage est complexe et se compose d'une mosaïque d'unités réagissant différemment aux actions érosives de l'eau. La zone nord du bassin est à vocation céréalière (notamment blé et orge). Sur le massif rocheux du Jurassique subsistent encore quelques forêts (Zerdeb et FougaHAL). Par ailleurs, la superficie occupée par un couvert forestier dégradé ou mort est de 39% de la surface totale du bassin.

CAS DU BASSIN VERSANT DE L'ISSER – TLEMCEN – ALGÉRIE

Le phénomène d'érosion se manifeste sur le bassin versant de l'Isser, chaque année pendant les épisodes pluvieux. Environ 75% des gabions construits dans la région ont été affouillés ou emportés par les eaux de pluie (Mazour, 2004). La plupart des seuils de correction torrentielle en terre présentent des anomalies (rupture des digues, des talus, déversoir endommagé) (*Fig. 2A*).

Parmi les formes d'érosion rencontrées sur le bassin versant, nous notons :

- l'érosion en nappe qui se traduit par une diminution de la fertilité ; cette forme d'érosion se manifeste par la présence de plages de couleur claire aux endroits les plus décapés (*Fig. 2B*);
- les nappes ravinantes (10 à 20 cm de profondeur) et les ravines (plus de 50 cm de profondeur);
- l'érosion par suffosion se développe sur des pentes faibles, dans un matériau fissuré en surface, sur des marnes riches en gypse ou en d'autres minéraux solubles (*Fig. 2C*) ; les fissures du sol dans lesquelles s'engouffre le ruissellement hypodermique se transforment progressivement en tunnels, lesquels s'effondrent et forment des ravines régressives qui peuvent progresser de quelques dizaines de mètres au cours des grosses averses (*Fig. 2D*).



Fig. 2. Impact de l'érosion dans le bassin de l'Isser: seuil de correction torrentielle en terre avec déversoir endommagé (A), zone de décapage et d'érosion sélective (B), phénomène de tunneling (C), érosion hydraulique en ravines (D)
(Photos B, C et D : Boughalem, 2010 ; photo A :Mazour, 2006)

Approche quantitative et modélisation

1. Définition des variables

Comme nous l'avons déjà signalé, l'étude du processus érosif sera réalisée au travers de quatre facteurs (climat, topographie, lithologie et couvert végétal) dans l'optique de déterminer une carte de vulnérabilité à l'érosion. Pour cela nous définissons, pour chaque facteur, des classes codées de façons à traduire l'influence de chacun dans l'estimation de la vulnérabilité.

1.1. Les précipitations

La carte des précipitations (*Fig. n° 6a*), obtenue à partir des valeurs relevées sur un ensemble de 17 stations pluviométriques du bassin et de ses environs immédiats (tableau n° 1), permet de délimiter quatre classes de pluies annuelles.

- classe 1: 270-350 mm ;
- classe 2 : 350-450 mm ;
- classe 3 : 450-550 mm ;
- classe 4 : 550-650mm.

La *Fig. 3* montre que les stations sont bien réparties sur toute la zone d'étude.

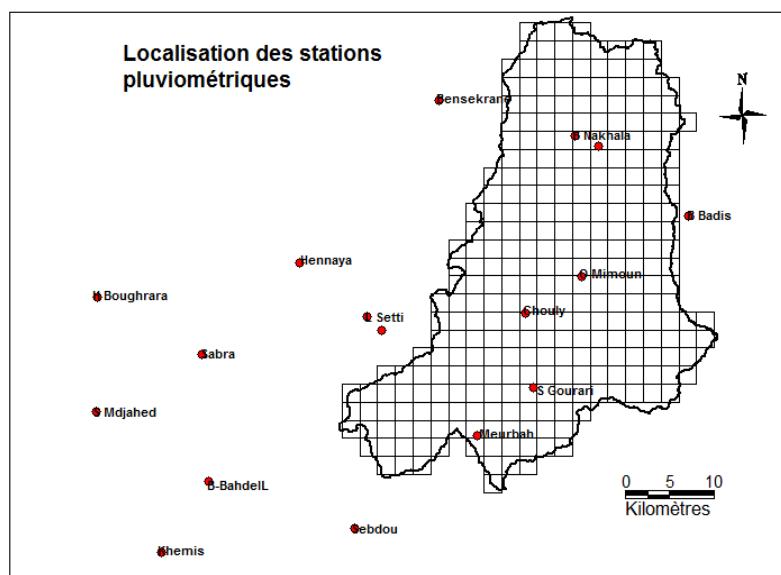


Fig. 3. Localisation des stations pluviométriques

Tableau 1
Pluies, altitudes, exposition et distance à la mer (de 1979 à 2005)

| Station | Code | Pluie moyennes annuelles (mm) | Altitude (m) | Exposition (degré) | Distance à la mer(km) |
|-------------|----------|-------------------------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| B-BahdelL | 16 04 03 | 394,9 | 643,53 | 130,93 | 51,87 |
| Khemis | 16 04 06 | 367,7 | 894,23 | 336,91 | 56,49 |
| Chouly | 16 06 01 | 383,5 | 772,31 | 30,92 | 53,79 |
| Meurbah | 16 06 02 | 357,9 | 1118,56 | 119,54 | 63,66 |
| O Mimoun | 16 06 07 | 318,5 | 717,58 | 14,57 | 53,33 |
| S Gourari | 16 06 08 | 391,6 | 970,81 | 159,62 | 61,70 |
| B Nakhala | 16 06 10 | 333,2 | 429,36 | 231,53 | 40,34 |
| B Badis | 11 03 07 | 318,1 | 726,48 | 325,83 | 55,30 |
| L Setti | 16 07 05 | 498,2 | 995,24 | 5,34 | 45,60 |
| Mefrouch | 16 07 01 | 550,2 | 1108,17 | 91,65 | 47,84 |
| S Heriz | 16 06 09 | 322 | 530,18 | 345,20 | 42,90 |
| S Mdjahed | 16 04 07 | 268,4 | 390,51 | 306,96 | 39,22 |
| Sebdou | 16 04 01 | 362 | 879,82 | 328,67 | 64,12 |
| H Boughrara | 16 05 01 | 216,5 | 253,05 | 130,30 | 28,32 |
| Sabra | 16 05 02 | 368,3 | 620,36 | 54,99 | 38,72 |
| Hennaya | 16 05 16 | 379 | 520,18 | 83,12 | 36,17 |
| Bensekrane | 16 07 02 | 351,1 | 248,29 | 300,19 | 28,27 |

1.2. Le couvert végétal

La carte d'occupation du sol (*Fig. 6b*) a été établie à partir de l'image Landsat TM par classification du maximum de vraisemblance (sous Erdas imagine). À la suite des observations de terrain, cette carte laisse apparaître quatre classes de couverture végétale, codées de 1 à 4, en fonction de leur capacité de protection du sol à l'érosion (*Fig. 4*):

- classe 1: couvert végétal non protecteur ;
- classe 2 : couvert végétal peu protecteur ;
- classe 3 : couvert végétal moyennement protecteur ;
- classe 4 : couvert végétal protecteur.

La classe 1 correspond aux parcours et aux sols entièrement dénudés et non cultivés (bad lands, pistes...). La classe 2 comprend les cultures annuelles (céréales, agriculture extensive) ; La classe 3 appréhende l'arboriculture et la viticulture et la classe 4 comprend quelques espèces pérennes : *Chamaerops humilis* ; *Asparagus stipularis* ; *Lycium europoeum* ainsi que les maquis et reboisements.

1.3. La topographie

Dès que la pente est suffisante pour permettre à l'eau de ruisseler, le terrain est vulnérable à l'érosion hydrique (Boukheir *et al.*, 2001). La zone d'étude présente un large éventail de valeurs de pentes allant de 0.3% à 80%. La carte des pentes (*Fig. 6d*), générée à partir du modèle numérique d'altitude (MNA), montre que les pentes les plus abruptes, très fortes à fortes, se concentrent dans les parties nord-ouest et sud du bassin versant. Elles sont caractérisées par un relief accidenté. Les pentes modérées ainsi que les pentes faibles à très faibles sont réparties sur l'ensemble du bassin. La longueur de la pente n'a pas pu être prise en compte. Les valeurs de pentes ont été regroupées en quatre classes et les limites ont été choisies en fonction des connaissances de terrain :

- classe 1 : « 0-3% » : correspond à un relief de plaines, aux terrasses alluviales et aux replats structuraux que l'on trouve dans la zone montagneuse ;
- classe 2 « 3-2% » : représente la zone de piémont, relief de glacis, collines ;
- classe 3 « 12-25% » : correspond à une zone mixte qui regroupe le haut de piémont et les montagnes ;
- classe 4 « 25-80% » : représente un relief moyennement accidenté à accidenté et les escarpements rocheux.

La *Fig. 4* fournit les caractéristiques des classes pour chacun des trois facteurs principaux engendrant le phénomène d'érosion

| couvert végétal | | | pente | | | précipitations | | | |
|---|---------------------------|--------|-----------------|---|---------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|--------|
| nature du couvert | protection | classe | limites classes | terrain | impact érosif | classe | limites classes | érosivité | classe |
| sol nu ou parcours | non protecteur | 1 | 0% - 3% | plaine, terrasses alluviales et replats | très faible | 1 | 270 - 350mm | très faible | 1 |
| céréaliculture/ agriculture extensive | peu protecteur | 2 | 3% - 12% | zone de piedmont, glacis, collines | faible | 2 | 350 - 450mm | faible | 2 |
| arboriculture et viticulture | moyennement protecteur | 3 | 12% - 25% | hauts de piedmonts et montagnes | moyen | 3 | 450 - 550mm | moyen | 3 |
| maquis, reboisement et espèces pérennes | protecteur | 4 | 25% - 80% | reliefs accidentés, escarpements rocheux | fort | 4 | 550 - 650mm | fort | 4 |

Fig. 4. Définition des paramètres (couvert végétal, pente, précipitation)

1.4. La lithologie

La carte lithologique (*Fig. 6c*), réalisée après digitalisation de six cartes géologiques (Tlemcen, Bensakrane, Terni, Beni Smaiel, Sidi Boussidi et Ouled Mimoune), montre que sur toute la partie sud du bassin versant affleurent des calcaires d'âge jurassique qui s'étendent dans la direction nord. A l'Est sont localisés des alluvions sur terrasse du pliocène. Dans la zone nord, les versants sont constitués de substrats tendres (marnes) avec intercalations gréseuses ; ils ont une forme concavo-convexe et occupent la plus grande partie du relief. D'autre part, la dominance et l'importance des alternances de marnes et grès en pente, augmentent les potentialités érosives du bassin. Notre connaissance du terrain et l'analyse de la carte géologique nous ont permis de distinguer trois classes de matériaux affleurant (Très résistants, résistants et vulnérables).

Par ailleurs, pour cette étude de la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique, le facteur lithologie se différencie des trois autres facteurs cités précédemment en ce sens que le sol subit les effets des facteurs érosifs et réagit en fonction de sa nature en accentuant (sols peu résistants) ou en atténuant, voire en annulant (sols très ou super résistants) ces effets. Pour traduire cette situation particulière, nous utilisons une échelle plus large des contributions des classes de sol. La *Fig. 5* précise ces valeurs.

| lithologie | | |
|---|----------------|--------|
| nature du sol | érodibilité | classe |
| banc de dolomie, calcaire sub lithographique, grès et poudingue | très résistant | 1 |
| alluvions du pliocène, alluvions anciennes | résistant | 2 |
| marne, argile gypsifères, argiles et grès | vulnérable | 3 |

| Lithologie | |
|--------------------|--------------|
| Facteur spécifique | |
| classe | contribution |
| 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 5 |
| 3 | 10 |

Fig. 5. Nature et contribution des classes de sols

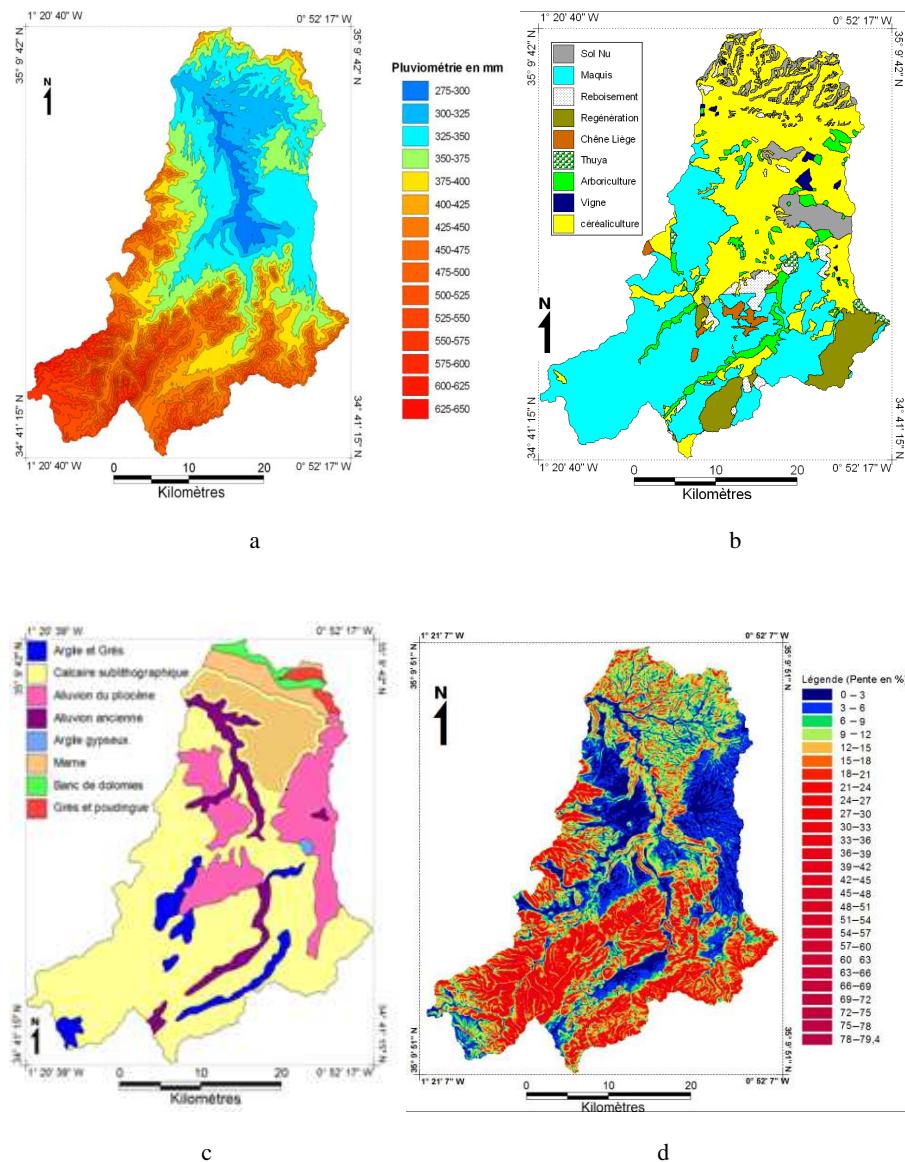


Fig. 6. Paramètres utilisés pour obtenir la carte à risque ; a) pluviométrie,
b) pentes, c) couvert végétal, d) lithologie

2. Combinaison des facteurs

La combinaison des facteurs d'érosion hydrique est réalisée en deux étapes pour tenir compte de l'effet particulier de la lithologie faisant apparaître le sol comme élément à double implication à la fois résultat de la dégradation et cause d'atténuation ou de dilatation. Nous calculons pour cela un premier indice tenant compte des effets des trois paramètres externes au sol (couvert végétal, précipitation et pente) sur la vulnérabilité par la formule :

$$IV_I = \sum \sum p_i f_{ij} (1)$$

Dans cette formule :

- p_i représente la pondération du paramètre (i), avec i variant de 1 à 3 (précipitation, végétation, pente)
- f_{ij} est l'implication de la classe (j) pour le facteur f_i .

Les valeurs de pondération p_i peuvent influer sur les choix d'aménagement anti érosif. Pour fixer ces valeurs, nous nous sommes inspirés de la connaissance du terrain et des principes généraux utilisés par Le Bissonnais (Le Bissonnais *et al.*, 2004). La pondération la plus forte est attribuée au facteur « couvert végétal », considéré comme le facteur dominant et la plus faible à la précipitation car nous ne disposons pas des intensités des pluies, mais seulement des hauteurs moyennes annuelles. *La Fig. 7* montre les valeurs de pondération des facteurs.

| couvert végétal | | pente | | précipitations | |
|-----------------|--------------|--------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| poids | 3 | poids | 2 | poids | 1 |
| classe | contribution | classe | contribution | classe | contribution |
| 1 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 4 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |

Fig. 7. Poids des facteurs et contributions des classes

Nous calculons par la suite l'indice de vulnérabilité pour chaque classe de sols (j) IVS_j par la formule :

$$IVS_j = p_j IV_I (2)$$

Dans cette formule, p_j représente l'effet de dilatation ou d'atténuation de l'érosion.

3. Découpage de l'espace de travail

L'étude de la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique suppose, comme nous l'avons précisé plus haut, la combinaison de plusieurs facteurs ; rappelons que nous nous sommes limités ici à trois facteurs externes dominant en plus de la lithologie à la fois effet et cause. La valeur des paramètres d'estimation des facteurs est obtenue à partir de mesures (en station pour la pluviométrie), de calculs à partir d'un modèle numérique (cas de la pente) ou de traitements spécifiques de l'imagerie satellitaire (extraction du couvert végétal). Des méthodes d'interpolation spécifiques permettent ensuite de déterminer les valeurs des paramètres en dehors des points de mesure c'est-à-dire pour l'ensemble de la zone étudiée. Afin d'homogénéiser ces déterminations et faciliter la combinaison des paramètres, un découpage de l'espace en mailles régulières nous semble le plus approprié. Nous nous inspirons pour cela des travaux d' Abdellaoui *et al.* (2010), Abdellaoui *et al.* (2012), Grecu (2002) et Huzui *et al.* (2011). Dans ce type de découpage de l'espace, le choix de la taille de la maille est toujours le résultat d'un compromis entre plusieurs contraintes notamment la finesse d'analyse et les échelles d'estimation des facteurs (évidemment différentes à cause du nombre de point de mesures, des méthodes d'interpolation etc.). Notons que plus la taille de la maille est petite, plus la finesse d'analyse est grande et donc des interventions plus ciblées ; cependant, une trop petite taille peut perdre toute signification réelle de l'estimation des valeurs des paramètres ; une trop grande taille peut conduire à ignorer certains effets locaux des facteurs (*Fig. 8, 9 et 10*).

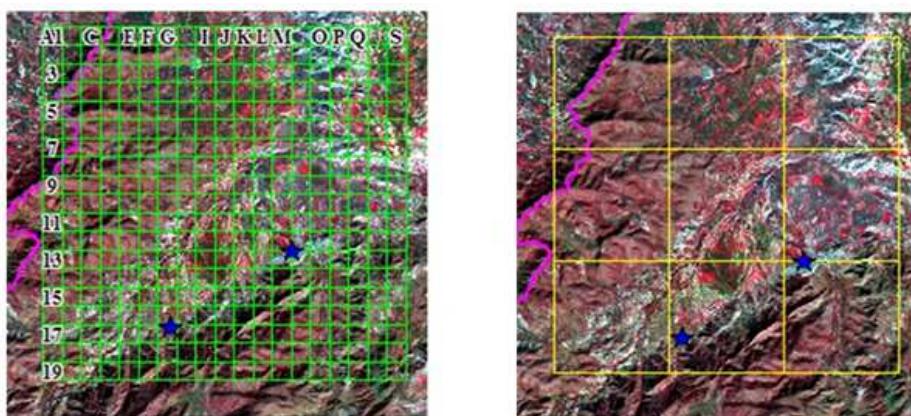


Fig. 8. Choix de la maille et estimation de la couverture végétale à partir d'image satellitaire

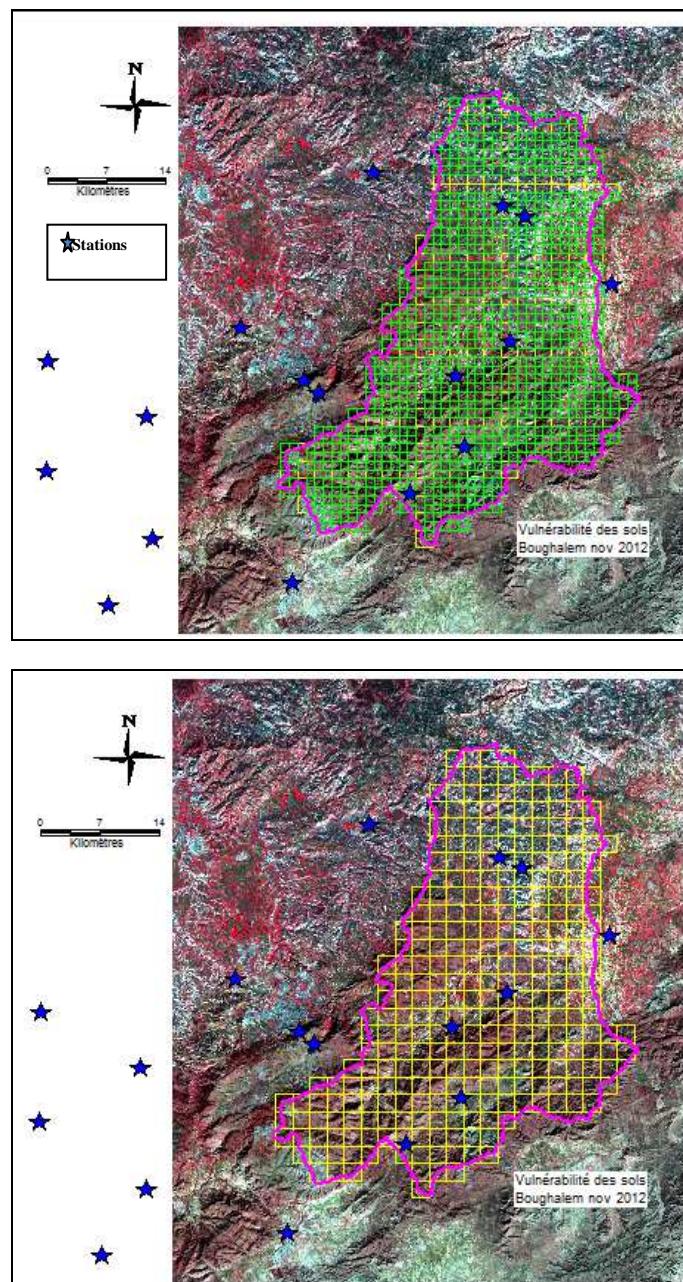


Fig. 9. Application de la grille sur l'ensemble du bassin versant (à gauche : maille de 1km de côté, à droite : maille de 6,25 km de coté)

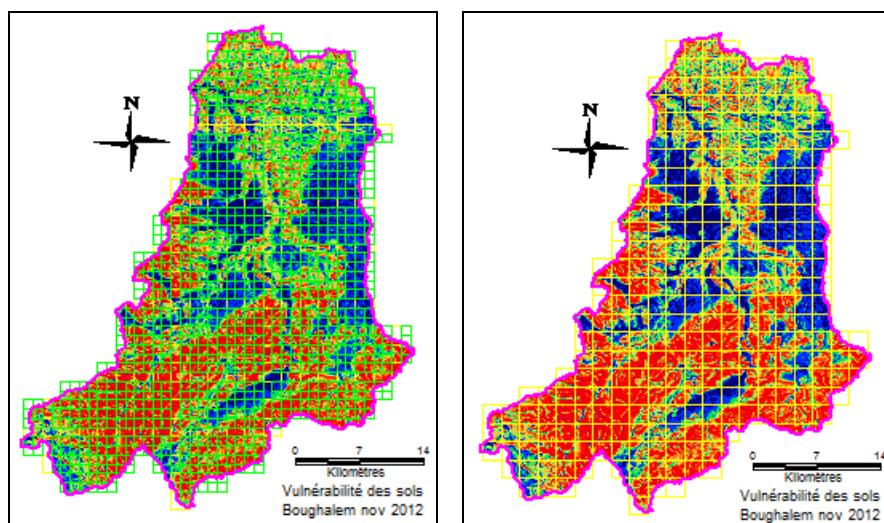


Fig. 10. Découpage de la carte des pentes : la précision de la grille d'analyse est en fonction de la taille de la maille (à gauche : maille de 1km de côté, à droite : maille de 6,25 km de coté)

De façon concrète, le choix de la dimension de la maille dépend de plusieurs paramètres qui doivent conduire à apprécier et estimer au mieux les facteurs intervenant dans l'analyse du phénomène de dégradation des sols, à savoir la lithologie, les précipitations, la végétation et la pente. Parmi ces paramètres :

- Les méthodes d'extrapolation ou de classification des facteurs à partir des valeurs acquises : les valeurs de précipitation sont extrapolées à partir des valeurs relevées sur un nombre réduit de stations ; les valeurs de pente sont obtenues à partir des courbes de niveaux puis une classification (donc un regroupement) en un nombre réduit de classes ; la végétation est obtenue à partir du calcul du NDVI et une classification de ces valeurs.
- La configuration du terrain et son degré d'homogénéité spatiale relativement aux facteurs : la Fig. 11 nous montre que les facteurs pente et précipitations (Fig. 11b et Fig. 11c) sont relativement homogènes du point de vue spatial (exception faite de la partie Nord plus hétérogène).
- La part des mailles hétérogènes ou ambiguës par rapport au nombre total de mailles couvrant la région d'étude. Une maille sera dite hétérogène ou ambiguë dans les deux cas suivants : i) elle comporte plusieurs classes pour un facteur donné ; ii) elle comporte deux classes de couverture (dans la maille) égale à une valeur voisine de 50%. ; c'est le cas des mailles mises en évidence en rouge sur la figure (Fig. 11.d).
- Enfin le compromis entre la taille de la maille et le nombre total de mailles qui influe directement sur la préparation de la base de données.

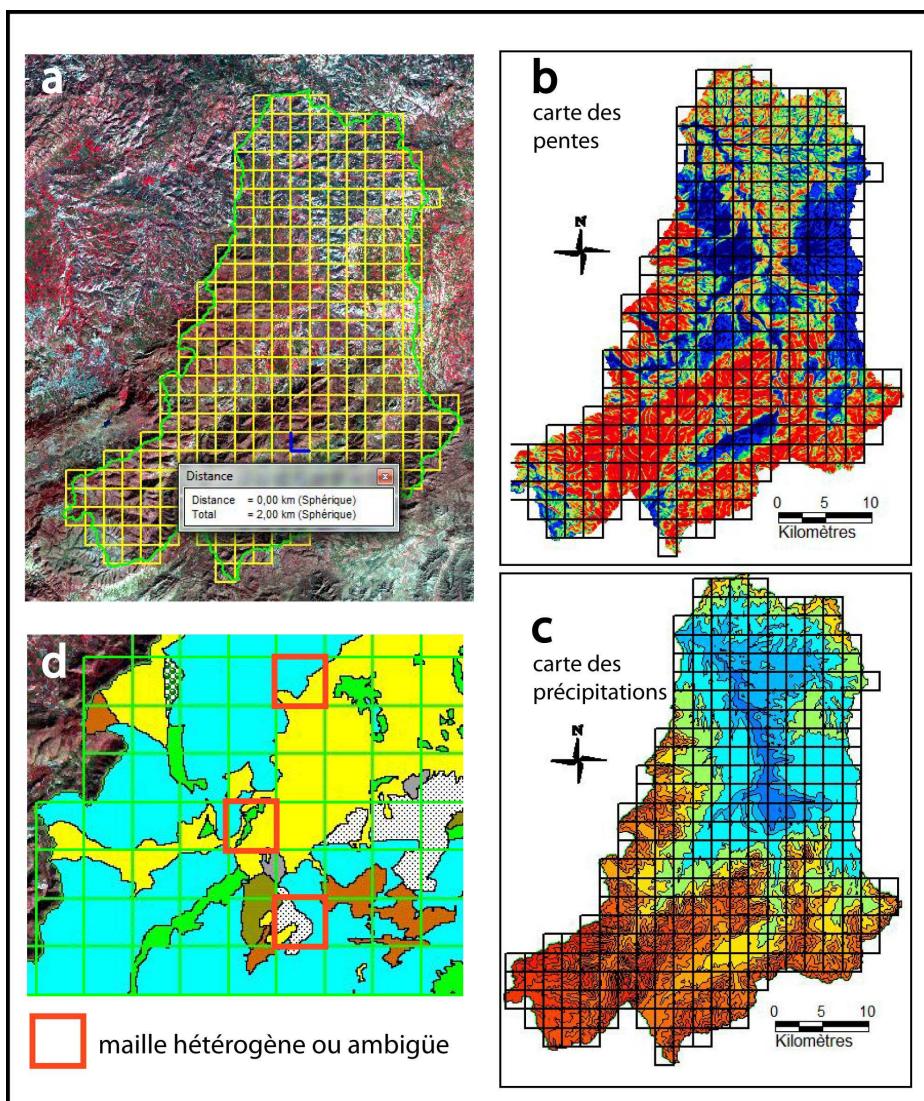


Fig. 11. Représentation spatiale des facteurs pente et précipitations

À partir de ces considérations, nous avons opté pour le choix d'une maille régulière de 2 km de côté ; ceci est montré sur la Fig. 11a. La grille couvrant la région d'étude comporte ainsi un total de 301 cellules. Dans cette configuration, le pourcentage de cellules hétérogènes ou ambiguës est alors de : 7% pour le facteur pente, 7,6% pour le facteur précipitations et 14,9% pour le facteur végétation obtenu à partir de l'imagerie satellitaire, donc sur une couverture plus grande et une résolution meilleure (28,5 m).

Pour le couvert végétal, on a une image satellitaire Landsat de 30 m de résolution, donc fournissant des informations sur l'équivalent d'un maillage à 30 m sans méthode d'interpolation. Lors de l'utilisation d'une grande maille, les petites surfaces de végétation sont ignorées et on a convenu d'affecter 1 pixel au thème ayant une couverture > 50%. Une grille fine est plus intéressante car elle nous permet une meilleure appréciation du facteur.

Pour le thème « précipitation », les deux dimensions de maille donnent la même appréciation car la valeur calculée est issue d'une méthode d'interpolation sur un même ensemble de points pivots (stations de mesures).

L'estimation des classes de pente est également issue d'une méthode d'interpolation ; une maille plus fine n'améliore pas l'appréciation.

Donc pour la majorité des facteurs (lithologie, pente et précipitation), l'utilisation d'une maille plus fine n'ajoute rien à la précision d'analyse.

Nous choisissons pour la présente étude un découpage de l'espace en mailles carrées de 2 km de côté résultant d'un bon compromis entre les échelles d'estimation des paramètres et les schémas d'aménagement et de lutte contre l'érosion pratiqués sur des régions semblables à la zone d'étude. La Fig. 12 donne, à titre d'exemple, un aperçu du découpage et de l'affectation des valeurs du facteur « couvert végétal ».

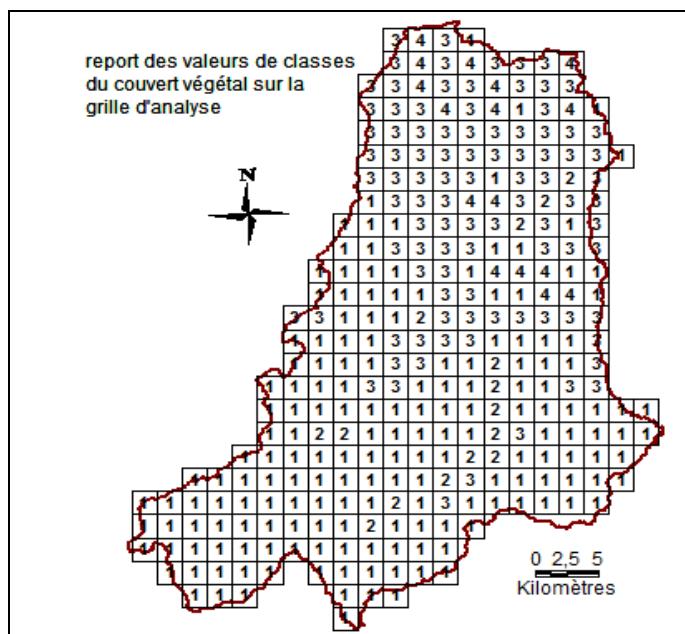


Fig. 12. Exemple de report des valeurs des classes sur la grille d'analyse
(Classe 1 : couvert végétal non protecteur ; Classe 2 : couvert végétal peu protecteur ; Classe 3 : couvert végétal moyennement protecteur ; Classe 4 : couvert végétal protecteur)

RESULTATS ET DISCUSSION

L'intégration des différentes variables dans un système d'information géographique (sous logiciel MapInfo 7.8) a permis de produire les diverses cartes thématiques correspondant aux divers facteurs étudiés (*Fig. 6*). Le découpage par maille du bassin, nous a permis d'étudier l'impact des différents facteurs sur la vulnérabilité des sols (*Fig. 13, 14, 15 et 16*) et d'obtenir une carte de vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique (*Fig. 17*).

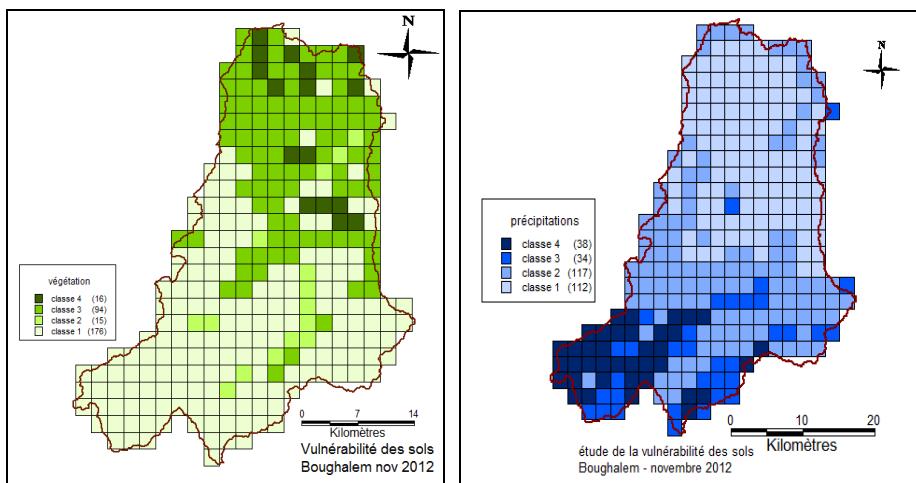


Fig. 13. Impact du couvert végétal sur la vulnérabilité

Fig. 14. Impact de la précipitation sur la vulnérabilité

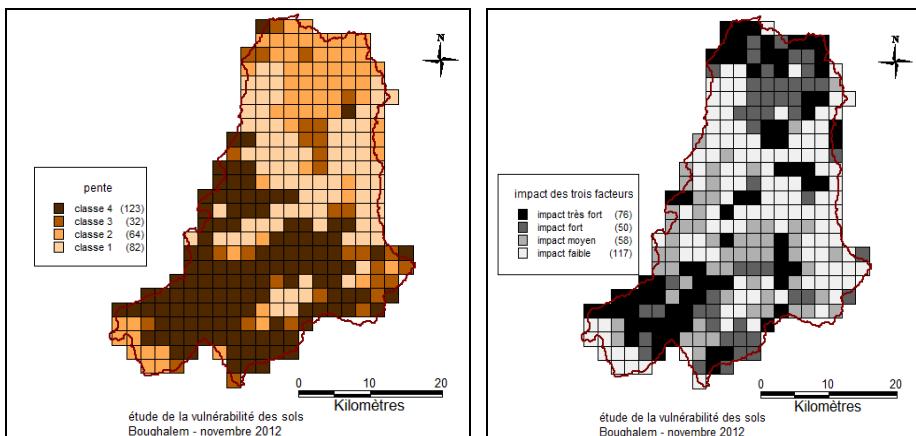


Fig. 15. Impact de la pente sur la vulnérabilité

Fig. 16. Impact des trois paramètres (végétation, pente, précipitation) sur la vulnérabilité

Les *Fig. 13, 14 et 15* font ressortir, sur le bassin, deux parties séparées par une ligne NO-SE ; les deux parties occupent respectivement 47% (partie nord) et 53% du bassin (partie sud). La *Fig. n° 13* concerne l'impact du couvert végétal sur la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion. La partie sud est quasiment homogène avec une prédominance de la classe 1 (environ 79%) c'est-à-dire un couvert végétal protecteur, ce qui conduit à une vulnérabilité faible si l'on ne considère que le facteur « couvert végétal ». La partie nord du bassin est plutôt hétérogène avec tout de même une prédominance de la classe 3 (65%) ; nous sommes donc en présence d'un espace fortement vulnérable ; les autres classes (1, 2 et 4) se retrouvent de façon aléatoire.

La *Fig. 14* concerne l'impact des précipitations sur la vulnérabilité. L'hétérogénéité apparaît ici sur la partie Sud ; la partie Nord, dominée par la classe 1 (cette classe occupant 87% de la partie Nord) a une vulnérabilité faible pour le facteur climat. Sur la partie Sud toutes les classes sont présentes bien que la classe 1 n'occupe que 13%. Nous sommes donc en présence d'un espace à la fois hétérogène avec une érosivité des pluies forte à moyenne.

La *Fig. 15* montre l'impact du facteur pente. Pour ce facteur, les deux parties paraissent hétérogènes. Toutefois, la classe 4 (pentes fortes, et donc vulnérabilité, forte) se concentre dans la partie sud du bassin versant. Les pentes modérées ainsi que les pentes faibles (classes 1 et 2) sont réparties sur l'ensemble du bassin en étant plus présentes sur la partie Nord.

La *Fig. 16* montre l'impact combiné des trois facteurs végétation, pente et climat sur la vulnérabilité à l'érosion. La vulnérabilité faible semble apparaître sur la ligne de séparation des deux parties du bassin. Les mailles correspondantes à une très forte vulnérabilité occupent 25% de la totalité du bassin.

La *Fig. 17* représente la carte de la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique. Une forte vulnérabilité correspond à un espace nu (ou faiblement couvert), de pente et d'érosivité fortes et de sol peu ou pas résistant. Cette figure montre que la partie Nord est fortement vulnérable à l'érosion hydrique. Sur la partie sud, toutes les classes de vulnérabilité apparaissent. Les programmes de lutte anti érosive doivent différer sur les deux parties du bassin.

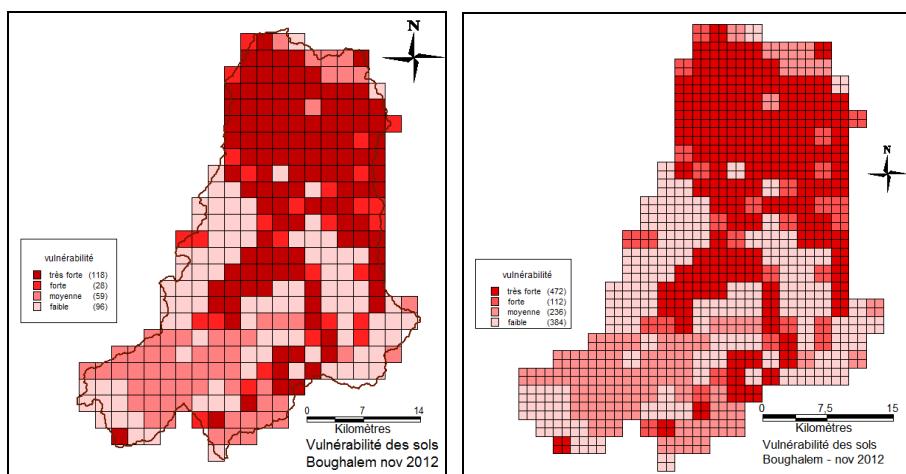


Fig. 17. Carte de vulnérabilité des sols ; la maille choisie permet de minimiser le nombre de cellules tout en gardant une bonne précision.

CONCLUSION

Pour élaborer la carte de la vulnérabilité des sols à l'érosion hydrique nous avons pris en compte les trois facteurs dominants (climat, pente et couvert végétal) ; ceci nous a permis d'estimer l'agressivité résultante en affectant un poids spécifique à chacun des trois facteurs en nous inspirant de la littérature scientifique spécialisée et en consultant les experts de terrain travaillant sur le bassin versant de l'Isser. L'introduction du facteur lithologie nous a conduit par la suite à déterminer des classes de vulnérabilité en fonction de la capacité du sol à résister à l'agressivité des facteurs.

Pour la présente étude, nous avons opté pour un découpage régulier de l'espace en mailles carrées. Une solution SIG sous MapInfo a été réalisée pour intégrer l'ensemble des informations et permettre un échange facile de données et de résultats entre les divers opérateurs.

La carte finale de vulnérabilité permet de mettre en évidence trois grandes régions de vulnérabilités respectives : i) forte à moyenne principalement localisée au nord du bassin mais s'étendant localement vers le centre ou le sud ; ii) faible, essentiellement sur une partie du sud du bassin et iii) très faible ou nulle principalement au centre et au sud du bassin versant.

L'étude d'un phénomène tel que la dégradation des sols fait intervenir divers paramètres (naturels ou anthropiques) dont la représentation dans l'espace dépend à la fois de la mesure (à tout point de l'espace dans le cas de l'image, ou en des points particuliers dans le cas de stations d'acquisition) et de l'estimation finale généralement en classes de valeurs. Dès lors, les régions

d'estimation des facteurs sont différentes et donc non superposables. Leur combinaison devient ainsi problématique. Pour remédier à cet inconvénient, quatre solutions sont envisageables :

- Ramener l'estimation des facteurs à un découpage administratif genre cadastral (qui n'est pas toujours disponible ou à jour dans les pays en développement) ou communal (ce découpage n'est pas suffisamment précis, les communes rurales étant de manière générale de grande superficie) ;
- Ramener cette estimation à un découpage en « sous régions naturelles » dans le cas où une définition en sous régions suffisamment petite et homogène est possible ;
- Ramener cette estimation au découpage induit par la classification des valeurs du facteur connu avec la meilleure précision ; si on utilise l'image satellitaire pour un facteur, cela suppose que l'on devrait utiliser un découpage au pixel (30m pour l'image Landsat) ; ce découpage nous paraît trop fin et non adapté à l'estimation des autres facteurs prédominants (pluviométrie et pente) ;
- Définir un découpage régulier indépendant des facteurs et des définitions purement administratives mais tenant compte d'un compromis de précision d'estimation des facteurs intervenant dans l'étude du phénomène étudié ; c'est ce dernier découpage que nous avons adopté.

La solution SIG mise en place a pris en compte les principaux facteurs intervenant dans la dégradation des sols dans la région d'étude ; elle offre d'autres possibilités en permettant :

- des extensions thématiques : prise en compte d'autres facteurs, tels que socioéconomiques (qualité et contraintes de vie des agriculteurs, modes d'utilisation du sol) ;
- ou spatiales (autres finesse du découpage, maille de côté plus petit si les contraintes d'aménagement l'exigent ou si les procédés d'acquisition des informations de base le permettent).

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- Abdellaoui, A., L. Vişan, Ileana Pătru Stupariu (2010), „Étude de la viabilité du paysage par analyse de grille dans la région Sous Carpatique de la Vallée de Prahova (Roumanie)”, *Revista de geomorfologie*, vol. 12, 2010, 81-90.
- Abdellaoui, A., M. Bougahem (2012), „SIG, image satellitaire et risques en zones urbaines et péri urbaines ; aspects méthodologiques”, *Colloque international « Géomatique et gestion des Risques naturels »*, 6, 7 et 8 mars, Oujda, Maroc, Sous Presse.
- Bannari, A., D. Haboudane, F. Bonn (1999), „Potentiel des mesures multispectrales pour la distinction entre les résidus de cultures et les sols nus sous-jacents”, *21st Canadian Symposium on Remote Sensing* (June 1999, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada), 359-366, Université d'Ottawa, Canada.

- Benchetrit, M., (1972), *L'érosion actuelle et ses conséquences sur l'aménagement en Algérie*, Paris, PFU, 126 p.
- Boughalem, M., M. Mazour, M. Zaagane (2012), Utilisation des SIG pour l'aménagement du bassin versant de l'Isser (Nord Ouest de l'Algérie). Lutte antiérosive, réhabilitation des sols tropicaux et protection contre les pluies exceptionnelles, IRD Editions Marseille, 2012, 79-90.
- Boukheir, R., M.-C. Girard, A. Shaban, M. Khawlie, G. Faour, T. Darwich (2001), „Apport de la télédétection pour la modélisation de l'érosion hydrique des sols dans la région côtière du Liban”, *Télédétection*, vol. 2, n° 2, 79-90.
- Cyr, L., F. Bonn, A. PESANT (1995), „Vegetation Indices Derived from Remote Sensing for an Estimation of Soil Protection Against Water Erosion”; *Ecol. Modelling*, 79, 277-285.
- Grecu, F. (2002), „Risk-Prone Lands in Hilly Regions : Mapping Stages”, *Applied Geomorphology : Theory and Practice*, Edited Alisson, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, 49-64.
- Heusch, B. (1970), „Estimation et contrôle de l'érosion hydrique”, *Soc. Sc. Nat. Phys. Maroc ; special*, 41-54.
- Huzui, A. H., A. Abdellaoui, Pătru Stupariu, Ileana Georgeta (2011), „Analyzing Urban Dynamics Using Multi-Temporal Satellite Images in the Case of a Mountain Area, Sinaia (Romania)”, *International Journal of Digital Earth*, pp. 1-17, URL: <http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/>, 1-29.
- Internationally Agreed Glossary of Basic Terms Related to Disaster Management, United Nation, Departement of humanitarian Affair, IDNDR, DHA, Geneva, 83 p.
- Le Bissonnais, Y., N. Dubreuil, J. Daroussin, M. Gorce (2004), „Modélisation et cartographie de l'aléa d'érosion des sols à l'échelle régionale. Exemple du département de l'Aisne”, *Étude et Gestion des Sols*, vol. 11, 3, 307-321.
- Mazour, M., (2004), „Etude des facteurs de risque du ruissellement et de l'érosion en nappe et conservation de l'eau et du sol dans le bassin versant de l'Isser – Tlemcen”, *Thèse de Doctorat D'Etat*, Université de Tlemcen, 184, 131 pp.
- Morsli, B., M. Mazour, N. Mededjel, E. Roose (2004), „Influence de l'utilisation des terres sur les risques de ruissellement et de l'érosion sur les versants semi-arides du nord-ouest de l'Algérie”, *Sécheresse*, vol. 15, no 1, 96-104.
- Remini, B. (2000), L'envasement des barrages en Bull Réseau érosion, vol. 20, 165-171.
- Roose, E. (1994), „Introduction à la gestion conservatoire de l'eau, de la biomasse et de la fertilité des sols (GCES)”, *Bulletin pédologique*, FAO, 420 p.
- Roose, E., M. Arabi, K. Brahamia, R. Chebbani, M. Mazour, B. Morsli (1996), „Recherches sur la réduction des risques d'érosion par la GCES en moyenne montagne méditerranéenne algérienne”, *Ch. Orstom, Seri. Pédol.*, vol XXXVIII, no 2, 289-307.
- Talbi, O., A. Mendas, A., BENSAID, M. A., TRACHE (2002), „Mise en place d'un système d'information géographique pour le suivi et la quantification de l'érosion hydrique: application au bassin versant de l'Isser (Tlemcen)”, *Sécheresse*, vol. 13, no 3, 175-179.

LES TERRASSES FLUVIASTILES DU BASSIN DE CĂLMĂȚUI (TELEORMAN)*

MARIA ALBU DINU¹

The study reveals some peculiarities of the terraces of rivers in the basin area of Călmățui (Teleorman county). In this study we aimed the description of the terraces of Călmățui Basin in Teleorman county, including an analysis of the meadow terraces. Mapping was based on topographic maps with scale 1:25000 and their identification in the field.

The factors that determined the terraces are: climate changes, neotectonic movements and lowering basic level. In this basin two terrace levels: a low terrace with a relative altitude of 5-15 m and a high terrace of 20-30 m, arranged in the form of patches and a floodplain terrace with a relative altitude of 2-3 m were identified.

Mots-clés : bassin hydrographique, évolution paléogéographique, état d'équilibre, terrasses.

Introduction

Le bassin de Călmățui est situé dans la partie centrale sudique du pays et draine une grande partie de la Plaine Roumaine. Le réseau hydrographique du bassin est relativement jeune et formé après l'exondation de la Plaine Boianu pendant le Pléistocène Moyen. Les principales rivières du bassin ont eu une évolution assez rapide. Au cours de leurs évolution, ces-ci ont atteint un état d'équilibre interrompu par des oscillations climatiques et par des mouvements tectoniques; ainsi se sont créées les terrasses (Grecu, 1992).

La genèse et l'évolution du réseau hydrographique

Bien que l'hydrographie de la Plaine Roumaine soit relativement récente, étant exclusivement du Quaternaire, l'état initial et les évolutions ultérieures ne sont pas faciles à établir. La complexité de l'évolution de cette région a été déterminée par : la position de la Plaine Roumaine, par rapport à la Mer Noire ; les mouvements néotectoniques régionaux et locaux qui ont influencé d'une manière différente les régions de la Plaine Roumaine ; les oscillations climatiques

¹ Faculté de Géographie, Université de Bucarest, Roumanie, albu_maria@yahoo.com

au cours du Quaternaire – les périodes glaciaires ; la présence des lacs et leurs oscillations, souvent sans rapport avec la Mer Noire (Enciu, 2007).

La genèse du réseau hydrographique du bassin de Călmățui (Teleorman) ne peut pas être analysée sans prendre en considération l'activité des grands bassins hydrographiques voisins, qui ont influencé au cours des temps géologiques l'apparition de la Plaine Boianu, où s'est formé ultérieurement le bassin Călmățui.

Au cours du Pliocène, le lac situé au Sud des Carpates commence à se retirer à cause de l'accumulation des sédiments transportés par des rivières et déposés sous la forme des cônes de déjection individuels. Les rivières des Carpates ont joué un rôle important dans la colmatation du lac, auquel on ajoute l'apport des rivières qui venaient du Plateau Prébalcanique. Vers la fin du Pliocène (Romanien), les cônes de déjection s'unissent et forment une haute plaine de piémont au Sud des Souscarpates Gétiques. Pendant la dernière manifestation de l'orogenèse carpatique, la phase valaque, la Plaine Gétique pliocène a été élevée au début du Quaternaire atteignant l'altitude d'un plateau – le ainsi nommé Plateau Gétique (Liteanu, 1961).

Le système actuel des vallées du bassin de Călmățui s'est formé graduellement au fur et à mesure de l'expansion définitive des surfaces sèches (en plusieurs étapes) qui ont été conditionnées par les mouvements tectoniques, ainsi que par la formation progressive du cours du Danube (Ielenicz, 2006).

Le Călmățui (comté de Teleorman) est une rivière qui fait partie de la première génération des vallées et vallons à écoulement permanent de la Plaine Roumaine, mais a eu une évolution complexe. G. Vâlsan a essayé d'expliquer la genèse de cette rivière : « Jadis, lorsque le Danube coulait plus près de la surface de la plaine, Călmățui a été probablement un vallon comme ceux qui se trouvent actuellement sur les terrasses de Burnas. Le niveau du Danube étant en diminution, les sources du vallon ont avancé par l'érosion régressive jusqu'à la dépression récemment esquissée entre les plaines de Burnas et Găvanu-Burdea, où celui-ci a avancé dans le sens de l'axe de cette dépression. L'abaissement progressif du niveau du Danube a provoqué l'avancement des sources en conformité avec la pente de Găvanu-Burdea, la formation des méandres sur le cours moyen et l'abandon des terrasses sur le cours inférieur » (Vâlsan, 1915).

Il est possible qu'après l'installation du Danube sur le tracé actuel, le cours inférieur se soit allongé par l'assimilation d'un vieux drainage du Sud, raccourci et disjoint par le fleuve qui a coupé son secteur terminal (Geografia fizică a României vol.V, 2005).

Le climat a influencé les oscillations de niveau de la Mer Noire au cours du Quaternaire autant que le rythme de la modélisation. Ces oscillations ont conduit à l'alternation des périodes d'abaissement avec celles de colmatation des vallées (Comănescu, 2004).

De cette manière ont existé des périodes durant lesquelles se sont formées les terrasses (les périodes glaciaires) et aussi les plaines alluviales qui se sont étendues le long des ruisseaux Călmățui et Urlui (les périodes interglaciaires). Les vallées profondes de Călmățui et de Urlui, creusées dans les dépôts loessoïdes et même dans les couches de Frătești, qui sont drainées de nos jours par de petits ruisseaux, soutiennent la thèse que la modélisation du relief a eu lieu sous l'impact des phénomènes d'érosion et d'accumulation dans un climat plus humide, pendant lequel les rivières présentaient des débits plus grands. Dans ces conditions, des inondations saisonnières où prédominait l'érosion latérale se sont produites fréquemment.

Les terrasses du bassin Călmățui

Leur localisation et raccordement sont difficilement réalisables à cause de la disposition fragmentaire (*Fig. 1*), de l'existence des ponts de terrasse qui présentent parfois des surfaces relativement inclinées, ainsi qu'à cause de la présence des dépôts coluvio-proluviaux.

Bien qu'il soit un cours d'eau relativement jeune, issu après la formation de la Plaine Boianu, dans le Pléistocène Moyen, la rivière Călmățui a eu une évolution assez rapide. Durant son évolution, a connu des phases d'équilibre, troublées par des facteurs climatiques ou tectoniques qui ont déterminé l'apparition des niveaux de terrasse. Un rôle bien important dans la formation des terrasses a été attribué aux mouvements néotectoniques positifs qui ont lieu dans la partie de Sud et Centrale du bassin et qui atteignent et même dépassent 2 mm par année (Zugrăvescu, 1998, Teșcan et Cadichianu, 1998).

Plusieurs hypothèses ont été émises sur le nombre, l'altitude et l'âge des terrasses du bassin Călmățui. Vâlsan (1915) a distingué la présence de deux niveaux de terrasses, la terrasse inférieure située à 5-7 m au dessus de la plaine alluviale et des fragments de la terrasse supérieure situés à environ 25 m du niveau de la plaine alluviale. Vâlsan a apprécié que « les terrasses situées sur le cours inférieur ont des surfaces assez obliques de manière à ce qu'il soit bien difficile à fixer leur altitude à l'aide d'une seule valeur. On a l'impression que durant la formation de ces terrasses, la rivière descendait relativement vite vers l'actuel niveau de base ».

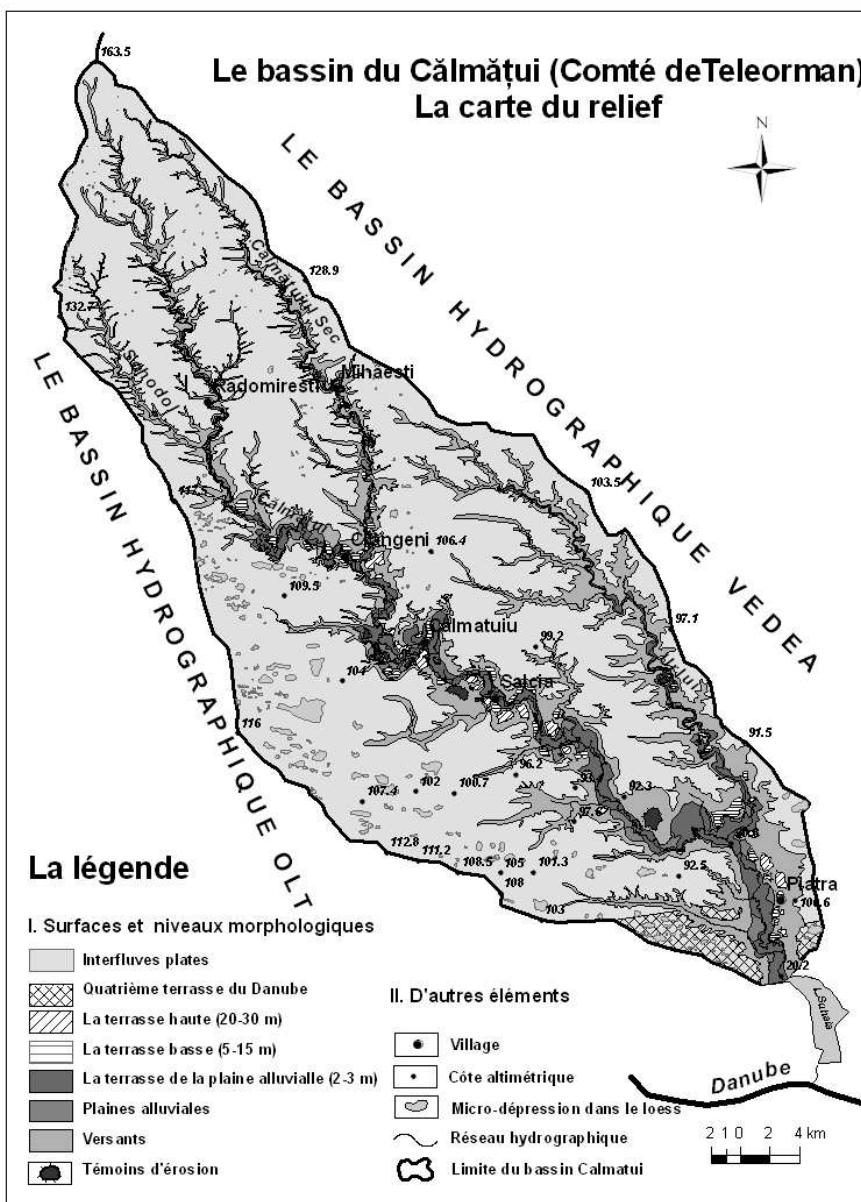


Fig. 1. Le bassin de Călmățui (Comté de Teleorman). La carte du relief

Slovoacă et Opran (1963) mentionnent la présence des deux niveaux de terrasses, le niveau inférieur ayant une altitude relative de 15 m et le niveau supérieur situé à une altitude relative de 22-28 m. En ce qui concerne l'âge des

terrasses, les auteurs ont apprécié en unanimité que ces-ci sont quaternaires et qu'elles se sont formées au cours du Pléistocène supérieur à cause de l'alternation des phases glaciaires et interglaciaires et de l'abaissement accentué du niveau de base.

À partir des observations faites sur le terrain et de l'analyse des cartes, on peut affirmer que dans le bassin de Călmățui les terrasses sont réparties de façon discontinue, que ces-ci sont disposées asymétriquement et fortement fragmentées. On a identifié deux niveaux de terrasses : **la première terrasse** (altitude relative de 5-15 m) et **la seconde terrasse** (altitude relative de 20-30 m), ainsi qu'un niveau plus élevé dans le cadre de la plaine alluviale (terrasse de plaine alluviale, qui n'est pas inondable, ayant une altitude relative de 2-3 m).

La première terrasse a un aspect fragmentaire. Celle-ci est présente sur de petites surfaces dans le cours supérieur de Călmățui, des surfaces plus grandes dans le cours moyen et inférieur de Călmățui, ainsi que sur le cours de Urlui en aval de la localité Urlui et a en général un caractère de terrasse de méandre (*Fig. 2, 3*).



Fig. 2. Le front de la terrasse basse dans le bassin inférieur du bassin de Călmățui

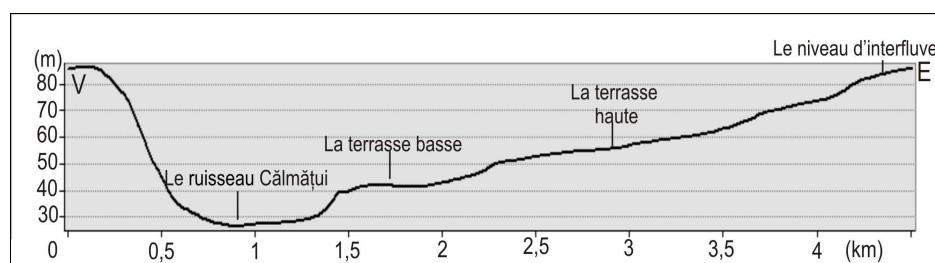


Fig. 3. Section transversale dans la partie inférieure du bassin de Călmățui, dans le sud du village Voievoda

La seconde terrasse (15-25 m) est absente sur l'Urlui, mais fait son apparition sur le cours moyen et inférieur de Călmățui. Cette terrasse se présente sous la forme de petits fragments et on peut observer que cette altitude relative croît lentement en aval ; sur le cours inférieur, la terrasse s'est développée asymétriquement sur le côté gauche de la vallée, en amont de la localité Voievoda jusqu'au point où celle-ci rejoint le lac Suhaia.

Les plaines alluviales

La plaine alluviale de Călmățui présente une grande complexité et en section longitudinale on peut distinguer plusieurs secteurs (Rădulescu, 1956) : dans le secteur supérieur, en amont de la localité Călinești, dans la vallée de Călmățui Sec, dans la vallée de Urlui en amont de Urlui et dans le secteur inférieur de la vallée de Sohodol, la plaine alluviale est étroite ayant des largeurs entre 50 et 150 m et un aspect asymétrique (*Fig. 4*).

Au contact de la plaine Inimogul avec la plaine de Urlui, en aval de la localité Călinești, la pente se réduit en favorisant l'élargissement de la plaine alluviale, qui atteint 400-500 m et qui s'est développée asymétriquement tant sur la rive gauche, que sur la droite.

Dans le *secteur moyen* de Călmățui, après la confluence avec Călmățuiul Sec, la plaine alluviale s'élargit ayant une largeur moyenne de 1 km. Il y a aussi toute une série de portions où celle-ci s'élargit et devient plus complexe en section transversale :

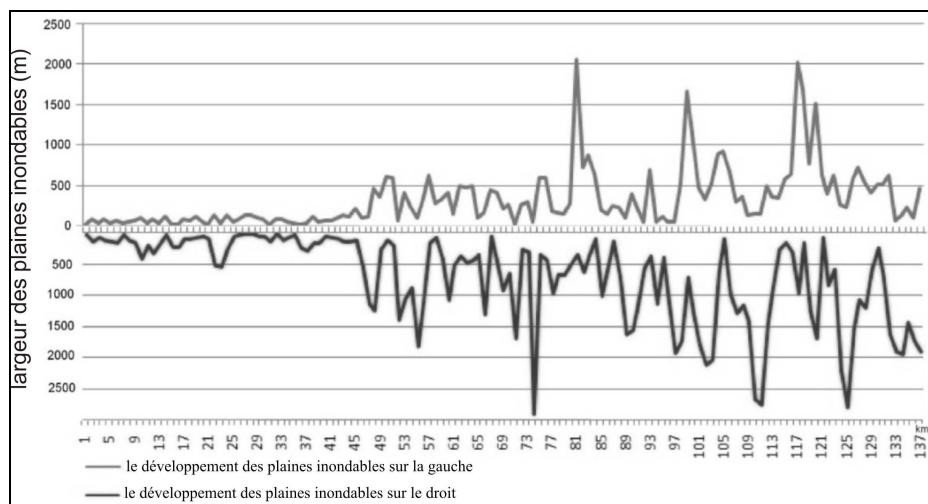


Fig. 4. Le développement de la plaine alluviale de Călmățui

- à la confluence de la Vallée Comăncii avec le ruisseau Călmățui, entre les localités Dorobanțu et Nicolae Bălcescu, la plaine alluviale présente un secteur élargi d'environ 1,5-1,6 km, développé asymétriquement (étant plus développé surtout sur la rive droite) ;
- devant la localité Călmățuiu, la plaine alluviale s'est développée surtout sur la rive gauche et atteint 4 km en largeur, présentant de nombreux témoins d'érosion, comme par exemple Monticule Cioarei, Monticule Stoian, Monticule Custurăreasa, Monticule Siliștei et lacs de la plaine alluviale : le Lac Uștiubei, Le Grand Lac et le Lac Cioarei ;
- devant la localité Băduleasa la plaine alluviale atteint environ 2 km en largeur ;
- avant la confluence avec la rivière Urluiu, la plaine alluviale de Călmățuiu présente un secteur élargi qui atteint une largeur maximale de 2,5 km, développé surtout sur la rive gauche;

Entre les affluents de Călmățui, la Vallée de Urluiu présente la plus large plaine alluviale, qui a des traits semblables à celle de Călmățui, mais sa largeur maximale ne dépasse pas 1,3 km (valeur enregistrée avant la confluence avec le ruisseau Călmățuiu).

Dans la plaine alluviale on peut distinguer une terrasse de plaine alluviale qui s'élève à 2-3 m au-dessus de la plaine fluviale. Celle-ci se présente sous forme des lambeaux étroits dans la Vallée de Călmățuiu dans le secteur moyen et supérieur, ainsi que dans la Vallée de Urluiu et de Călmățuiu Sec (*Fig. 5, 6*).



Fig. 5. La terrasse de la plaine alluviale et la terrasse basse dans le bassin supérieur du bassin de Călmățui, dans le village Crângeni

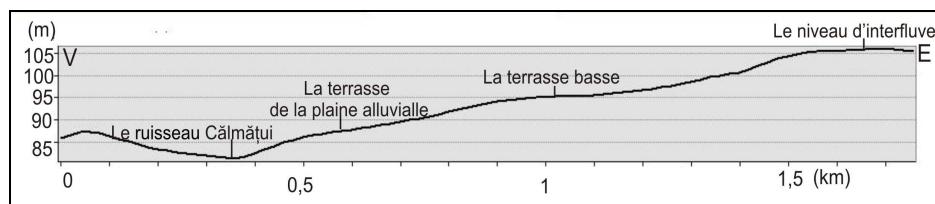


Fig. 6. Section transversale dans la partie supérieure du bassin de Călmățui, dans le nord du village Crângeni

Les lits mineurs

Les processus de modélisation des lits mineurs sont influencés par la structure géologique, par les caractéristiques du relief, les caractéristiques morphohydrographiques du bassin de Călmățui, ainsi que par l'intervention de l'homme. Le lit mineur du ruisseau de Călmățui est bien développé tout le long du cours d'eau.

Dans le secteur supérieur, qui s'atteint de la source jusqu'à la confluence avec Călmățuiul Sec, la direction principale d'écoulement est NNO-SSE et l'écoulement présente un caractère intermittent. Au début, le lit est à peine esquissé ayant des profondeurs basses de 0,5-1 m et des largeurs qui ne dépassent pas 1-2 m. Après, le lit du ruisseau s'abaisse graduellement, la vallée atteignant des profondeurs de 10-5 m ; la pente du ruisseau atteint dans ce secteur 1,8 m/km. Dans le secteur moyen, étendu entre la confluence avec Călmățuiul Sec et celle avec Urluiul, le caractère de la vallée change, le régime d'écoulement devient permanent et, grâce à l'alimentation des sources, la pente du ruisseau se réduit beaucoup atteignant 0,8/km ; la vallée s'abaisse dans les dépôts loessoïdes, les rives dominant la plaine alluviale avec 30-40 m. Le ruisseau commence à se méandrer fortement, présentant des méandres complexes et la direction principale d'écoulement devient NO-SE. Le secteur inférieur commence à la confluence avec Urlui et s'éteint jusqu'au débouché de Călmățui dans le Lac Suhaia. Les pentes dans ce secteur sont réduites à 0,5-0,75 m/km et la direction principale d'écoulement devient presque N-S. Dans ce secteur, le ruisseau s'est abaissé d'environ 70 m par rapport au niveau de la plaine. On peut remarquer une portion avec des canaux entre la confluence avec Urlui et la localité Piatra, avec des pentes de 0,7-0,75 m/km, ainsi qu'une portion avec des pentes plus basses, de 0,5-0,6 m/km, qui présente de nombreux méandres libres de la localité Piatra jusqu'au débouché dans le Danube (*Fig. 7*).

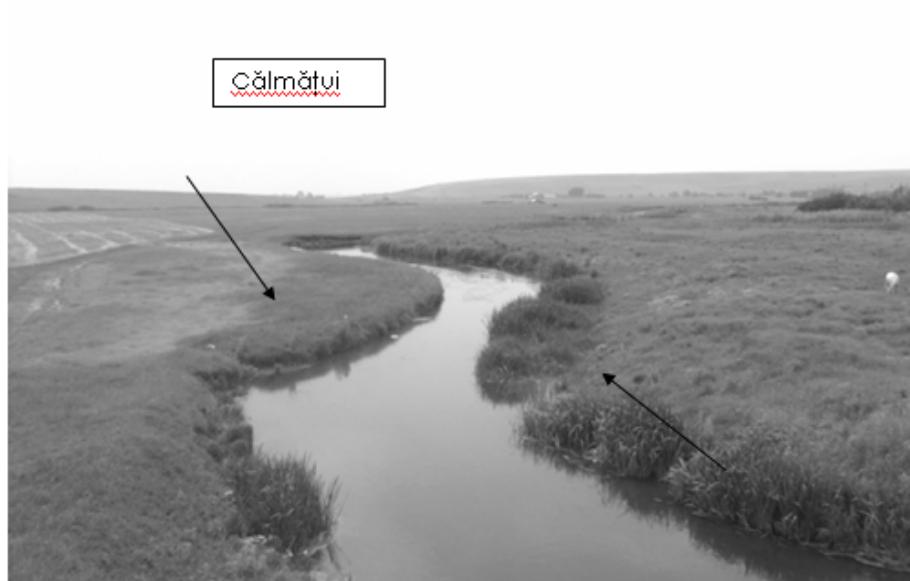


Fig. 7. Le lit mineur et majeur de Călmățui dans le secteur inférieur

Le ruisseau Urlui jaillit près de la localité Mihăești, coule en parallèle avec Călmățui jusqu'à la localité Furculești et ensuite change brusquement direction vers SO et débouche dans celle-ci à l'Est de la localité Secara. Le ruisseau présente de nombreux méandres enchaînés comme ceux de vallées et qui sont de point de vue génétique des méandres hérités. Celui-ci a l'aspect d'une chaîne des lacs qui ont fait leur apparition après l'intervention de l'homme (on a construit des barrages transversaux pour la pisciculture ainsi que pour l'agriculture).

Du point de vue de la sinuosité, le ruisseau Călmățui présente un lit méandré avec peu des bancs et d'îlots, le coefficient de sinuosité (Grecu, Comănescu, 1998) étant élevé à 1,84. Un degré réduit d'anastomose peut être observé surtout sur le cours inférieur, après la confluence avec Urluiul.

Conclusion

Les recherches sur les terrasses dans cette étude morphologique permettent de mieux comprendre l'évolution de ce territoire. L'absence des terrasses dans le secteur supérieur et leur prédominance dans le secteur moyen et inférieur soutiennent l'idée que le ruisseau de Călmățui et ses principaux affluents se sont formés lors d'un processus d'érosion régressive.

Des mouvements tectoniques positifs, plus accentués dans la partie de Sud du bassin, qui atteignent 2 mm par an, l'abaissement accentué du niveau de base représenté par le Danube, ainsi que les fluctuations du climat durant le Quaternaire (les périodes glaciaires et interglaciaires) ont déterminé l'abaissement des vallées dans le bassin de Călmățui et la formation des niveaux de terrasses et des plaines alluviales.

***Notă:** Cet article a été réalisé avec le soutien du Projet cofinancé du Fonds Social Européen par le Programme Opérationnel Sectoriel pour le Développement des Ressources Humaines 2007-2013 (POSDRU /88/1.5/S/ 61150), Titre du projet: « Études doctorales dans le domaine des sciences de la vie et de la Terre ».

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- Comănescu, L. (2004), *Bazinul morfohidrografic Casimcea – Studiu geomorfologic*, Editura Universității, București.
- Enciu, P. (2007), *Pliocenul și cuaternarul din vestul Bazinului Dacic. Stratigrafie și evoluție paleogeografică*, Editura Academiei, București.
- Grecu, F. (1992), *Bazinul Hârtibaciului. Elemente de morfohidrografie*, Editura Academiei, București.
- Grecu, F., L. Comănescu (1998), *Studiul reliefului, Îndrumător pentru lucrări practice*, Editura Universității, București.
- Ielenicz, M. (2006), „Sistemul de văi din România – Geneză și evoluție”, *Comunicări de Geografie*, București.
- Liteanu, E. (1961), „Aspecte generale ale stratigrafilor Pleistocenului și ale geneticei reliefului din Câmpia Română”, *Studii Tehnice și Economice*, seria H, nr. 3, București.
- Rădulescu, I. (1956), „Observații geomorfologice în Câmpia Burdei”, *Probleme de geografie*, vol. IV, Ed. Academiei, București.
- Slăvoacă, D., C. Opran (1963), „Cercetări geologice și hidrogeologice în zona Giurgiu – Alexandria – Traian”, *Studii Tehnice și Economice*, seria E, nr. 6, București.
- Vâlsan, G. (1915), „Câmpia Română: contribuționi de geografie fizică”, extras din *B.S.R.G.*, XXXVI, București.
- Teșcan, D., N. Cadicoreanu (1998), „Two Applications of Geographic Information System in Geodinamics”, *Studii și Cercetări de Geofizică*, tom 36, București.
- Zugrăvescu, D. (1998), „Recent Vertical Crustal Movements in Romania”, *Rev. Roumaine de Géophysique*, București.
- *** (2005), *Geografia României, vol. V, Câmpia Română, Dunărea, Podișul Dobrogei, litoralul românesc al Mării Negre și platforma continentală*, Editura Academiei, Institutul de Geografie, București.

URBAN DYNAMIC ANALYSIS USING SATELLITE IMAGES AND MULTISOURCE DATA. CASE OF GRAND AGADIR-MOROCCO – BETWEEN 1988 AND 2005

ATIK MOHAMED¹, ABDELLAOUI ABDELKADER²

The earthquake of 1960 marked a turning point in the urbanization process of Grand Agadir. Agadir's reconstruction was launched a few months after the city's destruction. It was based on a desire to create a new town on a green field in a voluntarily attempt to adopt a modernist model of urbanism. But the following years showed that urban planning in the Grand Agadir faces more a crisis management than an expression of competence. Many issues depend on the urban planning of Grand Agadir. Several actors (including speculators) are involved in developing strategies and very different logics. Although all means of resources (land ownership, financial and human) were mobilized to produce a model city, the mismanagement, the lack of control in urbanization, the difficulty of controlling urban development and the influx of people, coming from the rural exodus and attracted by the advantages of a sedentary life, have determined profound changes in the spatial distribution of inhabitants. This study consists in identifying the spatio-temporal dynamics of the urban space in Grand Agadir; this is a diachronic study which integrates the classification method of maximum likelihood. It aims to monitor the urban dynamics of Grand Agadir and the change detection in order to estimate the socio-spatial mutations. For this we used the satellite imagery "Landsat-TM and ETM" over the period 1988-2005 which was complemented with the cartographic materials and aerial photos. This processing allowed us to produce maps that illustrate the spatial distribution of urban development forms and to show the impact of urban sprawl.

Keywords: urban management; remote sensing; diachronic study.

Introduction

The urban development of Grand Agadir is unique within the region because it is an entirely new city which has just completed its stages of reconstruction after the earthquake of 1960. This particular evolution in the recent decades has resulted in a rapid development of all its cities while registering the highest growth rates in Morocco; recorded at 8.13% for Aït Melloul and at 10.2% for Tikiouine during the interval 1982-1994 while the national average is 2.06% for this period.

¹ Labo Cemotev University Versailles Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines.

² Labo'Urba – University Paris-Est. Créteil. E-mail : abdellaoui.geo@gmail.com.

Since the '60s of the last century, the demographic, economic, social and cultural mutations that intervened in Grand Agadir have triggered profound changes in the spatial distribution of inhabitants. Because of its position at the crossroads between North and South of Morocco, Grand Agadir underwent a major economic development, which led to a population growth that resulted not only from the natural excess, but also due to a strong immigration of both rural and urban origin.

In the perspective of city planning, the urban landscape of Agadir city reflects a deliberate policy through which the neighborhoods are differentiated by their function, morphology and also by their social composition. The specialization of neighborhoods and the spatial discontinuities are very striking. In this context, our study is based on a thematic approach and on multisource data analysis (of the demographics, the environmental potential, economic activities, urban planning, housing, infrastructure, environment) that allows us to reveal the data, which most often is either numerous or complex, through a synthetic vision and to identify the constraints and advantages of urban development. We are particularly interested in studying the constraints that are specific to urban development and their impacts using diverse thematic cartographic supports and satellite imagery.

These multi-scale materials were used to analyze the mechanisms behind urban development. We also used the satellite imagery Landsat TM and ETM on several dates along with various existing cartographic documents (aerial photographs, topographic maps); these different documents are complemented by several field observations, survey results and other data (demographic, urban and economic). This study consists in the identification and analysis of the urban development and the spatio-temporal dynamics in the Grand Agadir between 1988 and 2005. The results allowed us to provide relevant explanations beyond the standard analysis of the spatial categories "urban"- "suburban" which are too simplistic for the current spatial and social diversity. Therefore it seems essential to understand the relationships, the flows and the interconnections between these two spaces, not to mention the less tangible effects which are induced by the development actions and to analyze a number of issues and processes related to the urban extension.

This paper is structured into three main parts: after a description of the study area and the methodological approach of the satellite data processing, we presented the results and we concluded with a detailed analysis of the urban development (forms, issues, dysfunctions and impacts) in the last section.

1. Study Area

The study area is limited to Grand Agadir, a large urban center, located in the north-western part of the Souss plain, along the Atlantic Ocean and bordered

to the north by the massif of the High Atlas. Its latitude is 30° 25' north and the longitude is 9° 36' west (*Fig. 1*). It is part of the Souss-Massa-Draa which extends over an area of 70,880 km², or 9.9% of the total area of Morocco. This region includes the provinces of Tiznit, Taroudant, Ouarzazate and Zagora.

Grand Agadir covers an area of nearly 145 km², starting from Anza in the north to south of Aït Melloul, including Tikiouine into the east (see *Fig. 1*). Its structure is composed of several urban units that were promoted, over the previous decades, to the status of municipalities, thus sharing the territorial management of the urban cluster.

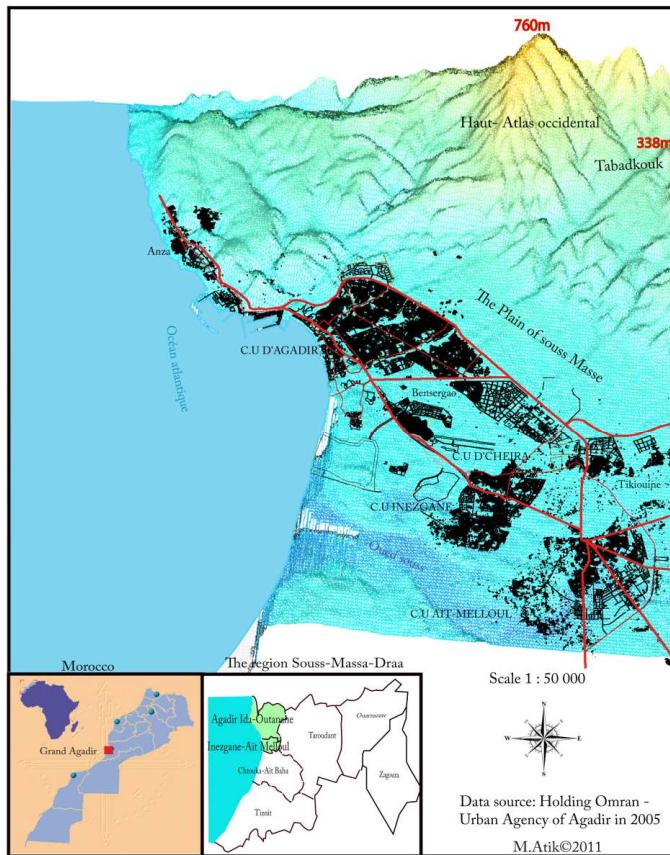


Fig. 1. Location map of Grand Agadir: Geographical situation and morphology

It currently includes: Agadir, the main town and regional metropolis from southern Morocco and the broader urban community that includes four cities (Agadir, Anza, Bensergao and Tikiouine); Inezgane, a traditional trading town,

located at 10 km south from Agadir and a municipality to which two dormitory town, Jorf and Tarrast, are attached; Dcheira and Aït Melloul representing two major municipalities, the first, located along the main road number 32, acts as a bedroom community while the second one is positioned on the left bank of *wadi* Souss, at the intersection of roads from Tiznit and Taroudant. These municipalities account for a total built-up area of 3,000 hectares with a total area of 20,516 hectares and concern a population of about 67,859614 inhabitants, according to the national census of 2004, with a growth rate of around 10%, since 1960. At the morphological level (*Fig.1*) the western High Atlas of EW direction overlooks the present town and the harbour on the north side by a vertical drop of 200 meters. Its altitude increases eastward to rise over 400 meters at Talkjount which is located above, at 6 km from the Kasba. This mountain, as a whole, takes the form of a plateau lined with an endemic vegetation cover (Ait Hssaine, 2000) which is characteristic for this region and unique in the world (argan trees and thorny euphorbias).

2. Methodology

Our work focused on a thematic approach to detect the change of urban space (*Table 1*).

Table 1
Data Used in the Study

| Type of Data | Sources | Date | Scale/Resolution |
|-----------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|
| Satellite image | Landsat TM | Feb 9 th 1988 | 30 m |
| | Landsat ETM | march 02 ; april 05 | 28.5 m ; 28.5 m |
| Aerial photo | Holding Omran | 1994 | 1 :30,000 |
| | | 1994 | 1 :17,500 |
| Topo map | Urban Agency of Agadir | 2003 ; 2005 | 1 :50,000 |
| Socio demo stat | PhD thesis Atik | 2009 | |

The satellite images were captured at different moments in the year and consequently it was necessary to apply appropriate pre-processing in order to make them comparable (Jensen, 1996). In addition, we have chosen several training sites in the area. Thereafter, change detection is based on a supervised classification of the images and a comparison of results which is meant to highlight the changes from one date to another. The advantages of this approach consists in the fact that not only we got a complete image of the entire study area at different times and we were able to identify all pixels that have changed their status between the two dates, but we also delineated the nature of these changes. *Fig. 2* summarizes the processing flowchart that we followed.

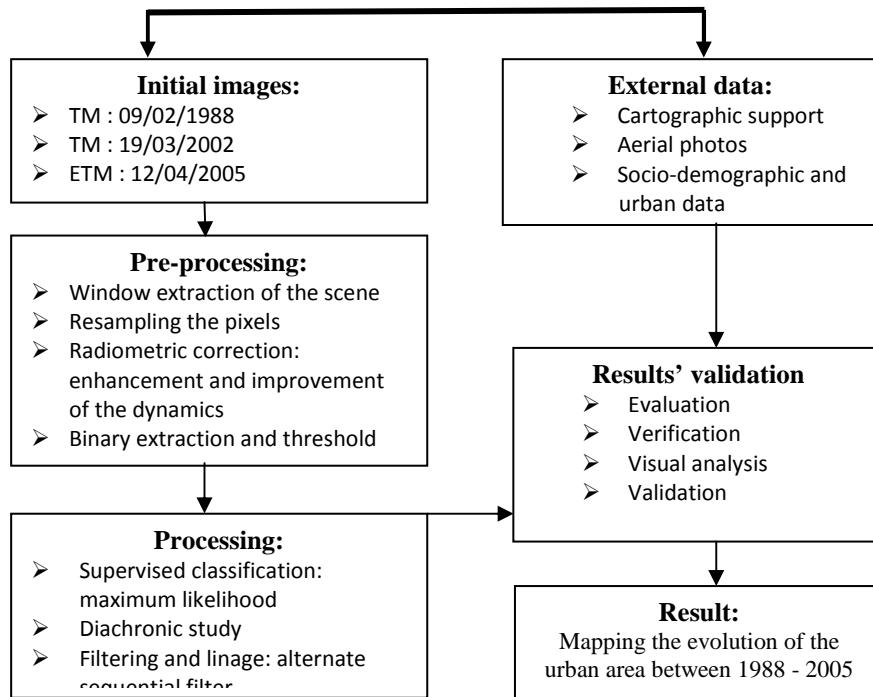


Fig. 2. Flowchart of the methodological approaches tested in the study

2.1. Pre-Processing

It is generally necessary to pre-process the data prior to analysis. The objective is to improve the images' quality in order to enable their interpreting. In this context we conducted a string of classic processing:

- **Resampling:** In order to have a homogeneous and medium spatial resolution of 28.5 m we used a cubic convolution technique. This sampling function, which uses a bi-cubic approximation of the 16 closest neighbours to the concerned pixel, makes the image to be locally modelled by a polynomial surface (Abdellaoui and Rougab, 1995). In the end, we obtained several spectral plans that will perfectly match at each pixel level, with the reference image (image of year 2005). The accuracy of these transformations varies with each image; in our case the operation produced an average error of calibration (*Root Mean Square Error*) of 0.258, which is acceptable (Moller-Jensen, 1990).
- **Enhancement and improvement of the dynamics:** The initial image is not very legible because of the low contrast, considering that most pixels are on a small range of coding scale (0; 255). Increasing the

dynamics can already make the different channels more legible and therefore it's easier to recognize the major themes which are present on the study scene.

- **Extracting the study area and other basic processing:** After extracting the study area which covers the Grand Agadir and its surroundings, we have defined the area of urban influence by turning our basic images in binary images through codifying their pixels with different values: 1 for urban area and 0 for others. A threshold was performed in order to isolate the urban unit as it is very useful to exclude vegetation and water (sea and river) from urban areas so to reduce the computation time and to avoid any confusion between vegetation, open soil and the constructions.

2.2. Basic Processing

2.2.1. The classification of the urban areas

Classifying the urban areas with the help of satellite images is a complex task, because these images do not exhibit a unique and distinguishable spectral response (Weber, 2001). Many researchers have already presented methods to improve the classification of urban areas using remote sensing data. These methods, based on pixels or objects, are very diverse and vary according to the data that were used and also the study areas on which they are applied. They are also difficult to categorize because there is a mixture of methods that were created to extract information from the images. These approaches include, in the classification process, the incorporation of auxiliary information, for example, spatial data (Harris and Ventura, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2002), contextual data (Gong and Howarth, 1990; Shaban and Dikshit, 2001; Weber, 2001; Gluch, 2002, Cabral *et al.*, 2005). Other authors propose the use of indices (Abdellaoui *et al.* 1997; Abdellaoui, 2009, Zha *et al.*, 2003; Biraud-Burot, 2005), the analysis of spectral composites (Phinn *et al.*, 2002; Lu and Weng, 2004), the use of expert systems (Steranov *et al.*, 2001) or the use of neural networks (Civco and Hurd, 1997; Zhang and Foody, 2001). Some results show that information retrieval based on objects is presented as an attractive alternative to classify images.

The classification method of maximum likelihood that was used in this work proved to be the most effective in distinguishing between urban areas and non-urban areas since it is based on the statistical evaluation of the classification's quality. This method implies the definition of training sites for each reference class (*Fig. 3*) with a Gaussian distribution (Jensen, 1996). The minimum number of pixels that must compose the training site for each class has to be 10 times greater than the number of channels that were used for the

classification (Jensen, 1996). The choice for these areas may involve a certain degree of subjectivity because it is the analyst who determines the training sites and establishes their number, their location and size. To meet the normal distribution, we used for the selection of training sites, the groups obtained in the unsupervised classification with ISOCLUST algorithm. Thus it ensures the selection of homogeneous areas. These thematic classes (urban³, bare soil and vegetation) were defined in order to assess the types of land use which were affected by urban growth. Consequently, these training sites were used to obtain the spectral signatures of these classes (*Fig. 3*).

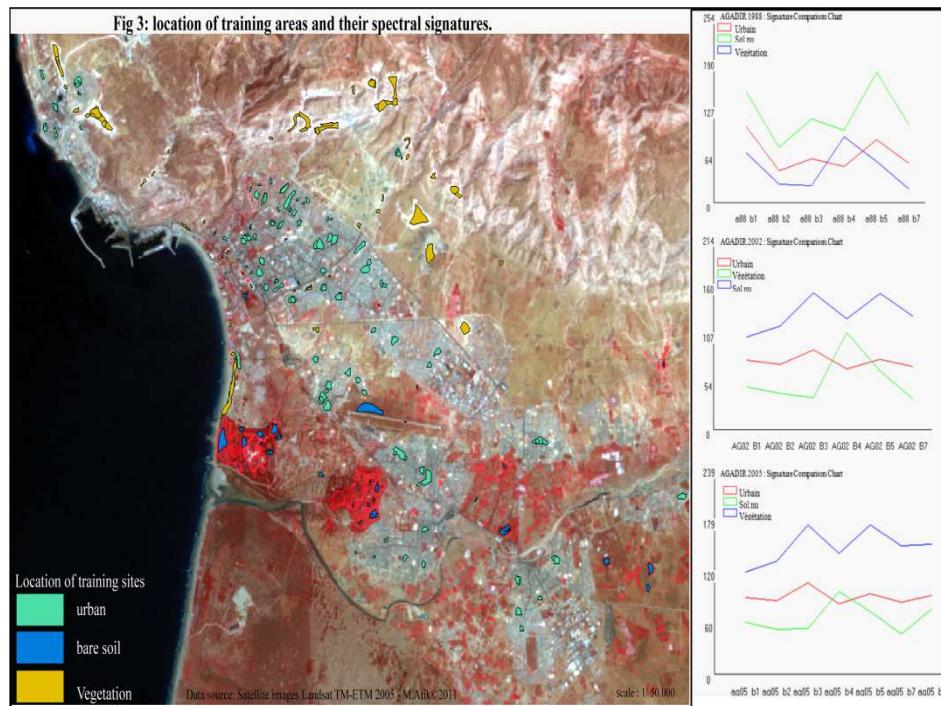


Fig. 3. Location of training areas and their spectral signatures

The visual analysis of the classifications for different dates has detected some indications relative to the change from built-up to un-built that doesn't correspond to the reality of Grand Agadir. Similarly, we observed confusions between built-up and bare soils due to the approximation of the radiometric values between these two classes, the heterogeneity of urban objects and bare soil (roads, quarries, rocks), making it difficult to establish the representing

³ We considered in this work, the “urban” as a geographical space that is based on the continuity of the built-up, which is seen as the delimitation of the urban space.

thematic classes. Some apparent changes were produced by the spectral overlap between classes or pixels located at the boundaries. In this sense, the road network, especially the routes which separate the islands of urban expansion, have created a lot of confusion within some pockets of built-up. For example, in the classified image of 2003, these roads have been assigned to the built-up class while in the image of 1988 they have been omitted from this class (maybe because of the vegetation effect). Other changes were produced by significant variation in the vegetation cover, in this case the differences between phenological dates. Taking into account these confusions, the rule of maximum likelihood was repeated several times in order to improve and validate the results and isolate the built-up from the un-built. The training sites were modified during iterations, so as to obtain a threshold of sufficient satisfaction (90% correct classification and a kappa coefficient which should be greater than or equal to 0.8); the selection of the channels permits the exclusion of redundant spectral information resulted from the classification process and thereby to obtain a better discrimination of the classes (Jensen, 1996- Im and Jensen, 2005). The statistic of the transformed divergence (Swain and Davis, 1978 in Jensen, 1996) was used to evaluate the best combination of channels. We obtained the maximum spectral separation using six channels simultaneously (TM1, TM 2, TM 3, TM 4, TM 5, TM 7). Then we reduced the number of channels while maintaining the maximum value of the processed divergence's statistics in order to reduce the information's redundancy. This maximum value has remained intact until the use of four channels with 15 different possible combinations. After trying these 15 combinations with the overall accuracy and kappa statistics, we found that it is the combination of channels (1, 4, 5 and 7) which leads to better outcomes for the urban class.

To eliminate the noise and the roads, we applied a variant of alternating sequential filter (Serendero, 1989; Serra and Lovely, 1997; Soille, 1999); this operator is formed by a succession of closures and openings of increasing size. This filter replaces at linearity the growth criterion and is better adapted to the structure of visual perception; it simplifies an image without smoothing it and thus it allows preserving the contrasts (Abdellaoui et al., 2006; Gadal, 2003). The outcome of processing allowed us to isolate the urban area for each date as shown on *Fig. 4*.

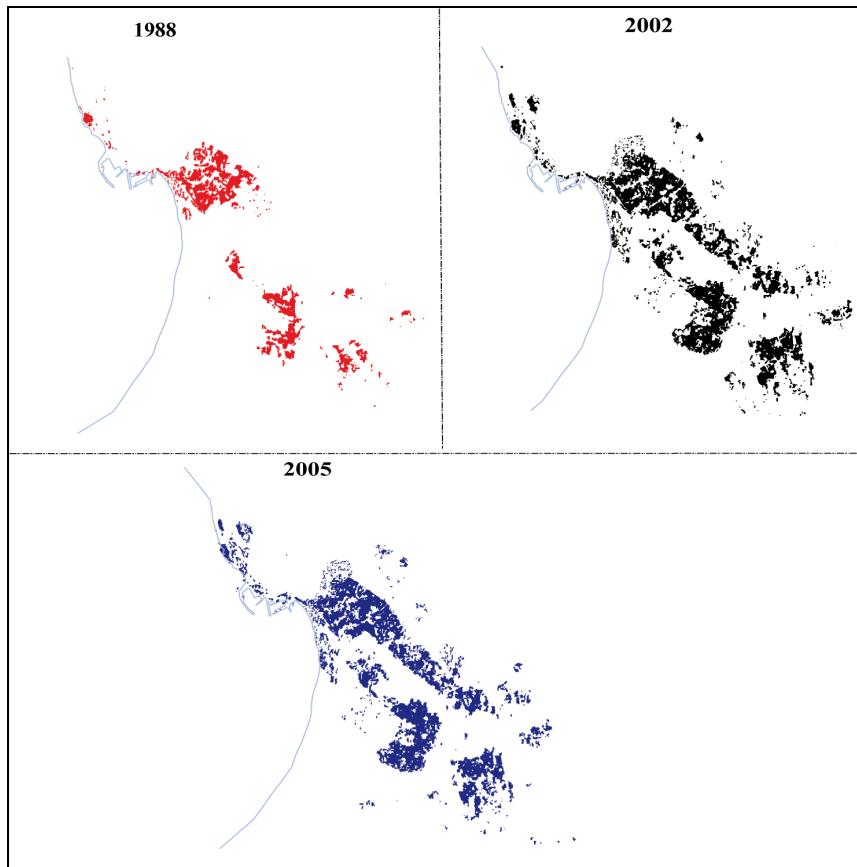


Fig. 4. The urban area in Grand Agadir between 1988 and 2005

2.2.2. Colored composite image of the urban evolution

For a diachronic study, we first combined pairs of images: '88/2002 followed by 2002/2005 and afterwards '88/2005; in these combinations the interpretation is much simpler. Then we produced a superposition of three images by assigning the blue band to the classified image of year 1988, the green to the classified image of 2002 and the red to the most recent image (classified image of 2005). The resulting composition is coloured only where changes have occurred from one date to another; the image of regions that have not undergone any changes appear in black or white. Thus, the juxtaposition of the intensities of these three colours can be, in additive fashion, a variety of colours in accordance with the seven possible combinations, so we obtained the colour of each pixel in the resulting image of $d(p)$ by the following combination:

$$d(p) = a(p) [B] + b(p) [V] + c(p) [R]$$

a(p), b(p) and c(p) represent the values depending on the intensity of the pixel for the oldest component or the most recent one

Table 2 summarizes the logic of the possible combination according to the primary RGB colours which were assigned to each classified image and the intensity's values of these binary images (0/1).

Table 2
The Logic of the Diachronic Coloured Composite

| | Green (Image of 2003) | Red (Image of 2005) | Resulting colour | Interpretation |
|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|--|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | Black | No change |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | Red | Built-up appeared in 2005 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | Green | Built-up appeared in 2002 and disappeared in 2005 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | Yellow | Built-up appeared in 2002 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | Blue | Built-up appeared in 1988 and disappeared in 2002 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | Purple | Built-up appeared in 1988, disappeared in 2002 and reappeared in 2005 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | Orange | Built-up appeared in 1988 and disappeared in 2005 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | White | Built-up appeared in 1988 |

The various processing which were performed made it possible to map the evolution of the urban area and its periphery (*Fig. 5*).

The final result is consistent with the realities which were observed on the field and to the baselines (topographic maps, aerial photographs). The colors white, red and yellow symbolize the evolution from the three dates: 1988, 2002 and 2005. However, several precautions must be taken for the other colors (green, purple, orange and blue); the interpretation is based on a detailed examination of all these new objects that appear (purple) or disappear (blue and orange). It may, indeed, be either new constructions (they stand out well if they are contiguous and numerous, however they are more discrete in the case of isolated buildings or houses), disappeared constructions, or constructions where the roof could be confused, on one image, with the streets or vacant land (the case is not unusual if we think about dirt roads and houses with tin roofs that are covered with dust or the case of slums) and which suddenly appear more reflective because they was renewed, or simply washed away by rain. It must be also noted that the color green, symbolizing the objects which disappeared in 2002 and 2005, presents in most cases the construction of precarious housing that has been eradicated during the programs

for the elimination of slums or for changing the form and layout of plots. It was complemented with the launching of the subdivision (the case of Hay El Mohammady subdivision), or the appearance of some buildings on the site of old demolished buildings.

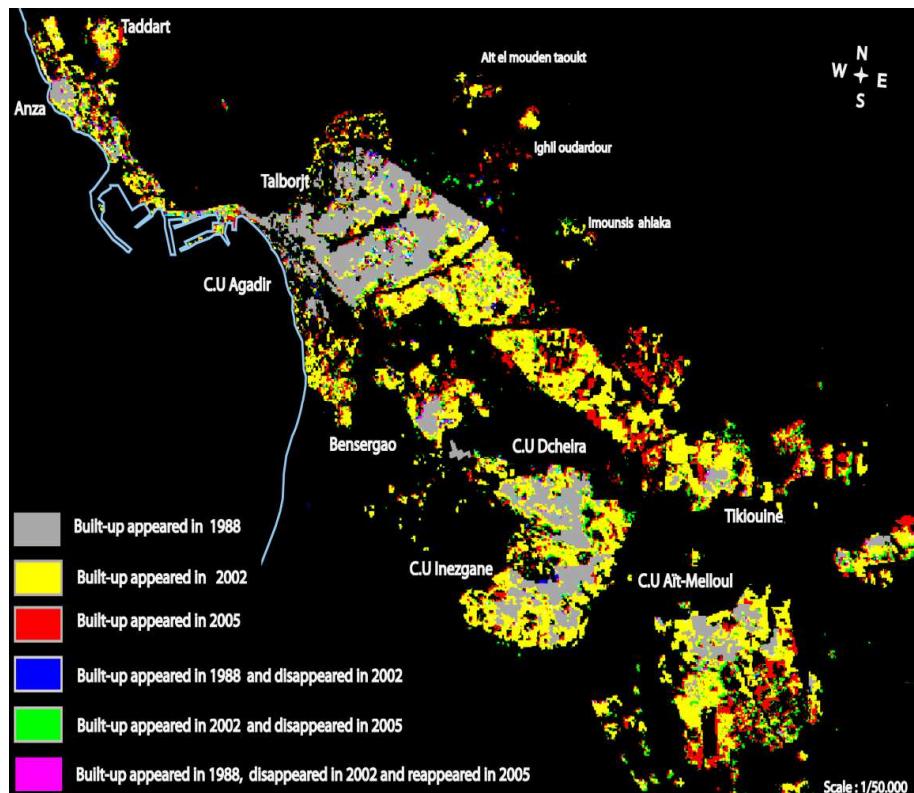


Fig. 5. Chronological evolution of the urban area in Agadir between 1988 and 2005

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Grand Agadir a dispersed agglomeration

The comparison of classified images and their representation on a final satellite image map (*Fig. 6*) allowed the identification of the urban dynamics. The urbanized area (obtained through multiplying the number of pixels from each period through a medium and homogeneous spatial resolution of 30 m) and perceived as the total built areas which consists of dense built-up, of residential constructions, tall buildings and urban construction sites, amounted

from 100,919 ha in 1988 to 206,625 ha in 2005. Between the two dates, the extensive built-up increased by 145,706 ha, representing a growth rate of 60% in 17 years. The area covered by the urban pattern which was studied for the period from 1988 to 2002 is approximately 196,105 ha and for the period from 2002 to 2005 is merely 10,520 ha. These figures were calculated from the digital processing and correspond to 90% of the official records from the Regional Inspectorate of Housing, Urban Development and Spatial Planning (IRHUAE) and of the land holding in Al Omran Souss Massa.

Urban development in Grand Agadir was achieved in a linear fashion along the thoroughfare harbour-airport on about 30 square kilometers with a total area of 159 square kilometres. It includes five urban entities (Agadir, Tikiouine, Inezgane, Dcheira and Aït-Melloul) which are autonomous and individual, of greater or lesser size and articulated relatively to each other and according to their economic and urban vocation as well as their situation along the local route, particularly along the RN 10 and RN 1. This development is determined by two important elements: first, by its physical and natural environment (blocked to the north and east by the natural barrier of the mountain and the Souss Massa National Park to the south, the agglomeration is now expanding on the plain, on each side of the wadi Souss) and secondly, by its economic and demographic dynamics. The profound changes that have occurred in the outlying communities (Tikiouine, Inezgane, Dcheira and Aït-Melloul) have also been subject to a particularly important urban growth: Tikiouine (95.15%), Aït-Melloul (85.13%) or Bensergao (70.63%). With the exception of the city of Agadir where urban development has been achieved in a planned approached (the launching of several subdivisions and an urban project), the outlying communities developed in a spectacular haphazard way.

This great economic dynamism of Agadir is the most important element that explains the demographic and urban development in recent decades. Since the general population census of 1982, the great urban centres which compose Agadir experienced the largest increase in population at the national level. Grand Agadir has seen its population growing at a very high rhythm between 1982 and 2004 from 256,234 to 678,596 inhabitants, or with an average rate of annual growth of 4.5% (while the national average was 3.2% for the same period). The population's density was established in 2004 to 4,138 inhabitants/km², in comparison with 3,076 inhabitants/km² in 1994 and with 1,574 inhabitants/km² in 1982. It grew by 35% over the past ten years, with the implications of a migration flux that was always important and the obvious attraction for this region. By consequence, Dcheira and Inezgane face the highest density (8,937 and 8,673 inhabitants/km² respectively) because of their small size, while the municipality of Agadir is the least dense (3,360 inhabitants/km²).

This demographic explosion leads to an uncontrolled urban dynamics, a dispersed and a fragmented agglomeration. Its rapid evolution and design are

based on a strong segregation of functions which have shaped a splitted space and a poorly connected city, which suffers from the lack of centrality and of attractive convivial places.

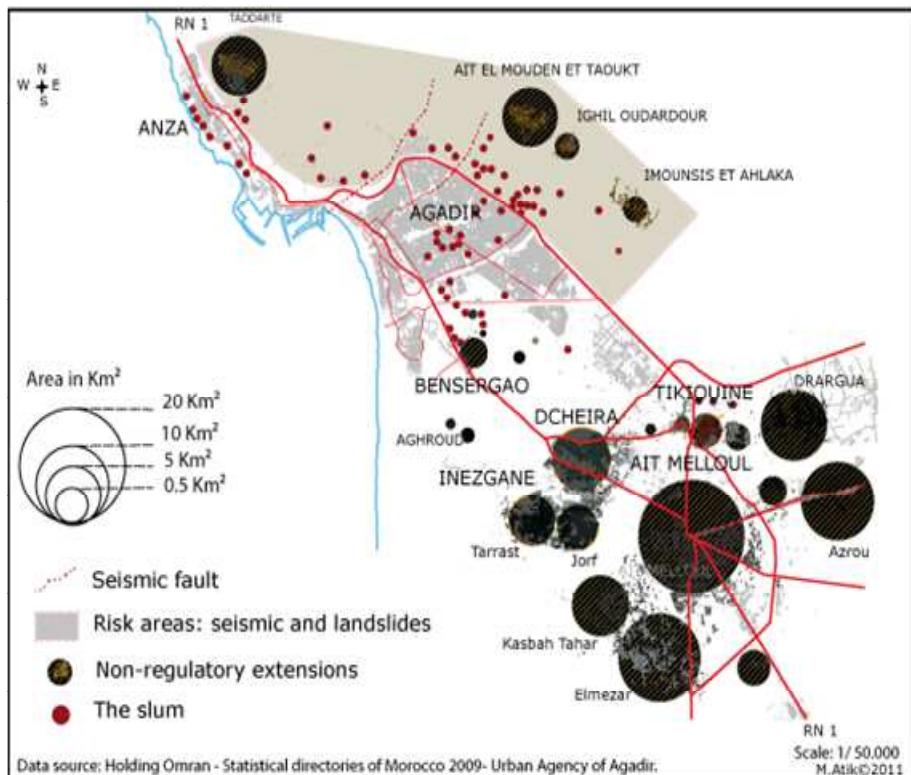


Fig. 6. The illicit urbanization in Agadir in 2004

The analysis of the spatial representation of cities according to their population growth rate between 1960 and 2004, allows us to distinguish two urban forms (*Fig. 6*):

- The urban built-up space: planned and managed urban area (Agadir) with a concentration of facilities, services and employment in well-defined areas in the city of Agadir at the expense of the rest of the agglomeration. The habitat's offer is diverse (subdivision, residences).
- The non-regulatory extensions that cover a variety of forms: from the slum in substandard housing or urban sprawl that contributes to the decrease of agricultural areas (*Fig. 4*). Each form reveals a specific production process and involves actors who act according to a particular logic. The substandard housing is by far the most dominant form, the

most dynamic in its growth and redeployment forms, and the most problematic for interventions which are designed for regularization and urban integration. It infects the peripheral bedroom communities (Inezgane, Dcheira and Tikiouine) who are isolated and poorly equipped (weak equipment, inadequate infrastructure).

In parallel to the development of regulatory planning in Agadir, there is an accelerated proliferation of both types of substandard housing. Firstly the nuclei of slums that are growing rapidly throughout the urban fabric should be mentioned. According to RGPH (1994), 10,331 shacks were counted, representing nearly 18.3% of the urban population; Agadir is the most affected commune with 4,391 shacks, followed by Anza with 3,784 shacks, Bensergao with 2,579 shacks and finally Tikiouine with 552 shacks (*Fig. 7*).

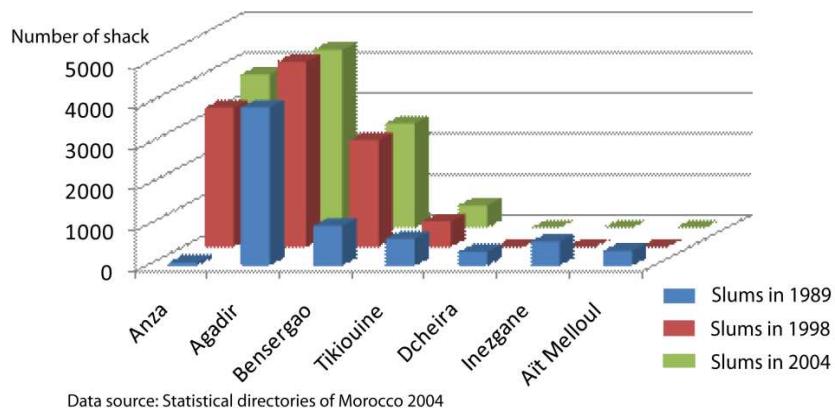


Fig. 7. Evolution of the slums in Agadir between 1989-2004

Moreover, the clandestine habitat areas have expanded away from any regulation or planning, leaving them without any infrastructure equipment. The last ones have 27 clandestine neighbourhoods (the phenomenon has grown very rapidly in the municipality of Agadir especially in peripheral centers (Anza, Tikiouine, Bensergao), along wadi Souss and main roads in the dormitory cities (Inezgane, Aït Melloul, Dcheira)) with a total area of 2,539 hectares on which resident 36,966 households or about 184,000 inhabitants.

3.2. Urban Dynamics: Impact and Dysfunctions

The town of Agadir is a victim of its economic dynamism and of its social and urban development. Also, what is nowadays a major asset and an indicator

of vitality, later becomes a handicap. There are a number of spatial disorders as well as social problems which are already visible and others which are starting to cause problems on the medium to long term. A hazardous urbanization leads to generating under-equipped neighbourhoods that are encroaching in certain places on the agricultural or forest areas (located in random areas sometimes). It also threatens the environmental balance and pollutes groundwater by discharging untreated sewage water. It concentrates an urban and/or suburban proletariat which is open to all ideological influences that are latent or sometimes extremist in their simplistic desire to solve complex socio-economic issues by demagogic equations.

3.2.1. A spatial Segregation which Reflects a Facto Urbanism

The discrepancy is obvious between the objectives of the planning documents and urban reality; the comparison between these two indicates that the planning tools play a more supportive and legitimacy role of a reality that transcends them. This causes many problems: an inconspicuous and disoriented urban space, important misused soil surfaces, large and poorly defined public spaces which are difficult and expensive to maintain. The peripheral areas accuse a lack of functional vitality and an urban atmosphere that reminds of "unfinished business" and an urban sprawl which reveals immense spaces without grace, under-equipped and difficult to manage.

Neighbourhoods are differentiated by their function, morphology and also by their social content (Ben Attou, 2005); specialization of neighbourhoods and spatial discontinuities are very striking in Agadir which offers the image of a city which is deeply missing cohesion and unity. The principle of zoning, which was adopted for developing the plan, has created problems of functional linkage, considering that each zone is excluded and isolated from the others.

The very planned and controlled development of Agadir, the high price of housing and land imposed a new problem to the newcomers and low-wage workers who have found it very difficult to locate housing. Most of them were forced to settle in nearby centres (Bensergao, Tikiouine, Inezgane and Aït Melloul) which are excluded in the development plans from any attempt to be integrated in the new town. The isolation and ignorance of the periphery favoured the development in an anarchic and spontaneous way of the housing and the non-regulatory slums since 1970.

3.2.2. Illegal urbanization in the zones of risk and environmental problems

The environment has been ignored in all development plans, during the reconstruction period and later on, without any concern for integration. The

uncontrolled spatial extensions that were experienced by the city had the effect of mutating the formerly existing original small and medium towns in urban agglomerations. The accelerated development couldn't therefore not be controlled by the city's managers. This is why we find ourselves today in the face of degraded public spaces in a poor urban environment, where the built-up is in a poor condition. A major finding emerges when discussing natural resources. There are great destructive effects that were undergone by the argan forest ecosystem in particular. The argan tree (*Argania Spinosa*) is a tropical species unique to Morocco, which dates back to the Tertiary. This multi-purpose tree (social, economic) that survives at the latitude of Agadir in a desert-like climate is a particularly threatened species today. This phenomenon couldn't be, in any case, explained by a geographical determinism (prolonged drought, decline in the argan forest area, etc.), but through urban sprawl. According to the existing data, the regression of the argan tree has reached 70% of its range of initial occupancy and its disappearance rate would be of about 600 to 1,000 ha/year (*Fig. 6*).

In a landscape dominated by flat plains, basins with steep slopes, the phenomenon of flooding represents a serious threat during heavy rains; including the floods that affect urban areas. During the reconstruction phase, wadi Tildi, Tanaout and Lahouar were abandoned, probably for reasons of cost, causing flooding. For financial reasons among others, many prefer to bury their heads in the sand or to use deceptive improvisations. The few existing dams are insufficient and channelling the wadis causes the activation of violent currents that reinforces the topography of the city. With the proliferation of non-regulatory areas, this natural phenomenon is a significant risk that can cause the loss of human lives and material damage. In Agadir, which is passed by four wadis, we find that the banks are often urbanized without any precautions. The main wadi is Lahouar for which not even the presence of crossing works would not be enough, because of their undersized dimensions. This is amplified by the degradation of vegetation cover upstream, sedimenting in the wadi's beds and their occupancy by buildings and the gradual disappearance of the flood plains (Bailly, 1991) (*Fig. 6*).

The piedmont area is one of the areas that are exposed at a high risk of flooding; this site is located at 300 meters above the sea level in a mountainous topography which is characterized by steep slopes, including depressions and large devastating floods (*Fig. 6*). In addition, the site is vulnerable to risks of landslides such as falling rocks and boulders, sometimes of large sizes, frequently caused by heavy rainfall and the nature of the slopes, but also by earthquakes that are produced by the geological instability of the site. Indeed, the site is classified as a seismic zone and is dangerous because of the proximity of the fault from wadi Lahouar; so building in the area should be forbidden.

Another problem that arises in this environment is the development of chaotic areas and neighborhoods called “shanty towns” that are often located and constructed in areas exposed at risk (unstable land, sloping areas or floodplains). They represent a great threat to human safety. This is apart from their location on seismic zones that are corresponding to faults of tectonic plates, especially for those of them which are located at the foothills (*Fig. 6*).

All these problems favour the risk of social conflicts. Poverty and poor living or “existence” conditions are making difficult to meet many basic needs. Consequently we are experiencing a situation of lack in areas with food resources (nutritional imbalance), health services (lack of access to primary care), education services (no schooling) and the growing of poor housing. Another problem which adds is also the total exclusion and inequality that is exerted by the government (lack of action and fight against poverty). All these are the reasons that can cause social dissensions in these neighborhoods and a conflict that may threaten the peace and the social and economic stability. This is an intolerable situation and a real risk to the environment.

In conclusion, the lack of overall planning and participatory approach, have resulted in failures within the Grand Agadir which have weakened the hinterland and have produced an imbalance between the spaces of this agglomeration; the whole at the expense of a diversified natural potential and as a threat to the environment.

Conclusion

In this paper we combined multi-temporal satellite image processing and other cartographic materials. We tested various methods overseen classification of satellite pictures on data Landsat (TM-ETM +) and on aerial photography. So, the results show a good urban extraction. Several automatic methods were proposed in the literature, but it is difficult to obtain very satisfactory results in each case. Nevertheless, our system constitutes an effective proposal for an application on images satellite with low and middle resolution. These processing allows to map and to highlight the urban spreading, as long as it regards the area and the spatial configuration of the city, with emphasis on the present moment, on its evolution and the spatial configuration during a lapse of time. Maps produced at the end of the classifications are going to direct the inquiries of ground and are intended to analyze better the urban spreading as well at the level of the built-up area or the extension of the urban districts of Grand Agadir. The combination of the various data (cartographic and photographic data) will allow to understand mechanisms and processes of the urban spreading: transformation or conversion of spaces not built, in built spaces, the densification and/or urban extension, the explanatory factors, etc.

The metropolitan area of Agadir has experienced during the 1970-2005 period several strong urban and human pressures under the considerable effects of population and economic growth of the composing centers. This dynamic urban centre starts to pose questions of substance in terms of territorial planning, organization of productive activities and competitiveness. These questions are even more crucial since the emergence of large urban centers is, in the context of globalization, a main determinant of attractiveness. This urbanization is also a powerful vehicle for social transformation and human development of the population. Indeed, by urbanizing, the society is open to new values and multiple mutations. Among the major socio-spatial mutations that the territory of Agadir has experienced in recent years, urbanization has been arguably one of the most striking. If this change has created significant potential for stimulating the economy, equipment and modernization of the city, it also raised many new challenges: infrastructure provision, housing production in sufficient quantity, the accumulation of poverty, degradation of the natural environment, the magnitude of the collective costs in cities, the limits of traditional regulation in urban management.

REFERENCES

- Ait Hssaine, A. (2000), „Agadir dans son environnement physique”, in *Acte du colloque sur l'agglomération du grand Agadir*, University of Ibnou Zohr; pp. 107-116.
- Abdellaoui, A., A. Rougab (1994), „Intégration de données multisources pour l'étude d'un paysage urbain: cas de l'agglomération blidéenne (Algérie)”, in *Actes de la 6e Conférence canadienne sur les SIG*, 4-10 june 1994, Ottawa (Ontario), Ressources Naturelles Canada, vol. 1, pp. 1479-1487.
- Abdellaoui, A., A. Rougab (1995), „Caractérisation de la réponse du bâti: application au complexe urbain de Blida (Algérie)”, in *Télédétection des milieux urbains et périurbains, Actes des Vle Journées scientifiques du Réseau Télédétection de l'AUPELF / UREF*, 2-5 october 1995, Liège (Belgium), pp. 75-83.
- Abdellaoui, A. (2009), „Potentialité de l'imagerie satellitaire moyenne résolution pour le suivi du transport de sable en milieu oasien”, *Séminaire international « Dynamiques des paysages et télodetection: aspects environnementaux et développement durable »*, Manouba, Tunisie, 9-11 june 2009, to appear in conference's proceedings.
- Ackermann, G., O. Tournaire, C. Mering (2004), „Étude de l'extension du bâti sur le littoral sénégalais à partir des paramètres texturaux de Haralick”, *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, no 173/174, pp.104-112.
- Bailly, A. (1991), „La géographie des risques naturels”, in Bailly *et al*, *Les concepts de la géographie humaine*, 2nd edition, Paris, Masson, 1991, pp.182.
- Bianchin, A., L. BRAVIN (2004), „Reproductibilité des procédures d'extraction de l'espace urbain”, *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, no 173/174, pp. 93-103.
- Benblidia, N., A. Abdellaoui, A. Guessoum, A. Bensaïd (2006), „Utilisation de la morphologie mathématique pour l'analyse de l'occupation de l'espace en zones urbaines et périurbaines présahariennes: cas de Laghouat (Algérie)”, in *Revue Télédétection*, vol. 6, no 2, pp. 177-190

- Ben Attou, M. (2005), „Agadir les contrastes socio-spatiaux d'une ville reconstruite” in „*Villes arabes en mouvement*”, Cahier n° 18 du Groupe de Recherche sur le Maghreb et le Moyen-Orient, Laboratoire SEDETCNRS, Publication l'Harmattan, pp. 165-194.
- Bres, S., J. M. Jolion, F. Lebourgeois (2003), *Traitemet et analyse des images numériques*, Lavoisier, Hermès, 410 p.
- Chopin, F., C. Mering (2004), „Cartographie de la densité du bâti par analyse granulométrique des images de télédétection”, *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, n° 173/174, pp. 113-122.
- Cheref M. (January 1994), „Agadir une ville orpheline de son passé: mesurer le présent, stimuler le futur”, in *Acte du colloque sur l'agglomération du grand Agadir*, University of Inbnou Zohr; pp. 167-180.
- Civco, D., J. Hurd (1997), „Impervious Surface Rnapping for the State of Connecticut”, in *Proceedings of the ASPRS/ACSM Annual Convention*, Seattle, Washington, pp. 124-135.
- Faure, J. F., A. Tran, A. Gardel, L. Polidori (2004), „Elaboration d'un indice de densité de population et analyse de sa distribution spatiale à Belem (Bresil) et Cayenne (Guyane Française)”, *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, no 173/174, pp.135-144; America, Institut de Recherche sur l'Environnement Construit, EPFL, 1994, 31 p.
- Gadal, S. (2003), *L'identification des formes spatiales de métropolisation par télédétection*, Éditions Ératosthène, Lausanne.
- Gong, P., J. Howarth (1990), „The Use of Structural Information for Improving Land-Cover Classification Accuracies at the Rural-Urban Fringe”, *Photogrammetric Engineering & Remote Sensing*, vol. 56, no 1, pp. 67-73.
- Harris, P., S. Ventura (1995), „The Integration of Geographic Data with Remotely Sensed Imagery to Improve Classification in an Urban Area”, *Photogrammetrie Engineering & Remote Sensing*, vol. 61, no, 8, pp. 993-998.
- Im, J., J. R. Jensen (2005), „Change Detection Using Correlation Analysis and Decision Tree Classification,” *Remote Sensing of Environment*, vol. 99, pp. 326-340.
- Jensen, J. R. (1996), „Introductory Digital Image Processing – A Remote Sensing Perspective”, 2nd edition, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River (N.J.), 316 p.
- Moller-Jensen, L. (1990), „Knowledge-Based Classification of an Urban Area Using Texture and Context Information in Landsat-TM Imagery”, *Photogrammetric Engineering and Remote Sensing*, vol. 56, no 6, pp. 899-904.
- Puissant, A., C. Weber (2004), „Démarche orientée objets-attributs et classification d'images. THRS”, *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, no 173/174, pp. 123-134.
- Soille, P. (1999), *Morphological Image Analysis*, Springer-Verlag, Berlin-Heidelberg, 316 p.
- Sietchiping, R. (2003), „Évolution de l'espace urbain de Yaoundé, au Cameroun, entre 1973 et 1988 par télédétection”, *Teledetection*, vol. 3, no 2-4, pp. 229-236.
- Skupinski, G., D. Binh Tran, C. Weber (2009), „Les images satellites Spot multi-dates et la métrique spatiale dans l'étude du changement urbain et suburbain – Le cas de la basse vallée de la Bruche (Bas-Rhin, France)”, *Cybergéo, Revue Européenne de Géographie*, no 439, 22 p.
- Stanford, S., M. Phinn, P. Scarth, A. Murray, P. Shy (2002), „Monitoring the Composition of Urban Environments Based on the Vegetation-Impervious Surface-Soil (VIS) Model by Subpixel Analysis Techniques”, *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, vol. 23, pp. 4131-4153.
- Stefanov, W., M. Ramsey, P. Christensen (2001), „Monitoring Urban Land Cover Change: An Expert System Approach to Land Cover Classification of Semiarid to Arid Urban Centers”, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, vol. 77, pp. 173-185.
- Voiron, C. (1995), *Analyse spatiale et Analyse d'images*, Edition Espaces Modes d'Emploi.
- Weng, Q, D. Lu (2004), „Spectral Mixture Analysis of the Urban Landscape in Indianapolis with Landsat ETM+ Imagery”, *Photogrammetrie Engineering & Remote Sensing*, vol. 70, no 9, pp. 1053- 1062.

- Weber, C. (2001), „Remote Sensing Data Used for Urban Delimitation”, in *Remote Sensing and Urban Analysis*, sous la direction de J. P. Donnay, M. J. Barnsley and P. A. Longley, Taylor and Francis, London, pp. 155-167.
- Zha, Y., J. Gao, S. NI (2003), „Use of Normalized Difference Built-Up Index in Automatically Mapping Urban Areas from TM Imagery”, *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, vol. 24, no 3, pp. 583-594.

LE PATRIMOINE MARITIME. ÉTUDES DE CAS EN EUROPE

**FLORENTINA-CRISTINA MERCIU¹,
ANDREEA-LORETA CERCLEUX¹**

Le patrimoine maritime représente une catégorie particulière du patrimoine culturel qui s'individualise par des éléments matériels ou immatériels liés aux activités humaines qui ont été déroulées en relation avec les ressources et les milieux maritimes. Le but de cette étude est de mettre en évidence les caractéristiques du patrimoine maritime au niveau du territoire européen par une sélection de quelques études de cas considérées représentatives. La diversité des conditions physico-géographiques et la particularité des cultures locales ont donné le caractère de diversité du patrimoine maritime des pays européens.

Mots clés : patrimoine maritime, phares, musées maritimes, paysages côtiers.

Introduction

Dans la conception de l'auteur Pereira (2009), le patrimoine maritime est défini comme « la totalité des manifestations liées à l'activité maritime et développées pendant le temps par les communautés du littoral, manifestations qui sont encadrées au paysage de côte et de l'environnement marin, celui-ci faisant partie du patrimoine naturel [...] Le patrimoine maritime comprend aussi les bâtiments comme objets ou créations immatérielles : les ports, les signaux maritimes, les maisons des marins, les bateaux, les instruments de pêche, les traditions populaires, les techniques maritimes [...]. A tout cela s'ajoutent les relations créées le long du temps par les gens de la mer : culturelles, techniques, de production, commerciales, sociales » (p. 16).

Schmit et Lemarchand (2005) définissent le patrimoine maritime comme étant l'ensemble des éléments matériels ou immatériels liés aux activités humaines et qui ont été développées dans le passé, plus récemment ou plus lointain, en relation avec les ressources et les milieux maritimes. Ces éléments sont reconnus par les groupes sociaux comme leur propre héritage, digne d'être transmis aux futures générations.

La complexité du patrimoine maritime est reflétée par les nombreux éléments qui entrent dans sa structure, ceux-ci étant en relation avec le milieu

¹ Université de Bucarest, Centre Interdisciplinaire de Recherches Avancées sur la Dynamique Territoriale (C.I.C.A.D.I.T.); krysten1009@yahoo.com.

naturel (de côte) ainsi qu'avec celui transformé par l'homme. Dans ce sens, Pereira (2009) divise les biens du patrimoine maritime en deux catégories : le patrimoine naturel (l'écosystème marin et le paysage littoral) et la culture matérielle et immatérielle.

La culture matérielle comprend :

- les biens culturels immeubles : l'architecture industrielle représentée par les établissements économiques développés dans la zone de littoral, les domaines de l'aquaculture, l'architecture vernaculaire, l'architecture portuaire, les édifices urbains en relation aux activités maritimes (pêcheries, douanes), les phares, l'architecture militaire (les unités militaires du littoral), l'architecture religieuse, les cimetières marins, l'infrastructure touristique, etc.
- les biens culturels meubles : les outils de pêche, les instruments de navigation, tous les types d'embarcations (le patrimoine flottant) etc.

La culture immatérielle comprend les biens culturels immatériels : les traditions populaires, le folklore, les costumes, la gastronomie, toutes en relation à la zone de côte, la toponymie côtière et l'hydro-toponymie etc.

La valeur patrimoniale des paysages de littoral est un thème extrêmement sensible à analyser. Les paysages de littoral souffrent des mutations brutales fonctionnelles (Péron, 2009).

Les éléments de patrimoine maritime sont soumis à des risques qui peuvent influencer leur degré de conservation suite au déroulement dans le milieu aquatique d'autres types d'activités économiques (pêche, industrie en général, y compris l'industrie touristique, les activités sportives avec rôle d'agrément : plongées sous-marines, scuba-diving) (Negueruela, 2000). Alors, des projets qui garantissent la conservation, la protection et la restauration des éléments de patrimoine maritime naturel, ainsi que culturel-historique deviennent nécessaires (Péron, 2009). La relation entre le paysage côtier et le développement touristique soutenable nécessite une attention spéciale concentrée sur les conséquences que l'activité touristique peut produire du point de vue économique, socioculturel, environnemental et territorial. Les effets négatifs du développement du tourisme dans les zones de côte peuvent être limités grâce à une vision holistique de la complexité des problèmes du paysage côtier qui suppose une forte relation entre la mise en valeur et les caractéristiques environnementales des zones de littoral avec une active conservation, garantissant en même temps le développement des communautés locales (Calcagno, 2008).

La particularité des ressources touristiques naturelles et anthropiques de l'espace maritime a attiré une circulation touristique depuis les temps anciens, les auteurs Punzo et Usai considérant le tourisme maritime comme étant le plus ancien tourisme de masse. Le tourisme de masse peut être vu comme un des facteurs qui gèrent une pression anthropique intense sur l'espace maritime. En

2000, les zones côtières de France, Espagne, Italie ont reçu 64% des flux totaux touristiques des zones côtières méditerranéennes, étant ainsi la première destination touristique au niveau mondial (Bennoit, Comeau, 2005, cités par Salizzoni, 2012, p. 208); la plus grande partie de la demande touristique est corrélée aux services balnéaires. A coté du tourisme balnéaire, l'écotourisme enregistre dans les zones de côte une croissance de la demande touristique due à l'attractivité du paysage côtier (Salizzoni, 2012).

Au-delà de l'attractivité que la mer produit, s'ajoute une série d'éléments de culture matérielle de la zone maritime qui indiquent des anciennes civilisations créées dans ce cadre géographique, parmi les plus favorables, fait qui est expliqué aujourd'hui par la grande densité des populations des zones de littoral.

Heureusement, il y a des documents comme La Charte Sofia de l'ICOMOS et les initiatives de l'UNESCO qui déterminent les pays à être plus conscientes de leur important héritage maritime et de la valeur de la préservation non-altérée (Negueruela, 2000).

Les phares des zones côtières, par leurs formes et dimensions, ne sont pas très différents de l'architecture fortifiée. Pourtant, la particularité de leur fonction, celle de garantir un système de communication, justifie à l'heure actuelle les réutilisations à différents buts, autres que les buts pour lesquels les phares ont été créés : de contrôler le territoire et la mer, de signaler l'apparition du danger et secondairement de défense - symboles de la sécurité (Bartolomei, 2005, p. 22), certains étant équipés avec des moyens d'artillerie modeste (Naldini, Taddei, 2003). Les auteurs Naldini et Taddei (2003) mentionnent que le système de communication de la zone de côte de la région italienne Toscane, très bien élaboré, avait des connexions jusqu'à Gênes et la partie nord de la France, et dans le sud jusqu'au Royaume de Naples, se continuant aussi à l'intérieur de la zone de Florence et Bologne.

Les phares de la zone de côte sont à présent des éléments de patrimoine maritime de grande attractivité touristique. Leurs formes et modalités de construction les recommandent comme pièces architectoniques durables, surtout à celles qui ont une histoire et âge considérable. Ce fait est en relation avec les matériaux utilisés en principal à leur construction : pierre et brique. Le choix d'un matériel de construction résistant à la construction des tours des zones côtières s'explique par la garantie d'une plus importante durabilité contre l'action de la solution marine de l'eau, ainsi que par l'existence des vents très forts de la zone de côte, s'utilisant même l'habillage de la brique en chaux pour la protéger (Naldini, Taddei, 2003).

Les phares marins représentent une petite partie du patrimoine maritime, moins connue et étudiée. Dans l'opinion de l'auteur Bartolomei C. (2005), les phares représentent une ressource historique et culturelle pour le patrimoine architectural d'un pays, ainsi que pour le paysage côtier de chaque région.

L’importance culturelle des éléments de patrimoine maritime a déterminé l’aménagement des musées de profil, représentant toutefois une forme de conservation des ceux-ci. Les musées maritimes font appel à différents types de connaissances. Celles-ci incluent connaissance « scientifique », concernant des sujets comme l’archéologie marine et industrielle ou les histoires de cartographie, chronométrie et navigation, écologie humaine et économie (Taylor, 2012, p. 401).

Catégorie particulière des musées historiques, le musée maritime est accompagné par des problèmes de patrimoine avec valeur d’exploration dans l’avenir, dans la lumière de nouveaux concepts liés à l’identité locale et nationale (Beneki, Delgado, Filippoupoliti, 2012, p. 357).

Méthodologie

La recherche a eu à la base la sélection de plusieurs études de cas représentatives pour la mise en lumière de la typologie variée des ressources culturelles associées au patrimoine maritime (anciennes citadelles localisées dans la zone de côte, musées navals, ports commerciaux, éléments de patrimoine industriel localisés dans la zone de littoral, divers types d’habitations spécifiques). Les études de cas ont été sélectionnées en différentes locations de l’espace Européen (France, Italie, Espagne, Portugal, Malte) et analysées en étapes successives dans le cadre des sorties sur le terrain déroulées pendant la période 2010-2013. Des enregistrements photographiques ont été réalisés pour une série de bâtiments historiques de valeur pour le patrimoine maritime de chaque pays.

Résultats

Le patrimoine maritime de la France

En France, il y a un nombre important de fédérations et d’associations créés dans le but de la préservation du patrimoine maritime. Par exemple, la Fédération Régionale pour la Culture et le Patrimoine Maritimes (FRCPM), qui fonctionne depuis 1986, coordonne plusieurs actions de recherche, conservation, restauration et animation du patrimoine maritime dans la région de Nord-Pas de Calais. Au cours du temps, la fédération a aidé au développement d’un nombre important de musées et manifestations maritimes et même à l’ouverture en 2008 du Centre Technique du Patrimoine Maritime de la Côte d’Opale qui a eu à la base l’idée de restaurer les anciens bateaux de travail locaux.

La France a un nombre impressionnant de phares qui cachent derrière des histoires intéressantes et qui appartiennent à des périodes différentes, présentant

ainsi des styles architecturaux distincts. Le plus connu phare de France est le Phare d'Ar-Men, avec une hauteur de 37 mètres. Son édification, commencée en 1860, a duré plusieurs décennies.

Le nombre total des phares en France s'élève à environ 400 phares : Côte Atlantique – 77 ; Bretagne – 66 ; Corse – 25 ; La Manche – 64 ; La Méditerranée – 86 ; La Mer d'Iroise – 63. Les plus anciens phares français se trouvent sur les côtes charentaises et l'estuaire de la Gironde.

Le phare Chassiron de l'Île d'Oléron

Situé dans la commune de Saint-Denis d'Oléron, dans une zone appelée « le Bout du Monde », le phare est à présent dans la gestion touristique de la commune (depuis 1999). Après sa réhabilitation en 2007, le site a changé complètement : un musée a été aménagé au premier étage du phare, les jardins ont été réorganisés et la maison des gardiens du phare a été rénovée, abritant aujourd'hui des expositions temporaires et des ateliers pédagogiques destinés à faire découvrir les richesses du milieu marin. La visite du musée propose un parcours spectacle qui a pour thème « les gens de la côte entre terre et mer » et comprend des objets authentiques, des maquettes explicatives, des films et des témoignages. Les présentations reposent sur l'identité locale : les types de pêche traditionnelle, le maraîchage et la viticulture. De plus, la visite du phare offre : un panorama exceptionnel sur les îles, la côte et la pleine mer ; visites des écluses à poissons ; promenades sur les falaises ; la découverte de son environnement grâce à différents types de visites guidées sur le thème de l'environnement marin et de l'histoire de la pointe de Chassiron.

Le phare de Chassiron (*Fig. 1*), dans la forme qu'on voit à l'heure actuelle a été construit en 1834 et mis en service en 1836, après que l'ancienne tour (Colbert) n'était plus assez efficace pour faire face au trafic maritime qui augmentait avec les années.

L'éclairage du phare a évolué dans le temps, à la fin du XIX^{ème} siècle une usine à gaz étant construite à côté du phare. A l'heure actuelle, le phare est électrifié, mais auparavant celui-ci a fonctionné ayant à la base de l'huile de colza, des huiles minérales et du gaz d'acétylène.

En ce qui concerne l'image du phare qui compte 224 marches, celle-ci n'a pas changé du point de vue architecturel, qu'en termes de couleur : si avant 1926 le phare était tout blanc, après cette année trois bandes noires ont été peintes dans le but de le différencier d'un autre phare situé dans les voisnages et d'éviter ainsi les accidents survenus suite aux difficultés de distinction. Les matériaux de construction utilisés ont été représentés par : des pierres et du sable des zones les plus proches; du granit de Vendée ; du bois de chêne de

Hollande et de sapin rouge de Prusse et de Finlande; du plomb de Hollande et du fer du Berry pour la serrurerie.



Fig. 1. Le phare Chassiron de l'Ile d'Oléron

Le patrimoine maritime de l'Italie

Vénice

L’histoire de l’Arsenal de Vénice se mélange et se confond avec la création de la République Vénitienne, le plus grand pouvoir naval de l’Europe pendant 800 ans. L’année de la construction de l’Arsenal de Vénice est 1104 (Casoni, 1847 & Veludo, 1868 cités par Concina, 1984, p. 24). L’arsenal avait une structure administrative permanente composée par des nobles vénitiens et un office comptable de 1223 (Concina, 1984, p. 9). L’ancien arsenal est délimité par un mûr en forme régulée (*Fig. 2a*), utilisé comme fortification pour protéger la zone portuaire. L’arsenal était lié avec la lagune par un canal artificiel.

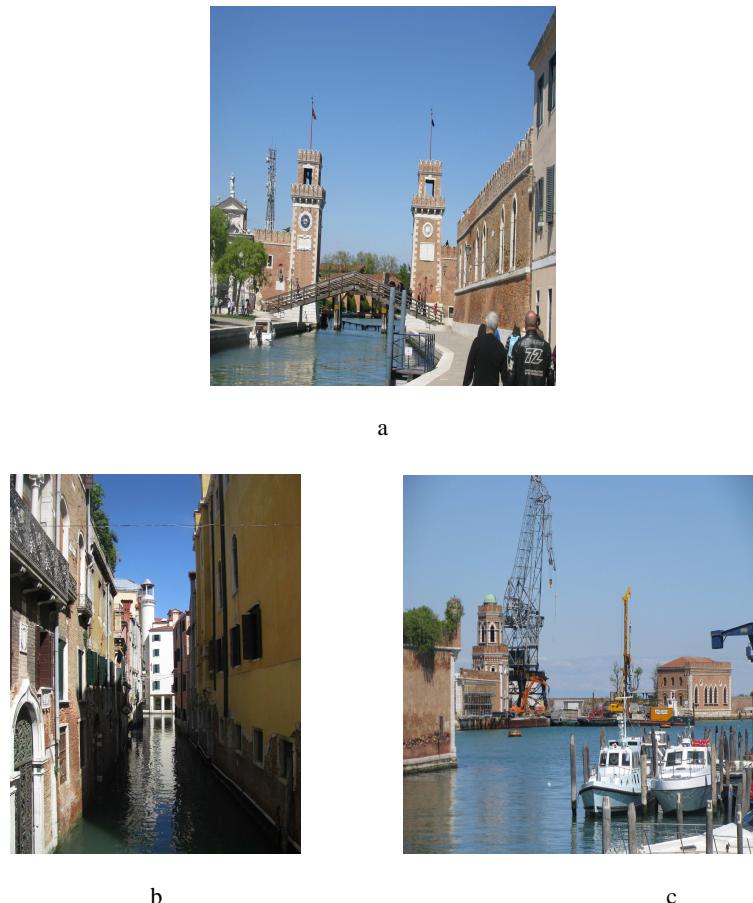


Fig. 2. Éléments de patrimoine maritime à Vénice : a) La porte de l'ancien arsenal ; b) Un canal à l'intérieur de la ville ; c) Le chantier naval.

A côté de l'infrastructure portuaire (*Fig. 2c*), dans le voisinage de l'arsenal a été construit le grand complexe des dépôts de sel (un des produits de base qui ont contribué au développement économique de la ville) et le siège de la bourse de marchandises (avec une localisation favorable au carrefour du Grand Canal avec le Canal Giudecca, transformée à l'heure actuelle en centre d'art contemporaine).

A l'heure actuelle, Vénice est une des villes touristiques les plus visitées au niveau mondial pour ses éléments de patrimoine maritime (*Fig. 2b*) dont la valeur culturelle et architecturale ont déterminé l'inscription de la ville et de la lagune depuis 1979 dans le patrimoine mondial par l'UNESCO. En 2019, l'Italie proposera plusieurs options pour la candidature de logement de l'événement de la capitale culturelle européenne, une des propositions faisant référence à Vénice.

Naples

L’usine sidérurgique Ilva di Bagnoli (Naples), mise en fonction entre 1907-1910, a fermé ses portes entre 1990-1992. Celle-ci représente une des deux grandes usines (à cycle intégral) situées dans la zone de côte de l’Italie (avec celle de Piombino) et une des plus grandes de l’Europe (Vitale, 2008).

La réutilisation de l’ancienne zone sidérurgique côtière a été prévue sous la forme d’un parc urbain, une partie de l’infrastructure et les bâtiments industriels étant gardés (le haut four, la digue du nord de la zone industrielle qui a été élargie pour être transformée en promenade piéton au quota de 8,50 m sous le niveau de la mer représente un des premiers aménagements du parc). La promenade a été mise en fonction en décembre 2005 et à présent a une longueur de 580 m. Avant, celle-ci passait sur le chemin routier le long du littoral par un pont, aujourd’hui bien conservé, et entrait dans la mer grâce à deux sections longues, la première d’une largeur de 7,7 m, sur laquelle il y avait un chemin routier et une seule ligne ferroviaire, et la deuxième avec une largeur de 19 m où les navires débarquaient et leur charge était prise par une grue.

La localisation dans la zone de côte du complexe sidérurgique a été due au fait qu’initialement l’alimentation avec ressources primaires se réalisait de l’Île d’Elbe. L’activité extractive liée à la présence des réserves de fer de l’Île d’Elbe s’est déroulée sur une longue période de temps (les premières exploitations ont commencé pendant l’antiquité), contribuant de façon significative à l’augmentation des revenus modestes obtenus de l’agriculture et des activités traditionnelles maritimes pratiquées par la population locale (Cresti et al., 1993, p. 130). Un moment important pour l’activité minière de l’île viendra à la fin des années 1900 quand une infrastructure industrielle pour la mise en valeur du fer dans les unités sidérurgiques sera réalisée. Ainsi, un puissant noyau industriel apparaîtra dans la zone de côte, de la région Toscane (Piombino), ainsi que de celle dominée par Naples (Bagnoli). Sept gisements de charbon alimentaient les unités sidérurgiques (Cresti et al., 1933, p. 130).

Livourne

Certains établissements industriels des zones maritimes connaissent une histoire riche pareillement qu’au niveau des zones de terre. Un exemple est représenté par la ville de Livourne située dans la zone de côte de l’ouest de l’Italie. L’influence des familles « fondatrices de villes », prenant en considération le rôle très important que celles-ci aient eu dans la construction de nombreuses villes, certaines impressionnant même aujourd’hui par leurs objectifs culturels, se reflète à présent dans la ville de Livourne. La ville a été construite pendant la Renaissance italienne à l’initiative du Grand-duc de Medici et s’est concrétisé

par le talent de l'architecte Bernard Buontalenti à la fin du XVI^{ème} siècle. Celle-ci se remarque par une zone portuaire bien développée, dans sa partie moderne ainsi qu'ancienne, dont le nom a été donné par la famille qui l'a créée, la famille de Medici. L'ancien port, incorporé dans la structure du nouveau port, qui s'est développé de façon continue suite à l'activité commerciale intense, comporte des empreintes d'ordre culturel, qui retiennent l'attention par leur histoire et la technique de construction. La citadelle de défense située dans l'ancienne partie du port est à présent dans une forme beaucoup moins conservée, mais transmet loin de ses murs la beauté d'autrefois (Fig. 3). Même si c'est incorporé au nouveau port, Le Port Mediceo est une présence qui attire les vues et qui transmet l'histoire riche de la ville. Le statut de *porto franco* (port libre sans taxes), acquis en 1580, a représenté un facteur d'importance majeure dans le développement économique de la ville par la facilitation d'une activité commerciale intensive, devenant un des plus importants ports de la zone méditerranéenne. En 1606, Fernando de Medici élève Livourne au rang de ville.

En même temps, le chantier Orlando de Livourne est une présence digne de prendre en considération, dont l'origine s'inscrit dans la période Garibaldi et présente nombreuses pièces de patrimoine industriel maritime (Cresti *et al.*, 1993, p. 114).

Si on fait référence au patrimoine architecturale de la ville, on peut mentionner le quartier Vénice qui garde une grande partie de son aspect original, comme par exemple: les ponts, les passages étroits, les maisons de nobles, un réseau dense de canaux (construits au XVII^{ème} siècle) qui liaient au passé les dépôts de l'intérieur de la ville avec la zone portuaire (c'est pour cela que cette zone est connue aussi comme la Petite Vénice (Fig. 4).



Fig. 3. La citadelle de la zone maritime – Livourne



Fig. 4. Le quartier Vénice – Livourne

La Spezia

Située à la mer Ligurienne, La Spezia est un des ports principaux militaires et commerciaux de l'Italie, abritant l'arsenal de la marine italienne. La Spezia a connu un développement extraordinaire à partir de la deuxième moitié du XIX^{ème} siècle grâce à son rôle militaire. A la fin de la deuxième guerre mondiale, La Spezia a été le point de départ pour les survivants des camps de concentration nazis (plus de 23.000 juifs ont quitté de façon clandestine l'Italie pour aller au Palestine).

Son développement comme port militaire a déterminé dans le temps l'apparition de l'Institut d'Etudes Marines Militaires (inauguré en 1908 sous le nom du Centre Supérieur Naval de Marine Italienne, le premier de ce type de l'Italie), qui avait le rôle de garantir la préparation militaire en ce qui concerne l'art et la technique militaire navale. En 1921, par décret royal sera ouvert le nouveau centre d'études qui déroulera son activité à partir de 1922 dans l'Académie Navale de Livourne sous l'appellation de l'Institut de Guerre Maritime. A partir de 1999, suite à la réorganisation générale des commandes et des structures de la Marine, ainsi que pour consolider le statut de Vénice comme pôle culturel, l'institut sera transféré de Livourne à Vénice et portera de nouveau le nom de l'Institut d'Etudes Militaires Maritimes.

Parmi les objectifs culturels de la ville, on peut mentionner le Musée technique naval (inauguré en 1924) qui depuis l'entrée attire l'attention sur son profile grâce à un mosaïque qui rappelle des navigateurs antiques ; à droite, se trouve une collection de deux amphores romaines et à gauche le modèle de la

frégate Savoie San Michel. La visite du musée représente une incursion dans l'histoire de la marine militaire italienne, différents objets étant exposés (maquettes de navire et frégates, différents types d'armes, torpilles, bombes, bombardiers) (*Fig. 5 a, b, c*).



Fig. 5. a, b, c – Objets du Musée technique naval – La Spezia

Un élément de patrimoine industriel est représenté par l'ancien siège de l'unité industrielle de construction des navires, aujourd'hui non-fonctionnelle, abandonnée et en dégradation.

Dans le Golfe La Spezia se trouve un archipel formé de trois îles, dont Palmaria a la plus grande surface (1,8 km²) et sur le territoire de laquelle il y a plusieurs bâtiments à caractère militaire et d'intérêt historique. Le Fort du Comte Cavour (Le Fort Palmaria) est une zone militaire ancêtre, utilisée à présent comme centre expérimental pour l'éducation environnementale et comme centre de signal visuel. On ajoute la Tour Umberto le I^{er} utilisée pendant la deuxième guerre mondiale comme prison militaire et rénovée il y a quelques années. Autres objectifs culturels associés au patrimoine maritime sont : les bunkers de la deuxième guerre mondiale et les restes d'artillerie de côte. Il est à remarquer aussi la présence, dans la partie de sud de l'île, d'une carrière de marbre noir abandonnée et appelée Pozzale. Cette carrière est intéressante grâce à la présence du marbre noir avec des traces d'or. A l'heure actuelle, on peut constater les restes des outillages utilisés pour disloquer et transporter les blocs de marbre, ainsi que les maisons des mineurs.

L'archipel, ensemble avec Porto Venere et Cinque Terre, ont été inclus sur la liste de l'Unesco reposant sur le considèrent que la partie de l'est de la rivière ligurienne représente un site culturel d'une valeur culturelle exceptionnelle, une interaction harmonieuse entre les gens et la nature suite à laquelle un paysage qui illustre de façon pittoresque la vie traditionnelle a été entraîné, qui existe depuis plus de 1.000 ans et continue à jouer un rôle important dans la vie socio-économique de la communauté locale.

Le patrimoine maritime de l'Espagne et Portugal

L'histoire maritime de l'Espagne et de Portugal a un rôle central dans l'histoire de la zone méditerranéenne, européenne et mondiale, depuis l'antiquité et jusqu'à présent. Le développement le long du temps de l'espace destiné aux activités maritimes de la Péninsule Ibérique, aux techniques de navigation, à l'architecture navale, à l'art militaire et au commerce ont contribué de façon significative à l'expansion européenne dans le monde, marquant le rencontre et le contact avec d'autres civilisations méditerranéennes et au delà des océans (Ruiz, Navarro, 2008, p. 7). En Espagne, 41 musées dédiés au patrimoine maritime ont été aménagés, dont deux dans l'espace insulaire : Mallorca et Ibiza. Il y a aussi 5 centres de recherche dans le domaine de l'archéologie subaquatique et 4 centres d'archives. En Portugal, il y a huit musés dédiés au patrimoine maritime et un Centre national d'archéologie nautique et subaquatique (Ruiz, Navarro, 2008, p.18-19). Le management des musées dédiés au patrimoine maritime de l'Espagne et Portugal n'est pas limité qu'à la simple exposition taxonomique des collections, mais offre aussi une interprétation historique du patrimoine pour faciliter aux visiteurs la connaissance de la signification de ces éléments de culture matérielle (Ruiz, Navarro, 2008, p. 9).

Valence

La ville de Valence, capitale de la communauté autonome homonyme, a été fondée par les romains comme une colonie militaire et ultérieurement a été conquise par les maures. Valence est le plus grand port de la côte ouest méditerranéenne de l'Espagne, garantissant 20% des exportations. Le long des années, le commerce maritime a joué un rôle important dans le développement de la ville.

A l'heure actuelle, on observe à côté de l'ancienne zone portuaire (*Fig. 6*), dont la construction a commencé en 1483, le nouveau port (*Fig. 7*) construit d'après les plans de l'architecte Santiago Calatrava auquel on doit aussi la Ville des Sciences et de l'Art. Le nouveau port a été construit à l'occasion du concours de yachting La coupe de l'Amérique.



Fig. 6. L'ancien port



Fig. 7. L'autorité portuaire de Valence

La réorganisation de la zone de nord de l'ancien port La marina Real Juan Carlos le 1^{er} pour la compétition sportive de 2007, située au nord du port commercial et le long de la plage Malvarrosa, a signifié l'aménagement d'un espace important pour les activités de récréation (un cinéma en plein air et une scène de concert). Dans l'avenir seront projetées également des activités culturelles. Cependant, à l'intérieur du port a été aménagé un Musée de l'histoire de la Coupe de l'Amérique.

Porto

Porto est la deuxième ville comme surface et importance de Portugal, étant située le long de la rivière Douro, près de la côte de l'Océan Atlantique. La ville est devenue un important centre industriel entre XVIII^{ème} et XIX^{ème} siècles. La ville se remarque par une série de bâtiments avec une architecture spéciale comme par exemple : la bourse de marchandises (*Fig. 8*), l'université, les maisons spécifiques à la zone (*Fig. 9*) et la gare (une des plus belles de l'Europe et construite par l'architecte Gustave Eiffel ; œuvres du même architecte sont aussi les deux ponts en acier : Luiz le I^{er} (*Fig. 10*) et Maria Pia). La ville est très connue pour le renommé vin de Porto, nombreuses caves étant présentes et où on peut déguster différentes variétés de vin (dans la ville-sœur Vila Nova de Gaia, située sur l'autre côté de la rivière Douro). Les caves sont devenues une attraction touristique majeure.



Fig. 8. Le palais de la bourse des marchandises



Fig. 9. Maisons spécifiques à la zone

Fig. 10. Le pont Luiz le I^{er}

Le patrimoine maritime de Malte

Un pays avec une histoire riche (colonisée par les phéniciens, colonie carthaginaise conquise par le romains et ultérieurement conquise successivement par les arabes, les normandes, les siciliens, les français et les espagnols), Malte enchantera ses visiteurs par une variété d'objectifs culturels partant des temples mégalithiques de néolithique et arrivant aux citadelles du littoral, objectifs religieux (L'Eglise Our Lady of Victories) etc. On mentionne le Fort Sant Angelo (*Fig. 11*) Forum St. Elmo, le Musée de la Guerre et le Musée maritime. Malte détient aussi un riche patrimoine naturel : les falaises, la succession de golfes plus ou moins larges avec des plages et les paysages karstiques (La Grotte Bleue et la Fenêtre Bleue).



Fig. 11. Fort Sant Angelo



Fig. 12. Valetta

Conclusion

Le patrimoine maritime comprend plusieurs dimensions (culturelle, sociale et économique), conférant sens aux territoires de côte les plus anciens et représentant également des éléments d'identité collective des populations locales et d'attractivité pour les visiteurs.

En même temps, l'espace côtier représente une des plus sensibles zones qui ont souffert les plus brutales mutations fonctionnelles (effets directs des activités économiques), les dernières années étant signalée de plus en plus l'importance de la mise en œuvre des mesures actives de protection et conservation des paysages littoraux. Dans ce sens, des mesures de préservation du patrimoine maritime naturel et culturel-historique s'imposent.

Le patrimoine maritime européen attire l'attention pas seulement par la diversité des composantes matérielles et immatérielles, mais aussi par leur âge et histoire, fait qui a déterminé l'inclusion de quelques unes dans le patrimoine mondial.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- Bartolomei, C. (2005), *L'architettura dei Fari Italiani / The Architecture of Italian Lighthouse*, Alinea Editrice, Firenze.
- Beneki, E., J. P. Delgado, A. Filippoupoliti (2012), „Memory in the Maritime Museums: Objects, Narratives, Identities”, *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, vol. 18, no. 4, pp. 347-351.
- Calcagno, M. A. (2008), *Paesaggio costiero, sviluppo turistico sostenibile*, Gangemi Editore, Roma.
- Concina, E. (1984), *L'arsenale della Repubblica di Venezia*, Electra Editrice, Milano.
- Cresti, C., M. Lungolini, L. Rombai, I. Tognarini (1993), *Luoghi e immagini dell'industria Toscana. Storia e permanenze*, Marsilio Editori, Venezia.

- Naldini, M., D. Taddei (2003), *Torri Castelli Rocche Fortezze. Guida a mille anni di architettura fortificata in Toscana*, Edizioni Polistampa, Firenze.
- Negueruela, I. (2000), „Managing the Maritime Heritage: the National Maritime Archaeological Museum and National Centre for Underwater Research, Cartagena, Spain”, *International Journal of Nautical Archaeology*, vol. 29, no 2, pp. 179-198.
- Pereira, D. (2009), „Una visión estratégica del patrimonio marítimo: comparativa entre Catalunya, Euskadi y Galicia”, „*Itsas Memoria*”, *Revista de Estudios Marítimos del País Vasco*, 6, Untzi Museoa-Museo Naval, Donostia-San Sebastián, pp. 15-32.
- Péron, F. (2009), „Patrimonio y paisajes del litoral”, „*Itsas Memoria*”, *Revista de Estudios Marítimos del País Vasco*, 6, Untzi Museoa-Museo Naval, Donostia-San Sebastián, pp. 33-40.
- Punzo, L. F., S. Usai, „L'estate al mare. Residenti e turisti in alcune destinazioni italiane”, McGraw-Hill Companies, Publising Group Italia, Milano.
- Schmit, P., N. Lemarchand (2005), *Le patrimoine maritime en Basse-Normandie: Réflexions sur deux décennies d'actions publiques et privées*, Centre Régional de Culture Ethnologique et Technique (Créchet).
- Salizzoni, E. (2012), „Turismo lungo le aree costiere euromediterranee: della scoperta, al consumo, al progetto del paesaggio”, *Ri-Vista ricerche per la progettazione del paesaggio*.
- Taylor, W. M. (2012), „Bound by Sea and Pressed for Time: Geographical and Transient Dimensions of Seafaring Heritage in Two Australian Maritime Museums”, *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, vol. 18, 4, pp. 400-417.
- Vitale, A. (2008), „Bagnoli riconversione dell'area e degli edifici dismessi dell'ex Ilva”, in C. Ronchetta, M. Trisciuglio (ed.), *Progettare per il patrimonio industriale*, Celid Editore, Torino, 338-339.
- Ruiz, R. A., M. T. Navarro (eds.) (2008), *Ruta del patrimonio arqueológico marítimo de España y Portugal*, Banuls Impresores, S.L., Cartagena, disponibil la http://museoarqua.mcu.es/web/uploads/ficheros/libro_rutas.pdf, accesat la 14.01.2013
- <http://www.chassiron.net/>
- <http://www.patrimoine-maritime.com/>
- http://ec.europa.eu/culture/our-programmes-and-actions/capitals/the-present-future-and-past-capitals_en.htm

REALITÉ URBAINE ET PLANIFICATION – CAS DU P.O.S. (HAMMAM DALAA) – M’SILA – ALGÉRIE

FELOUSSIA L.¹, KHALFALLAH B.¹

The purpose of this study is to better understand the incompatibility between the urban phenomenon in Algeria, and the physical and socio-economic city as "urban reality" through the case study of land use plan "L.U.P." said " Hammam Dalaa Road " to M'sila. We treat the context of the urban phenomenon locally, taking as an example the city of M'sila. The work will therefore, in terms of land use, its contents and the changes it undergoes during its application.

After a critical study on the plan of land entitled "Hammam Dala Road", by observation field, to better understand the urban phenomenon, and see the continuing evolution of urban space, we will make Comparison of the first urban project, as a graphic document, and (urban reality). We found that there are changes in use of land which creates a conflict with the recommendations of the "L.U.P.". This has lead to that, specialization areas have not been respected at the city of M'sila, and that the areas allocated to activities or habitat no longer play their role.

This article presents a first step in the land use plan, and then it will focus on the mismatch between the "L.U.P.", and the urban reality.

Keywords: city, reality urban, land use plan "L.U.P.", sustainable urban development, M'sila.

Introduction

La ville est un objet de recherche pluridisciplinaire. Actuellement, l’urbanisme s’oriente vers la recherche de mécanismes de lutte contre l’urbanisation anarchique et d’instruments d’urbanisme fiables, prenant en charge les besoins de la population. « Comme la croissance urbaine ne s’appréhende pas seulement à travers des chiffres de population, elle prend aussi la forme d’une croissance spatiale qui résulte du jeu combiné et multiplicatif de la croissance démographique et de l’augmentation de la consommation d’espace par individu » (Laborde, 1989). D’ailleurs certains chercheurs (Khoudja, 1997, Dib, 2007, Meghfour, 2007 et Mazouz, 2013) affirment que « les villes algériennes ont connu et ne cessent pas de connaître une croissance urbaine accélérée ; cette croissance urbaine s’est effectuée dans une relative anarchie, traduite par l’échec dans la gestion de la ville, des transformations typologiques et morphologiques du cadre formel, par l’apparition de forme urbaine nouvelle

¹ Université de M’sila, Algerie, flehcen@yahoo.fr

et la prolifération de différents modes d'habitat (grand ensemble, cité résidentielle, lotissement spontané ou planifié, habitat précaire, bidonville...).

A ce sujet, nous noterons l'étude de Kateb (1989) sur les défaillances du plan d'urbanisme directeur « P.U.D », en tant qu'outil de gestion urbaine, celle de Brahimi (1994) sur les changeants et les invariants dans les outils de gestion urbaine en Algérie et enfin les travaux de Khoudja (1997) qui met l'accent sur la comparaison entre l'aspect théorique et l'aspect pratique du plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme « P.D.A.U » en tant qu'outil de planification et de gestion urbaine. Il y a aussi l'étude de Hassani (2009) qui touche le phénomène de vieillissement de la ville de Constantine, la présence des bidonvilles et le manque de terrains urbanisables. Enfin on mentionne l'étude de Bouadoum (2010) qui traite le phénomène d'accumulation des projets, sur le blocage qui se manifeste devant chaque tentative de concrétisation des projets et sur les conséquences de cette absence de réalisation.

D'après ces études, il semble qu'à l'échelle nationale, au niveau régional ou municipal, il y a une incompatibilité entre ce qui était prévu dans le cadre des plans d'urbanisme PUD, PUP, ZHUN, PDAU et ce qui se passe réellement sur le terrain, en matière de prévisions (population – cadre bâti) tels que l'emploi et les équipements.

1. Présentation de la ville de M'sila

M'sila se trouve à 250 Km au Sud Est de la capitale (Alger), avec une position particulière sur deux axes routiers importants, la RN 45 (Bordj Bou-Arreridj – Boussaâda) et la RN40 (Rocade – Magra – Tiaret) ; elle forme aussi un carrefour pour les échanges d'une part, entre le Nord et le Sud (Littoral – hautes plaines – Wilaya du Sud) et d'autre part l'Est et l'Ouest du pays (*Fig. 1*).

La commune de M'sila est située au Nord-Ouest de la wilaya (*Fig. 2*), s'étend sur une superficie de 232 Km² et a une population estimée en 2008 à 151.719 habitants, soit une densité de 654 hab/Km² (ONS, 2008).

Elle est entourée par des espaces verts au Nord-Est et des terres agricoles à l'Est, au Sud et au Sud-Ouest. La ville de M'sila (chef lieu de Wilaya) est le seul pôle urbain existant au niveau du périmètre d'urbanisation de la commune de M'sila, structuré par deux axes d'importance régionale et nationale. Leur intersection forme le centre ville actuel, l'assiette territoriale étant dominée par une platitude générale, cernée au Sud et au Sud-Est et Sud-Ouest par les terres agricoles irriguées et irrigables et traversée par des cours d'eau de direction Nord-Sud dont les plus importants sont Oued M'sila et Oued Mouilha.

Le développement futur de ce centre dépend de plusieurs facteurs : la protection des terres agricoles ; la maîtrise de l'urbanisation spontanée ; la maîtrise des contraintes greffant le site (ligne électrique de transport, protection du site contre

les crues, la préservation des terres irriguées...) ; l'amélioration de la structure actuelle de la ville pour qu'elle fera face à l'ampleur actuelle et future de la ville.

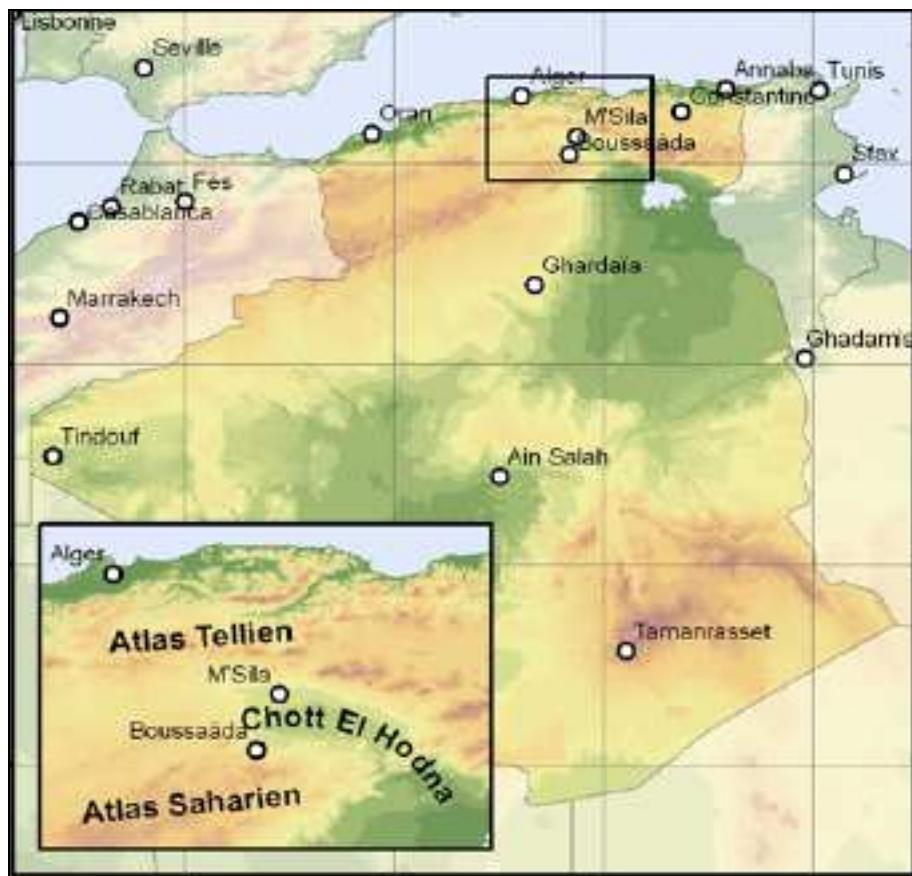


Fig. 1. Localisation de la ville de M'sila, à la bordure Sud de Chott El Hodna et à la bordure Nord de l'Atlas Saharien. Source : André OZER et autres, 2009

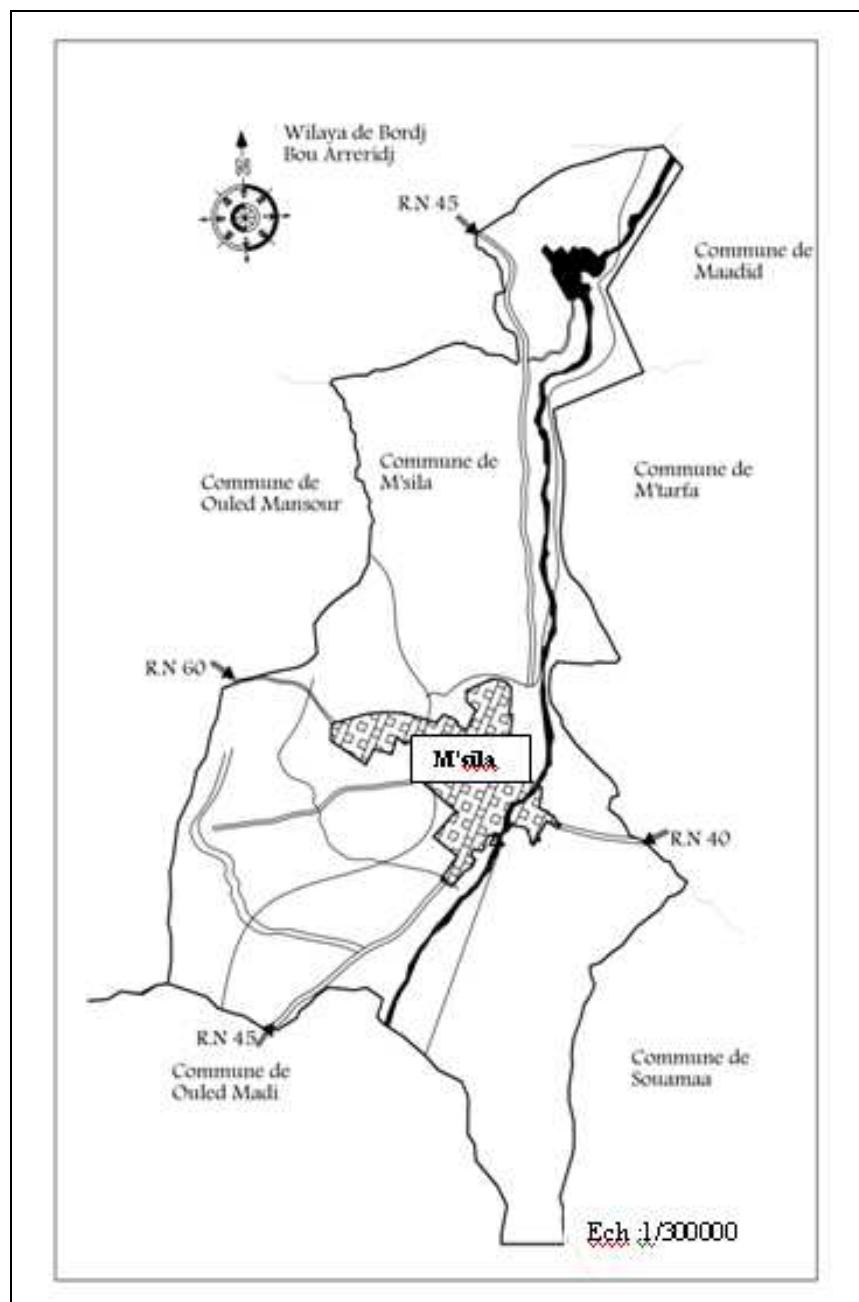


Fig. 2. Localisation de la Commune et de la ville de M'sila. Source :
URBA Sétif : PDAU de la ville de M'sila – rapport, 2005.

2. Présentation des outils de gestion urbaine

On entend par outil de gestion urbaine le plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme (P.D.A.U.) et le plan d'occupation des sols (P.O.S.), qui constituent le projet urbain actuelle en Algérie. Les plans directeurs d'aménagement et d'urbanisme représentent une vision prospective de l'aménagement d'une commune à long terme (30 ans), tandis que les plans d'occupation des sols (P.O.S.) sont des plans de détail qui définissent les modalités opérationnelles d'aménagement et les règles et servitudes d'occupation du sol et de construction pour un territoire communal ou une partie de ce territoire, à moyen terme (de 5 à 10 ans) (Saidouni, 2000).

2.1. Le PDAU de la ville de M'sila : Un instrument de plus

Les outils de gestion urbaine sont élaborés afin de maîtriser la croissance urbaine anarchique et assurer un développement harmonieux et équilibré de la ville en reposant sur une utilisation rationnelle du foncier urbain et les potentialités de la ville. Or, dans le cas de la ville de M'sila, le plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme paraît uniquement comme un instrument de plus que les autorités ont été obligées d'élaborer afin de s'aligner avec la réglementation en vigueur (Loi n° 29/90).

Selon la loi cité ci-dessus, relative à l'aménagement et à l'urbanisme, et les décrets exécutifs n° 91/177 et 91/178 du 28 mai 1991, la ville de M'sila a connu l'élaboration du 1^{er} plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme (P.D.A.U.) en 1995, qui à donné naissance à sept (07) secteurs d'urbanisation (voir le plan n° 01).

Secteur I

Limité à sa partie supérieure par l'axe B.B.A. – Boussaâda, il s'étend sur une superficie de 317,3 hectares dont 100,6 hectares de résidence et 154 hectares d'espaces verts agricoles et vergers.

Secteur II

Limité à l'Est par le secteur I, il comprend la majorité des activités tertiaires et s'étend sur une superficie de 240 hectares.

Secteur III

La zone d'habitat urbaine nouvelle ZHUN 01 dispose d'une superficie de 172 hectares, dont 103 hectares de résidence et 12,25 hectares répartis entre espace vert public et espace libre.

Secteur IV

La zone d'habitat urbaine nouvelle ZHUN 02 constitue la deuxième demi-couronne du schéma semi-radio concentrique et s'étend sur une superficie de 168 hectares, dont 80 hectares de résidence et environ 30 hectares d'espace libre, de voirie et d'espace vert.

Secteur V

Limité à sa partie supérieure par le chemin de fer Ain Touta-Tiaret, il s'étend sur une surface de 323 hectares.

Secteur VI

Limité à sa partie inférieure par le chemin de fer, il s'étend sur une superficie de 270,75 hectares dont 47 hectares résidence.

Secteur VII

Situé au sud de la ville de part et d'autre de la RN 45, celui-ci s'étend sur une surface de 280 hectares de terres fertiles à caractère agricole.

Après avoir passé en revue les différents secteurs du P.D.A.U. de la ville de M'sila, il paraît que ceux-ci sont destinés surtout pour la création d'un pôle d'équilibre avec un taux d'équipements élevé (*Fig. 3*).

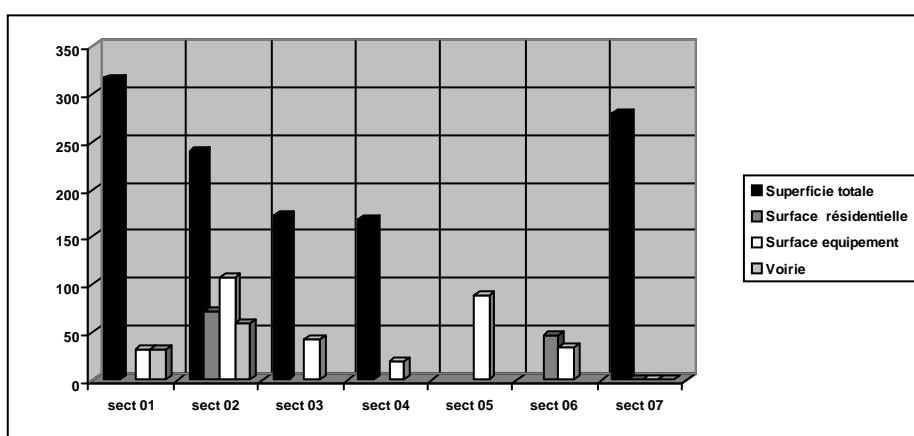
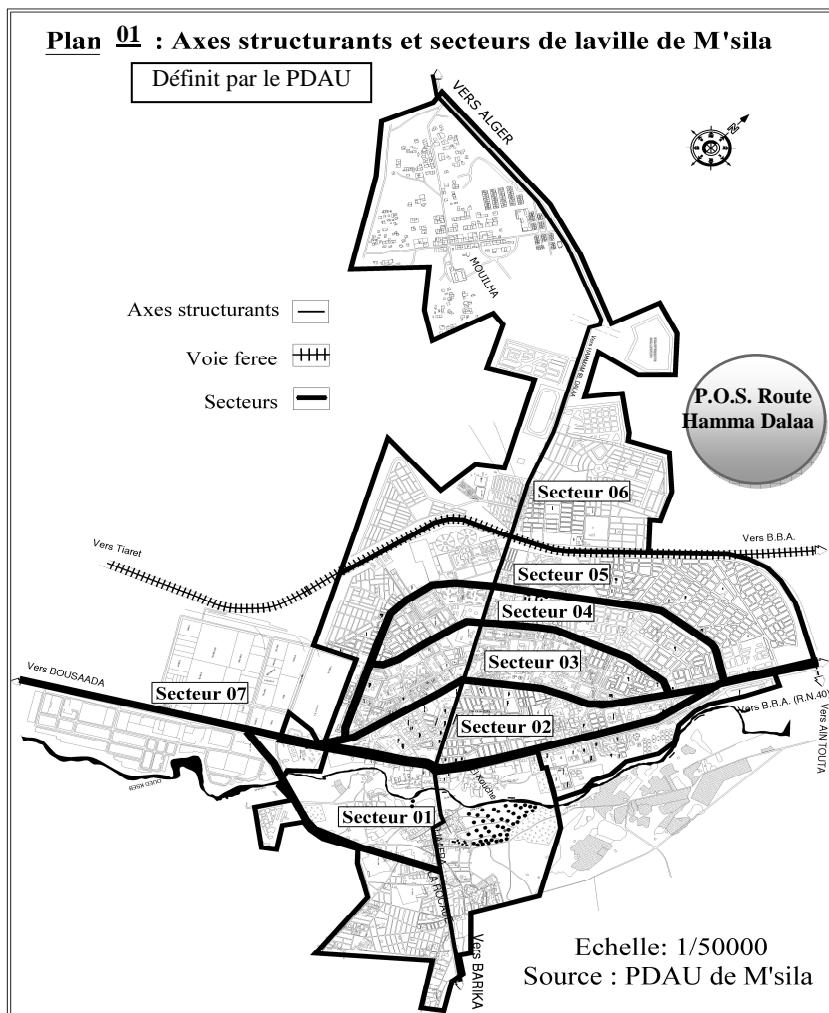


Fig. 3. Occupation des différents secteurs de la commune de M'sila. Source : Les auteurs selon un travail sur le terrain dans le cadre de la préparation du Doctorat, 2011

Le P.D.A.U. a divisé l'espace d'extension de la ville en plusieurs plans d'occupation du sol à court, moyen et long terme ; ainsi, celui-ci a défini deux types d'intervention (rénovation et restructuration) pour les P.O.S. des zones d'El Argoub, Djaafra, Larocade, El Kouche et le centre ville, ce qui montre que c'est un assemblage d'opérations urbaines classique sans aucune innovation. En plus, il paraît que le bureau d'étude chargé d'élaborer le P.D.A.U. prend le train en marche étant donné que la rénovation est en cours. Par la suite, nous allons faire une étude critique sur le plan d'occupation des sols (P.O.S.), route Hammam Dalaa.



2.2. Présentation du POS « Route Hammam Dalaa »

Parmi les dix plans d'occupation des sols que comporte le plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme P.D.A.U. de la ville de M'sila, le plan d'occupation des sols P.O.S. (route Hammam Dalaa) se situe dans la partie Nord-Ouest de la ville, à coté du groupement secondaire (Mouilha) couvrant une superficie de 120 hectares. Il est limité au Nord par des terrains libres, au Sud par la RN60, à l'Est par le parc de la société (COSIDER) et à l'Ouest par la ligne électrique de haute tension (H.T.).

L'étude de programmation s'articule autour de trois points fondamentaux à savoir : le cadre bâti existant sur le terrain; le programme proposé par le P.D.A.U.; le programme proposé par le chargé d'étude et d'élaboration.

Le cadre bâti existant sur le terrain d'étude se caractérise par l'habitat collectif social (actuellement 600 logements) situé dans la partie Sud du P.O.S. et desservie par la RN60 et deux équipements : le centre de formation professionnelle (actuellement achevé), projet d'investissement (hôtel) et une maison construite et quelques fondations.

Concernant le plan d'occupation des sols P.O.S. (route Hammam Dalaa), le P.D.A.U. a recommandé d'urbaniser la totalité de la surface par l'habitat et les équipements sans détailler la nature des équipements et le type d'habitat. Celui-ci a recommandé, en plus, de concrétiser le projet de la voie d'évitement Ouest qui est en cours d'achèvement.

L'étude est basée aussi sur le point d'articulation qui est la voie d'évitement Ouest proposée par le (P.D.A.U.) qui assure la liaison entre la RN40 qui mène à la ville de Boussaâda dans la partie Sud-ouest et la RN45 qui mène à Bordj Bou-Arreridj dans la partie Nord-Ouest et la RN60 qui mène à Alger.

L'étude élaborée par la direction d'urbanisme et de construction de la wilaya de M'sila a proposé deux variantes, mais après consultation, c'est la variante n° 02 qui a été retenue avec quelques modifications à savoir. La détermination des types et du nombre d'habitations comme suit : habitat individuel dont le nombre au lieu de 857 logements devient 490 ; habitat semi collectif dont le nombre au lieu de 738 logements devient 316 ; habitat collectif dont le nombre au lieu de 2210 logements devient 3022.

On note aussi qu'au niveau de chaque groupement d'habitat, il est recommandé d'intégrer des espaces verts et des aires de jeux ; les blocs d'habitat collectif et semi collectif qui seront accessibles par rapport aux voies secondaires et tertiaires, leurs rez-de-chaussée devront être aménagés par des locaux de commerce. Il est recommandé aussi, de programmer des ronds point pour faciliter la fluidité de la circulation.

3. Les changements dans le plan d'occupation des sols « route Hammam Dalaa »

Pour déceler les changements, nous avons mené une enquête terrain pour comparer le plan d'occupation des sols (POS) „Route Hammam Dalaa”, en tant que document graphique et la réalité urbaine. Dans ce sens, un travail de relevé a été fait pour constituer une base de données graphique, que nous avons comparée par la suite au plan élaboré à l'échelle 1/500.

La comparaison est faite entre ce qui existe sur terrain et la première affectation des sols faite par le bureau d'étude technique. Ce travail a montré à titre d'exemple que : des îlots ont été déformés entièrement ou partiellement ; des voiries ont été déviées ou supprimées ; des espaces verts ont été éliminés totalement ou partiellement.

En analysant de près les données, nous avons constaté une incompatibilité flagrante entre ce qui a été prévu dans le cadre du plan l'image réelle de cette partie de la ville. Ceci prouve que ces outils, ont subit des modifications lors de la concrétisation du projet. Parmi les cas constatés, on peut citer :

– a titre d'exemple, une surface foncière de 7226,15 m² destinée au logement social participatif (L.S.P.), surface totale 3,98 hectares, a été transformée en locaux commerciaux suite à une décision politique (programme du président de la république qui a été concrétisé au niveau de toutes les wilayas Algériennes) ; une surface foncière de 3082.50m² destinée à (L.S.P.) a été transformée à des espaces verts ; une surface foncière de 12984.39 m² affectée à (L.S.P.) a été transformée à un équipement à caractère social, dans la partie ouest de la ville, pour les jeunes non voyants ; une surface foncière de 3911.95 m² destinée à l'habitat social est transformée en logements de fonction pour la direction des forêts, suite à une décision de la wilaya (département) ; une surface foncière de 16506.96 m² destinée à (L.S.P.) a été transformée pour construire un lycée et pour parer aux carences dans ce domaine. Ceci montre qu'une décision politique peut entraver la concrétisation du plan d'occupation des sols et déformer ainsi l'image projetée.

Tableau 1
Exemple de changement de vocation des terrains destinés au LSP (m²)

| Surface totale destinée au LSP (m ²) | Surface transformée en locaux pour commerce | Surface transformée en espaces verts | Surface transformée en équipements | Surface transformée dans un lycée |
|--|---|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 39800 | 7226,15 | 3082,50 | 12984,39 | 16506,96 |
| 100% | 18,16% | 7,75% | 32,62% | 41,47% |

Source: établit par les chercheurs

En plus, nous avons constaté aussi qu'une surface foncière de 5944.16 m² destinée à l'habitat social (H.S) est transformée dans un groupement scolaire, ce qui marque que la grille d'équipement n'a pas été respecté, une surface foncière de 4911.16 m² destinée pour des espaces verts est transformé à des logements de fonction (pour les militaires). Cette action prouve que les groupes de pression peuvent participer à l'arrêt de l'application des outils de gestion et de planification de l'espace urbain.

Nous tenons à ajouter qu'une surface foncière de 6302,44 m² destinée pour des espaces verts est transformée à l'habitat social (H.S) et une surface foncière de 128065,84m² (12,8 ha) destinée à l'habitat individuel (H.I) est transformée au logement social participatif (L.S.P.). En même temps, une surface foncière de 53227,39 m² destinée aux équipements tels que centre administratif et commercial, crèche, école primaire, école moyenne, centre de protection civile etc. est transformée en centre d'intervention de police, ce changement de vocation, comme l'indique le *Tableau 1*, nous permettant de dire que les groupes de pression (force et commandement) jouent un très grand rôle dans l'inapplication des instruments de gestion et de planification urbaine tel que les plans d'occupation des sols « P.O.S. ».

Tableau 2
Surfaces et taux de changement de vocation

| Désignation | Surface (ha) | Taux de changement de vocation % |
|------------------------------|--------------|----------------------------------|
| Logement Social Participatif | 3,98 | 16,43 |
| Habitat social | 0,99 | 04,09 |
| Espace vert | 1,12 | 04,62 |
| Equipement | 5,32 | 21,97 |
| Habitat Individuel | 12,81 | 52,89 |
| Total | 24,22 | 100% |

Source: établit par les chercheurs

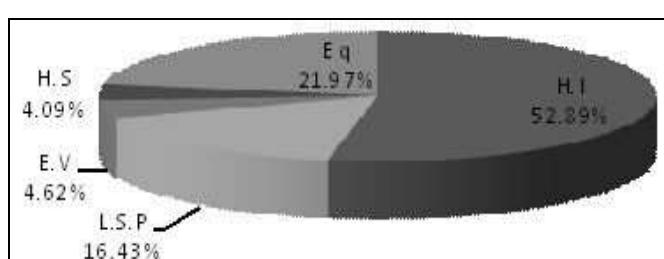


Fig. 5. Principales composantes urbaines de la surface réalisée incompatible (SRI)

| | |
|-----|------------------------------|
| Eq | Equipement |
| HS | Habitat social |
| EV | Espace vert |
| LSP | Logement Social Participatif |

D'après le *Tableau 2* et la *Fig. 5*, nous remarquons que l'habitat individuel représente la composante urbaine la plus touchée par l'incompatibilité entre ce qui a été prévu dans le cadre des plans (la théorie) et ce qui a été concrétisé sur le terrain (la réalité urbaine), avec un pourcentage de (52,89%) qui correspond à l'habitat individuel après le changement de vocation de la surface réalisée incompatible (S.R.I.).

Ce pourcentage indique aussi que l'habitat individuel projeté sur le plan n'est pas réalisé dans sa totalité (le pourcentage de réalisation est de 0%). La composante urbaine caractérisée par l'équipement est classée en deuxième position, avec un pourcentage d'incompatibilité de (21,97%). L'L.S.P. prend la troisième position avec 16,43%, puis la composante d'espace vert et, en dernier lieu, l'habitat social avec un pourcentage de 4,09%.

Le diagramme suivant représente la composante urbaine la plus touchée par le phénomène d'incompatibilité, entre le plan en tant que document graphique et la réalité urbaine.

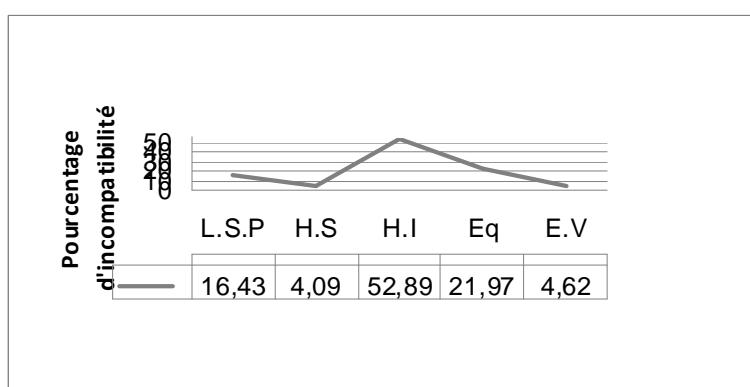


Fig. 6. Incompatibilité entre le document graphique et la réalité urbaine

En plus des changements de vocation, nous avons constaté que le mode et le taux de réalisation montrent qu'il ya une réticence dans la caractérisation du projet qui apparaît dans le tableau suivant (*Tableau 3*).

Pour la 1^{ère} et la 3^{eme} catégorie, on compare ce qui a été réalisé avec la surface qui existe dans le document. Pour la 2^{eme} catégorie, on contrôle sur le terrain si on a touché à l'existant et quel est le pourcentage. La S.R.C est la surface réalisée compatible, projetée sur le plan et réalisée sur terrain, la S.R.E est la surface réalisée existante, avant la projection, la S.R.I. est la surface réalisée incompatible avec le P.O.S., la S.N.R. est la surface non réalisée, projetée sur le plan mais non réalisée sur le terrain et la S.T. est la surface totale du P.O.S.

Tableau 3

Surface et taux de réalisation

| Désignation | Surface (ha) | Taux (%) |
|--|--------------|----------|
| surface réalisée compatible (S.R.C.) | 47,05 | 39,21 |
| surface réalisée existante (S.R.E.) | 06,36 | 05,30 |
| surface réalisée incompatible (S.R.I.) | 22,77 | 18,98 |
| surface non réalisée (S.N.R.) | 43,82 | 36,51 |
| surface totale (S.T.) | 120 | 100 |

Source: établit par les chercheurs sur la base du travail sur le terrain

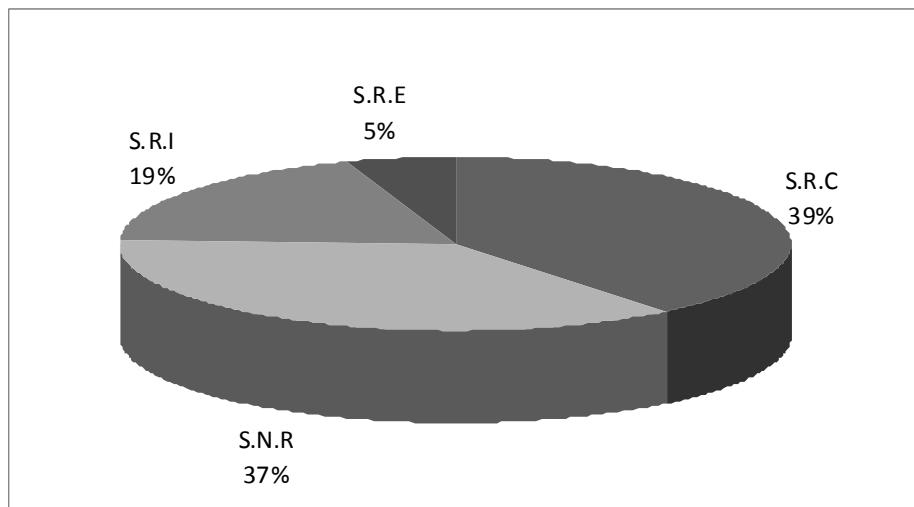


Fig. 7. Surface et taux de réalisation : SRI : surface réalisée incompatible ; SRE : surface réalisée existante ; SRC : surface réalisée compatible ; SNR : surface non réalisée

D'après le *Tableau 3* et la *Fig. 2*, nous constatons qu'un pourcentage de 36,51% représente la surface non réalisée, malgré l'horizon d'urbanisation de ce P.O.S. qui est le moyen terme (2005-2010), témoignant de la défaillance du projet. La surface concrètement réalisée représente 63,49% de la surface totale, dont 18,98% est une surface réalisée incompatible avec les directives du plan d'occupation des sols et 5,30% représente la surface réalisée avant même son élaboration.

Conclusion

L'analyse critique effectuée sur le (P.O.S.) de Hammam Dalaa dans la ville de M'sila nous a permis de ressortir quelques résultats, à plusieurs niveaux, qui peuvent être structurés comme il suit.

– Au niveau des normes réglementaires

La superficie du (P.O.S.) établi est de 120 hectares, dont 76,18 hectares consacrés au cadre bâti, 12,19 hectares à la voirie et 3,21 hectares aux espaces verts. Cette dernière représente uniquement 2,51% de la surface totale du P.O.S., ce qui est loin de répondre aux normes réglementaires, en matière d'espace vert. La voirie représente 10,16% de la surface totale, ce qui représente un taux nettement inférieur à la norme réglementaire situé entre 15% à 20% (grille de la CADAT).

– Au niveau de la concrétisation du P.O.S. sur terrain

La concrétisation du Plan d'occupation des Sols (P.O.S.) sur le terrain est le facteur fondamental qui peut mesurer la compatibilité des plans d'urbanisme avec la réalité urbaine et par conséquent leur efficacité.

Concernant le (P.O.S) appelé « route Hammam Dalaa », la concrétisation du projet n'était que partielle, puisque la surface non réalisée est estimée à 43,82 hectares. Cette dernière représente 36,51% de la superficie totale du (P.O.S.), la surface réalisée compatible représente 39,21% de la superficie totale et la surface réalisée incompatible représente 18,98% avec une surface de 22,77 hectares.

Au niveau de la surface réalisée incompatible, on assiste à des changements de vocation des terrains ou la composante urbaine la plus touchée par ces changements de vocation est la composante de l'habitat individuel, avec 52,89% de la surface réalisée incompatible. La composante urbaine caractérisée par l'équipement est classée en deuxième position avec un taux d'incompatibilité de 21,97% et, en dernier lieu, la composante urbaine caractérisée par l'habitat social avec un taux de 4,09%.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- Ali Khoudja, N. (1997), *Le plan directeur d'urbanisme système de planification et de gestion urbaine en Algérie*, Magister, EPAU, Alger.
- Auzelle, R. (1947), *Encyclopédie de l'urbanisme*, Vincent-Fréal, Paris.
- Bachofen, C. (1989), “Pour le projet urbain – Recueil de textes – Fascicule n° 2”, *Processus du projet urbain*, Ecole d'architecture de Strasbourg, France.
- Bailly, A. (1977), *Perception de l'espace urbain*, Ed. C.R.U., Paris.
- Bouadim-Ghiat, R. (2010), „Le centre ville de Constantine projets accumulés et contraintes de réalisation”, *Revue Science et Technologie*, no 31, Université de Constantine, Algérie.
- Brahimi, F. Z. (1994), *L'habitat spontané Du milieu rural Algérien et rapport aux plans d'urbanisme cas de la région Algéroise*, Magister, EPAU, Alger.
- Castex, J. et autres. (1980), *Formes urbaines de l'ilot à la barre*, Ed. Dunod, Paris.
- Compagnac, E. (1992), *Sous la direction de Les Grands Groupes de la construction : de nouveaux acteurs urbains ?*, L'Harmattan, Paris.
- Décret exécutif n° 177/91 du 28/05/1991, relatif à l'aménagement et à l'urbanisme, Alger.
- Décret exécutif n° 178/91 du 28/05/1991, relatif à l'aménagement et à l'urbanisme, Alger.

- Despois, J. (1953), *Le Hodna*, Ed. PUF, Paris.
- Dib, B. (2007), „L'urbanisme horizontal dans la ville Algérienne-vision sur le logement individuel contemporain”, *Révue: Courrier du savoir*, no 8, Université de Biskra, Algérie.
- Feloussia, L. (2001), *Le plan d'occupation des sols entre aspect physique (cadre bâti) et socio-économique – Cas de la ville de M'sila*, Magister, Université de M'sila, Algérie.
- Hassini, I. (2009), „Processus de métropolisation et étalement urbain, quels conséquences sur la ville de Constantine”, *Revue Science et Technologie D*, no 29, Université de Constantine, Algérie.
- Kateb, M. (1989), *Dynamique urbaine et instruments d'urbanisme*, Magister, EPAU, Alger.
- Khalfallah, B. (2001), „Approche de maîtrise et d'intégration des tissus urbains spontanés – Cas de M'sila”, *Doctorat D'État*, Université de Sétif, Algérie.
- Krier, R. (1980), *L'espace de la ville*, Ed. Archives d'Architecture Moderne, Bruxelles.
- Laborde, P. (1989), *Les espaces urbains dans le monde*, Edition Nathan, Paris
- „L'aménagement du territoire et la colonie”, *Dossiers des séminaires techniques, territoires et sociétés*, no 4, avril 1988, D.R.I./M.E.L.
- Loi no 29/90 du 30/12/1990, relative à l'aménagement et à l'urbanisme*, Alger.
- Mazouz, S. (2013), „Fabrique de la ville en Algérie et pérennisation d'un model – Le cas de la nouvelle ville Ali Mendjeli à Constantine”, *Révue.Courrier du savoir*, no 15, Université de Biskra, Algérie.
- Meghfour-Kacemi, M. (2007), „Intégration de spécificités du littoral dans les documents d'urbanisme”, *Révue: Courrier du savoir*, no 8, Université de Biskra, Algérie.
- Mili, M. (2002), *Espace vert entre enjeux et nécessité*, Magister, Université de M'sila, Algérie.
- Ministère de l'équipement et de l'aménagement du territoire, demain l'Algérie (l'état du territoire, la reconquête du territoire), *Les dossiers de l'aménagement du territoire*, Ed. O.P.U., Alger.
- Ozer, A. (2009), „Boussaâda-une ville touristique confrontée au développement urbain”, *Appports de la télédétection, Journées d'Animation Scientifique (JAS09)*, de l'AUF, Alger.
- Saidouni, M. (2000), *Elément d'introduction à l'urbanisme*, Ed. Casbah, Alger.
- Urba, Batna, (2003), „Plan d'occupation des sols”, *Route Hammam Dalaa*, Commune de M'sila, Algérie.
- Urba Setif, (2008), *Plan directeur d'aménagement et d'urbanisme de la commune de M'sila*, Algérie.

GLOBALIZATION AND THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN SLOVAKIA^{*}

ALENA DUBCOVÁ¹, JOZEF PETRIKOVIC¹, LUCIA ŠOLCOVÁ¹

The development of tourism in the world and thus in Slovakia is influenced by globalization, which is one of the landmarks of the 21st century. Globalization starts when the internationalization of economic life develops in the space across the planet. Closely related to internationalization, it enforces the strict territorial framework that later grew into a wider world of space. The development of globalization processes stimulated by the scientific-technical revolution, the growing efforts to promote free trade throughout the world, a principal change in many countries, which are accompanied by expansion of free business, capital, investment, the impressive development of telecommunications and transport networks, the option on fast-traveling to long distances, watching foreign television programs, understanding and using of foreign experience and practices contributed to the convergence of the world not only economically but also in other spheres.

Key words: hotel industry, globalization, hotel chain, tourism, the number of overnights.

Introduction

Creating a new universal lifestyle that interferes with fashion, music, food, human behavior, rest or recreation, globalization also means an increased international division of labor achieved through international fragmentation of production, as well as political trends towards a more liberal economic order (Smeral, 1998, p. 372 in Vesna Peris, 2005). Globalization is a multi-layered process in which the most important role is played by megacorporations and international companies. However this process also involves the small and medium business as well as the tourism industry customers. Tourism has become a big business and is operated by the big trusts. In tourism, globalization affects the demand and supply in several ways. The supply factors include, for example the usage of computer and reservation systems, the reduction of transport costs of traveling by airplane and other transportation to chosen destinations, new forms of management, exploring new destinations etc. As demand factors of globalization in tourism the rising of salary and of living

¹ Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Department of Geography and Regional Development, Nitra, Slovakia; adubcova@ukf.sk; jozefpetrikovic@pobox.sk; lsolcova@ukf.sk

standards or the experience and education of tourists, interested in the new destinations may be included. Characteristic features of the globalization of tourism (Feig, 1998, in Peris, 2005) are:

Economy

- Horizontal and vertical integration strategies of tourism enterprises
- Foreign investment in hotels and tourist attractions ("global tourism markets")
- Global players and strategic alliances (air companies, hotels, tour operators)
- Global tourism management
- Global competition of holiday resorts

Technology

- Global booking systems
- Standardized technologies in transport systems

Culture

- Global tourist: uniform traveller behaviour
- Creation of "global tourist village"

Ecology

- Tourism as "global syndrome of ecology problem"
- Climate changes and their effects on destinations

Politics

- Increasing importance of international tourism organizations
- Necessity for global coordination and regulation of passenger circulation
- Sustainable development as quality and dominant idea

By Slovakia's accession to the EU travel restrictions were lifted and the requirements for service quality have been increased, which has increased competition in the tourism market, as reflected in the hotel industry in Slovakia.

Hotel industry is related with activity of hotels, a hotel being defined as a property used for temporary accommodation for guests, which has more than ten rooms. Beside accommodation also catering and ancillary services, entertainment and community services, commercial passenger services and recreational sports services are part of the active leisure sphere. It is the services sector, which meets the individual needs of consumers. We see it as part of tourism which is also a prerequisite for its further development. The development of hotel industry is one of the main conditions for tourism development. Tourism and its sub-sector-hotel industry develop in parallel and influence each other. This dependence is twofold:

1. Dependency of tourism on hotel industry – without hotel business, there can be no residential tourism
2. Dependency of hotel business on tourism where the important factor is the capacity of hotel business and its development.

Globalization brings many new ways of business and especially in the hotel business, which are reflected in particular by creating new domestic hotel chains or by the introduction of foreign hotel chains that offer a higher standard of services, a new design and better equipment for hotels. They are all reflected in the brand and differentiate types of hotels.

The Current State of Hotel Industry in Slovakia

Although the hotel business in Slovakia has not a rich history as for example in the United States and the European countries like France or Germany, it achieved a comparable level with the hotel business in the neighboring countries. The transformation of the economy after 1989, allowed the changes in this sector. The largest hotels especially interhotel became independent (being used primarily in this period by foreign clients from the Eastern Bloc countries), for example Interhotel Bratislava, Interhotel Ružomberok Interhotel Tatras Starý Smokovec (which belong to the travel agency Čedok, on its turn subject of Ministry of Commerce of Czechoslovakia), as well as other hotels operated by consumer cooperatives, social organizations, such as for example ROH, SZM. By restitution some hotels have become the property of original owners. The transformation of the hotels led to many changes though, many large and medium class three star and four star hotels preserved and maintained their scope and their service standard. Moreover a new hotel chain was created from hotels and convalescent homes (ROH) in 1993 – Sorea hotel chain. On their turn after 1989 foreign hotel companies included Slovak hotels in their networks. In the first half of the nineties in Bratislava there was opened Hotel Forum – today Crowne Plaza and Holiday Inn Intercontinental Hotels Group chain was settled. The beginning of the 21st century

joins multinational hotel companies such as Accor, Carlson and Orea Hotels, which also established the right of the first hotels in Bratislava (Mištík, 2007).

Slovakia with its small area, but conveniently located in the heart of Europe and including rich natural and cultural attractions offers to visitors a constantly growing hotel market with increasingly higher quality standards for services. In 2008 in Slovakia there were 3434 accommodation establishments (with 57 860 rooms with a capacity of 187 698 beds), within which there were 596 hotels. The hotels were concentrating 27 465 rooms with a capacity of 58 357 beds, which accommodated approximately 2 357 603 of visitors more than half of tourists guested in the accommodation units (4 082 645 million of visitors). The number of overnights in accommodation establishments in Slovakia reached 12 464 104 tourists in 2008, of which 6 263 042 million overnights falls to hotels. The development of the hotel capacity recorded steady development without major fluctuations, which is characteristic for this sector (*Fig. 1, Fig. 2*).

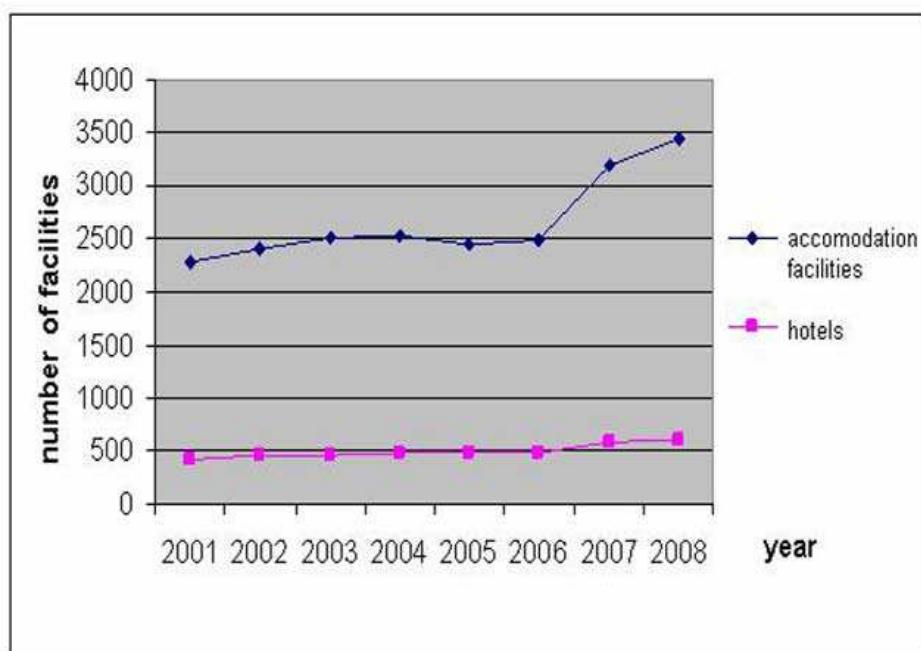


Fig. 1. Development of hotels number in the period 2001-2008

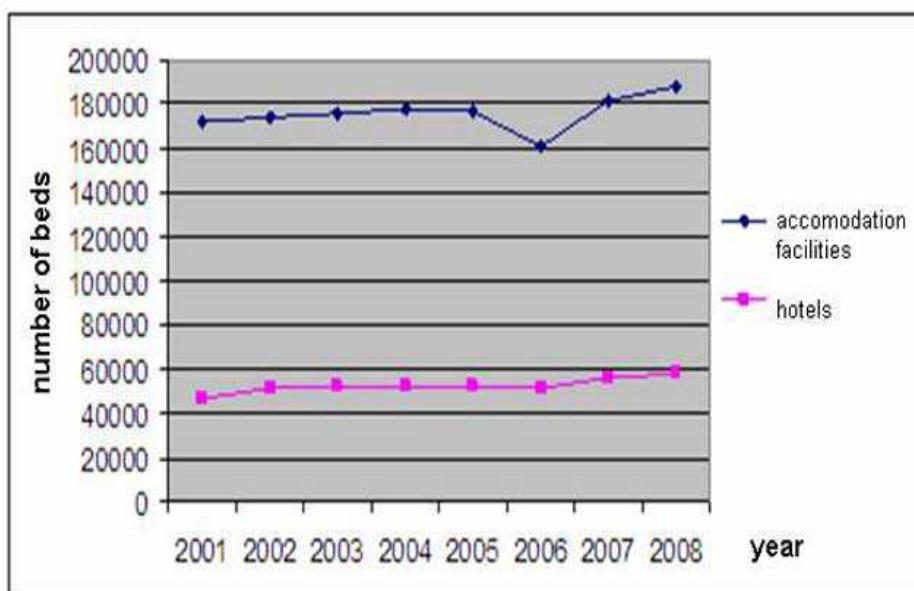


Fig. 2. Development of bed capacity for the period 2001-2008

Hotels in Slovakia are quite unevenly distributed closely intertwined with tourism destination (*Fig. 3*). Almost half of hotels are concentrated in three regions. Most hotels, up to 115-19% of the number of hotels in Slovakia, are situated in Žilina region which has interesting tourist, natural, cultural and historical areas such as Kysuce, Orava and Liptov. Prešov region follows with 103 hotels (17% of the hotels in the Republic of Slovakia), where the most beautiful and most visited mountains in Slovakia - High Tatras are located. The High Tatras concentrate the largest number of hotel beds in the Prešov region, which has a big available capacity (21,7%-12 673 beds) of hotel beds in Slovakia. The Tatras are followed by the Žilina region, accounting for 18,6 % of beds and being dominated with recreational hotel located in mountainous areas, in the major water areas (Orava, Liptovská Mara) or in regions with cultural and natural heritage. The third region in the number of hotels is the Bratislava region (88), its capacity being concentrated in the Slovak capital city Bratislava (66 hotels). Except from Bratislava, the city hotels are mainly represented in the larger regional cities (Košice, Banská Bystrica, Žilina, Prešov, Trnava, Trenčín, Nitra), satisfying the needs for short-term tourism and congress tourism especially in spa towns (Piešťany, Bojnica, Bardejov, Trenčianske Teplice), where visitors usually opt for long-term treatment (*Fig. 4*).

Hotels visited by domestic and foreign clients reached 2 357 603 visitors in 2008. The view of the structure of tourist demand in Slovakia shows a dominant position for guests in the surrounding countries, especially from the Czech Republic (29,1%) and Poland (14,5%), followed by Germany (10,4%), Hungary (5,6%), United Kingdom (3,8%) and Austria (3,7%) (*Fig. 5, Table I*).

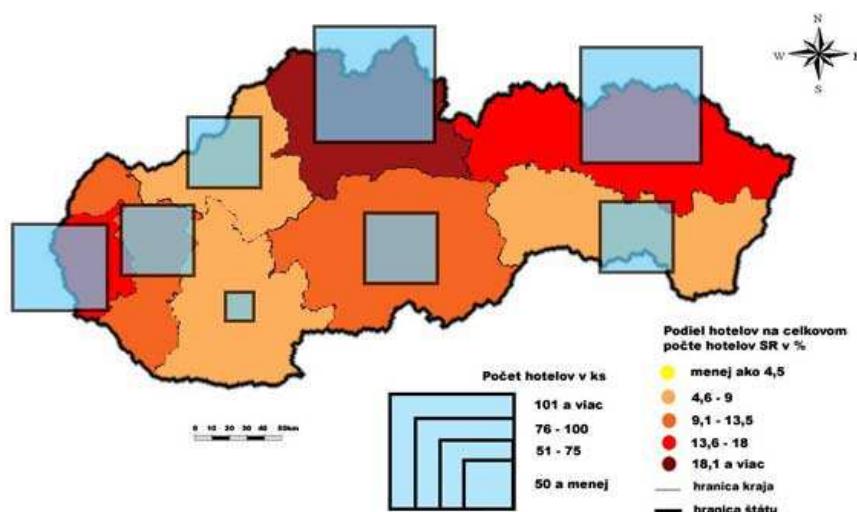


Fig. 3. Hotels localization in the regions of Slovakia in 2008

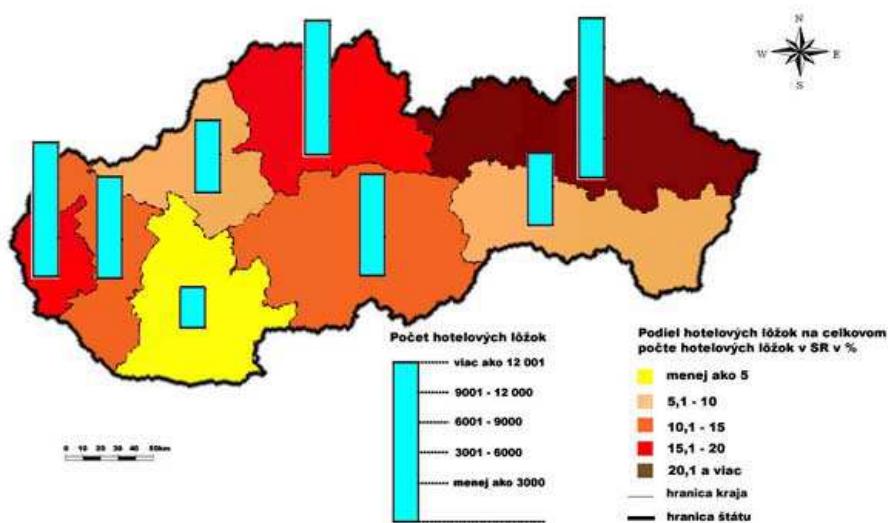


Fig. 4. Share of hotel beds in regions of Slovakia in 2008

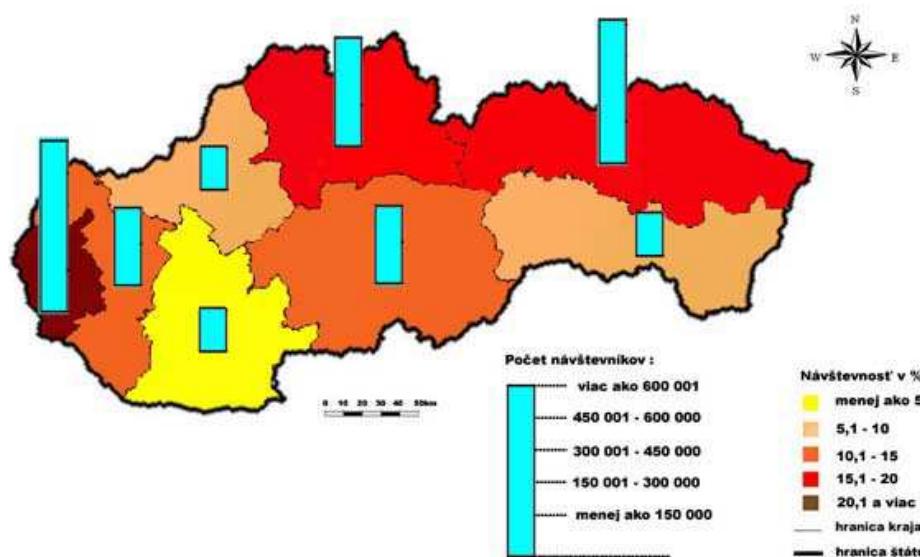


Fig. 5. Share of hotel visitors of Slovakia in 2008

Table 1
Top 10 EU Countries in the Number of Overnights in Accommodation Facilities in Slovakia

| State | Number of overnight stays | | | |
|----------------|---------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 |
| Czech republic | 1 569 835 | 1 510 855 | 1 610 881 | 1 704 632 |
| Poland | 786 430 | 722 596 | 762 890 | 941 975 |
| Germany | 724 877 | 698 452 | 777 872 | 682 274 |
| Hungary | 251 746 | 225 323 | 247 703 | 225 271 |
| Austria | 154 172 | 149 154 | 163 149 | 158 594 |
| Great Britain | 129 786 | 135 764 | 141 701 | 148 710 |
| Italia | 114 434 | 124 965 | 120 994 | 115 502 |
| France | 81 477 | 82 387 | 87 577 | 95 660 |
| Romania | 41 266 | 43 551 | 46 231 | 64 441 |
| Netherlands | 66 288 | 68 529 | 72 267 | 58 756 |

Source: www.destinacie.sk, Petrikovič, 2009.

Globalization in Slovak Hotel Industry

World Tourism Organization (WTO) has recommended to member states the minimum requirements to lead the world towards a single class hotels star labeling with the name of the hotel. This marking, is not internationally

compatible because of rules set by the state or individual professional associations (Vavreková, 2007). The determining of the class of hotels in Slovakia is based on current legislation (decree no. 277 of June 26, 2008) which ranks hotels to 5 classes from * (one star) to ***** (five stars). The hotel structure is a relatively balanced ratio between hotels of lower category (the one star category claims for 104 – 17,45% of hotels and the following 2 star category for 149 - 25,0%) and the ones in the average category (of three stars – 249 – 41,78% of hotels) (*Fig. 6*). The frequency of hotels in higher categories is about 15,77% (with 91 – 15,27% of hotels in the four stars and only 3 – 0,6% of hotels in the five stars category). The number of the hotels in the last category increased to 4 in 2011. In order to achieve maximum profits within the corresponding category (according to the focus – for example wellness, congress, spa hotels) the category is determined by the hotelier himself (*Fig. 6*).

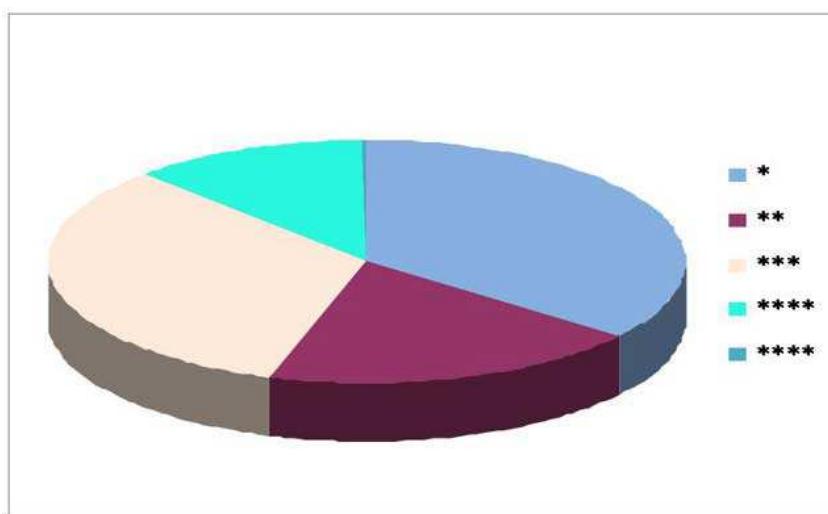


Fig. 6. Level class hotels of Slovakia in 2008

Economic transformation and globalization has brought new trends also to the hotel ownership structure. Form of business may be independent or may be implemented through lease respectively through franchise agreements. Under the ownership structure hotels in Slovakia are divided in:

- a) individual – hotel owner is a person or more persons, or a company with more managers (whether domestic or foreign capital) for example Hotel Sitno in Vyhne
- b) franchise "rent" – the hotel is owned by another company than the one which manages respectively operates (e.g. Grandhotel Kempinski High

Tatras), which is owned by a Slovak company J & T Hotel Management, but the operator is a German company Kempinski Hotels A.G.)

- c) hotel chains – owner and operator is an international hotel chain for example Hotel Ibis in Bratislava. Hotel chains consist of two or more hotels.

Today visitors pay attention, while choosing hotels offer, to more complex aspects – they are interested in luxury, comfort, relaxation, but also in the opportunity to combine business duties with a pleasant evening relax in the hotel. These preferences create new types of hotels which attract globalization and foreign capital, depending on the type of the offered services (e.g. garni, mountainous, congress, wellness, spa, boutique, apartment hotel). In the hotel structure hotels have only 16,44% (98 hotels), but their importance and frequency increases. They consist of hotels ranging from one to five stars (Fig. 7).

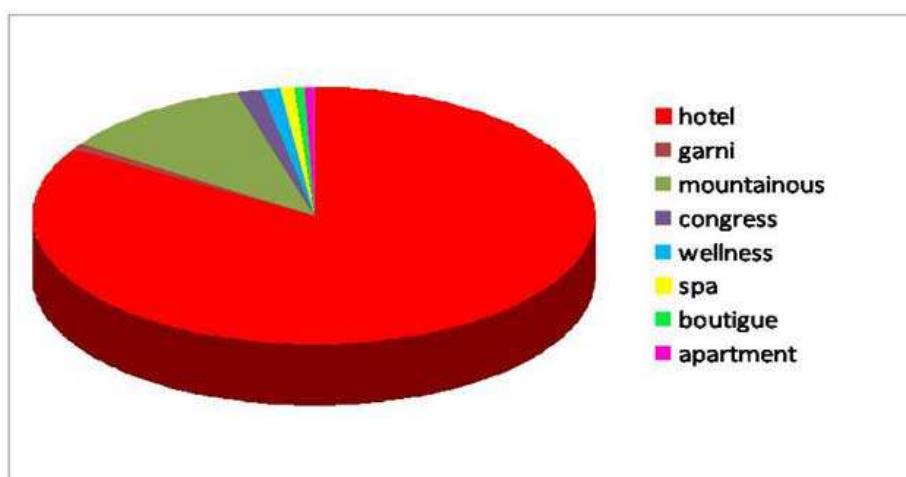


Fig. 7. Hotels category in 2008

The lowest level (one star) is concentrated by garni hotels, mainly focused on short-term temporary residence. They provide serving breakfast for effortless guests. Hotels of this type are located mainly in cities for example Hotel Garni (Považská Bystrica), Garni Hotel Mado (Bojnice), Garni Hotel Urpin City (Banská Bystrica), Hotel Garni Veronia (Košice), Hotel Garni Oáza (Prešov) and Thorin Garni Hotel (Bratislava). The opposite of this type of hotel is the boutique-type hotel that meets the requirements of the hotel at its highest grade (equivalent to 4 stars). They are characterized by luxurious and exclusive interior and less rooms, being located in town historic buildings, respectively in houses with interesting architectural or artistic appearance. This type of hotels are located in larger cities and examples such as Marrol's Hotel, Hotel Arcadia, Mama's Design & Boutique Hotel, Hotel Tulip House (Bratislava), Hotel Dubná

Skala (Žilina), Golden Royal Boutique Hotel, Boutique Hotel Rokoko, Hotel Bristol, Hotel Maraton (Košice) or Hotel Zlatý Klúčik (Nitra) may be mentioned.

An important tradition in Slovakia has the spa hotel segment that belongs to class hotel with three stars and more. They offer a range of services provided for the relevant class hotel offering medical care for the guests. They are located in the spa centers. These include e.g. Thermia Palace, Balnea Esplanade, Balnea Palace (Piešťany), Aphrodite Hotel, Hotel Veľká Fatra (Rajecké Teplice), Hotel Krym, Hotel Flóra, Hotel Atlantis (Piešťany), Morava Hotel, Hotel Central (Smrdáky), Hotel Astória, Hotel Ozón (Bardejov), Hotel Jantár (Dudince) and Grand Hotel Strand (Vyšné Ružbachy). The newer types of hotels in spa center and cities belong to wellness hotels that are especially designed for specific short-term stays associated with professional care and rehabilitation of guests. A newer type of hotel include wellness hotels, which are not only equipped with sporting and recreational facilities, but also provide a rational diet. The three star class and the upper class include for example Patince Wellness Hotel, Hotel Park (Piešťany), Hotel Comfort (Nitra), Hotel Rubín (Dudince) Hotel Termál (Vyhne), Wellness Hotel Diplomat (Rajecké Teplice) and Hotel Aquacity Mountain View (Poprad), etc.

Another type of hotel, located in a natural environment is represented by mountain hotels, which include all classes except the one of four stars. They are located mainly in the central, northern and northeastern part of Slovakia. The most famous mountain hotels include, for example Hotel Šachtička (Banská Bystrica), Golf Hotel (Tále), Sport Hotel Donovaly, Hotel Poľana (Hriňová), Hajnice Mountain Hotel (Horný Vadičov) Mountain hotel Mnich (Bobrovec), Sliezsky dom pod Gerlachom (High Tatras), Mountain Hotel Hutník (Krompachy), Hotel Polianka (Krpáčovo) or Hotel Podjavorník (Papradno). In the mountain areas there are also apartment hotels which consist of a minimum of eight apartments. They provide a range of services relevant for the class hotel and include as examples e.g. Apartment Hotel Liptovský Dvor (Liptovský Ján), Apartment Hotel Vili (Tatranská Lomnica), Hotel Vila Grand (High Tatras) and Hotel Crocus (Štrbské Pleso). Apartment hotels have been also created in urban environment e.g. Hotel Residence MaMaison (Bratislava), Hotel City Residence (Košice), Hotel Darmoon, Adam Eva Resort (Piešťany) and apartment hotels Tatran and Magura (Donovaly).

The higher-class hotels with more than three stars include congress hotels, located not only in urban areas but also in the recreational environment. The hotels of this type are equipped with negotiating spaces that allow flexibility of their use and provide the technical conditions for the provision of conference services. This type of hotel is currently experiencing a great surge in Slovakia, under which there were mainly Bratislava hotels: Apollo, Crowne Plaza, Holiday Inn, Austria, Trend Hotel. Congress hotels are also located in all other parts of Slovakia: Senec Hotel, Capital Hotel (Nitra), Holiday Inn (Žilina),

Hotel Patria (Štrbské Pleso) Grandhotel Jasná, Grandhotel Starý Smokovec (Starý Smokovec), Congress Hotel Gala (Sielnica), Doubletree by Hilton (Košice) and Grand Hotel Kempinski High Tatras (Štrbské Pleso).

These new hotels brought foreign capital which entered the hotel industry through independent companies or through chains. The making of chains in the hotel industry is also one of the elements of globalization. Slovakia has traditionally been conservative, concentrating especially on small and medium-sized hotels that have private owners who keep guests through the familiar name of the hotel, which represents a guarantee of quality services. In Slovakia independent hotels dominate, whereas in the global hotel sector even 30% of all shares in the hotel industry are controlled by hotel chains. It is expected that in 2050 more than 60 % of the hotels will belong to multinational companies (Gúčík-Šípková, 2004). We know transnational (global) and national hotel chains, which benefit from the advantages of connection to the global distribution systems. The hotel chain is a hotel group connected by one hotel brand or a group of hotels acting under a multi-brand label, so that their brands cover most market segments and are mutually complementary (Mištík, 2007), under agreements between hotels and the owner of rights of the hotel brand. The owner of the hotel company brand provides hotel services in a certain sphere, which is achieved by centralizing cost savings more efficiently. In Slovakia hotel chains are:

- a) transnational – hotels with an international brand (3,34% of the hotels in Slovakia) – which are located in attractive regions of Slovakia,
- b) national – domestic hotel chains – with a small number of hotels – often are not typical hotel chains (*Table 2*).

Table 2
Basic Indicators of Multinational Hotel Chains in 2008

| Foreign hotel chain | Name of hotel | Capacity | Category | Class | Locality |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------|--------------------|
| Intercontinental Hotels Group | Crowne Plaza | 224 | Congress | **** | Bratislava |
| | HolidayInn | 168 | Congress | **** | Bratislava |
| | HolidayInn | 133 | Congress | **** | Žilina |
| Best Western | Hotel West | 50 | Congress | **** | Bratislava |
| | Palace Hotel Polom | 70 | Congress | **** | Žilina |
| | Hotel Tulipán | 15 | Mountainous | **** | Mesto Vysoké Tatry |
| | Teledom Hotel & Conference Centre | 31 | Congress | *** | Košice |
| | Hotel Reduta | 41 | Garni | *** | Lučenec |
| | Hotel Karpatia | 45 | Garni | *** | Humenné |
| | Hotel Capital | 47 | Congress | **** | Nitra |
| Carlson Hotels | Carlton | 168 | Congress | **** | Bratislava |
| Accor | Ibis | 128 | Garni | *** | Bratislava |

| OreaHotels | Club hotel | 33 | Garni | *** | Bratislava |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------|-----|-------------|-------|--------------------|
| Kempinski Hotels & Resorts | Grand Kempinski High Tatras | 98 | Mountainous | ***** | Mesto Vysoké Tatry |
| | Kempinski Hotel River Park | 231 | Congress | ***** | Bratislava |
| Starwood Hotels & Resorts | Sheraton | 211 | Congress | ***** | Bratislava |
| Hilton Hotels | DoubleTree by Hilton | 170 | Congress | **** | Košice |
| Ma Maison Hotels & Resorts | Ma Maison Residence Šulekova | 32 | Apartmans | *** | Bratislava |
| Small Luxury Hotelsof the World | Marrol's | 54 | Boutique | **** | Bratislava |
| | Albrecht | 12 | Boutique | **** | Bratislava |

Source: www.destinacie.sk, by: Petrikovič, 2009.

Transnational hotels create closed or open strings. All hotels that are part of the chain must meet the same level of comfort and service. Hotel chains such as InterContinental Hotels Group (UK), Cendant (U.S.), Accor (F) and Hilton Corporation (U.S.) are famous examples of closed hotel chains. Management of such branded hotels is usually associated with compliance with standardized services and with providing a similar product in all of hotels belonging to one brand in several world countries. The second type of chains is called open strings. They are untypical international hotel chains, which combine independent hotels and form a consortium under a common brand. Through the individual hotels a freedom of choice is provided. This type of chain benefits from joining the group including brands such as e.g. Best Western (*Fig. 8*).

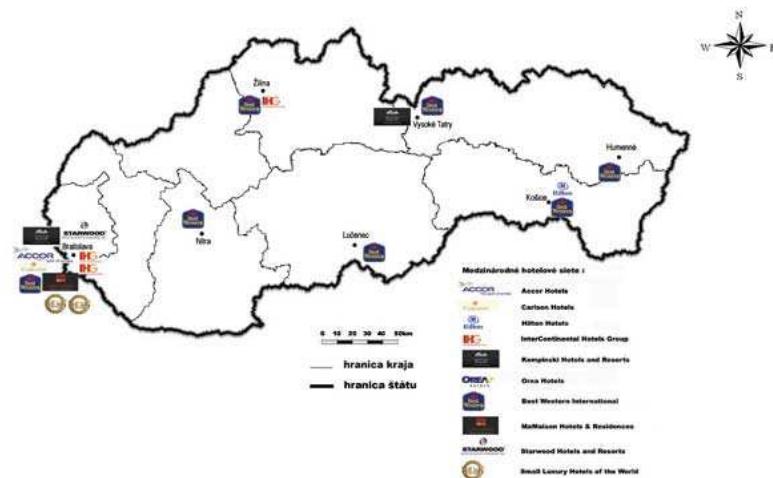


Fig. 8. Localization of international hotel chain of Slovakia in 2010

Slovak territory has its hotels in 10 international hotel chains and their number is growing. The first chain InterContinental Hotels Group came to Slovakia in 1990, in the capital city – Bratislava and built Forum Hotel, which under a management contract since 2005 was converted into Crowne Plaza Bratislava. The chain is characterized by multi-brand operation. Since 1995 under a franchise agreement the brand Holiday Inn operates in Bratislava. Holliday Inn is a brand of mid-level hotels. The second hotel of this brand is located in Žilina. InterContinental Hotels Group chain in Slovakia has an available capacity of 525 rooms including 133 rooms in Žilina. Unlike the InterContinental Hotels Group chain Best Western International operates in the global marketplace under one brand: Best Western. Its hotels are mostly minor independent units. This hotel chain in Slovakia has the largest number of hotels, located in Bratislava (Hotel West the member of Best Western since 1999) Bučeková (2007) but also in other several cities – Palace Hotel Polom – Žilina –Tulipán Hotel – Tatranská Lomnica, Hotel Teledom & Conference Center – Košice, Hotel Reduta – Lučenec, Hotel Karpatia – Humenné and Capital Hotel in Nitra. Its total capacity is of 273 rooms.

The chain of luxury hotels is represented by StarwoodHotels and Resorts famous with more brands. In 1999 the brand W Hotels was launched, which became the first successful hotel chain in the segment of boutique hotels. In 2005 Starwood has changed the strategy from the estate of the owner towards franchising and hotel management. On the territory of Slovakia string came in 2010 and is represented by one of the Sheraton Hotel in Bratislava with 211 rooms. By one hotel with 168 rooms the chain of Carlson Hotels is also represented. In Europe, The Rezidor Group subsidiary based in Brussels, has exclusive franchise rights for most brands of the company. For embacious clients MaMaison Hotels & Residences chain was designed, which consists of mainly medium-high luxury hotels of boutique & business class and conference hotels, as well as of residential all-suites hotel, meeting and exceeding the international standards requirements. As an example MaMaison Residence Šulekovo with 32 rooms represents a small hotel near Bratislava. Other international chains in Slovakia as Kempinski Hotels and Resorts are among the oldest in Europe (1897). The brand represents the hotels that are oriented to embacious clients in the field of recreation and tourism employment. It is represented by the five star Kempinski Hotel River Park in Bratislava. This city conference hotel was opened in 2010. Another example, Hotel Grand Kempinski High Tatras in Štrbské Pleso is a luxury mountainous hotel, which was built in 2009.

A relatively young chain is AccorHotels. This hotel chain is a known leader in the segment of cheap hotels, managing a number of brands as for example Accor, Ibis, Mercure, Sofitel, Motel 6, Etap and RedRoofInn. On the territory of Slovakia this chain has only one hotel – Hotel Ibis located in Bratislava. With a capacity of 120 of rooms, this hotel was obtained by the Hungarian subsidiary company AccorHotels. An atypical international hotel

chain is Small Luxury Hotels of the World that does not produce typical international hotel chains, but consists rather in an association of hotels, focusing on common standards and trends. In Slovakia this association owns two hotels in Bratislava e.g. Marrol (54 rooms) and Albrecht (12 rooms). International companies have their hotels OreaHotels in Slovakia, which is one of the largest hotel chains in the Czech Republic that followed the tradition of union hotels, represented by Club Hotel in Bratislava.

Conclusion

In the last period (excluding crisis) especially new and renovated hotels, guesthouses, and small accommodation units in the rural area have grown significantly in Slovakia, with the participation of domestic and foreign capital. Rural areas have witnessed a reconstruction of historical buildings or mansions into modern hotels, where there is a fusion of traditional style with modern recreational facilities (eg. wellness centers, different types of spas, tennis courts, gym, swimming pools... etc.). In this way hoteliers try to bring as many visitors through meeting their requirements.

The entry of foreign capital is owed especially to multinational hotel chains gradually entering the Slovak hotel industry as Slovakia starts as well displaying elements of the globalization of its recreational industry. International hotel chains are investing in building or reconstruction of hotels especially in areas with significant tourism potential, whether cultural, historical or natural. Chains are oriented from medium class to high-class luxury boutique, business & conference hotels as well as to all-suites Residence Hotel, which are oriented mainly to ambitious clients in the field of recreation and tourism employment.

***Acknowledgement**

The paper was presented at the international conference „Challenges and Performance of Post Socialist Tourism in Central Eastern European countries“ organized by the Department of Human and Economic Geography, Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest and held between 26-27 May 2011 at Bucharest, Romania.

REFERENCES

- Gúčík, M., I. Šípková (2004), “Globalizácia a integrácia v cestovnom ruchu”, *Knižnica cestovného ruchu* 7, Banská Bystrica: Slovak-Swiss Tourism, 146 p.

- Mištík, R. (2007), "Medzinárodné hotelové siete a reťazce na Slovensku", in *Hotelier*, vol. 1, nr. 1, p. 21.
- Mištík, R. (2007), "Pohľad do dejín Hotelierstva", in *Hotelier*, vol. 1, nr. 1, p. 12.
- Mištík, R. (2008), "Globálny vývoj hotelového biznisu", in *Hotelier*, vol. 2, nr. 4, p. 9.
- Smeral, E. (1998), "The Impact of Globalization on Small and Medium Enterprises: New Challenges for Tourism Policies in European Countries Members in *Tourism Management*", vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 371-380, in Vesna (eds.), *Tourism and Globalization "Managing the Process of Globalisation in New and Upcoming EU"*, Proceedings of the 6th International Conference of the Faculty of Management Koper Congress Centre Bernardin, Slovenia, 24-26 November 2005, pp. 33-41.
- Vavreková, M. (2007), "Legislatíva verzus hotelierstvo", in *Hotelier*, vol. 1, nr. 3, p. 23.

EXPLORING THE MYTHOLOGICAL AND RELIGIOUS VALUE OF GEOHERITAGE. CASE STUDY: THE BUCEGI MOUNTAINS

IRINA-MARIA NECHEȘ¹

This paper considers two of the cultural values of geoheritage: the mythological and the religious value, while introducing Omu peak and Ialomița cave, two natural destinations located within the Bucegi Mountains of Romania's Southern Carpathians. Although mythology and religion share common aspects, it is necessary to distinguish them. Mythology emerged in ancient times as a way of explaining the physical world, whereas religion characterizes an upper stage in the evolution of mankind. Mythology is reduced to spiritual beliefs, while religion is based upon sacred practices to recall and strengthen these beliefs. The religious value of geoheritage is conditioned by the existence of sacred relics or places of worship close to geological formations. According to the age of these items, the religious value can be either pre-historical or historical. Omu peak has only acquired a mythological value since hypotheses related to its religious value are not confirmed. Ialomița cave has acquired both a mythological and a religious value. In addition to their exploration as close components of geoheritage, a brief model for their assessment is also introduced. Both steps aim to encourage landform exploitation not only by means of scientific interpretation but also by revealing and explaining their cultural attributes.

Key-words: geoheritage, mythological value, religious value, geomythology, Bucegi Mountains.

1. Introduction and Aim of Research

Geoheritage comprises landforms and geological or geomorphological phenomena with renowned scientific relevance to which people have gradually ascribed cultural values in the course of time, including a mythological and/or a religious value (Hose, 2005). Such elements have already raised awareness among scientists and researchers concerned with their proper conservation and management (Gray, 2004), yet they also provide opportunities for leisure and education. Omu peak and Ialomița cave are located within the central and northern part of the Bucegi Mountains, a large area comprising a wide variety of geological and geomorphological features with a huge potential value for geotourism – a form of natural area tourism which “involves visitation to geosites for the purposes of passive recreation, engaging a sense of wonder, appreciation and learning” (Newsome & Dowling, 2006, pp. 3-4) since it

¹ University of Bucharest, Faculty of Geography, Department of Human and Economic Geography, 1 Nicolae Bălcescu Blvd, 010041, Bucharest, Romania; e-mail: imneces@yahoo.com

“specifically focuses on geology and landscape” (Dowling & Newsome, 2010, p. 231). Broader approaches also consider cultural and historical values associated to geosites (Joyce, 2007; Reynard, 2008; Sadry, 2009).

Exploring the mythological and religious value of geoheritage is an important step of the research process that seeks to assess the overall cultural dimension of landforms and geoheritage sites. The cultural interpretation of geological and geomorphological elements, and more generally of landscapes, would normally be regarded as an alternative to their scientific interpretation for education and conservation. Within an organized framework and supported by sustainable geotourism practices, they shall prove nonetheless complementary.

Geoheritage, as well as any object of natural or cultural heritage, implies the existence of an outstanding value. Myths that have long been associated to landforms should not be regarded as merely common “stories” that randomly increase the attractiveness of tourist destinations but as archaic explanations accounting for the diversity of shapes and phenomena which were perceived rather than understood and hence considered mysterious (Kernbach, 1996).

Legends and myths often display recurring themes and motifs which are widespread in both the Dacian and universal mythology, allowing for symbolic associations and comparisons between different human cultures.

2. Myths vs. Legends. “Geomythology”

Myths and legends share common aspects and are included in the general term of “mythology”. However, they are not synonyms. *Myths* are “sacred narratives” (Dundes, 1984, p. 1) whose value is symbolic. Events are placed in a time that is indefinite and absolute, and characters often exhibit supernatural forces and abilities. Their importance rises not so much from the facts they reveal, but from the meanings they bear. *Legends* are “more often secular than sacred” (Bascom, 1984, p. 9). These stories are usually placed within a definite spatial and temporal context and are related to real places and sometimes historical figures. Frequently the accuracy and extent of the facts are exaggerated.

Myths and legends are basic elements of the traditional folklore. They are almost entirely verbally passed on and therefore permanently altered and modified. As a result, there may be various legends related to one place or even multiple versions of the same legend.

In 1968, D. Vitaliano introduced the term “geomythology”, which she defined as an interdisciplinary subject that seeks to reveal and scientifically explain the geological and geomorphological processes that underlie myths and legends. However, the term generally refers to myths that lead to the revealing of natural hazards ending up in catastrophes (e.g. volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, major floods or landslides). As the author argued, sudden and dramatic geological

and geomorphological events have a greater impact on communities than ordinary events – some of which may not even be perceived – and thus were more likely to stimulate the imagination of ancient people (Vitalicano, 1968, 2007).

3. Mythology vs. Religion

Compared to mythology which emerged in archaic times and generated intuitive and sometimes naive allegories to explain the reality, religion defines an upper stage in the evolution of the human culture (*Fig. 1*). “The mind of man is first led to adore the forces of nature and certain objects of the material world; at a later period it yields to religious impulses of a higher and purely spiritual character” (Humboldt, 1875, p. 7). Religion is a direct consequence of the evolution of myths in the sense that all major religions of the world lay their foundations on myths. Ancient beliefs like animism, and totemism, whose adherents ascribe spiritual attributes to non-human entities, are basic forms of religion. Since “l’homme archaïque n’accepte pas l’irréversibilité du Temps”² (Eliade, 1963, p. 172), societies seek to invoke and recall mythological events and renew their value through sacred rituals and ceremonies. Thus Time becomes “circulaire, réversible et récupérable”³ (Eliade, 1965, p. 61).

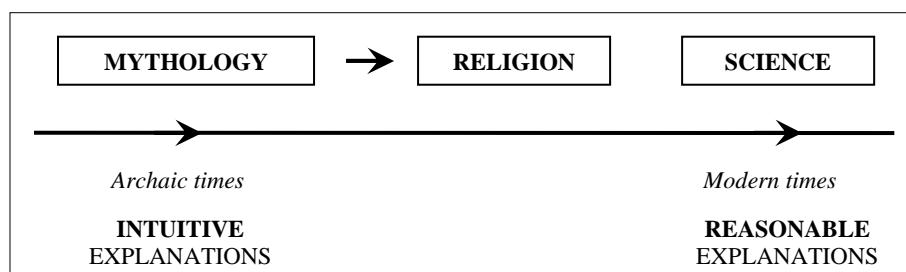


Fig. 1. The major stages in explaining the natural environment displayed chronologically according to the cultural evolution of human societies. Mythology was the first step in explaining the origin and diversity of the physical world. At a later stage, religion encompassed myths and codified them into an own system of dogmas (Kernbach, 1989, Author’s Introduction). Science is the most recent stage of human evolution and development.

While mythology is reduced to ancient spiritual beliefs representing a parallel, independent and exclusively intangible reality, religion is based upon sacred practices to continuously recall, confirm and strengthen these beliefs.

² (author’s translation) “the Archaic Man does not accept the irreversible character of Time”.

³ (author’s translations) “circular, reversible and retrievable”.

The sacred character of rituals usually demands a specific environment and the presence – according to the nature of the rituals – of specific ceremonial items, symbolic representations, sacred texts or inscriptions, and later, sanctuaries or temples as places of worship. The existence and especially the preservation of such tangible elements in areas surrounding geological formations determine to a great extent the religious value of geoheritage. According to the age of these artifacts, the religious value can be divided in pre-historical – with items dating from Pre-Christianity – and historical – with items related to Christianity.

4. Methodology

Geoheritage is generally perceived as a shorthand for geological (Leman et al. 2008; Eder *et al.* 2010) and geomorphological (Reynard, 2008; Rodrigues & Fonseca, 2010) heritage. Due to the combination of natural and cultural elements and its outstanding value, geoheritage may rather be regarded as a self-standing category within the world heritage (Neches, 2011).

Existing assessment methods for the geological and geomorphological sites (commonly referred to as *geosites* or *geomorphosites*) consider both religious implications (Pralong, 2005) and mythology (Serrano & González-Trueba, 2005). However, since no clear distinction is made between them, myths and legends fall within a broader category comprising mystic, symbolic and religious values (Reynard *et al.*, 2007), while the latter one itself is sometimes only considered as an intangible spiritual value.

The Bucegi Mountains have long been studied for their natural landscapes and cultural value. A recent study draws a parallel between the geological origin and geomorphological composition of landforms as revealed by scientific inquiry and the legends and popular beliefs associated to them as reflected in people's perception (Oprea *et al.*, 2012). One year before, a multi-purpose survey with multiple choice questions was applied in order to determine people's perception towards geoheritage conservation on the Bucegi Plateau, with a special emphasis on the Sphinx (Neches, 2011). Results concluded that the former is perceived as both a natural and cultural (mythical) place, while the latter, due to its unusual shape, is preferably perceived as a cultural element. However, since no studies so far have specifically focused on the assessment of the mythological and religious value of geoheritage – a heritage which is “frequently neglected and threatened” (Hose, 2005), a brief assessment model is hence suggested (*Table 1*).

Table 1
Brief Model for Assessing the Mythological and Religious Value of Geoheritage

| Value Type (Evidence) | Main Value | Component Value | Observations (related to the Component Value) | Max. Score |
|----------------------------------|---|------------------------|---|-----------------------|
| | | | Sub- scores | |
| Intangible (No evidence) | MYTHOLOGICAL VALUE (LEGENDS + MYTHS) | LEGENDS | = Narratives (Recount facts) | 1 |
| | | MYTHS | = Symbolic narratives (Provide meanings) | 2 (2 x 1) |
| Tangible | RELIGIOUS VALUE (PRE- HISTORICAL + HISTORICAL) | PRE-HISTORICAL | Pre-Christianity (Traditional faiths/ Consequence of myths) | 4 (2 x 2) |
| | | HISTORICAL | Christianity (Not related to the Mythological Value) | 5 |
| Tangible | HISTORICAL VALUE (ARCHAEOLO- GICAL + DOCUMENTARY) | ARCHAEOLOGICAL | Artifacts, Petroglyphs (Non-religious items) | 5 |
| | | DOCUMENTARY | Written accounts (Associations with real characters, heroes, peoples or events) | 5 |

The maximum scores available for each Component Value (displayed in the last column) range from **1** (the lowest) to **5** (the highest) according to the existence of material evidence which reflects the overall intangible/tangible character of the Main Value (displayed in the first column). Maximum scores can be divided in sub-scores according to the variability of each Component Value, with the lowest sub-score corresponding to no variable, the medium sub-score corresponding to one variable and the maximum sub-score corresponding to more than one variable (e.g. If no legend is related to a landform, the score is 0. If there is one legend, the score is 0.5. If there is more than one legend, the score is 1).

The **Mythological Value** is an overall intangible value. It encompasses two Component Values: legends and myths. Legends are narratives displaying random events, while myths are narratives that bear symbolic meanings. Legends can reach a maximum score of 1. Myths can reach a maximum score of 2 – considering they have twice the value of legends (2×1)

The **Religious Value** is an overall tangible value (as it is determined by material evidence of a religious nature). It encompasses two Component Values according to the age of the evidence: pre-historical and historical. The former implies the existence of items related to ancient sacred practices as a way of recalling myths, hence the maximum of 4 points received – considering the religious items are twice as relevant as myths (2×2). The latter implies the existence of places of worship related to Christian denominations (hermitages, monasteries, abbeys, churches, cathedrals, etc) and receives a maximum of 5 points.

The **Historical Value** – which was not discussed in the present paper – is an overall tangible value (as it is determined by material evidence of a non-religious nature). It encompasses two Component Values according to the type of evidence: archaeological and documentary. Both of them receive a maximum score of 5.

Each Main Value is defined by the sum of its Component Values.

Main Value (MV) = Component Value (CV1) + Component Value (CV2);

Mythological value (VMyth) = Legends (L) + Myths (M); **Religious value** (VRelg) = Pre-historical (PH) + Historical (H); **Historical value** (VHist) = Archaeological (A) + Documentary (D)

The overall Cultural Value is defined by the sum of the Main Values.

Cultural Value (VCult) = Main Value (MV1) + Main Value (MV2) + Main Value (MV3)

= **Mythological value** (VMyth) + **Religious value** (VRelg) + **Historical value** (VHist)

5. The Mythological Value of Geoheritage. Omu Peak and Ialomița Cave

5.1. Omu Peak

Rising 2,505 m (8,218 ft) above sea level, Omu is the highest peak in the Bucegi Mountains. Shaped by intense wind and water erosion, the large rock on top of it – when viewed from a certain angle (S/SSW) – appears to be a large human skull (Fig.2). The nearby chalet was built at the end of the 19th century.

The shape of this landform is explained by a short legend originating in Dacian Times, which depicts Omu as a young man who was born and raised on top of the Bucegi Mountains, in a period when Dacia was flourishing. As his exceptional eyesight enabled him to notice the enemies from great distance, he used to spend all of his time on the peak that nowadays bears his name. Due to his ability, the Dacians foresaw attacks and won every battle. As he was getting older and his eyesight weakened, he was burdened with the thought that the land would remain defenseless. The Sacred Spirit, although sympathetic to his concern, was unable to provide him with eternal life, but in exchange turned him into a solid rock which is said to be watching over Dacia (Crainicu & Ioniță, 2010, pp. 54-60).

Omú Peak is often associated with the sacred mountain Kogaion (a.k.a. Kogaionon) (Kernbach, 1989, p. 283), place of Zamolxis (a.k.a. Zalmoxis), the main figure of the Dacian mythology, and of Deceneus, the high priest. It is believed that rituals and ceremonies were held in this place every year. N. Densusianu recounts that *Omú* and *Zamolxis* are merely two of the several alternate names of *Saturnus* – an “ancient agricultural divinity of Latin and Roman origin” (Guirand, 1987, p. 215) – thought to have been worshipped in ancient Dacia by the Pelasgians⁴ and later by the Getae (Densusianu, 1913). He also states that a notable geological formation, located south of Omú Peak and overlooking the glacial cirque of the Cerbului Valley⁵, is in fact a carved representation of *Saturnus* (Densusianu, 1913). This iconic landmark (Fig. 3) is readily accessible from the tourist route that nowadays connects Babele chalet and Omú chalet.

A brief legend about Omú Peak is also displayed in Carmen Sylva’s *Peleș Stories* (Carmen Sylva, 1933, pp. 100-126).



Fig. 2. Omú Peak and the rock on top of it that greatly resembles a human skull.
View from the south (Photo by Irina-Maria Necheș, August 25th 2012)

⁴ The “legendary” character of this assumption is implicit, since the Pelasgians were a Pre-Indo-European population who inhabited the Balkan Peninsula south of the Danube, the western part of the Anatolian Peninsula and the coastal regions of the Adriatic and Aegean Seas.

⁵ Roughly translated as “the Deer Valley”.



*Fig. 3. The rock overlooking the Cerbului Valley, thought to represent an ancient deity, *Saturnus* (Photo by Irina-Maria Necheş, August 25th 2012)*

5.2. Ialomița Cave

The most representative geological structure of its type in the Bucegi Mountains, Ialomița cave was carved by water erosion in the limestone bedrock on the right bank of Ialomița river. In terms of morphology, it displays a sequence of chambers linked by galleries and passages (Micalevich-Velcea, 1961). At the entrance of the cave it lays a small hermitage dating from the 16th century (*Fig. 4*).

Legends related to it may not be scarce, but written records are almost non-existent⁶. The legend of Zamolxis introduces a cave hosting a sacred stone with miraculous powers guarded by a sacred spirit. Shortly after becoming a high priest, Zamolxis was granted eternal life thus becoming god of the Dacians

⁶ Most references regarding the Dacian mythology, although dating back to ancient Greece, are scarce and inconsistent. Among the people concerned with this subject there were Plato, Herodotus and Strabo (Kernbach, 1989).

and gaining control over the sacred stone. He is thought to have been living deep into *the Hidden Mountain* ever since (Crainicu & Ioniță, 2010, pp. 20-34).

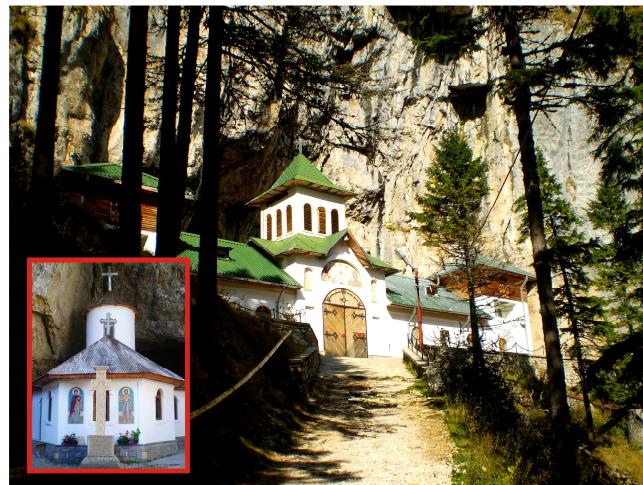


Fig. 4. The wooden building located in front of Ialomița Cave currently serves as monastic cells but also provides shelter for tourists and visitors. Bottom left corner: Ialomița hermitage, located at the very entrance of the cave
(Photos by Irina-Maria Necheș, August 20th 2012)

The myth of Zamolxis was presented in the 4th book of Herodotus's *Histories* and it depicts Zamolxis as a slave living on the Greek island of Samos. After acquiring freedom and accumulating wealth, he returned home and invited his fellow Thracians to a feast. During this celebration he preached on the life after death assuring his listeners that no one would ever die, but everyone would accede to eternal life and wealth. He eventually retreated in a specifically prepared underground chamber (cave) that was known only to him. He lived there for the following three years while people mourned him as they thought he had perished. In the fourth year he returned thus convincing everyone of the truth of his preaching (Herodotus, c.440 BCE, Book 4, Chap. 30, p. 338).

Despite being regarded as an initiation myth, it also exhibits in a symbolic manner the theme of death and resurrection, commonly encountered in the universal mythology (e.g. *Orpheus* in the Greek mythology, *Osiris* in the Egyptian mythology, *Odin* in the Norse mythology, *Krishna* in the Indian mythology, *Quetzalcoatl* in the Aztec mythology) and also featured in the Christian religion. According to historical records, the Dacians believed in this myth so blindly that warriors would venture in any battle with no fear of death. And if a battle was about to be lost, they wouldn't hesitate to take their own lives; an example would be Decebalus' suicidal death in 106 CE after the second war against Trajan.

A brief legend about Ialomița cave is mentioned in Carmen Sylva's *Peleș Stories* (Carmen Sylva, 1933, pp. 88-97).



Fig. 5. Waterfall inside the cave, in the sector known as “the Lakes”
(Photo by Irina-Maria Necheş, August 20th 2012)



Fig. 6. Shallow lake inside the cave, in the sector known as “the Water Gallery”
(Photo by Irina-Maria Necheş, August 20th 2012)

In the course of time people – including historians and ethnographers – have struggled to place indefinite mythological events within a real and well-individualized geomorphological frame. According to Strabo's *Geography*, the cave of Zamolxis is located within a mountain that “is held sacred and is thus distinguished [...] as well as the river which flows by it” (Strabo, c. 20CE, Book 7, Chap. 3, p. 457). Numerous attempts have since then been carried out in order to locate the sacred Kogaion and especially the cave, which has been supposedly identified with Ialomița cave (Bucurescu, 1997, p. 14; Crainicu & Ioniță, 2010, p. 7). None of these alleged assumptions have however been proved, all the more since – as imaginary products (Boia, 1998; Mayor, 2004) – myths seek to explain reality by means of their own laws and methods which do not fall within scientific reasoning.

6. The Religious Value of Geoheritage. Omu Peak and Ialomița Cave

Omú peak and Ialomița cave are natural elements enhanced by an unquestionable mythological value. The question that arises is whether they also have a religious value.

Besides the legend explaining its anthropomorphic aspect and the association with the sacred mountain Kogaion, Omú peak is said to have been a sacred place. However none of the hypotheses supporting this statement is supported, since no evidence has been discovered to confirm the practice of a ritual or ceremony, neither in ancient times nor more recently (Anghelușcu & Avanu, 2008).

The mythological value of Ialomița cave emerges mainly from its association with Zamolxis. Although no ancient relic has been found in this place either, the cave has nevertheless acquired a renowned religious value. The small hermitage located at its very entrance was built at the initiative of Mihnea Vodă, son of Vlad the Impaler, whose very short rule over Wallachia lasted only one year (1508-1509). In this case, however, the religious value of geoheritage is not a direct consequence of the evolution of myths since it doesn't refer to ancient or prehistoric beliefs, but to a more recent period – the Late Middle Ages – when Christianity had already spanned across Europe⁷.

The result of the brief assessment of the mythological and religious value of Ialomița cave and Omú Peak is displayed below (*Table 2*).

⁷ Dacia was conquered by and included in the Roman Empire in 106 AD. At that time both Dacians and Romans followed mainly traditional faiths. It was only in 380 under the rule of Theodosius I (347-395) that Christianity was officially adopted in the Roman Empire.

Table 2
**Assessment of the Mythological and Religious Value
of Ialomița cave and Omu peak**

| | | IALOMIȚA CAVE | OMU PEAK |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|--|
| Mythological Value (VMyth) | Legends (L) | 1 (2 legends) | 1 (2 legends) |
| | Myths (M) | 1 (1 myth) | 0 (no myths) |
| Religious Value (VRelg) | Pre- historical value (PH) | 0 (no Pre-Christian religious items) | 0 (no Pre-Christian religious items) |
| | Historical value (H) | 2.5 (1 hermitage) | 0 (no Christian places of worship) |
| Historical Value (VHist) | Archaeological value (A) | 0 (no non-religious artifacts) | 0 (no non-religious artifacts) |
| | Documentary value (D) | 5 (2 associations with historical figures – Mihnea Vodă and Decebalus) | 0 (no associations with historical figures, heroes, events etc.) |

Ialomița cave

VMyth = 1 + 1 = **2**; VRelg = 0 + 2.5 = **2.5**; VHist = 0 + 5 = **5**

VCult = VMyth + VRelg + VHist = 2 + 2.5 + 5 = **9.5**

Omú peak

VMyth = 1 + 0 = **1**; VRelg = 0 + 0 = **0**; VHist = 0 + 0 = **0**

VCult = VMyth + VRelg + VHist = 1 + 0 + 0 = **1**

Conclusions

Among the landforms with potential value for geotourism, Omu Peak and Ialomița cave are two major geoheritage sites located in the Bucegi Mountains. The former only has a mythological value which, to a certain extent, is also supported by the “legendary” character of its religious hypotheses, while the latter, apart from its mythological value, also has a religious and a historical value.

Although the Bucegi Mountains are almost entirely encompassed within the borders of a protected area, namely The Bucegi Natural Park, a proper and

effective legislative and operational framework to ensure the reasonable and sustainable exploitation of its diverse resources is still needed. Within a holistic approach, geotourism – as an organized form of tourism – would seek to facilitate the conservation of landforms mainly by involving tourists in activities with an educational purpose, such as interpretive tours.

REFERENCES

- Anghelescu, D., G. Avanu (2008), *Bucegi, între Kogainon și Sahashrara*, [=The Bucegi Mountains, between Kogainon and Sahashrara], Editura Age Art, Bucharest, 132 p.
- Bascom, W. (1984), “The Forms of Folklore: Prose Narratives”, in Dundes A. (ed.), *Sacred Narrative. Readings in the Theory of Myth*, University of California Press, USA, pp. 5-29.
- Boia, L. (1998), “Pour une Historie de l’Imaginaire”, translation from French by Mochi, T. (2000), Editura Humanitas, Bucharest, 232 p. (www.scribd.com).
- Bucurescu, A. (1997), *Dacia secretă* [=Secret Dacia], Ed. Arhetip, Bucharest, 275 p.
- Carmen Sylva, (1933), *Poveștile Peleșului / Pelesch-Märchen* [=The Peleș Stories], Bilingual Edition, Imprimeria Națională, Bucharest, 186 p.
- Crainicu, F., C. Ioniță (2010), *Legendele dacilor liberi*, [=Legends of the Free Dacians], SC Dacica Publishing House SRL, Bucharest, 163 p.
- Densusianu, N. (1913), *Dacia preistorică*, [=Prehistoric Dacia], Institutul de Arte Grafice “Carol Göbl”, Bucharest (www.scribd.com).
- Dowling, R., D. Newsome (2010), “The Future of Geotourism: Where to from Here?”, in Newsome, D., R. K. Dowling (eds.) (2010), *Geotourism: The Tourism of Geology and Landscape*, Goodfellow Publishers Limited, Woodstock, Oxford, pp. 231-244.
- Dundes, A. (ed.) (1984), *Sacred Narrative. Readings in the Theory of Myth*, University of California Press, USA, 352 p.
- Eder, W., P. Bobrowski, R. Missotten (2010), “Examining the Concepts of ‘Geoparks’ and ‘Geoheritage’ in the Americas as a Potential Legacy for IYPE”, Geophysical Research Abstracts, vol. 12, EGU2010-5835, EGU General Assembly 2010, Vienna, Austria, (meetingorganizer.copernicus.org)
- Eliade, M. (1963), *Aspects du mythe*, Éditions Gallimard, Paris, 247 p.
- Eliade, M. (1965), *Le Sacré et le Profane*, Éditions Gallimard, Paris, 186 p.
- Gray, M. (2004), *Geodiversity: Valuing and Conserving Abiotic Nature*, John Wiley & Sons, 448 p.
- Guirand, F. (ed.) (1987), *New Larousse Encyclopedia of Mythology*, translated by Aldington, R., D. Ames, Crescent Books, New York, PDF Document, 479 p. (elearning.zaou.ac.zm:8060).
- Herodotus (c. 440BCE), *Histories*, translated by Rawlinson, G., published in 1996 by Wordsworth Editions Limited, 734 p. (books.google.ro).
- Hose, A. T. (2005), *Landscapes of Meaning: Geotourism and the Sustainable Exploitation of the European Geoheritage. Abstract*, Institute of Geography, University of Lausanne (www.unil.ch).
- Humboldt, A. von (1875), *Cosmos: A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe*, vol. III, translated from German by Otté, E. C., Harper & Brothers, Publishers, New York, USA, 219 p. ([www.avhumboldt.net](http://avhumboldt.net)).
- Joyce, E. B., (2007), „Geotourism, Geosites and Geoparks: Working Together in Australia”, *Special Report, The Australian Geologist, Newsletter*, no. 144, September 2007, pp. 26-29, (web.earthsci.unimelb.edu.au)
- Kernbach, V. (1989), *Dicționar de mitologie generală*, [=Dictionary of General Mythology], Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică, Bucharest.
- Kernbach, V. (1996), *Miturile esențiale*, [=Essential Myths], Editura Univers Encyclopedic, Bucharest.

- Leman, M. S., A. Reedman, C. S. Pei (eds.) (2008), *Geoheritage of East and Southeast Asia*, Institut Alam Sekitar dan Pembangunan (LESTARI), Universiti Kebangsaan, Malaysia; Coordinating Committee for Geoscience Programmes in East and Southeast Asia (CCOP), Bangkok, Thailand, 308 p.
- Mayor, A. (2004), *Geomythology*, in Selley, R., R. Cocks, I. Palmer (eds.) (2004), *Encyclopedia of Geology*, Forthcoming, Elsevier, PDF Document, 8 p. (www.stanford.edu).
- Micalevich-Velcea, V. (1961), *Masivul Bucegi – Studiu Geomorfologic [The Bucegi Massif – a Geomorphological Study]*, Editura Academiei Republicii Populare Române, Bucharest, 151 p.
- Neches, I. (2011), “Geoheritage Conservation Through Geotourism. Case Study: The Bucegi Plateau”, in Dombay, Š., Z. Magyari-Sáska (2011), *The Role of Tourism in Territorial Development*, IV International Conference Gheorgheni, Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca, pp. 141-148.
- Newsome, D., R. K. Dowling (2006), *The Scope and Nature of Geotourism*, in R. K. Dowling, Newsome D., (eds.), (2006), *Geotourism – sustainability, impacts and management*, Elsevier Ltd, Oxford, pp. 3-25
- Oprea, R., A. Nedelea, L. Comănescu (2012), “Petrographic Relief in the Bucegi (Prahovean Area) and Ceahlău Mountains (Central Area) – the Romanian Carpathians. Scientific Approach vs Local Legends”, *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, Year V, no. 2, vol. 10, pp. 183-192.
- Pralong, J.-P. (2005), “A Method for Assessing Tourist Potential and Use of Geomorphological Sites”, *Géomorphologie: Relief, Processus, Environnement*, nr. 3/2005, pp. 189-196.
- Reynard, E., G. Fontana, L. Kozlik, C. Scapozza (2007), “A Method for Assessing the Scientific and Additional Values of Geomorphosites”, *Geographica Helvetica*, Jg. 62 2007 / Heft 3, pp. 148-158.
- Reynard, E. (2008), “Scientific Research and Tourist Promotion of Geomorphological Heritage”, *Geografia Fisica e Dinamica Quaternaria*, vol. 31(2), pp. 225-230.
- Rodrigues, M. L., A. Fonseca (2010), “Geoheritage Assessment Based on Large-Scale Geomorphological Mapping: Contributions from a Portuguese Limestone Massif Example”, *Géomorphologie: Relief, Processus, Environnement*, nr. 2/2010, pp. 189-198.
- Sadry, N. B. (2009), *Fundamentals of Geotourism with a Special Emphasis on Iran. Introduction*, Samt Organization Publishing, Tehran, (physio-geo.revues.org).
- Serrano, E., J. J. González-Trueba (2005), “Assessment of Geomorphosites in Natural Protected Areas: the Picos de Europa National Park (Spain)”, *Géomorphologie: Relief, Processus, Environnement*, nr. 3/2005, pp. 197-208.
- Strabo (c.20CE), *Geography*, translated by Hamilton H. C., W. Falconer, published in 1892 by Bohn's Classical Library, H. G. Bohn, Covent Garden, London, vol. I, 519 p. (www.strabo.ca; books.google.com).
- Vitaliano, D. B. (1968), “Geomythology. The Impact of Geologic Events on History and Legend with Special Reference to Atlantis”, *Journal of the Folklore Institute*, vol. 5, Indiana University Press, pp. 5-30 (www.scribd.com).
- Vitaliano, D. B. (2007), *Geomythology: Geological Origins of Myths and Legends*, Geological Society, London, Special Publications, vol. 273, pp. 1-7 (sp.lyellcollection.org).

MONUMENTS CULTURELS HISTORIQUES DANS LA PLAINE ROUMAINE*

**FLORINA GRECU¹, ANDREEA-LORETA CERCLEUX¹,
ROBERT DOBRE¹, CRISTINA GHITĂ¹, DANIEL IOSIF¹**

Ce travail met en évidence le rôle de la position géographique dans le développement des objectifs culturels d'importance touristique et scientifique locale, régionale ou nationale (les géosites culturels). Dans le développement des géosites culturels de la Plaine Roumaine plusieurs étapes s'individualisent, avec des caractéristiques spécifiques: a) *l'étape prédacico-romaine* avec les géosites néolithiques ; b) *l'étape dacico-romaine*, période dans laquelle des villes sont apparues le long des rivières allochtones (Argedava) et du Danube (Turnu Magurele et Zimnicea) ; c) *l'étape médiévale*, à laquelle sont particulières les villes avec une spécificité architecturale (Calafat, Braila et Galati) et la capitale, Bucarest, fondée en 1459 ; d) *l'étape moderne* des monuments d'une architecture nouvelle ; e) *l'étape contemporaine / socialiste* (1948-1989) ; f) *l'étape actuelle* (après 1989), caractérisée par un mélange d'architectures avec un impact sur l'évolution du phénomène touristique. La Plaine Roumaine, du à ses caractéristiques physico-géographiques et historiques, réunit une palette large de géosites culturels qui pourraient se transformer en vrais objectifs touristiques.

Mots-clés : géosites culturels, néolithique, objectifs touristiques, ville, Plaine Roumaine.

1. Introduction

La Plaine Roumaine, par ses caractéristiques physico-géographiques et historiques, résultat d'un long processus évolutif dans le contexte de sa position géographique (dans la partie Centrale –Sud-est de l'Europe, avec une ouverture vers la Mer Noire par le Danube et la partie sud de Roumanie (figure n° 1), dispose de nombreuses ressources qui peuvent constituer des géosites culturels.

Des données géographiques :

Superficie : 52.600 km² (21% du territoire de la Roumanie); Nombre des habitants : 7 mil. ; Nombre des villes : 67; Nombre des villages : 2300; Altitude maximale: 300 m ; Altitude minimale : 6 m ; Température moyenne : 10-11°C/ an; Précipitations

¹ Faculté de Géographie, Université de Bucarest, Roumanie, Bd. N. Bălcescu No 1, Secteur 1, 70111 Bucarest. Contact e-mails : florinagrecu@yahoo.com, loretacepoiu@yahoo.com, dobre.geo@unibuc.ro, chrys_geo_2007@yahoo.com, iosif.daniel@ymail.com.

moyennes : 450-600 mm/an. La Plaine Roumaine correspond au bassin de sédimentation situé à l'intérieur de l'arc carpato-balkanique ; c'est une plaine de type fluvio-lacustre quaternaire (Grecu et al., 2008 ; Geografia României, vol. V, 2005).

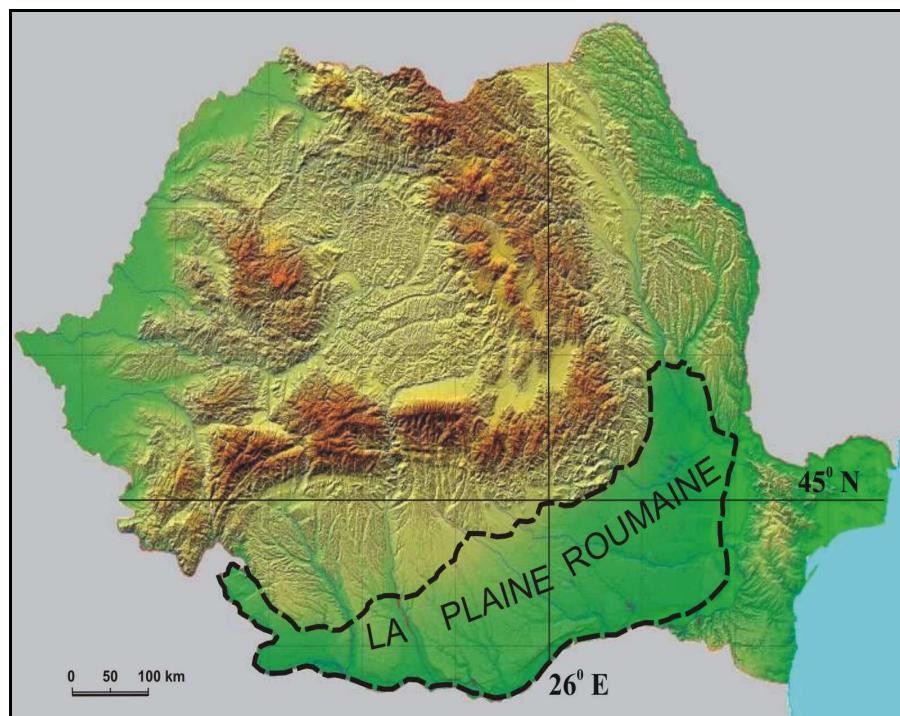


Fig. 1. La position géographique de la Plaine Roumaine

L'ouvrage propose la présentation des facteurs qui ont déterminé l'apparition et le développement des sites importants du point de vue culturel et historique dans les villes. Le relief est un facteur principal dans l'apparition et le développement des villes. La classification des types de villes par rapport aux grandes formes de relief comprenant les *villes de plaine*, les *villes de collines* et de *plateau* et les *villes de montagnes*, reflète les particularités géomorphologiques des formes (morphométrie, pentes, énergie de relief, processus géomorphologiques) dans le développement territorial et fonctionnel de la ville. Le rôle des facteurs économiques résulte de la position géographique, des particularités physico-géographiques (par exemple, l'approvisionnement en eau potable) et géologiques (ressources de sous-sol). La base de l'étude est représentée par la conception systémique concernant l'apparition de la ville, les relations d'interdépendance entre les facteurs physiques, économiques, historiques et sociaux, ainsi que les conceptions historiques et géographiques concernant son développement. Dans

la réalisation de la démarche scientifique on a utilisé plusieurs méthodes : systémique, historique, paléogéographique, cartographique et le SIG.

2. La position géographique des villes et gésites

Quoique la Plaine Roumaine soit apparemment une unité plaine, les villes se sont développées sur certains alignements ou en relation avec les conditions physico-géographiques favorables. Les villes se sont fondées soit au contact avec les unités de relief voisines (les collines), soit le long des cours d'eau allochtones et du Danube; la proximité de l'espace pontique et la proximité des défilées carpates ont favorisé les relations commerciales (*Fig. 2*). Ainsi, dans la Plaine Roumaine on rencontre:

- **Les villes situées au contact avec les Souscarpates de Courbure et le Plateau Gétique**, à la sortie des rivières de collines, sur leurs terrasses (où la nappe phréatique est peu profonde) (Focşani) et le long du contact morphologique (Balş, Mizil) ; elles se sont développées grâce au commerce entre les régions qui convergent vers le Danube et les régions centrales et du sud-ouest de Roumanie (Râmnicu Sărat, Piteşti, Târgovişte, Ploieşti) ;
- **Les villes situées le long du Danube** (au contact de la plaine inondable avec les terrasses) – les villes-ports, commerciales et les ports industriels (Giurgiu, Călăraşi, Brăila, Galaţi) (Geografia Văii Dunării Româneşti, 1969 ; Grecu *et al.*, 2008).
- **Les villes de plaine, situées le long des artères hydrographiques**, dont apparition et évolution ont été déterminé par le développement du commerce le long des cours d'eau, des possibilités d'approvisionnement en eau et de défense (Bucureşti – capitale de Roumanie, Craiova, Slobozia, Alexandria). Les villes situées le long des rivières sont les plus nombreuses et se sont développées de façon significative du point de vue économique.
- **Les villes situées sur des interfluves** sont de petites villes, anciens villages déclarés villes (Caracal, Băileşti, Segarcea, Făurei).

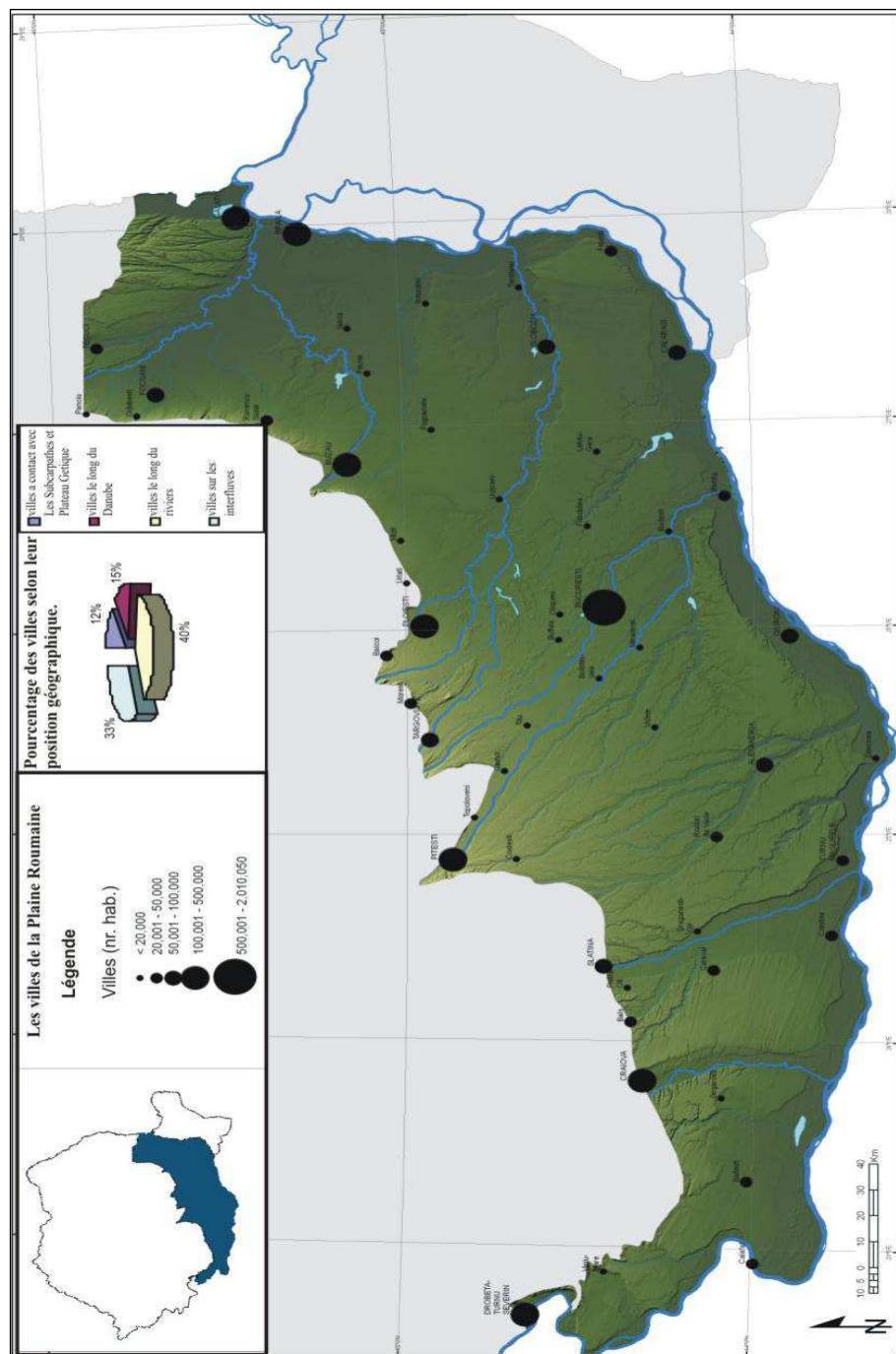


Fig. 2. La carte des villes dans la Plaine Roumaine (Grecu et al., 2008)

Les facteurs économiques sont le résultat du développement initial de la ville influencé par les particularités physico-géographiques : le transport fluvial sur le Danube, la Mer Noire et les rivières allochtones ; la hydro-énergie ; les sols fertiles (de type tchernoziom) pour l'agriculture.

La densité des périmètres construits montre le rôle du réseau hydrographique, du contact morphologique avec les collines et le rôle du Danube (*Fig. 3*).

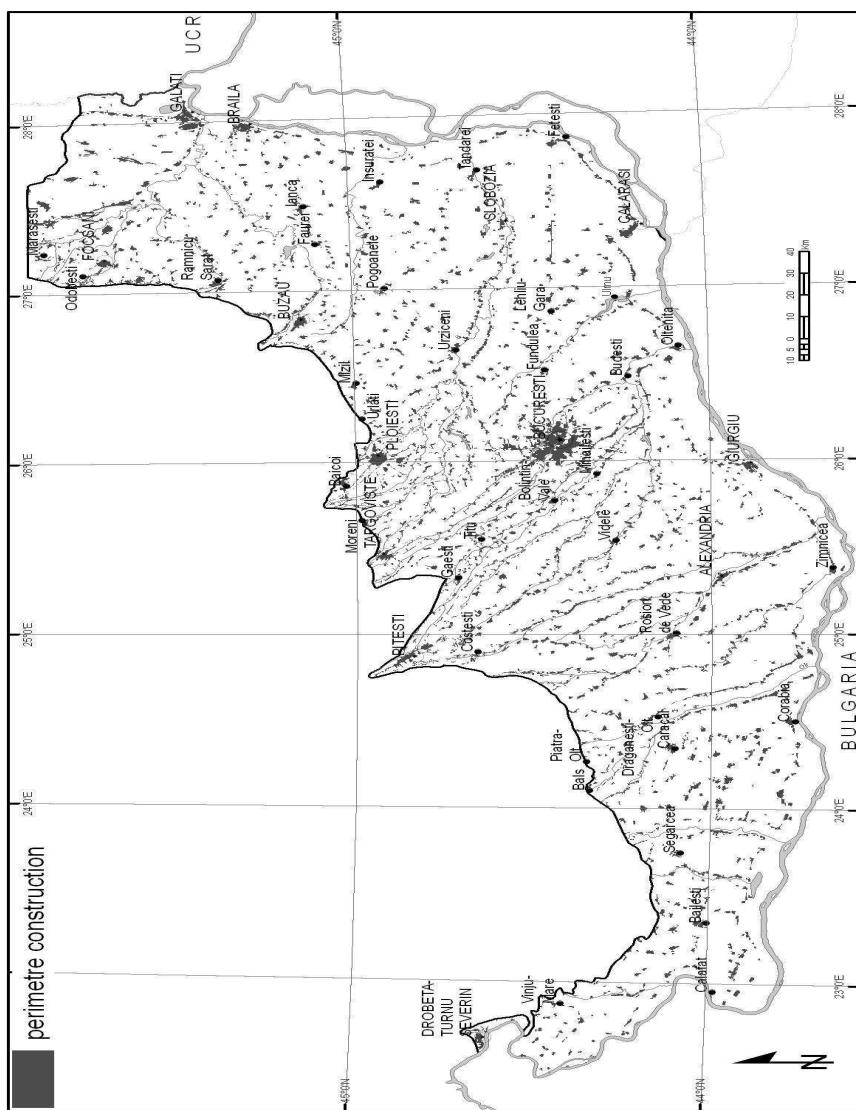


Fig. 3. La carte des périmètres bâtis (villes et villages) et le réseau hydrographique de la Plaine Roumaine, d'après CORINE (Grecu, 2010)

3. Les facteurs historiques

Dans le développement des géosites culturels de la Plaine Roumaine se distinguent plusieurs étapes, chacune ayant une caractéristique spécifique :

- a) *l'étape prédaco-romaine*, avec les géosites néolithiques, ainsi que les cultures Gumelnița et Vadastra ;
- b) *l'étape daco-romaine* quand les villes se sont apparus le long des rivières allochtones (Argedava) et du Danube (Turnu Măgurele, Zimnicea) ;
- c) *l'étape médiévale*, à laquelle sont particulières les villes développées dans des rayas turques, distinguées par une spécificité architecturelle (Calafat, Brăila et Galați) et la capitale, Bucarest, fondée en 1459 ;
- d) *l'étape moderne* (au cours du XVIII^e siècle et la première partie du XX^e siècle) se distingue par le développement des villes avec profil industriel ayant à la base la mise en valeur des ressources naturelles, ainsi que par l'apparition des monuments d'une architecture nouvelle ;
- e) *l'étape contemporaine* (1948-1989) qui a visé l'essor urbanistique, beaucoup de communes étant élevées au rang de villes avec une économie reposant surtout sur l'industrie ;
- f) *l'étape actuelle* (après 1989), caractérisée par un mélange d'architectures avec un impact sur l'évolution du phénomène touristique.

Un autre facteur important est celui politique, c'est-à-dire : l'existence des conventions et des traités des pays riverains ou européens concernant la réglementation des transports sur le Danube et sur la Mer Noire (par exemple: le Traité d'Adrianopole de 1829 qui a déclaré la libéralisation du commerce sur le Danube) (Buga, 2005).

4. Les éléments anthropiques

La Plaine Roumaine détient un fond valeureux d'éléments anthropiques qui attirent des nombreux visiteurs. Le groupement de ces éléments est le résultat des relations entre l'homme et la nature au parcours du temps, ce qui a conduit au développement et à la délimitation des provinces et des zones touristiques (Ielenicz, Comănescu, 2006). L'histoire du peuple roumain se reflète dans de nombreux témoignages matériaux et spirituels, conservés dans le périmètre des localités (sites d'intérêt archéologique, églises et monastères, monuments commémoratifs, musées et maisons commémoratives, éléments d'intérêt ethnographique et d'art populaire etc.). Dans la structure des

monuments historiques (*Tableau 1*) entrent les sites archéologiques, les ensembles architecturaux, les cours des nobles, les manoirs, les parcs, les statues et les maisons mémorielles.

Dans ce sens là on mentionne :

– les vestiges paléolithiques, néolithique, traco-daces, daco-romanes (*Fig. 4*).

Les bénéfices de cette région de plaine ont été valorisés à partir du Paléolithique et notamment au Néolithique, témoignés par les nombreux sites archéologiques (l'axe danubien – Chirnogi, Giurgiu, Zimnicea, Spanțov, Ostrovu etc., l'axe de Mostiștea – Măriuța, Vlădiceasca, Valea Argovei, Sultana, Malu Roșu etc., l'axe de Ialomița – Dridu (*Fig. 5*), l'axe de Argeș, le Bărăgan du Nord);

Tableau 1
Les monuments culturels historiques

| Départements | Monuments historiques | Établissements religieux |
|--------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Brăila | 169 | 159 |
| București | 2627 | 311 |
| Călărași | 288 | 210 |
| Dolj | 697 | 455 |
| Giurgiu | 541 | 252 |
| Ilfov | 704 | 216 |
| Ialomița | 217 | 220 |
| Olt | 762 | 430 |
| Teleorman | 394 | 430 |

Source: www.cultura.ro

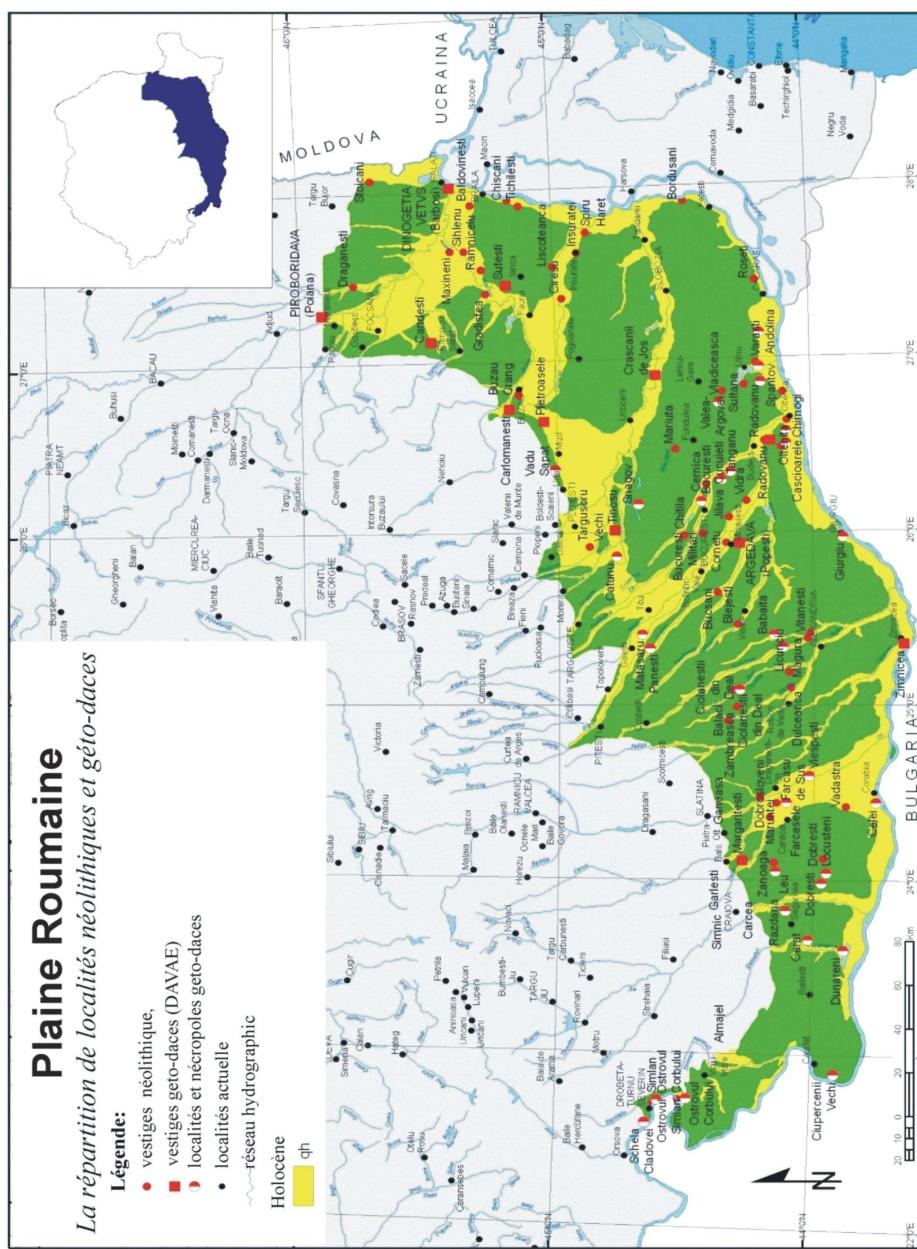


Fig. 4. La répartition des localités néolithiques et géto-daces (Grecu et al., 2009)

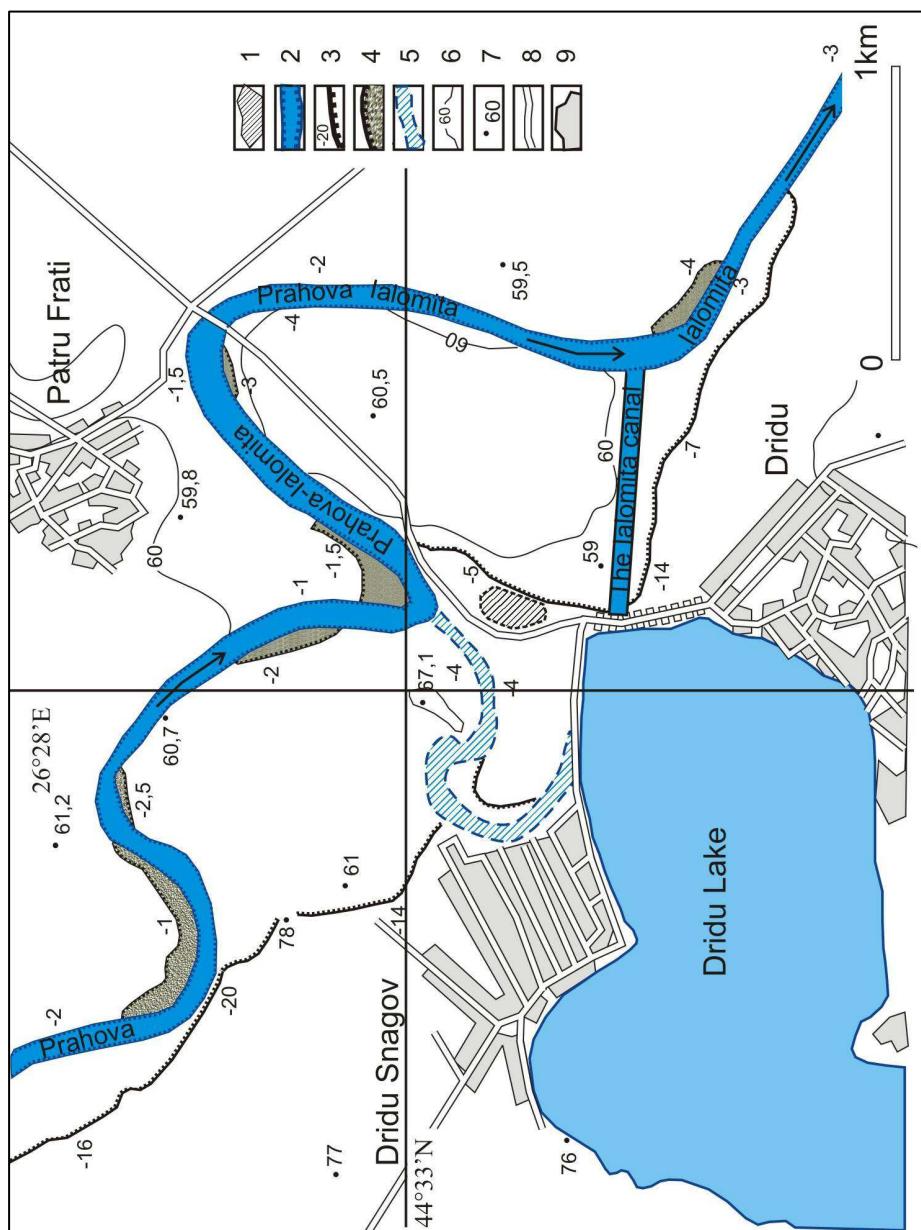


Fig. 5. La carte géomorphologique du site Dridu (Grecu et al., 2009)

- 1. Site archéologique ; 2. Rivière ; 3. Falaise ; 4. Dépôts de sable ;
- 5. Canal abandonné ; 6. Ligne de contour ; 7. Elévation ;
- 8. Rue ; 9. Localité

Tableau 2
Le répertoire archéologique néolithique dans la Plaine Roumaine

| PÉRIODES | | REGIONS | TYPES | EXEMPLES (région/site) | |
|--|-----------|------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Le Néolithique dans la Plaine Roumaine | Inférieur | Starčevo-Cris | Le Sud et l'Est de la Plaine Roumaine | Nécropole | Gura Beciuului, Cris, Glăvănești |
| | | Dudești (4300-4900 avant J.C.) | Le Centre et l'Ouest de la Plaine Roumaine, sur les terrasses des vallées Vedea, Teleorman et Olt. | Maisons | Alexandria, Verbicioara Leu, Cernica (la vallée de Colentina), Ipotesti (au Sud de Slatina), Radovaniu (Argeș Inférieur), Singureanu, Rogozi-de-Vede, Dudești, Plopști-Slavitestii, Drăgănești-Olt |
| | Moyen | Boian | Le Centre et l'Est de la Plaine Roumaine. | Viaduc, localités, nécropoles | Varcea (près de Craiova) |
| | | Vinča | L'Ouest de la Plaine Roumaine. | Maisons, localités avec système défensif. | Balta Sărata (entre Olt et Vedea). |
| | | Vădastra (4250-3750 av. J.-C.) | Entre Jiu et Vedea, notamment sur les bords des terrasses. | Localités de type tell, avec des fossés défensifs. | Le site de Vădastra (Măgura Cetate et Măgura Fetelor, Măgura Jilavei, Dealul Cigmeli, Crasovi, Hotărani, Bratovcești, Orlea etc.) |
| | Supérieur | Gumelnița | Le centre et l'est de la Plaine Roumaine. | De type tell, localité, nécropoles. | La vallée de Mostiștea |
| | | Sălcuta | La partie Ouest de la Plaine Roumaine. | Localité fortifiée avec fossé défensif de type tell, nécropoles et tombeau. | 50 points archéologiques dans le Plaine – par ex: Sălcuta (sur la vallée Desnățu), Plenita (plaine de Băilești), Simnic (près de Craiova), Vârju Mare, Drăgănești-Olt |
| | Aldeni | Le Nord-Est de la Plaine Roumaine. | | | |

La culture du Néolithique, 6000 et 2500 avant J.C. (*Tableau 2*) est représentée par le Néolithique Inférieur et Moyen à Vădastra, Precucuteni et le Néolithique Supérieur pour la culture Gumelnița. Dans la Plaine Roumaine, la culture Gumelnița correspond généralement à la culture Boian de Munténie. Les plus nombreux sites archéologiques ont été découverts dans le Nord-est de la plaine, dans la vallée de Mostiștea (figure n° 6), l'ouest de la Munténie et dans le Plaine de Bucarest. La culture de Gumelnița présente, comme toutes les cultures énéolithiques, ses éléments spécifiques. Les plus importants sont les villages de type Tell situés sur les terrasses, sur les îles etc. Ces villages ont été fortifiés avec des systèmes artificiels de défense. On les trouve toujours près d'une source d'eau et près des ressources naturelles facilement exploitées. Les régions avec la présence de la culture Vădastra comprennent l'espace situé entre les rivières Vedea et Jiu (Comsa, 1987). Ces cultures sont toujours liées aux sources d'eau douces. Le site géo-archéologique de Vădastra comprend deux collines : Măgura Cetate et Măgura Fetelor, séparées par la rivière d'Obârșia (Botzan, 1996).



Fig. 6. La Civilisation de Gumelnița sur la vallée de Mostiștea, 2500 av. J.C.
 (<http://cimec.ro/Arheologie/gumelnita/3arii/2/main.htm>; Grecu, Ghiță, 2008)

Les monuments et les ensembles d'architecture sont représentées par : les églises et les monastères à valeur historique et architectonique (la région de la capitale – Snagov, Căldărușani, Țigănești, Pasărea, Cernica, Craiova, Slatina, Comana etc.); les palais, manoirs et ruines (Căciulați, Bălteni, Scroviștea, Mogoșoaia) ; les musées, les maisons commémoratives, les monuments d'art plastique et commémoratifs et les monuments techniques (le Pont de Saligny sur le Danube, le Pont de l'Amitié Giurgiu-Ruse).

5. Quelques aspects régionaux

Plus bas, on trouve quelques secteurs identifiés avec leurs composantes.

- **Le secteur occidental (la Plaine d'Olténie)** : *les hameaux et les nécropoles géto-daces* : Ostrovul Corbului, Simian, Schela Cladovei, Ciupercenii Vechi etc.
- **Le secteur central (Olt-Arges)**, où les principaux éléments à vocation touristiques sont : *les artères morpho-hydro-lacustres* : Danube, Olt, Argeș, Vedea-Teleorman ; *les lacs de barrage* ; *les maisons*

commémoratives : Nicolae Titulescu, I. C. Visarion (Costeștii din Vale), Marin Preda (Silistea-Gumești), Gala Galaction etc., *les vestiges archéologiques* sur Argeș (Argedava) et sur Neajlov, *les monuments historiques* (Călugăreni etc.), *les traditions ethnographiques* etc.

- **Le secteur oriental**, qui se caractérise par : *la zone Vlăsia - Mostiștea, les axes de civilisation néolithique* (Gumelnița – Valea Mostiștei), *les réserves complexes* (Snagov, Căldărușani, Hanu Conachii), *floristiques et faunistiques* (Vlăsia, Spătaru, Brădeanu), *paléontologiques* (Barboși, Rateș) etc.
- **La zone métropolitaine de Bucarest**, qui inclut la capitale et une partie de la plaine limitrophe. Selon le potentiel naturel (notamment morpho-hydro-lacustre) et anthropique (églises, monastères, musées, monuments d'architecture etc.) et en tenant compte de l'infrastructure, 6 complexes culturels touristiques se distinguent : *Bălteni-Snagov-Căldărușani, Pasărea-Mostiștea, Dâmbovița-Colentina, Argeș-Sabar, Sabar-Colentina et Argeș Sud-Neajlov* (Fig. 7) (Iordan, 1999).
- **Le complexe touristique Bălteni-Snagov-Căldărușani**, situé au nord de Bucarest. La plupart de cette région est une réserve naturelle. Les lacs se sont formés dans de petites vallées secondaires, autochtones. Le régime fluvial s'est transformé en régime lacustre à cause du débit réduit, de l'énergie de relief peu importante, de l'écoulement superficiel et des processus de tassement en loess. Aux confluences, les rivières ont inondé, ce qui a fait que les vallées des affluents soient devenues plus larges et ensuite barrées par des alluvions en résultant des limans fluviaux. Le potentiel anthropique est représenté par : *les monastères de Snagov, Căldărușani, des débarcadères, des plages aménagées sur les berges de lacs Snagov et Căldărușani, les vestiges dacico-romanes de Căciulați sur Cociovaliștea, traco-daces de Tânărăbești sur Snagov, paléolithiques et néolithiques de Gruiu et Tânărăbești* etc. (Grecu, Ghiță, 2009 ; Ielenicz, Comănescu, 2006).

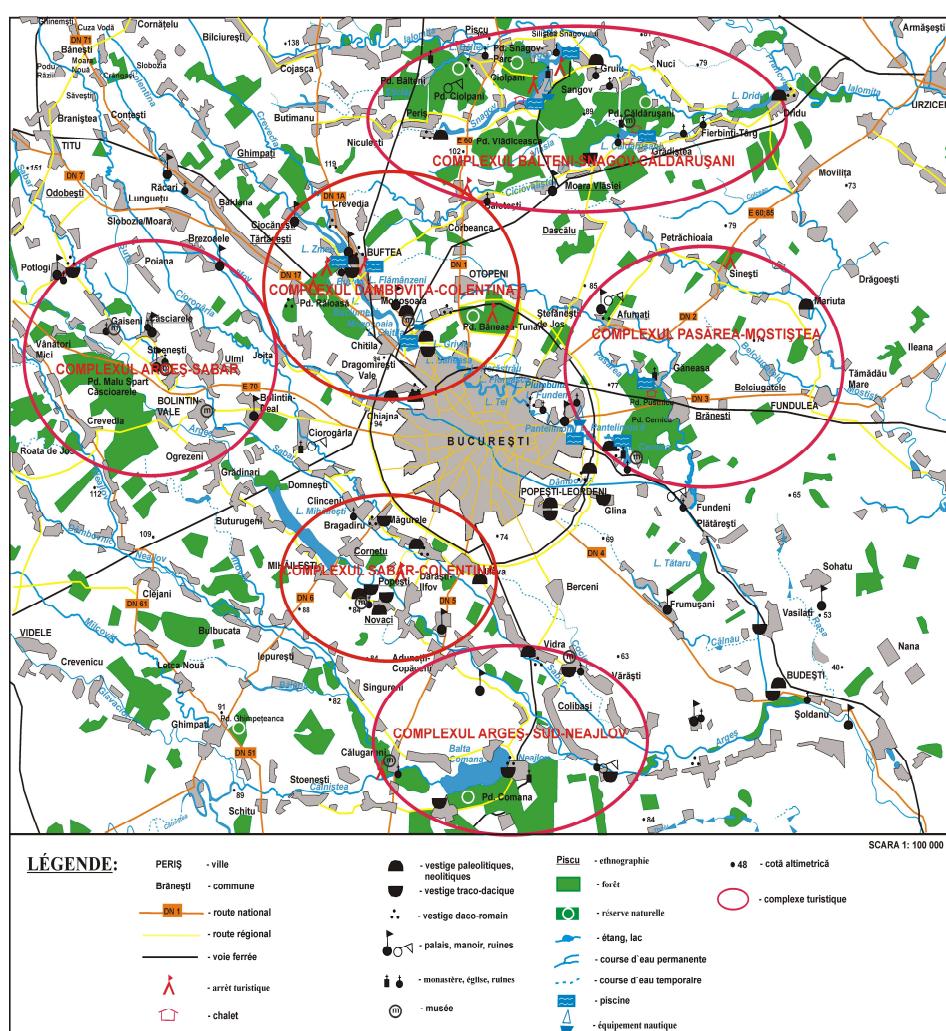


Fig. 7. Principaux complexes touristiques de la microrégion située autour de la capitale
(Retraillé d'après Iordan, 1999, Grecu et. Ghiță, 2008).

– **Le périmètre Pasărea-Mostiștea**, situé dans la partie orientale de la zone métropolitaine, se caractérise par *le potentiel naturel des systèmes fluviaux-lacustres Pasărea et Mostiștea et les périmètres forestiers séculaires Pustnicu-Cernica* et par *le potentiel anthropique des monastères Cernica et Pasărea, des sites archéologiques paléolithiques et néolithiques de la vallée de la Mostiștea Supérieure (Măriuța) et de Pasărea, des complexes touristiques – les monastères Pustnicu et Cernica etc.*

- Le complexe **Dâmbovița-Colentina**, au Nord-Est de la capitale, est concentré sur la vallée de Colentina, en aval de la confluence avec la vallée de Crevedia et sur les cours supérieurs de Cociovaliștea et Pasărea. Les éléments d'attraction sont les *lacs situés sur la vallée de la Colentina, les forêts de Băneasa et Râioasa, les vestiges paléolithiques, néolithiques, traco-daces, daco-romanes et les monuments architecturaux (le Palais de Mogoșoaia)*.
- A l'Ouest de la capitale se trouvent deux régions. L'attractivité anthropique fait référence au *lac de barrage de Mihăilești, au canal București-Olténia, à la concentration des vestiges archéologiques (traco-daces, paléolithiques et néolithiques, daco-romanes)*. Par exemple, la cité géto-dace d'Argedava (2^{ème}-1^{er} siècles av. J.C.), résidence du roi Burebista, a été découverte à Popești, dans le lit de la rivière Argeș. Autres éléments d'attraction anthropique sont: *les monuments d'architecture (le Palais de Constantin Brâncoveanu de Potlogi, les églises de Ciorogârla, Potlogi, Căscioarele et Găiseni), les musées (Bolintin-Vale, Găiseni, Stoenești), les musées ethnographiques et d'art populaire de Novaci, Popești, Cornetu et Căscioarele etc.*
- Le complexe **Argeș Sud-Neajlov** ou le « **Delta du Neajlov** », situé au sud de la capitale, constitue la plus importante réserve naturelle de la Plaine Roumaine. Il est nécessaire de rappeler l'importance *des vestiges archéologiques de la vallée d'Argeș et de Sabar, le musée de Călugăreni et le monastère de Comana*.
- **La ville de Bucarest** est située dans la plaine, le long du réseau hydrographique. Il y a des documents qui attestent que la ville a commencé à se développer à partir du XIV^{ème} siècle, sur un interfluve entre deux rivières. La première mention du nom de Bucarest est attestée par un document du 20 septembre 1459. La ville devient la capitale des Principautés Unies (de la Valachie et la Moldavie) en 1862 et de la Roumanie en 1877, après la proclamation de l'indépendance d'Etat. Ensuite, Bucarest a connu un grand développement (Mihăilescu, 2003). Actuellement, la ville est un des principaux centres urbains de Sud-Est de l'Europe. Les premières informations concernant la superficie bâtie de la ville sont d'origine archéologique et historique. Le premier plan de la ville apparaît en 1789 (Giurescu, 1979). En 1789, Bucarest avait une superficie de 17 km². La ville s'est développée rapidement : en 1852 sa superficie était de 29,9 km²; en 1879 – 36,4 km²; en 1914 – 56,9 km²; en 1940 – 67 km²; en 1963 – 143 km²; en 2002 – 244,1 km² (Gherasim, 2005). En ce qui concerne le nombre de la population, Bucarest comptait 50.000 habitants en 1798, 122.000 habitants en 1862, 276.000 habitants en 1899, 640.000 en 1930, 992.000 en 1941 et

2.000.000 en 2007. Le relief de plaine et le voisinage du Danube ont favorisé l'extension de la ville.

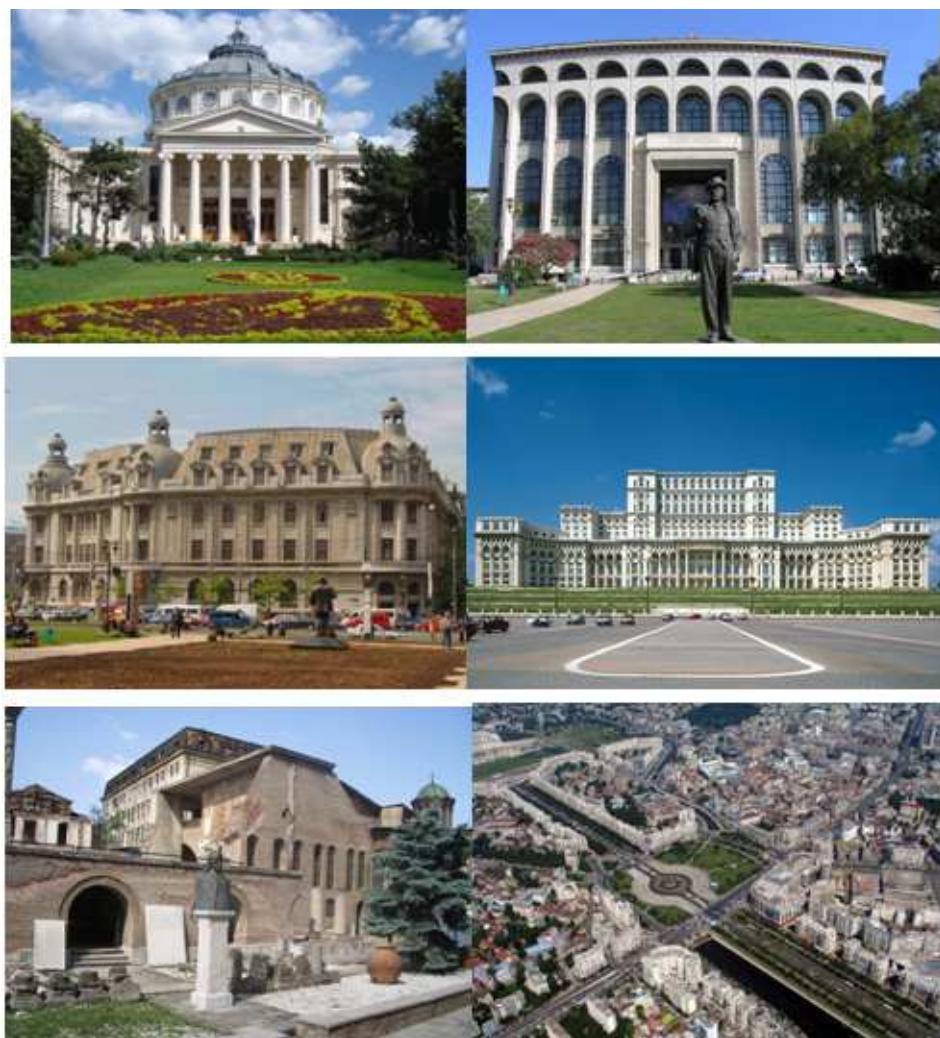


Fig. 8. De gauche à droite : L'Athénaïe Roumain, Le Théâtre National, L'Université, Le Palais du Parlement, Le Centre historique, La place de l'Union
 (http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ateneul_Rom%C3%A2n, <http://ramaitreaz.blogspot.ro/2012/02/inteatrul-national-din-bucuresti-se.html>, <http://www.turismland.ro/universitatea-bucuresti/>,
<http://posturi.wordpress.com/2011/07/09/casa-poporului/>,
<http://www.selectaccommodation.ro/obiective-turistice/centrul-istoric/>,
<http://www.bucurestilive.ro/Fotografii/Bulevardul-Unirii-Piata-Unirii-Poza4.htm?md=6&itm=995369937>)

Parmi les plus importants monuments qui possèdent une très riche valeur historique et architecturale on mentionne (Mihăilescu, 2003) (Fig. 8): *Le Palais Șutu*, construit entre 1832-1834, en style néogothique et qui conserve le musée d'histoire et d'art de Bucarest ; *Le Complexe Architectural Colțea* qui comprend l'église et l'hôpital homonyme construits en 1701 (le premier hôpital de Bucarest) ; *La Maison Lahovary*, construite en 1886 par le célèbre architecte roumain Ion Mincu en style architectural populaire ; *Le Palais de l'Université* construit en 1857 ; le bâtiment de la *Bibliothèque Universitaire Carol le I^{er}* (construit entre 1891 et 1893) en style classique français ; *L'Athénée Roumain*, inauguré en février 1888 est à présent le siège de la *Philharmonique George Enescu* ; *Le Théâtre National* s'inscrit parmi les premières institutions de culture de Bucarest et qui en 1881 fonctionnait dans une seule salle d'une capacité de 1.000 places. Situé dans la Place de l'Université, l'édifice actuel du théâtre a été construit en 1973. Pendant 1983-1984, l'architecture du bâtiment a été modifiée, à l'heure actuelle de nouveaux travaux se déroulant. *Le Palais du Parlement*, construit entre 1984-1989, est le deuxième bâtiment du monde comme dimensions (265.000 m²) après le Pentagon de Washington.

6. Conclusion

Un rôle important dans l'apparition et le développement des villes dans la Plaine Roumaine réside dans leur position géographique par rapport aux axes de communication et de transport. Une aire métropolitaine importante, en pleine expansion, s'est développée autour de la capitale, Bucarest.

***Note :** Communication présentée dans le cadre de La Quatrième Rencontre Internationale sur le Patrimoine Architectural Méditerranéen RIPAM 4, 10-12 Avril 2012, L'institut de Gestion et Techniques Urbaines, le Laboratoire Techniques Urbaines et Environnement, Université de M'sila, Algérie.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- Buga, D. (2005), *Orașele dintre Carpați și Dunăre în secolele XIX și XX. Repartiție teritorială și evoluție demografică*, Edit. Semne, București, 172 p.
- Botzan, M. (1996), *Mediu și viajire în spațiul carpato-dunăreano-pontic*, Edit. Academiei Române, București, 148 p.
- Comşa, E. (1987), *Neoliticul pe teritoriul României*, Edit. Academiei, București, 198 p.
- Giurescu, C. C. (1979), *Istoria Bucureștilor*, ed. II-a, revăzută și adăugită, Edit. Sport-Turism, București, 214 p.

- Gherasim, C. (2005), „Evoluția teritorială a orașului București”, *Analele Universității Spiru Haret*, vol. 8, pp. 147-152.
- Grecu, F. (2010), *Geografia câmpilor României*, Edit. Universității București, 256 p.
- Grecu, F., L. Comanescu, C. Ghiță, R. Sacrieru, G. Toroimac, M. Vișan (2008), « Facteurs de favorabilité dans l'apparition et le développement des villes de la Plaine Roumaine », *Analele Universității București, Geografie*, LVII, pp. 5-20.
- Grecu, F., C. Ghiță (2008), „Valențele turistice ale Câmpiei Române”, *Comunicări științifice*, VII, Edit. Samuel, Mediaș, pp. 386-390, 4 fig.
- Grecu, F., C. Ghiță (2009), « Vocation touristique de la Plaine Roumaine », *Analele Universității București*, LVIII, pp. 49-64.
- Grecu, F., L. Comanescu, R. Dobre, G. Toroimac, C. Ghiță, E. Carcișmaru, R. Sacrieru (2009), “Morphohydrologic Unbalance Impact on Archaeological Sites. Romanian Plan Cas Study”, in vol. *Ol' Man River, Geo-Archeological Aspects of Rivers and River Plains, Archaeological Reports Ghent University 5*, Belgia, pp. 449- 465.
- Ielenicz, M., L. Comanescu (2006), *România. Potențial turistic*, Edit. Universitară, București, 464 p.
- Iordan, I. (1999), *Împrejurimile Bucureștiului. Harta turistică*, Edit. Societatea “R”, București.
- Mihăilescu, V. (2003), *Evoluția geografică a unui oraș. București*, Edit., Paidera, București, 234 p.
- Vlăsceanu, G., I. Ianoș (1998), *Orașele României*, Edit. Odeon, București, 494 p.
- *** (1969), *Geografia Văii Dunării Românești*, Institutul de Geologie și Geografie al Academiei Române, București, 782 p.
- *** (2005), *Geografia României*, vol. V., Edit. Academiei Române, București, 967 p.

TOURISM DESTINATION MARKETING STUDY WORKPAPER – AN OPERATIONAL WORKING INSTRUMENT FOR GEOGRAPHERS*

ANA IRINA DINCA¹, AUREL GHEORGHIU¹

Marketing is an essential domain for tourism, being recently more and more theoretically approached and conceptualized by research papers (especially in the Anglo-Saxon literature). An economic term by excellence, marketing is as well adopted by geographic literature and by the geography of tourism, one of the major specializations of Romanian faculties of geography as numerous students opt for it. Consequently there is a great need for geography students and geographers to study tourism oriented concepts even if mainly coming from other domains such as economy, social sciences, etc. and to elaborate appropriate studies without getting far from their topic of interest. In this respect the development of methods and instruments of research and study is a necessity already underlined by bibliographic references in the domain. They represented the departure point of this paper which enlarges the debate upon a tourism destination marketing study work paper developed as an operational working instrument for geography students.

Keywords: geography, tourism, marketing, study work paper.

Introduction

Marketing is an essential domain for tourism, being recently more and more theoretically approached and conceptualized by research papers (especially in the Anglo-Saxon literature). An economic term by excellence, marketing is as well adopted by geographic literature and by the geography of tourism, one of the major specializations of Romanian faculties of geography as numerous students opt for it. Tourism geography is considered a successful specialization in our country as an important volume of geography students demand for and are offered through bachelor and master degrees by almost all state and private universities education programs oriented towards this field. Consequently there is a great need for geography students and geographers to study tourism oriented concepts such as the one of *marketing* even if coming from other domains such as economy, social sciences, etc. and to elaborate appropriate studies without getting far from their topic of interest. In this respect

¹ University of Bucharest, Faculty of Geography, Department of Human and Economic Geography, 1 Nicolae Bălcescu Blvd, 010041, Bucharest, Romania, contact: dincaanairina@gmail.com

the development of methods and instruments for marketing research and studies in geography is a real necessity of the moment. Numerous authors (Tribe, 1995; Godfrey and Clarke, 2000; Grotters, 2007) make reference in their studies to methods, surveys or paper works destined to elaborate marketing studies seen also from a spatial, geographical perspective (Ashworth & Voogd, 1987; Inskeep 1991; Heath and Wall, 1992; Godfrey and Clarke, 2000; Horner and Swarbrooke, 2005). They represented a departure point for this paper which presents and enlarges the debate upon a tourism destination marketing study work paper developed as an operational working instrument for geographers.

Geographical Marketing – A Theoretical Approach

According to Kotler (2002) „marketing deals with identifying and meeting human and social needs”, the author splitting between stages through which marketing practice may pass in terms of models and life cycles of marketing according to the dimensions of actors, their experience on the market and the way they act on it (e.g. entrepreneurial marketing, formulated marketing and entrepreneurial marketing) and enumerating 10 types of entities that might be involved in marketing such as: goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information and ideas. Tourism marketing would refer by excellence to trading services and places in form of tourism destinations but more and more nowadays the accent moves towards the tourism product, towards events, experiences and even persons perceived as both tourism attractions and contributors to service quality. However we may already consider as a main difference between the economic and the geographic perspective on tourism marketing the fact that the first focuses on services provided by a tourism unit and on tourism business itself whereas tourism geographies would be more concerned about space and its selling as a tourism destination. According to WTO (1994) tourism system is based on the interaction between the demand and the offer. It may be considered that tourism market would refer though to tourism offer and tourism demand in terms of invested capital and as clients providing a profit if buying tourism products from the economic perspective whereas the geographical perspective would be interested in natural and human tourism resources on the one hand and on visitors fluxes within and towards an area on the other. Moreover within the sustainability perspective the local community interferes as an increasingly visible stakeholder on tourism market, consequently involving an increasing space oriented dimension for marketing. Grotters (2007) was mentioning even terms like local, regional or national marketing, starting from the idea that tourism market is to be located in an area and a geographical space is to be perceived administratively at different levels of extension. Tourism geography

appeals mostly to the regional level and the regional marketing approach would be the most appropriate one in geography. Once with the general embracing of sustainability paradigm tourism market is seen nowadays more than ever as an interaction field among different stakeholders and geographical marketing is to enforce even more this perception as it is ultimately concerned about the study of market components in order to optimize planning of tourism destinations and tourism activities at a regional level. According to Inskeep (1991) regional planning for tourism would refer to:

- Regional policy;
- Regional access and the internal transportation network of facilities and services;
- Type and location of tourist attractions;
- Location of tourism development areas including resort areas;
- Amount, type, and location of tourist accommodation and other tourist facilities and services;
- Regional level environmental, socio-cultural, and economic considerations and impact analysis;
- Regional level education and training programs;
- Marketing strategies and promotion programs;
- Organizational structures, legislation, regulations, and investment policies;
- Implementation techniques including staging of development, project programming, and regional zoning regulations. (Inskeep, 1991, p. 35; Grotters, 2007)

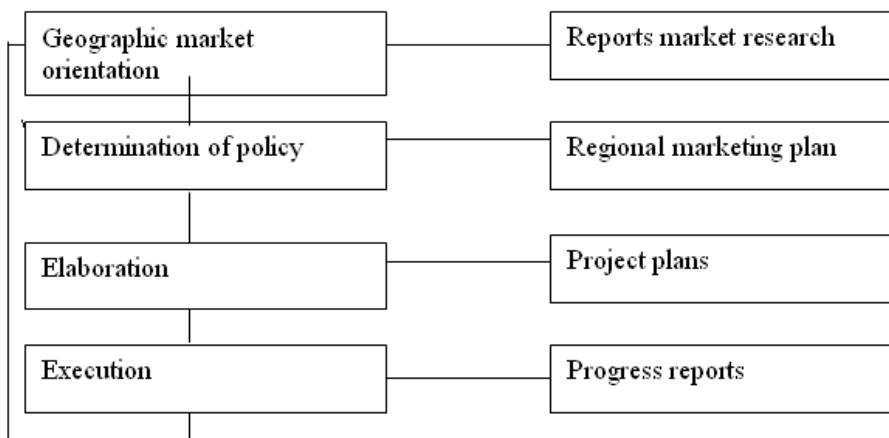


Fig. 1. Geographic market cycle (Source: Ashworth & Voogd, 1987 in Grotters, 2007)

The geographic, destination marketing would be consequently “a process” of reaching a consensus among different stakeholders involved directly or indirectly in tourism industry (Swarbrooke, 1999) in order to reach a development sustainable “optimum” (Howie, 2003, Lozato-Giotard, 2003) ideal in planning. Ashworth and Voogd (1987 in Grotters, 2007) were identifying several steps necessary for the accomplishment of a geographic market cycle (*Fig. 1*).

Heath and Wall (1992) will develop later on the model putting an accent on the regional marketing planning in tourism. According to these authors at the basis of the regional marketing plan a situation analysis should be performed oriented both towards an environmental and a resource analysis. Then a goal and objectives must be formulated according to which the regional strategy and its target will be elaborated further on. The position on the market should be evaluated as the regional marketing mix and the strategy organization and design would be adapted accordingly. In the end management supporting systems are to be allocated in order to have a feasible action plan for the designed strategy. Godfrey and Clarke (2000) emphasized even more the stakeholder vision and the importance of management systems for marketing and tourism development plans in their Tourism Development Handbook whereas Grotters (2007) talked about a geographical marketing procedure embracing the concept of geographical marketing which on his opinion should be based on (1) market exploration, (2) policy determination, (3) policy elaboration and implementation and (4) policy evaluation. On our turn we agree that a marketing study is essential in order to formulate a realist, effective and coherent tourism development strategy for a tourism destination. The study should contain an analytical and a synthetic holistic approach and should be based on real territorial indices and statistics regarding key components of tourism market and leisure industry for a reference territorial level.

The Parts of the Tourism Destination Marketing Study Work Paper

Starting from the above mentioned models and theoretical approaches on regional marketing we designed a study work paper for tourism destinations intended to help geography students to analyze tourism areas within a marketing perspective. Conceived in view of regional marketing and geographic marketing concepts and designed for geographers the object of this tool of analysis would be though a geographical area (region, settlement) already perceived or intending to become a tourism destination. Consequently the paper work contains six parts analytically referring to: the accessibility of the tourism destination, tourism offer both in terms of resources and of tourism infrastructure, present tourism demand both from quantitative and qualitative point of view, actual promotion of the region/settlement and the analysis of the

internet site as an important promoting tool, the actual position of the tourism destination on the market according to its recreational products and strategic perspectives and proposals for the optimization of the leisure products offered by the studied territory. Each of them will be discussed separately and parts of the model work paper will be presented below as follows:

– the *accessibility* of the destination is a key point for a tourism study as mobility is a vital element for tourism demand, characterizing the essence of tourism services which are to be consumed at the destination through the recreational act. Godfrey and Clarke (2000) considered access an important element when characterizing the inventory of resources and services. Accessibility is consequently a component of the tourism offer and it is particularly important for tourism destinations in Romania, being considered often a weak point of the tourism product in general, as numerous settlements located in tourist attractive areas lack motorways and often railway stations. Consequently the model work paper proposes as a first chapter the destination accessibility and students are asked to make precise reference to the type and importance of access ways and transport infrastructure points (*Table 1*). Moreover following the table which asks for quantitative data there is a line of observations asking for statements regarding the qualitative aspects of access roads and points or for information regarding future or on progress projects meant for their extension and development.

Table 1
I. Destination Accessibility

| Way of transport | | | | | The destination has access to: | |
|------------------|----------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------------------|-------------|
| Road | | | Railway | | Railway station | Bus station |
| european | national | county | main | secondary | | |
| | | | | | | |

Observations

(qualitative):.....

– the *analysis of tourism offer* named by Godfrey and Clarke (2000) “the resource inventory” is generally the basis of every tourism study and follows in our work paper the accessibility issue. It refers in the first place to tourism resources resumed by the term “tourism fund” in the Romanian scientific tourism geography literature (Ciangă, 1998) and continues with references to tourism infrastructure, generally perceived through units offering accommodation, catering and entertainment facilities, the last category with different types of units according to the theme of the tourism area and consequently of the recreational space (e.g. mountain, littoral, etc.). Consequently in our paper model tables that

try to structure the information according to the available statistics for Romanian territory were conceived (Table 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12). A first table referring to tourism resources proposes their classification in primary and secondary resources no matter their type, either natural or human made elements. The hierarchy was based within a marketing point of view on the rational that primary resources are capable to generate tourist attraction on their own through the objectives that they include (either in the present or possibly if valued in the future) whereas secondary resources are to generate recreational activities for citizens or a small number of visitors at most. Moreover a connection between the type of resource, the tourist objectives it includes and the tourism forms and products that generates is requested within a tourism marketing perspective on resources and their characteristics which direct towards resulting recreational activities. The tables regarding tourism infrastructure as the one for accessibility ask mainly for precise quantitative data. They are followed by lines of observations on the qualitative aspects regarding the structures conditions and their functionality. In the case of both tables for accommodation and for catering structures data referring to different years (e.g. 1990-2000-2012) are requested in order to express an evolution trend. Entertainment infrastructure was developed in further tables for every type of destination as specific structures could be developed in destinations for littoral tourism, spa tourism, mountain tourism with its summer and winter component, business tourism and for urban or rural leisure activities.

Table 2

II. The Analysis of Tourism Destination Offer

| Resource type | | Main tourism objectives | Tourism form / product |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Primary</i> | natural/human made | | |
| <i>Secondary</i> | natural/human made | | |

Table 3

The Analysis of the Destination Tourism Infrastructure Accommodation Structures

| Year | No of units | No of bed places | No of hotels | No of bed places in hotels | No of bed places according to the comfort category | | |
|------|-------------|------------------|--------------|----------------------------|--|-------|-------|
| | | | | | 1* and not classified | 2*-3* | 4*-5* |
| | | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of accommodation structures):

Table 4
Catering Structures

| Year | No of units | No of places | No of restaurants with specific | | No of units except restaurants | |
|------|-------------|--------------|---------------------------------|-------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| | | | Romanian | Other | Fast food units | Cafes and bars |
| | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of catering structures):

.....

Table 5
Entertainment Structures
(specific for each type of destination)

| Tourism destination has entertainment structures specific for: | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|------------------|
| littoral | mountains | winter sports | spa tourism | urban areas | rural areas/agritourism | business tourism |
| | | | | | | |

Table 6
Littoral Resorts

| The destination has: | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|---|--|--|
| Beaches (no) | Water sports (e.g.) | Open air pools (no) | Theme parks (e.g.) | Sport fields (no, type) | Entertainment spaces (clubs, discos) (no) | Cultural spaces (theatres, cinemas) (e.g.) | Periodical events (festivals, competitions) (e.g.) |
| | | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of entertainment structures):

.....

Table 7
Mountain Resorts

| The destination has: | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|--|
| Paths (no, difficulty altitude difference) | Panoramic points (e.g.) | Sport fields (no, type) | Extreme sports (e.g.) | Entertainment spaces (clubs, discos) (no) | Cultural spaces (theatres, cinemas) (e.g.) | Periodical events (festivals, competitions) (e.g.) |
| | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of entertainment structures):

.....

Table 8
Winter Sports Resorts

| Ski runs no | Infrastructure for other winter sports | Ski lifts | | | | Ski runs / ski lifts ratio |
|-------------|--|--------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------------------|
| | | Gondola lift | Cable car (no) | Chair lift (no) | Ski lift (no) | |
| | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of entertainment structures):
.....

Table 9
Spa Resorts

| Thermal pools (e.g., no) | Planned springs for internal cure (type – no) | Treatment structure (no, e.g.) | Planned paths for open air walks | Other types of structures | |
|--------------------------|---|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| | | | | Entertainment spaces (clubs, discos) | Cultural spaces (museums, show halls, etc.) (e.g.) |
| | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of treatment structures):
.....

Table 10
Business Infrastructure

| Conf halls | Conf halls in accommodation units | Support conference services: videoprojector, flipchart etc. | Suppliers for: | | | | Other entertainment services (e.g.) |
|------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|---------|------------|-----|-------------------------------------|
| | | | Extreme sports (mountaineering bungee jumping) | Horsing | Paint-ball | AIV | |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 11
City Infrastructure/Urban Destinations

| The destination has: | | | | | | Periodical events (festivals, competitions) (e.g.) |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| Parks, public gardens (e.g., no) | Zoos, botanical gardens (e.g.) | Theme parks (e.g.) | Sport fields (no, type) | Entertainment spaces (clubs, discos) | Cultural spaces (museums, show halls, theatre, cinemas, etc.) (e.g.) | |
| | | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of structures):
.....

Table 12
Agri Tourism Infrastructure/Rural Destinations

| The destination has: | | | | | Traditional and other periodical cultural events (e.g.) |
|--|---|---|--|--|---|
| Boarding house units (no.) from which homologated (no) | Boarding houses built in traditional style (no) | Boarding houses built from traditional materials (no) | Households which offer accommodation services (no) | Households which offer accommodation services and which still practice traditional activities (no, e.g.) | |
| | | | | | |

Observations (qualitative estate of structures):

.....

– the *analysis of tourism demand* follows the one of tourism offer being a key element of a marketing study. Tourists represent the second component of the tourism market, the element which ensures the success of the offer and orients the future tourism products and services which should correspond to client's needs and motivations. Consequently the customer study is an essential part of marketing in general which reorients the marketing mix in order to answer the needs of consume and to generate attraction and business profit. On our turn we considered necessary for a tourism destination marketing study both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis of tourism demand. If for the first one several statistic indices are available at local level for Romanian settlements as mentioned in the table 13 (students are asked to chose data from different years in order to emphasize the evolution trend) reference qualitative tourism studies are missing, demanding for particular surveys and questionnaires to be applied personally by the author.

Table 13
III. The Analysis of Tourism Destination Demand

| Year | Arrivals | Over night stays | Average stay | Occupancy rate |
|------|----------|------------------|--------------|----------------|
|------|----------|------------------|--------------|----------------|

Observations (qualitative characteristics of tourism demand based on survey results)

– promotion is another essential component of the marketing study as one of the main Ps of the marketing mix beside product, policy and price and is referred holistically as *the marketing communication* (Horner and Swarbrooke, 2005). Promotion is to be performed through a variety of means and ways, one of the most important being nowadays the internet site. In case of geographical marketing or of marketing and promotion performed for geographical areas and places the internet site is to be considered as the most effective and representative way of exposing the regional tourism offer for the general public. We propose consequently through the tourism

destination marketing work study paper model a critical analysis of a destination promoting site in which one should comment on:

- the site owner (there is an obvious difference among sites owned by public administration authorities, by tourist information centers or by accommodation units);
- the place of tourist promotion on the internet site;
- the images of the destination and their position on the internet site;
- the way in which tourist information is presented on the site (directly, indirectly through connection to another site or the particular site of a tourist accommodation unit);
- the structure and the content of tourist information and of the site (tourist attractions, accommodation units, prices, etc.);
- if the information is updated;
- useful tourist information that is missing;
- an useful structure of the site for tourists and proposals for redesigning it.
- the position of the destination on the tourist market is another key element of a marketing strategy and consequently another chapter of our destination marketing work study paper model. In order to fulfill this analysis a first task is to define the type/subtypes of the tourist product/products a destination might offer (e.g. spa tourism, winter sport tourism, etc.). On each product local, regional, national and international competitors are to be defined according to the case. Further on the position of the destination on the market should be established compared to its competitors in terms of tourism resources (e.g. there are settlements with valuable unvalued resources compared to their local competitors that benefited from tourist investments); of tourist infrastructure (statistic should offer a clear image for this point); of present tourist demand (tightly related to the volume of accommodation capacity and of the tourist offer); of price (for the same type of service/package with a similar degree of comfort – e.g. the price for a double room in a three star hotel in the same month during the week or the weekend period); of tourism promotion (through the number and types of communication ways and means).
- in the end all this complex analysis should conclude through the proposal of strategic measures for the optimization of the tourist destination and of its leisure products in order to be better placed compared to its competitors on the tourist product market. Strategic measures should regard all the above mentioned and analyzed components of the tourist market (e.g. the amount and type of resources valued through recreational activities or their degree of exploitation, the creation or redesign of tourist products, the infrastructure development,

the concentration on different demand segments or on different ways and means of communication and promotion, etc.).

Conclusions

The above analyzed and presented destination marketing work study paper model was conceived as an operational working tool for geographic marketing studies. The paper work model has been already applied by over 400 students in the 3rd year of their university studies during the seminar of tourism marketing on Romanian territories studied as a topic for their final bachelor thesis. Most of the students (over 70%) considered it useful for the elaboration of their thesis and some of them integrated the above analyzed work plan as a separate chapter in their work as it comprised a research methodology appropriate to their study theme (the majority choose to study tourism resources and their valuing through tourism activities on different geographic Romanian territories). We consequently consider the above presented work study paper model a useful tool for geographers enterprise marketing analytic studies. The paper work model is a centralizing instrument of tourism Romanian statistics, adapted to the reality of the autochthonous tourist industry and is at the same time easily applicable with minor changes to another territorial context.

*Acknowledgement

The paper was presented at the international conference „Geography and Education” organized by the University of Bucharest, Faculty of Geography and held between 29 September – 3 October 2010 at Bucharest, Romania.

REFERENCES

- Ashworth, G. J., H. VOOGD (1987), “Geografische Marketing”, in *SenV*, March 1987.
Ciangă, N. (1998), *Turismul în Carpații Orientali. Studiu de geografie umană*, Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca.
Godfrey, K., J. Clarke (2000), *The Tourism Development Handbook*, London, Continuum.
Grotters, M. H. (2007), “Lecture Notes”, Winter University, ATLAS, *Tourism and Culture: Unity in Diversity*, Sibiu, 20-30 January 2007.
Heath, E., G. Wall (1992), *Marketing Tourism Destinations*, New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
Horner, S., J. Swarbrooke (2005), *Leisure Marketing. A Global Perspective*, Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
Howie, F. (2003), *Managing the Tourist Destination*, Ed. Continuum, London.
Inskeep, E. (1991), *Tourism Planning*, Toronto, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- Lozato-Giotard, J. P. (2003), *Geographie du tourisme De l'espace consommé à l'espace maîtrisé*, Ed. Pearson Education, France.
- Swarbrooke, J. (1999), *Sustainable Tourism Management*, 1999, Edit. CABI Publishing.
- Tribe, J. (1995), *The Economics of Recreation, Leisure and Tourism*, Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- *** (1994), WTO, *National and Regional Tourism Planning, Methodologies and Case Studies*, London, Routledge.
- <http://www.geo.uaic.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://geo.unibuc.ro/licenta.html> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://geografie.ubbcluj.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://www.uoradea.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://www.spiruharet.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://www.ucdc.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://atlas.usv.ro/www/geografie/> (accessed on March 2013).
- <http://www.uvt.ro/> (accessed on March 2013).

LES PARTICULARITÉS GÉOGRAPHIQUES DES ÉTABLISSEMENTS URBAINS AU BORD DE LA MER NOIRE, SITUÉS AU SUD DU CAP MIDIA (ROUMANIE)*

**VIŞAN MIRCEA CRISTIAN¹, COMĂNESCU LAURA¹,
CARABLAISA SORIN¹**

Résumé

Le littoral roumain de la Mer Noire s'étend sur une distance de 245 km, du Delta du Danube, plus spécifique du bras Musura du delta secondaire du bras Chilia, au nord, et jusqu'à la localité Vama Veche, dans le sud, à la proximité de la frontière avec la Bulgarie.

Le territoire à laquelle nous faisons référence s'étend sur une distance d'environ 80 km, comprenant la région côtière haute entre le Cap Midia et la localité Vama Veche connue comme la deuxième région touristique de la Roumanie due à son potentiel balnéaire. On considère les centres urbains : Constanța, Eforie, Techirghiol, Mangalia, Năvodari et Ovidiu. Le littoral est une région avec un fort caractère urbain, la région rurale étant moins représentée.

Mots clés : littoral, centres urbains, établissements antiques.

Introduction

Du point de vue du relief, le littoral se divise en deux parties, celle du nord, entre l'embouchure du bras Musura et le Cap Midia, caractérisée par un rivage bas, deltaïque, lagunaire, d'accumulation et l'autre partie qui se caractérise par un rivage avec une haute falaise, au sud du Cap Midia.

Bien que cette région se trouve sur une surface réduite (environ 800km²), elle concentre une population de plus de 430.000 d'habitants.

Les facteurs naturels du littoral offrent les conditions favorables pour le développement du tourisme : la présence des plages, le bioclimat marin, conditions climatiques agréables, traitement de boue, action curative de l'eau de la mer par la salinité et température, les eaux minérales méso-thermales, les lacs littoraux, les forêts, etc.

¹ Université de Bucarest, Roumanie, Faculté de Géographie, Bd. Nicolae Bălcescu nr. 1.

Le relief

Au sud du Cap Midia et jusqu'à la frontière avec la Bulgarie, la mer vient en contact avec la falaise composée par des calcaires sarmatiennes et argiles rouges couvertes par des dépôts loessiques avec intercalations de soles fossiles. Vers le nord-ouest, le bord du lac Siutghiol se compose de calcaires Jurassique de Ovide et vers le Cap Midia, font leurs apparitions les formations continentales des schistes vertes du Plateau de Casimcea.

Le littoral du sud se caractérise par des processus actifs d'érosion : l'abrasion de la falaise, accompagnée par effondrement et glissement de terre, surtout dans la période humides avec des orages, tandis que les vagues frappent fortement la côte. Pendant les dernières 50 ans on constate un fort recul du littoral à Constanța, Mamaia, Eforie, Mangalia : le cordon littoral entre Eforie Nord et Eforie Sud qui ferme le Lac Techirghiol a été inondé plusieurs fois par les eaux marines, affectant la route Européenne, la voie ferrée Constanța - Mangalia et surtout les constructions faites sur les plages. Pour la protection des localités, des falaises, des plages, des bâtiments à fin touristique, on a commencé à réaliser des ouvrages hydrotechniques : digues transversales et longitudinales, sous la forme des lettres T et Y, épis transversales, etc.

Les facteurs climatiques

Le littoral de la Mer Noire a un climat continental avec des nuances d'excessivité accentuée. Le topoclimat du littoral comprend une zone de 5-10 km où on sent l'influence de la Mer Noire. La descendante de l'air au-dessus de la mer réduit la nébulosité et agrandit la durée de l'insolation, en déterminant les plus grandes valeurs du rayonnement global du pays.

La nébulosité moyenne annuelle est la plus basse du pays (5,2 dixièmes à Mangalia) et par conséquence, la durée moyenne annuelle de rayonnement du Soleil est de plus de 2.400 heures. Dans la saison estivale qui correspond à la période de cure héliomarine, la durée d'insolation est de plus de 1.600 heures, à Constanța et Mangalia. Pendant la période Juillet - Septembre, entre 10 et 13 heures, le Soleil brille plus de 80%, et au mois d'Août à Mangalia plus de 90%, ce qui correspond à 14 heures/jour d'ensoleillement (Neacșa O. et collab. 1974).

Le rayonnement solaire global est de 133,5 kcal/cm² et de 130 kcal/cm² (Geografia României, V, 2005). Les cyclones méditerranéens et pontiques, formés au-dessus de la Mer Noire, déterminent des précipitations faibles sous la forme de bruine et aussi des pluies violentes, leur quantité élevée pouvant provoquer des inondations.

L'anticyclone des Açores, par les masses d'air qui arrivent déjà continentalisées, détermine des précipitations réduites du point de vue quantitatif (35-45 mm au mois de Juin).

Pendant l'été en raison du temps prédominant de l'anticyclone se développe une circulation intense locale, de type brise, due au contraste thermique eau – terre.

L'anticyclone est – européen agit pendant le temps froid et pendant les saisons de transition, en provoquant de fortes gelées, -20° C. En contact avec les cyclones méditerranéens l'air froid anticyclonique génère des tempêtes intenses avec des orages violentes (>10m/s) et vagues marines (>2-3 m de haut).

La température moyenne annuelle est la plus élevée du pays (11,2° C à Mangalia et 11,3° C à Constanța), au mois de Juillet les températures moyennes étant de moins de 22,7°C à Mangalia et de 22,1°C à Constanța. La plus basse température moyenne s'enregistre au mois de Janvier, 0,1°C à Mangalia. La température minime absolue a été de -25°C à Constanța et Mangalia et la maxime absolue a été de 37°C à Mangalia et de 38,5°C à Constanța, moins réduites avec environ 7°C par rapport à celles enregistrées dans la Plaine Roumaine, due à l'influence modératrice de la Mer Noire.

La durée moyenne dans la période sans gel est de 229 jours à Mangalia, étant la plus élevée du pays.

La quantité moyenne annuelle de précipitations enregistre des valeurs réduites par rapport au reste du pays, 384 mm à Mangalia et 385 mm à Constanța. Les précipitations ont une répartition non-uniforme pendant l'année, en tombant sous la forme des pluies à verse et générant le phénomène de sel, avec des effets catastrophiques.

Les facteurs hydro-géographiques (les lacs)

Du point de vue génétique, il y a deux catégories : les limans fluviomaritimes et les lagunes. Les principaux lacs qui ont un rôle important pour le tourisme de la région sont :

- Le lac de Tașaul est un liman fluviomaritime alimenté par la rivière de Casimcea et les sources karstiques. Au bord du lac se situe la localité Navodari, important pour l'industrie chimique.
- Le lac de Siutghiol (nom d'origine turque qui signifie « le lac de lait avec de l'eau douce ») avec une surface de 1900 ha est un golf de type lagune barrée par un cordon littoral long de 9 km et large de 300-900 m, sur qui on a construit la station balnéaire Mamaia. Le lac est aussi alimenté par les sources karstiques. Dans la partie centrale il y a l'île Ovide (2 ha) de nature calcaire, utilisée pour le loisir et la pêche sportive.
- Le lac Tăbăcăria est situé entre Mamaia et le Municipie Constanța. Il est alimenté par un canal avec de l'eau du Lac Siutghiol.
- Le lac Techirghiol est un liman fluviomaritime, fermé par un cordon littoral entre Eforie Nord et Eforie Sud. Ce lac a une minéralisation

élevée de 45-50 gr/l, due à la boue organique utilisée dans le traitement de certaines maladies dans la station balnéaire Techirghiol.

- Le lac Tatlageac est séparé de la mer par un cordon littoral large de 60-80m, étant utilisé en particulier pour la pisciculture.
- Les lacs Neptun (44 ha), Jupiter (18 ha) et Tismana (1,56 ha) ont été aménagés pour le loisir par le dessèchement des marais de Comorova.
- Le lac de Mangalia est un liman fluviomaritime transformé en port militaire. La boue et l'eau des sources méso-thermales sulfureuses provenant du marais Herghelia (110ha) sont utilisées pour les traitements faits dans la station balnéaire Venus.

Les caractéristiques physiques de l'eau de la Mer Noire

La Mer Noire a une température moyenne annuelle de 12,7°C, étant plus élevée pendant le mois de Août (22,4°C) à Constanța où dépasse parfois 28,5°C. Pendant l'hiver (*Fig. 1*), la température moyenne peut descendre en dessous de 0°C (-1,3°C pour la salinité de 18‰). Les températures basses de l'hiver peuvent geler l'eau au bord de la mer (1954, 1966, 1972, 2009 et 2012).



*Fig. 1. Le port de Constanța, pendant l'hiver 2012
(Photo : Catrinel Cazanciu)*

La salinité de l'eau de la mer varie en principal en fonction du débit de l'eau du fleuve du Danube. Pendant l'été, dans le secteur du sud du littoral, la salinité est de 15-16,5 gr/l.

Les établissements urbains

Le littoral du sud s'impose comme une région touristique de première qualité, par la cure héliomarine, par les objectives archéologiques. La capacité d'accueil est de 180.000 places, la plus grande partie étant offerte par les hôtels et motels (67%), puis les campings (16%) et les villas (10%).

Les villes Constanța, Eforie, Techirghiol, Mangalia, Navodari et Ovidiu forment une région avec un fort caractère urbain, la région rurale étant moins représentée.

Le système d'établissements urbains de ce secteur du littoral est dominé par la ville de Constanța, un des six municipes de premier rang de la Roumanie, d'importance nationale avec une population de plus de 310.000 habitants, ayant une structure ethnique diversifiée avec plus de 20 nationalités déclarées. Cette ville est connue depuis l'antiquité sous le nom de Tomis, lorsqu'elle a été une colonie grecque avec le rôle commercial, ayant une ancienneté de plus de deux mille ans (les VII-VI^e siècles av. J.C.). Pendant la domination romaine, la ville conserve un mur de clôture (le III^e siècle), le port romain avec l'édifice de mosaïque, les thermes (le IV^e siècle), le mosaïque roman – monument UNESCO, quatre basiliques (les V-VI^e siècles), cimetières, de différents objets et fragments des constructions antiques, le Musée d'Histoire Nationale et d'Archéologie, le Musée des Sciences Naturelles, le Musée de la Marine etc. La mosquée avec le minaret de 50 m de hauteur, déclarée monument historique et de culte, date depuis la période de domination ottomane.

La ville de Constanța est importante pour ses fonctions balnéaires et touristiques, étant au bord de la mer, représentée par la station Mamaia, située au nord de la ville sur un cordon littoral entre le Lac Siutghiol et la mer. Mamaia a plus de 110 hôtels avec une capacité d'accueil de plus de 22.000 places.

La ville bénéficie des réseaux de routes (le 4^e corridor paneuropéen), les voies ferrées et fluvio-maritimes (le 7^e corridor – le Canal Danube – Mer Noire et le Canal Main-Danube). Tout près de la ville, il y a aussi un aéroport international. Le port Constanța Sud-Agigea se trouve au sud de la ville, à la sortie du canal vers la mer. Le canal a été inauguré le 1984, ayant une longueur de 64,2 km, un tirant d'eau de 3,8 m et un déplacement de 5.000 tdw. Il raccourcit la distance à la mer avec 300 km (à l'embouchure du Danube dans la mer) et jusqu'à Constanța avec 400 km (en continuant par la mer de l'embouchure du Danube jusqu'à Constanța, encore 100 km).

Ainsi, Constanța a été liée directement avec le reste de l'Europe, avec Rotterdam, l'un des plus grands ports européens. Le port maritime de Constanța (*Fig. 2*) avec des fonctions économiques complexes réalise 2/3 du volume du commerce extérieur de la Roumanie et en faisant le rapport avec l'économie de la ville, l'activité portuaire représente 50%. Depuis 1993, on y trouve la zone libre.



*Fig. 2. Le port de Constanța, pendant l'hiver 2012
(Photo : Catrinel Cazanciu)*

Mangalia est une ville avec une double position frontalière (la Mer Noire et la Bulgarie) et est considérée une ville unique due aux vestiges archéologiques. Mangalia s'est développée sur le site de l'antique Callatis, colonie dorienne de Mégare, fondée le VI^{ème} siècle av. J. Ch. par les grecques de Héraclès Pontique, aujourd'hui, la plus part est immergée dans la mer. De l'époque hellénique date le mur de clôture de la cité, refait par les Romains, les nécropoles grecques (les IV-II^{ème} siècles av. J.Ch) et romaines (les III-VI^{ème} siècles), les tumulus funéraires, une grande basilique. De la période de domination turque date la mosquée de XVI^{ème} siècle la plus ancienne de Roumanie.

Mangalia qui compte plus de 40.000 habitants est port maritime (qui donne une fonction économique importante liée à l'industrie navale) et militaire, et aussi centre touristique ayant dans la proximité les stations balnéaires Saturn, Venus, Aurora, Jupiter, Neptun et Olimp avec une capacité d'accueil de 40.000 places et aussi plusieurs sanatoriums balnéaires. Mangalia dispose des sources minérales méso-thermales (26-28°C) sulfureuses, chlorurées, bicarbonatés, sodiques et calciques. Le traitement s'adresse aux affections rhumatismales, respiratoires, neurologiques etc. Dans le traitement est utilisé la boue du lac de Techirghiol et la boue de tourbe de la tourbière du la partie du nord de la ville.

A 15 km de Constanta, vers le sud, se trouve la ville Eforie (plus de 9.000 habitants) avec la fonction principale balnéo-touristique, ayant une capacité d'accueil de 25.000 de places et représentant 25% de la capacité de tout le littoral. La ville comprend deux stations balnéaires (Eforie Nord et Eforie Sud) situées entre le Lac Techirghiol et le bord de la mer, étant séparées par un cordon littoral. Les deux stations fonctionnent tout le temps de l'année, elles ont plusieurs sanatoriums qui utilisent l'eau et la boue du Lac de Techirghiol pour le traitement de différentes affections rhumatismales, post-traumatiques, gynécologiques, dermatologiques, respiratoires, neurologiques périphériques et centrales etc.

Près d'Eforie se trouve la station balnéaire de Costinești où on pratique le tourisme rural représenté par des hôtels, villas, camping.

A 2 km d'Eforie Nord, au bord du lac de Techirghiol, à l'ouest, se trouve la ville qui a emprunté le nom du lac, Techirghiol (7.000 habitants). Comme établissement balnéaire est connu depuis 1892-1896, étant déclaré station en 1899. Le facteur clé est représenté par la boue considérée unique en Europe, résultat de la flore et faune et de l'eau fort salée du lac, avec une concentration d'approximative 80 g de sels minéraux /litre de l'eau, riche en chlorures, sulfate de sodium, potassium, ammonium, magnésium, sulfure de fer, etc. Le traitement structuré pour trois objectifs principaux (prophylactique, curatif et récupérateur) s'adresse aux maladies dermatologiques, rhumatismales dégénératives, inflammatoires et articulaires, neurologiques forme centrale et périphérique, quelque soit le stade de la maladie. Ayant une capacité d'accueil de 1.000 places, les sanatoriums sont ouverts toute l'année.

Par rapport aux autres centres urbains du bord de la mer, Năvodari (la localité a été mentionnée en documents en 1421 sous le nom de *Caracoium*, dérivé des mots turcs *kara* et *koyum* ce qui signifient mouton noir) a une fonction prépondérante industrielle. Puisque la ville a connu une forte industrialisation après la deuxième guerre mondiale, la population est augmenté à plus de 30.000 habitants. Ainsi, l'économie de la ville est représentée par l'industrie chimique, engrains chimiques et pétrochimique, liée à la présence des hydrocarbures (pétrole et gaz) du fond de la mer, dans la plateforme continentale (exploitation depuis 1987) et à la présence des gisements de gaz récemment découverts à Costinești, qui donnent plus d'importance au littoral de la Mer Noire.

Une autre fonction de Năvodari est celle portuaire, après la construction du canal Poarta Albă-Midia Năvodari, une branche du canal Danube-Mer Noire, ayant comme port Midia-Năvodari à la proximité duquel se trouve aussi un terminal pétrolière. Le long du cordon littoral qui sépare le Lac Tașaul de la mer, il y a une petite station touristique qui a été autrefois un camp international pour les enfants.

Attestée par les documents en 1650, sous le nom de Siliște et après Canara (d'origine turque qui signifie « lieu d'où on exploite les rochers ») et en 1930 emprunte l'actuel nom d'Ovidiu selon l'île homonyme qui se trouve tout près de la localité sur le Lac de Siutghiol (selon les légendes locales sur cette île se

trouve la tombe du fameux poète Roman, Ovide, exilé ici pendant les années 9-17, et en plus, ce nom de l'île est consigné sur la carte de 1722 par le géographe Viennois Tobias Lother). Actuellement, Ovidiu est un important centre industriel (extraction de calcaire dolomite, industrie énergétique – central thermoélectrique).

Conclusion

Le potentiel balnéaire et de loisir a déterminé le développement du tourisme et de l'industrie hôtelière le long du littoral de la Mer Noire, sans minimiser l'importance des ressources naturelles de la région qui rendent plus active l'industrie extractive des rochers et de gaz et pétrole, chimique, pisciculture, alimentaire, transports et des chantiers navales.

***Note:** Communication présentée dans le cadre de La Quatrième Rencontre Internationale sur le Patrimoine Architectural Méditerranéen RIPAM 4, 10-12 Avril 2012, L'institut de Gestion et Techniques Urbaines , le Laboratoire Techniques Urbaines et Environnement, Université de M'sila, Algérie.

RÉFÉRENCES BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES

- Ielenicz Mihai, Laura Comănescu, 2006, *România Potențial turistic*, Editura Universitară, București.
Neacșa Oswald, C. Popovici, Paul Tuinea, Gheorghe Popa, 1974, „Unele particularități climatice ale litoralului românesc al Mării Negre”, *Studii clim.*, I, IMH, București.
Otetelisanu Enric, Constantin A. Dissescu, 1928, „Climat de la Dobroudja et du Littoral de la Mer Noire”, *Memorii și studii*, vol. 1 nr. 3, Institutul Meteorologic Central al României, București.
Vlăsceanu Gheorghe, Ioan Ianoș, 1998, *Orașele României*, Editura Odeon, București.
*** 1982, *Enciclopedia României*, Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică, București.
*** 2005, *Geografia României*, V, Editura Academiei Române, București.

SPECIFIC FEATURES OF THE TOURIST FLOW IN BORSEC RESORT

GEORGE-BOGDAN TOFAN¹

In Borsec resort, tourism occupies a special place, as an economic alternative, still remaining viable and a form of exploitation of natural and human potential, with its own history and traditions, with a bottling industry, operating for more than two centuries and which practically today offers one of Romanian representative brands of mineral water – Borsec.

The drawback of the resort's tourism, based exclusively on the exploitation of mineral water, is analyzed in the context of the recovery opportunities through diversification of tourist facilities, rehabilitation and application of modern means of image promotion. Moreover, the Carpathian road rehabilitation project will also contribute to this. One of the most important Romanian projects related to transport axes, the future Târgu Mureş-Iaşi-Ungheni highway may already be considered favourable in providing a national and international reputation.

Keywords: tourist flow, accommodation capacity, tourism rehabilitation and remodeling, promotion.

Introduction

The tourist flow is one of the three basic components used to quantify the tourism phenomenon.

It is the synthetic element which most closely reflects the way and the recovery of tourism potential. At the same time, tourist flow is a complex and extensive geodemographic phenomenon, consisting of temporary movement of people of different ages and social classes. The effect of tourist flow is determined by the social aspect that contributes to the organization of leisure possibilities, the prevention of illness, the restoration of biological potential, improving or widening the horizon of health information, and by the economic one, which capitalizes perpetually and seasonally the tourism primary offer that can be renewed through planning and adaptation.

The size, orientation and structure of tourist flows largely depend on the quality and diversity of tourism, the degree of development and the quality of

¹ „Babeş-Bolyai” University, Faculty of Geography, Cluj-Napoca, 5-7 Cliniciilor Street, 400006, Romania, george.tofan@ubbcluj.ro.

the material of interest (the accommodation and catering, cleaning and facilities for leisure travel ways and means of access etc) (Ciangă, 1997).

The tourist flow of Borsec resort shows a seasonality mainly imposed by the climatic factor, summer and winter seasons offering favorable conditions for carrying out various forms and types of tourism. Transitional seasons, spring and autumn, are characterized by poor overnight stays in accommodation units.

Working Methodology

There are a number of difficulties in measuring the tourist demand and many quantifying methods are imperfect. Specific instruments are used to measure tourist demand of which surveys and statistics are the most common.

In general, information from tourists is needed, referring to their socio-professional status, satisfaction, number of tourists, fees, etc. Therefore, the size and intensity of tourist flow can be presented through the analysis of some characteristic indicators: the number of overnight stays, the number of people participating in this socio-economic phenomenon, the length of their holiday, the occupancy capacity of the existing accommodation units.

It should be noted that we have great reservations regarding the data provided by the National Statistics Institute and its degree of fairness, but the field data obtained from questionnaires addressed to the accommodation units was not conclusive either.

There have been cases where people who manage accommodation units refused to cooperate, because they were operating illegally, while others did answer the questions in the survey, but provided inaccurate data. However, there are two cases (Riki Villa and Rose Pension), where conclusive data as monthly revenues, or tourists overnight stays have been obtained for a seven year period.

Results and Discussions

In this study, two time intervals were taken into account: 1972-1989 and 2001-2010. In the first period (1972-1989), a global circulation of 568,335 overnight stays in 1972 and 331 948 overnight stays in 1989 was registered, with a decrease of 236387 overnight stays. This statistic represented 3.4% of tourist flow in the Carpathians.

The volume of arrivals recorded was of 47,322 tourists in 1972 and of 34,662 tourists in 1989, registering a decrease of 12,660 tourists during this 17 year period, reference period and, representing 1.5% of total tourists in the Eastern Carpathians. The length of stays recorded in the analyzed territory averages 12 overnight stays/tourist for 1972 and 9.5 overnight stays/tourist for

1989. The second period (2001-2010), according to statistical data, shows a global circulation of 36,682 overnight stays in 2001 and 4,244 nights in 2010, showing a drastic decrease of 32,438 nights. The volume of arrivals was conducted by 4,393 tourists in 2001 and 1,208 tourists in 2010, which shows a decrease by 3,185 tourists in a period of only nine years.

The average length of stays recorded values of 8.3 nights/tourist in 2001 and 3.5 nights/tourist in 2010.

The values recorded by the sightseeing tourist flow in Borsec are determined by a complex tourism fund also arranged by the presence of a database where we can mention villa stands in 2001 (48.7% of nights and 49.1% tourists), closely followed by hotels (48.5% and 43.2%), at a considerable distance by camping units (2% and 3.5%), and tourist pensions (0.73% overnight stays and 4.1% tourists). In 2010, the situation was reversed, the pensions being predominant (68.6% of overnights, 74.1% arrivals respectively).

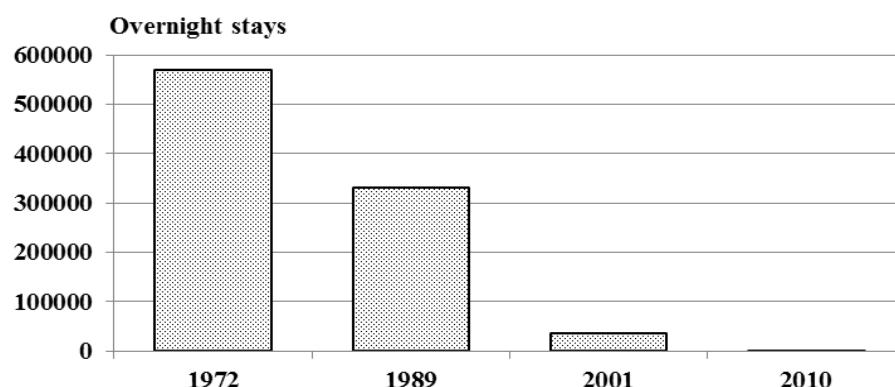


Fig. 1. Tourist flow. Borsec overnight stays recorded in 1972, 1989, 2001, 2010

The pensions are followed at a considerable distance by villas, with 31.3% and 26.5%, of over night stays and arrivals respectively highlighting the increased degree of wear and the temporary mode. The functional accommodation capacity (the occupancy rate of accommodation units) is the indicator that represents the number of beds available to tourists in accommodation units, taking into account the number of days when the units are opened in the period considered, excluding rooms or units temporarily closed due to the lack of tourists, repairs or other reasons. It is expressed in places-days.

In 2001, the accommodation capacity in function in Borsec recorded a number of 86,830 places-day, 48% for villas, 25.5% in camping units, 21.5% and 5% pensions. In 2010, this indicator recorded a total of only 48,727 places-days of which 71% for pensions, 22.6% to villas and only 6.4% in campgrounds.

The intensity and the tourist flow system attenuates under increasing altitude, due to the reduction of tourism season, and it differs in relation to the form of tourism, as reflected by the length of stay. Mountain chalets register a yearly average of 2 nights / tourist, with longer stays in huts around Borsec.

Basing ourselves on questionnaires addressed to tourists it was concluded that the micro-region attracts people of all age groups, from school age to the segment of population between 50-70 years, (thus creating a structure on certain target categories). The high mountain area is visited by young people and adults from the segment of 20-40 years whereas the low depression areas belong mostly to the mature-aged category.

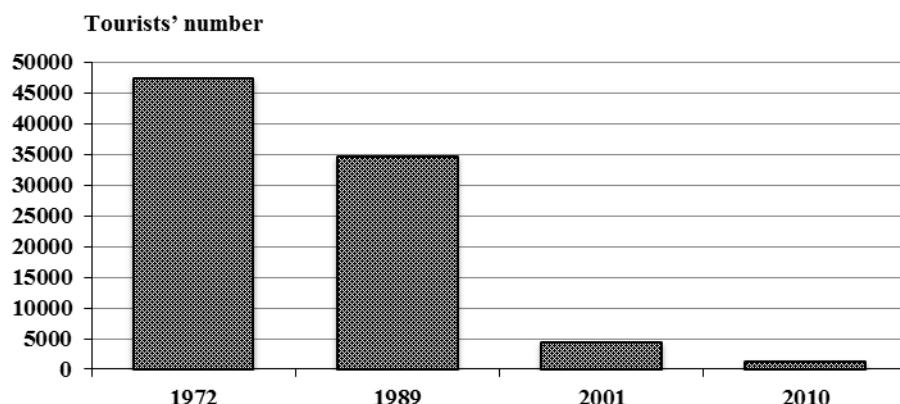


Fig. 2. Tourist flow. Number of tourists registered in Borsec in 1972, 1989, 2001, 2010

According to tourists' origin, there are two types of movements: internal tourist traffic and international tourist traffic. In the case of Borsec resort the first category of tourists is around 70%, its origin being in Mureş, Suceava, Neamţ, Bacău, Iaşi, Botoşani, Maramureş, Satu Mare, and the second category (30%), from countries such as Hungary (45%), Israel (11%), Austria (10%), Germany (10%), France (7%), USA (7%), Belgium (5%) and the Netherlands (5%). The main mean of transport for tourists is their own car and pensions are the preferred accommodation units.

Regarding the tourists degree of satisfaction about services satisfaction, most stated that they were disillusioned with the state of infrastructure and tourist attractions. When they were asked if they would come back to visit Borsec resort and the surrounding areas, the responses were uncertain, because of the above reasons. The tourists who choose to spend overnights in accommodation units in Borsec are fewer than those passing through.

Positioned on the transcarpathian axis of Bistricioara Valley, near Borsec resort and Ceahlău Massif, Corbu and Tulgheş localities are currently benefiting from an intense transit tourism tours from Moldavia counties to Borsec, and from Transylvania to Ceahlău Massif. Therefore we consider it necessary to build a competitive material infrastructure, balanced and functional, to determine not only the numerical size, structure and quality of the tourism demand for tourist offer of the area, but also to provide it provides an easy access and an efficient use of tourist attractions by visitors flows.

The detailed study of tourism potential includes quantitative and qualitative aspects of the tourism fund and resource base, which has allowed a hierarchy of categories and subcategories of attractive elements, depending on their territorial distribution. After studying the work developed by prof. Ciangă (1997), regarding the tourism in the Eastern Carpathians, a quantification of the tourism potential value of Borsec resort was conducted, from the ideal model that would include absolutely all categories, subcategories and tourism items, which is expressed by the formula:

$$V_t = \Sigma^{0-16} \mathbf{1} + \Sigma^{0-5} \mathbf{2} + \Sigma^{0-18} \mathbf{3} + \Sigma^{0-8} \mathbf{4} + \Sigma^{0-10} \mathbf{5} + \Sigma^{0-8} \mathbf{6} + \Sigma^{0-24} \mathbf{7} + \Sigma^{0-11} \mathbf{8} = 100$$

where: V_t – tourism value, $\Sigma \mathbf{1}$ – morphotourism background, $\Sigma \mathbf{2}$ – climatic-tourism background, $\Sigma \mathbf{3}$ – hydrogeographical tourism background, $\Sigma \mathbf{4}$ – biogeographical tourism background, $\Sigma \mathbf{5}$ – cultural and historical tourism background, $\Sigma \mathbf{6}$ – ethnographical-tourism and folk background, $\Sigma \mathbf{7}$ – the tourism infrastructure, $\Sigma \mathbf{8}$ – tourism potential of communication.

Based on this assessment, Borsec resort garnered a score of 44 points, most of which were granted to the hydrographical potential (FHG), represented by the hydromineral sources of the hydro-halo pits Căliman-Harghita and the least points to the tourism material resources (FMT).

*Table 1
Characteristics of Tourist Flow in Borsec (1972 and 1989)*

| No. | Tourist location | Overnight stays | | Increase $\pm\%$ | Tourists' number | | Increase $\pm\%$ | The duration of stay | |
|-----|------------------|-----------------|--------|------------------|------------------|-------|------------------|----------------------|------|
| | | 1972 | 1989 | | 1972 | 1989 | | 1972 | 1989 |
| 1. | Borsec | 568335 | 331948 | -41,6 | 47322 | 34662 | -26,8 | 12 | 9,5 |

Source: N. Ciangă, 1997

*Table 2
Characteristics of tourist flow in Borsec (2001 and 2010)*

| No. | Tourist location | Overnight stays | | Increase $\pm\%$ | Tourists' number | | Increase $\pm\%$ | The duration of stay | |
|-----|------------------|-----------------|------|------------------|------------------|------|------------------|----------------------|------|
| | | 2001 | 2010 | | 2001 | 2010 | | 2001 | 2010 |
| 1. | Borsec | 36682 | 4244 | -88,5 | 4393 | 1208 | -72,5 | 8,3 | 3,5 |

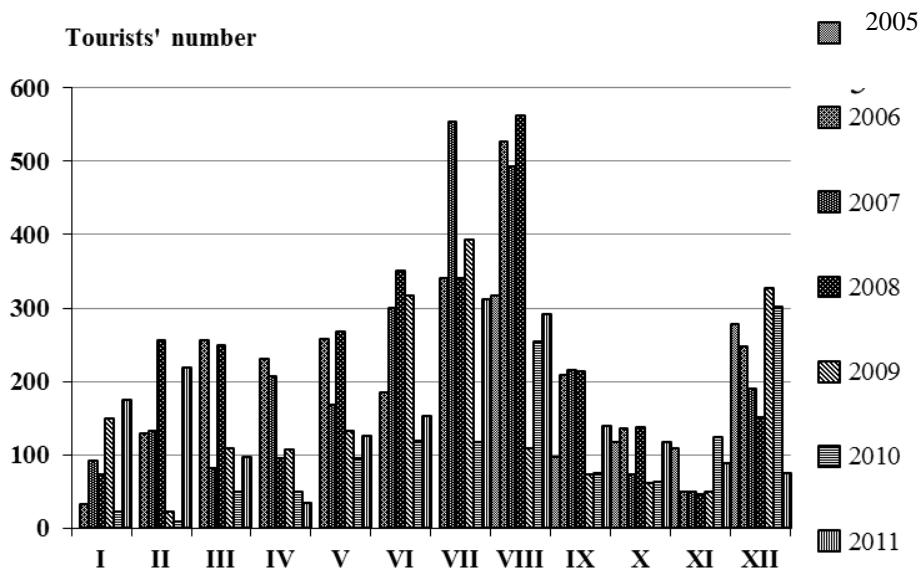


Fig. 3. Tourist flow. The number of tourists during the period 2005-2011 at Rose Pension

The graphic on the number of tourists during the period 2005-2011 at Rose Pension (Fig. 3), shows that most tourists were registered in summer and winter (December), with a maximum in August and minimum during transitional seasons (autumn and spring). If by the end of 2010, most of the accommodation establishments were operating only in the summer months (June, July and August), with the opening of the ski slope as a result of tourism demand, some of them remained open throughout the year.

Tourism Promotion

The tourism promotion in Borsec resort is done in various ways. The most common ways to promote accommodation units in the area are on the Internet and on printed materials like business cards and fliers. The most effective and the cheapest way to promote tourism in the region remains the informal recommendations (word of mouth, which on the internet takes a virtual form, and is achieved through the forums pages where tourists share their different experiences).

The existence of a webpage with all the contact details for a certain accommodation place is a great advantage in promoting it. There are situations when accommodation units presented on webpages are not marked on the

ground for any legal checks, they "do not work", but that still accommodate tourists, which leads to a false statistical view of the existing accommodation capacity and of the tourist flow in the area. Thus, the Internet can be a great way to promote tourism demand in the so-called "black" accommodation units.

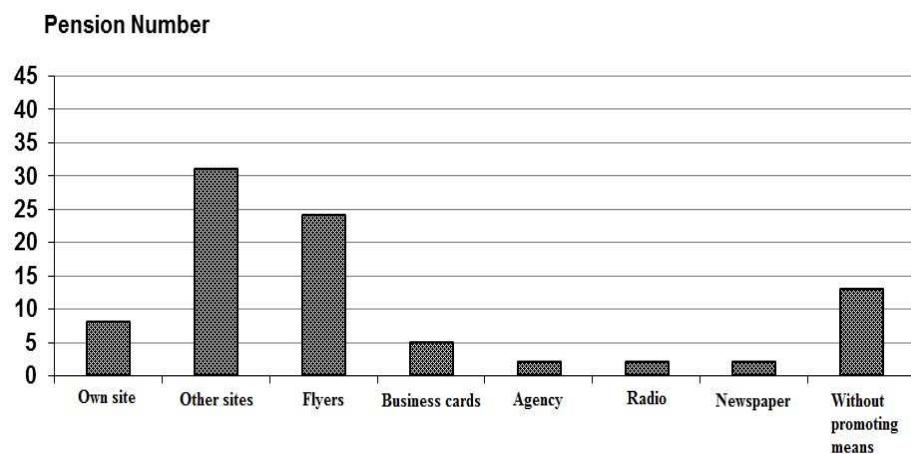


Fig. 4. Promotion methods used by the accommodation units

The promotion performed at resort level through websites does not provide online reservation systems or an evaluation of the tourism based on tourists' preferences, which is why we consider absolutely necessary to implement some systems on the websites, for the potential customers' online assistance who will be assisted in making such decisions.

Currently, in the analyzed area, potential tourists do not have the opportunity to obtain complete information to meet specific requirements.

The search and finding of information involves the consultancy of numerous specialized websites where the information is sketchy at best.

Examples of specialized websites for accommodation may be mentioned:

- <http://www.cazareborsec.com/>
- <http://www.infopensiuni.ro/borsec/cazare-vile-pensiuni-borsec>
- <http://www.romania-turistica.ro/Harghita/Cazare-Borsec.htm>
- <http://www.portal-info.ro/cazare/cazare-borsec.html>
- <http://www.turismromanesc.ro/cazare-in-Borsec>
- <http://www.tourismguide.ro/html/orase/Harghita/Borsec/index.php>
- <http://www.turistinfo.ro/borsec/cazare-hoteluri-vile-pensiuni-borsec.html>
- <http://turism.itbox.ro/cazare-harghita/cazare-in-borsec/>
- <http://www.kazare.ro/ro/locality-accommodation/510/cazare-in-borsec/>

Conclusions

The rehabilitation and the remodeling of Borsec resort is an imperative task that lies primarily in achieving a treatment center that performs a variety of procedures based on mineral water springs, that involves starting projects for creating a multifunctional spa complex, which, besides ensuring treatment, also provides an opportunity for relaxation and leisure time throughout the year.

A general problem of Borsec and other Romanian resorts is, besides inadequate privatization, the lack of coherent national strategies in tourism, which were not able to highlight the role of the state in tourism. All these combined effects are in the presentas well in the disadvantage for Romanian resorts, not only in terms of foreign tourism but also for internal demand.

The interests of Borsec are related to the development of a health tourism, which depends on the interest shown by financiall investors, who in addition to the development of tourist infrastructure and services, will create a new market segment for their offer, if they are able to occupy market segments and to maintain them, by using marketing techniques (Tofan, 2012).

Borsec recovery could be achieved with an adequate infrastructure, when competent and competitive factors will appear and relationships with tour operators abroad will be established, if possible during major tourism fairs and exhibitions.

In order to become the spa resort that used to be, it is necessary that in the formation of a future image basis to rely on a combination of tourist services, integrating tourism traditional treatment based on modern technologies and offering opportunities for wellness and sport activities, which could provide international prestige.

REFERENCES

- Ciangă, N. (1997), *Turismul din Carpații Orientali. Studiu de Geografie Umană*, Edit. Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca.
- Ciangă, N. (2002), *România. Geografia Turismului*, partea I, Edit. Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca.
- Tofan, G. B. (2010), "Tourism Restoration and Remodelling of the Borsec Resort", *Romanian Review of Regional Studies*, vol. VIII, nr. 1/2012, Edit. Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca, 87-92.
- Tofan, G. B. (2012), "The Drăgoiasa-Tulgheș Depressionary Alignment. The Touristic Potential, Arrangement and Capitalization", *Studia UBB, Geographia*, Anul LVII, 2, Cluj-Napoca, 171-184.
- Tofan, G. B. (2013), *Componenta nordică a ulucului depresionar din Grupa Centrală a Carpaților Orientali (Drăgoiasa-Glodu-Bilbor-Secu-Borsec-Corbu-Tulgheș)*, Edit. Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca.
- <http://www.statistici.insse.ro/shop>

URBAN, ENVIRONMENTAL AND TOURISM STATE OF THE ROMANIAN CARPATHIAN SMALL TOWNS*

**MATEI ELENA¹, TÎRLĂ LAURA¹, MANEA GABRIELA¹,
VIJULIE IULIANA¹**

Abstract: In Romania, after 1990, tourism is seen as a universal solution for the economic development of any region. In fact, some areas are appropriate to this. One of them is the Carpathian area, where a quarter of the Romanian small towns exist. These settlements are still trying to adapt to the market economy hence many of them, as former mono-industrial centers, have shrank their activities and try to subscribe in the new economic landscape. In the context of a great tourism potential given by the Carpathians resources and benefiting by urban development, few environmental changes analyzed through tourism potential indicator (*Tp*), urban development indicator (*UDI*), environmental change indicator (*EChI*), many of the mountainous small towns can successfully revive through tourism development. Their good economic, urban and environmental state influences the surroundings, rural area and their communities' wellbeing; hence their revival through tourism may increase the mountain economy.

Keywords: small towns, Romanian Carpathians, tourism potential, urban development indicator, environmental change indicator.

Introduction

Worldwide, problems facing small towns make subjects for research or administration. Small towns' issues are quite similar, because many of them declined their development due to aging population, economical changes, youth migration; others face problems of losing their architectural character because of ad-hoc modernization or abroad inputs, while globalization through the hypermarkets penetration suffocated local small commercial business. Thus, the USA Govern, through urban planning, tries to alleviate all these problems starting with preserving the quality of small urban characters or encouraging the businesses' revival. Many of small towns try to take examples from lesson learnt and recognize that local context matters a lot in economic development and what has worked in one place cannot be replicated with the same success in another (Morgan and Lambe, 2009). In Australia, Governmental attention is paid toward towns with less than 10,000 inhabitants, to enhance the appeals of

¹ Bucharest University, Faculty of Geography, Bucharest, Romania Corresponding E-mail: e_matei58@yahoo.com, matei@geo.unibuc.ro

communities and economic development through tourism as much as possible (<http://www.rdv.vic.gov.au>). A successful example is Israel, where the small towns' experience is different, due to the government's direct investments into their economy and the policy of their development in sparsely area in order to sustain them (Portnov, 2004).

In Europe, small towns have an important role in the territorial cohesion' matter as well as for sustainable development of their own and rural areas. In Eastern Europe, issues regarding small towns constitute a core for research and policy makers. Many similarities were found between Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Romania. Thus, small towns fall under the attractiveness of large sized settlements which are seen as the best places to work and live (Ježek, 2011), hence the need of making or taking decisions of their development. In Hungary, a large part of small towns have turned into tourism businesses being either mono-functional "spa towns" or with complex functions, in which tourism plays a synergic role (Csapó *et al.*, 2011). Tourism is also an important core for Slovenia, Austria's territorial development. In this European background, Romania's small towns have found in tourism a support for their development.

In fact, the urban system in Romania contains 214 settlements which are classified in tier 3 and rarely in tier 2 cities; almost ¼ of them are located in the Carpathians and make the subject of the present paper. The reasons for choosing them as a study subject are numerous, such as: problems facing their growth because of being mono-functional settlements communist effect; the new style of polarizing the economic power in large cities, and consequently some of them seem to be marginalized or fallen into decline; their role in the settlements network as a link between the urban and rural systems – quite essential elements in accomplishing a well-balanced territorial economy and social development; the necessity to match their development with the targets expressed by the European Charter of Planning (1983 – Torremolinos, Spain), Community Area Development Scheme, (1999), Guiding Principles for Sustainable Spatial Development of the European Continent (2000), Territorial Agenda, Leipzig (2007), etc. Moreover, the regulations for environment, tourism, and territorial development (The National Planning Assessment), The Mountain's Law 347/2004 (completed by EO no. 21/2008), and the European Charter for Mountains (CLRAE), 1994, Chamonix stipulate the direction of enhancing mountain space, through the public design of preserving natural qualities.

References upon Romanian Carpathian small towns and tourism function can be found in several theses about Romania as whole. Thus, Zamfir (2007) analyses the geo-demographic issues and the role of small towns in the Romanian urban landscape, while Dumitrescu (2008) insists upon their mono-industrial specialization. Other works focus on the regional patterns analysis either in the Western Plain (Voiculescu, 2004), Wallachian Plain (Tudose, 2007), or alongside the Danube Valley (Vârdol, 2009). After 1990, the international literature referred to Romanian Carpathians tourism started research in rural tourism (Turnock, 1999),

or the development strategies (Borsa, Chifelea, Egerer *et al.* 2008). Many debates were carried in papers regarding small towns' classification, their position in the urban hierarchy, what is their future and what steps should lead to their development on long term. While Zamfir et al. (2009) find their place being as a link between rural and urban settlements, wearing "characteristics of demographic behaviours, economic functions, settlement patterns, living quality" as a "hybrid" form, Brabazon (2012) views this as an advantage which can help resistance of the small towns in front of globalization and that "non-globalized differences are the basis for tourism". Urban areas, which look for raising the communities' living standards and all the items subsequently derived from, have the same landscape and difficulties of managing. Smaller towns are apparently easier to administrate, but they are subject to the competition with large cities that attract people, businesses and resources, so they are continuously changing, trying to create equilibrium inside the system. They are "in imbalance all the time, a phenomenon observed in the velocity of changes and cities volatility" (Nemeş *et al.*, 2012).

For the Carpathian small towns, realities on the ground identified in the last 20 years show a specific economic decadence of the mountain areas as a result of industrial restructuring and brutal penetration of the market economy system to the most vulnerable beneficiaries, services keepers of the mountains, an upward trend of two controversial economic activities with a large character of externalities: forest exploitation and mass tourism. The Romanian small towns in the Carpathian area enjoy the benefits brought by local resources, so most of them have kept or have turned to tourism development, seen through the tourists' arrivals, 23% from all country.

Otherwise, the Carpathian small towns include three categories: resorts, former mono-industrial towns which have suffered a shrinking process of their economic activity, and recent small towns with a legacy of rural statute. Almost all of them knew an explosion of tourists' accommodation infrastructure, leisure facilities or vacation houses spreading, hence the question of whether the tourism could be perceived as a panacea for their economic development persists.

Starting from the overview above and the input given by the Super Ski Program – the recent brand "Explore the Carpathian Garden" launched by the Romanian Ministry of Regional Development, the study tries to identify what is the urban development stage of the Romanian Carpathians small towns, the state of their ecological transformation and the inputs provided by the tourism orientation.

Data and Methods

Data processed came from National Institute of Statistics (NIS) (2006-2008), Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism (MDRT) and field observations.

The study is based on: numerical models using GIS techniques for tourism issues – Analysis Tools and Spatial Analyst Tools of ArcGIS (Magablih & Al-Shorman, 2004), and the statistical computing of the urban development index (UDI) using Hull score (Ianoş, 1997) for 61 case points and the environmental change indicator (EChI – Manea, 2003).

UDI (1) shows the level of urban development and has been determined by the Hull score, which includes 12 primary indicators related to the urban components: intra-urban population's density (I1), inhabited surface (I2), employment (I3), medical services (doctors and pharmacies) (I4, I5), water supply (I6), sewage system (I7), green space per inhabitants (I8), educational institutions (I9), cultural opportunities (libraries) (I10), information (personal computers) (I11), length of modern streets (I12), (Ianoş, 1997). All indicators were weighted using the Sdv. function in Microsoft Excel.

$$\text{UDI} = 50 + 14 \left(\frac{\sum I_+ - \sum I_-}{n} \right) \quad (1),$$

where: UDI is the urban development indicator; $\sum I_+$ represents sum of the primary indicators with direct action; $\sum I_-$ is the sum of the primary indicators having inverse action and “n” is the number of primary indicators.

The environmental change index (EChI) – (2) was obtained by adapting Małgorzata Pietrzak’s formula (1998) by Manea (2003), then Licurici (2010).

$$\text{EChI} = \left(\frac{\sum n}{\sum a} \right) \quad (2),$$

where: EChI is the environmental transformation indicator; “n” includes areas (ha) with no human transformation: forest; pasture; water surface, meadows; “a” represents human transformed areas: orchards, vineyards, arable land, inhabited surface, roads.

The tourism potential of Carpathian small towns was extracted from PATN (Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism) and digitized in ArcGIS, 10.1© either non-resorts or resorts.

EChI and UDI maps were created using ArcGIS 10.1© (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA) and Global Mapper v9.01 applications; we also used SRTM data for creating the DEM of the Carpathians (USGS, Maryland, USA).

Results and Discussions

The intra-urban population's density in small towns expresses the resemblance with rural area as almost 50% of them have less than 100 inhabitants for 1 km². Only 30% of towns exceed 200 inhabitants per square kilometre and 3% over 1000. But, concerning the average houses' surface, small towns have similarities with big urban centers, with a value of 16m²/inhabitant. The quality of house standards varies between over 20 m² per inhabitant in Prahova Valley towns (Predeal 33, Busteni 26) and 12 m² in the former industrial towns: Cavnic, Ștei, Comănești etc.

The urban endowment represented by water infrastructure (fresh water and sewage) are developed in all towns due to the former pipes network, and the input gave by massive funds invested in after 2000. Even so, there is a difference between the length of fresh water pipes and those for sewage. This signifies possible environmental problems of domestic pollution for recent new small towns (Săliștea de Sus, Vicovul de Sus, Tăuții Măgheruș) and also for almost all towns, except those with the longest water network: Băile Tușnad, Ștei, Bălan, Băile Govora, Sinaia, Gura Humorului. In fact, the best equilibrium between the two services is to be found in tourism resorts and industrial towns, where the concentration of the population in blocks of flats was accompanied by urban facilities setting up.

The water consumption is far from the advanced countries' standards because 65% of small towns' population used less than 100 l/day. Many recent towns take the water from private springs, which could explain the low values of water consumption. The highest quantities are specific for resorts and spas (Băile Tușnad, Sinaia, Predeal, Băile Herculane, Predeal, Azuga).

The quality of urban development is also related to the modernization of roads, heating systems and green spaces extent. The Romanian administration politics divide the streets into those which enter under the Government or counties' regulation and those belonging to the mayoralty. Several small towns have modern streets on the secondary roads while the main roads which cross the settlements are poorer as quality. The share of modern streets varies. Almost 40% of the Carpathian small towns have modernized less than 50% from total their road network, and 60% have almost or 100%. Heating system is a problem, because 40% of the small mountain towns, including several resorts (Băile Herculane), have not a natural gas pipes network, thus they use oil, coal, firewood or electricity. The green urban areas are under the European standard (25m²/inhabitant) in 2/3 towns. Despite this lack of green space many towns benefit by natural vegetation of the surroundings, thus they do not face with air pollution. But, taking into account their role in increasing the relaxing or aesthetics value, people feel the lack of green spaces.

The socio-cultural offers show that the drugstores and pharmacists are insufficient for urban demands. Before 2011, the healthcare services were well represented. One third from all the towns has 500 inhabitants per doctor and no town registered high values as the rural areas had. Ten percent of the small towns have a maximum value, almost 3000 inhabitants/doctor. After the Government decided to close the local hospitals, the number of doctors has drastically decreased; many of them migrated to big cities or abroad. Under these circumstances, small towns face scarcity of healthcare service, despite the fact that doctors from large cities have opened local offices, where they serve the local communities one day a week. As for the cultural services, Carpathian small towns have a good libraries density. The access to information, expressed by the number of computers per capita, is continuously improving, due to large distribution of internet providers. Our field observations revealed a global desire for improving the cultural offers seen in theatres, events and other activities.

Economic state included in UDI's calculation refers to the employed population, seen to be the engine of support local communities. In this respect, the small mountain towns suffer due to closing enterprises, searching of entering in the market economy games, thus 75% from them have an employment rate below 30%. An optimistic situation is registered only in Ghimbav, where the industry is still maintained, followed by Predeal, Sinaia, Borsec as notorious resorts, and Câmpeni and Ștei as former industrial centers. The unemployment rate manifests higher values in all the towns, which signifies that the economic power is decreasing or even collapsing in some towns. So, there is a strong need for businesses development, including tourism.

The urban development indicator, measured by Hull score, of the small towns in the mountain region subscribes to the Romania's small towns patterns (Matei et al., 2011): a poor development (18 %) specific for the recent urban centers with agricultural profile and former industrial centers; an average development for 13%; a fair development in 51% of cases and a good urban development for only 18% (Sinaia and Predeal tourist resorts; Brezoi, Zărnești, Râșnov, and Ghimbav economically active towns). The dynamic of UDI since 2006, 2008, 2010 shows a convergence process and hence the power of polarization for the last group and a divergence in all the others, which can be correlated with the departure of doctors, the decreasing of population, the high unemployment rates despite the efforts of local authorities to increase the urban facilities (*Fig.1*).

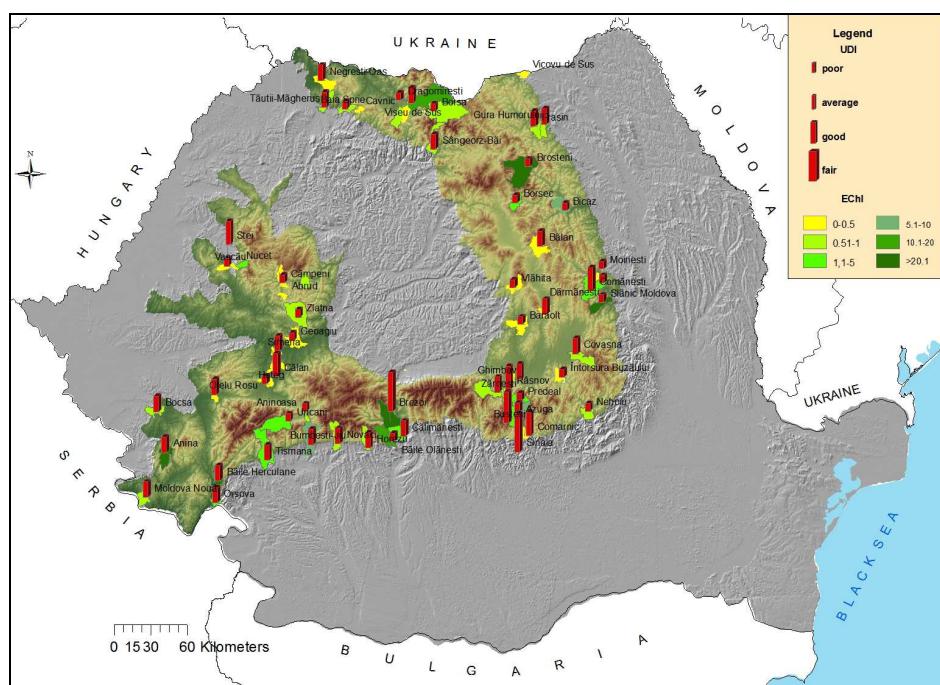


Fig. 1. Carpathian Romanian small towns. The urban development and environmental changes indicators

This dynamic also correlates with the increasing of human pressure, expressed by EChI (Environmental change indicator), which, in the same period, registered significant loss due to the demand for build up area, deforestation for different purposes – ski slopes, business etc. (Fig. 1).

The environmental change indicator has a pattern with massive human interventions in almost 60% of cases while 5% have excellent natural offers (Brezoi, Băile Herculane, Anina). In this sense, there is a stringent need to enlarge the forest and green space in almost all towns.

The development's potential for tourism (Tp) extracted from the PATN evaluation systems reveal medium and high values for all small towns, except several former mining towns (Fig. 2). On top of the development tourism potential are tourism resorts and some peripheral towns nearby the national parks, their position playing a pivotal role (Vaishar, 2004).

The configuration of the towns' responses for tourism indicates that while 11 from a total of 17 tourist resorts have a wide diversity of accommodation types, a big density of tourist units and consistent tourists' flows, 30% of non-resorts towns have the same trend for tourism (Ghimbav, Rășnov, Zărnești, Bumbești-Jiu,

Simeria, Hațeg, Aninoasa, Frasin, Stei, Comănești, Bocșa, Otelul Roșu, Orșova, Bicaz, Anina, Tăuții Măgherăuș, Negrești-Oaș, Nucet) and 6 resorts have decreased or stagnated in tourism infrastructures. Through the interrogation of the tourism businesses' database (2009-2011), it was observed that the towns with tourism function attract many entrepreneurs followed by several emergent non-resorts towns which have increased the accommodation business as a response to market's demand (Râșnov, Zărnești). Thus, it can be concluded that tourism is still a main force for all the small towns – resorts of national or local interest, and half of the towns trend to orientate their economy on tourism, based on the local policy makers or tourist stakeholders' options. The correlation among the three above indicators (UDI, EChI and Tp) demonstrates that tourism potential has the power in urban development for resorts, spas and towns situated inside or nearby the national parks or as satellites of the tourism axes.

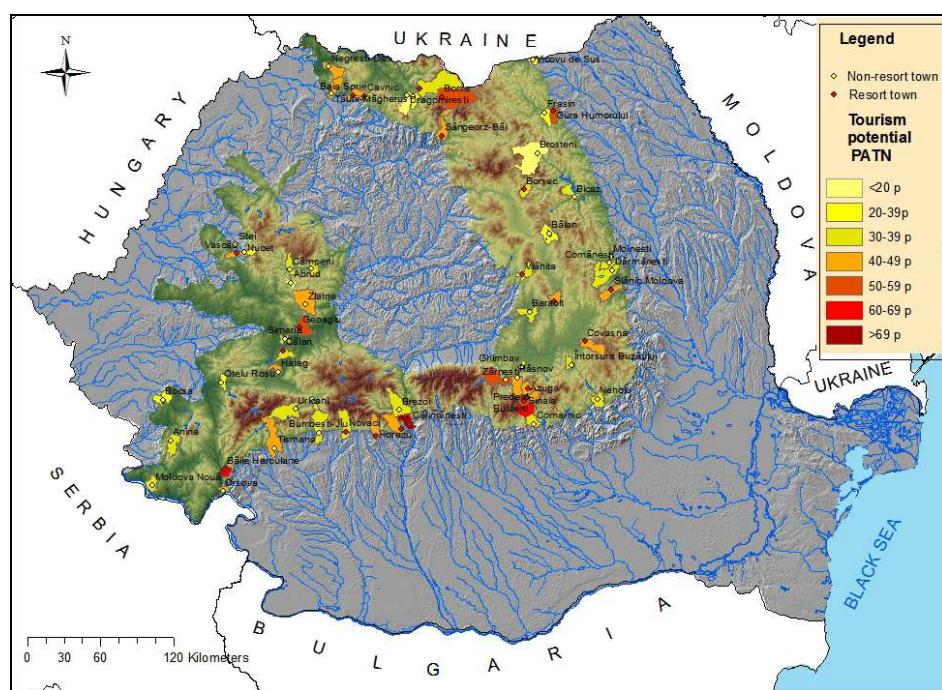


Fig. 2. The tourism potential of the Carpathian small towns. Modelled after PATN's data

Conclusions

Carpathian small towns have registered unequal urban development. Much attention is paid for the environment and urban development in the small

towns with tourist function. Several towns with economic activities such as Ghimbav, Ștei, Zărnești, and Brezoi have enough power to develop urban facilities that attract good social, cultural services and tourism. The tourism faces with four controversial situations: some resorts stagnated tourism infrastructure development; others attract business and develop at maximum their functions (Sinaia, Predeal, Bușteni), some non-resorts towns have developed tourism business using their local advantages, neighboring protected areas, building ski slopes etc. Another part has an ad-hock development towards tourism, which cannot ensure their development on long term. In this sense, local authorities must inverse the route of development from planning to action not vice versa.

***Acknowledgement**

The paper is based on data obtained by the CNCSIS project, no. 292/2007-PNII Ideas.

REFERENCES

- Borsa, M., C. Chifelea, H. Egerer, Z. Gal, W. Glovacki, M. Halas, Veronica Hopfgarted, Iván Illés, Z. Nieviadomski, P. Ptacek, D. Wiederwald, 2008, *Visions and Strategies in the Carpathian Area*, Drukerei Janetschek GmbH, Austria, pp. 137-148.
- Brabazon, T., 2012, "Wasted? Managing Decline and Marketing Difference in Third Tier Cities", *Journal of Urban and Regional Analysis*, vol. 4, 1, pp. 5-33.
- Csapó, János, Antal Aubert, Gergely Marton, 2011, "The Role of Health Tourism in the Hungarian Small and Medium Sized Towns", pp. 29, in Ježek, Jiří, Lukáš Kaňka (eds.), 2011, *Competitiveness and Sustainable Development of the Small Towns and Rural Region in Europe*, Pilsen, University of West Bohemia Publishing House.
- Dumitrescu, B., 2008, *Orășele monoindustriale din România. Între industrializare forțată și declin economic*, Editura Universitară, Bucharest.
- Ianoș, I., 1997, "Individualizarea și analiza disparităților intraregionale. Aplicație la județul Alba", *Comunicări de Geografie*, vol. I., Bucharest University Publishing House, pp. 105.
- Ježek, Jiří, 2011, "Small Towns Attractiveness for Living, Working and Doing Business. Case Study the Czech Republic", in Ježek, Jiří, Lukáš Kaňka (eds.), 2011, *Competitiveness and Sustainable Development of the Small Towns and Rural Region in Europe*, Pilsen, University of West Bohemia Publishing House, pp. 7-31.
- Licurici, M., 2010, "Assessment of The Human Impact on The Landscape of The Danube Floodplain, in Drobeta-Turnu Severin – Bechet Sector", *Forum Geographic*, vol. 15, p 329.
- Magablih, Al.-S., 2004, "Management and Development of Tourist Sites in Jordan Using Geographic Information System", *Information Technology & Tourism*, vol. 6, pp. 287-295.
- Manea, Gabriela, 2003, *Naturalitate și antropizare în Parcul Natural "Portile de Fier"*, Bucharest University Publishing House, pp.153-154.

- Matei, E., L. Dumitrache, Mariana Nae, Iuliana Vijulie, Anda Onețiu, 2011, "Evaluation of Urban Sustainable Development of The Small Towns in Romania", *SGEM*, ISI-Web of Knowledge, vol. III, pp. 1067.
- Morgan, J. Q., W. Lambe, 2009, "Find a Way or Make One. Lessons Learned from Case Studies of Small Town Development", *Economic Development Journal*, vol. 8, no 3, pp. 5-13.
- Nemeș, V., R. Petrea, M. Filimon, 2012, "Spatial Entropy. A Small Town Perspective. Case Study: The Town of Marghita", *Journal of Urban and Regional Analysis*, vol. 4, issue 3, pp. 189-198.
- Pietrzak, M., 1998, "Development of Settlement and Farming from the Neolithic Period to Date in the Marginal Zone of the Carpathian Foothills between the Raba and Uszwica Rivers", abstract of the presentation held on the *Carpathian-Balkan Conference on Geomorphology*, Băile Herculane.
- Portnov, A. B., 2004, "Long-Term Growth of Small Towns in Israel. Does Location Matter?", *The Annals of Regional Studies*, vol. 38, issue 4, pp. 627-653.
- Tudose, Iuliana, 2007, "Orașele mici din Câmpia Română. Structuri și funcționalități urbane", *Scholar Book*, Faculty of Geography Library, Bucharest.
- Turnock, D., 1999, "Sustainable Rural Tourism in the Romanian Carpathians", *The Geographical Journal*, vol. 164, issue 2, pp. 192-199.
- Vaishar, A., 2004, "Small Towns: an Important Part of the Moravian Settlement System", *Dela 21*, pp. 309-317.
- Vârdol, C. D., 2009, *Dinamica social-economică a orașelor mici din Valea Dunării românești*, at <http://www.unibuc.ro/studies/Doctorate2009Noiembrie/Virdol Daniel>.
- Voiculescu, S., 2004, *Orașele din Câmpia de Vest. Structuri și funcționalități urbane*, Editura Universității de Vest din Timișoara, pp.100-103.
- Zamfir, D., C. Tălăngă, I. V. Stoica, 2009, "Romanian Small Towns Searching for Their Identity", *Journal of Urban and Regional Analysis*, vol. I, issue 1, pp. 41-53.
- Zamfir, D., 2007, *Geodemografia orașelor mici din România*, Editura Universitară, Bucharest, pp. 68-71.
- <http://www.mdrt.ro/studii-de-fundamentare-privind-patn-sectiunea-a-vi-a-zone-cu-resurse-turistice> accessed on March 20th, 2012.

THE EVOLUTION OF ROMANIAN TOURISM – A GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVE –

MIHAI IELENICZ¹, ANA-IRINA DINĂ¹

Romania has a very rich fund of tourism resources which are either part of the natural environment or a result of human thinking and activities developed on its territory. They are randomly spread and differently grouped based on their specific, the degree of preservation and their involvement in different types of tourism activities. The correlation of tourism objectives to adequate structures and the resulting forms of tourism during different periods of time allowed the differentiation of several phases with various characteristics for tourism development in Romania:

- *the creation of the preliminary fund of tourism attractions (till the end of 18th century)*
- *the organization and development of tourism activities (19th century – 1950)*
- *the 20th century registered on its turn several phases among which the most important could be considered the one of central controlled planning in tourism activities (after 1950) and the post-communist phase of tourism development*

The study makes reference and exemplifies the main characteristics of tourism resources, structures and activities for each of these phases.

Keywords: Romanian tourism, evolution, geography.

Romania has a rich fund of tourist attractions which are both part of its natural environment and a result of human thinking and activities undergone for thousands of years on its territory. They are randomly spread and differently grouped based on their specific, the degree of preservation and their implication in different types of tourism activities. The correlation of tourism attractions to adequate structures and the resulting forms of tourism, leads to possible economic and other types of analysis both for the present day period and for different moments in the past. Consequently evaluative analysis and predictions can also be made. In this way the multicriterial analyses based on objective comparisons of present and past situations and on appreciations of future scenarios can also be applied for the Romanian space. Therefore several phases of evolution can be individualized for Romanian tourism.

Tourism, perceived as a unitary system formed from its basic elements cannot be regarded as an economic activity earlier than the 18th century both in Romania as well as in other European countries. Its systemic components

¹ University of Bucharest, Faculty of Geography, contact: gabiiov@yahoo.com

appeared gradually. First of all natural tourism attractions were formed if the geologic time scale is considered, while the human elements appeared later on being dated on a historic time scale. In the end the communication structures were designed both for services in general and for various particular services. Consequently different forms of activities which can be entirely or partly integrated in the tourism domain imposed themselves in time in the sphere of services and amplified to a great extent in the last decades, developing also connections with different other domains (sciences, sport, social, politics etc.).

Although they suffered some changes through the impact of human activities, the natural attractions existed long before recreation activities manifested, raising tourism interest in different moments in time, based on their original character and their image but also on the development of ways of communication and of hospitality structures (e.g. accommodation, catering etc.). The cultural heritage attractions display a great variety as they belong to different historic, architectural, artistic and folk creation epochs and are mainly concentrated in the inhabited areas (cities, villages). The interest for them differs based on the demand's level of knowledge, capacity and desire to understand them.

All these lead to the idea that the transfer of natural elements or human works within the range of tourism attractions is a slow and difficult process based on the knowledge of their real value and the achievement of specific structures which should provide access in the region and insure proper conditions for tourism performance. As a consequence, since their appearance and the moment when they imposed themselves as tourist attractions generating specific activities and till the present day several phases with different characteristics may be emphasized, reflecting an achieved level of socio-economic development and indirectly the tourism exploitation of a certain location (which might be either a tourism axis or a tourist area, region, province etc.).

The simple monitoring of the knowledge and valuing level of tourism heritage linked to the dynamics of different activities connected to it lead to the outline of several significant phases for tourism development on Romanian territory (*Table 1*):

Table 1
The Phases of Tourism Development in Romania

| Phase of tourism development | The period | Focus of tourism policies | Infrastructure | Organization | Types of traveling |
|------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| <i>The resource-centered phase</i> | till the end of the 18 th century | Focusing on tourism attractions: thermal spas, natural attractions and later on human made attractions | Primary accommodation and hospitality structures appear (inns, bars) | Tourism destinations appear in the form of spa resorts | Scientific trips to study and discover spa resources on the Romanian territory |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|--|--|
| <i>The planning-centered phase</i> | 19 th century – 1950 | Focusing on tourism planning, revival of spa tourism, appearance of mountaineering, the beginning of cultural tourism | Accommodation and medical units in spa destinations, chalets on the most tourist attractive mountain ranges | Tourism clubs, societies and organizations appear next to a reinforcement of spa destinations and appearance of mountain attractive points, of nature or cultural oriented trips | Incoming or domestic individual and small group mediated trips with promoting purposes |
| <i>The tourism activities-centered phase</i> | the first half of 20 th century | Focusing on both resources and especially on infrastructure development as well as on planning | Expansion and planning of tourist attractions (museums, memorial houses etc.) | The foundation of tourism organizations, societies and associations | Incipient domestic individual, small groups or family traveling of rich members of the society |
| | the between wars period | Focusing on promoting publications for Romanian tourist attractions | | | Continuation of previous consume trends |
| | the second half of 20 th century (between 1950 and 1990) | The phase of central control and planning of tourist activities Tourism activity was entirely organized and controlled by state | Mass tourism structures The appearance of various sport tourism facilities (the design of ski domains, littoral and spa tourism resorts) Transport infrastructure | The founding of Tourism Ministry and organizations (general - ONT, county offices or profile organizations BTT – for youth tourism) | Group traveling overlapped individual traveling. Domestic demand was dominant. At the end of the period incoming group tours and also outgoing trips (almost only to socialist destinations) were organized by the state agency. |
| | the post-communist period after 1990 | The phase of privatization and capitalization of the economy and tourism sector | New emergent small tourism structures coexist with degrading or privatized market reoriented old mass structures | Ministry of Tourism and numerous national and regional organizations or NGO-s act on different recreational themes (e.g. ecotourism, cycling etc.) | Modern tendencies of consume oriented to niche types of tourism coexist the old ones very inert at least for the domestic market which dominates by far tourist demand at the national level |

a) *The resource-centered phase or the phase which generated valuable tourism elements creating a preliminary fund of tourism attractions and achieving an integrated tourism services system, occurred until the 18th-19th centuries. It had as specific elements:*

- the individualization of a range of landscapes and natural attractions (connected mostly to relief forms) to which the settlements and human works from Neolithic, Bronze Age, Iron Age, Thracian-Roman period, Middle Ages, etc. could be added;
- the discovery of a rich scientific and cultural heritage, with an impressive aesthetic value, little known but valued during the following periods of time;
- the only natural elements considered by the economic activities and also by military strategies were the valley corridors and the plateaus for settlements and the thermal springs which became afterwards tourist demand triggering factors. They were locally used, especially in some Roman settlements (e.g. Herculane, Germisara (Geoagiu), Aquae (Călan)) where catchment basins were built (to direct springs' waters towards thermae) as well as towards buildings destined for inhabiting purposes, for entertainment or for Gods worship. An important role was played by the orientation of crests and summits bordering villages or urban settlements. On many of them, especially on isolated heights, fortresses and military points were established. A permanent importance was played by fords, gorges, gateways and cols as places that facilitated the circulation through the Carpathians and the fluxes of goods and values, not only among the inhabitants of the provinces within the Romanian territory but also with traders coming from other great urban centers within Europe.

Among the achieved human heritage elements that appeared in this period and became in time tourist attractions one may enumerate: Thracian and Roman settlements, Greek settlements in Dobrogea, Middle Age fortresses and castles, fortified churches, the „cule” (half-fortified buildings to be found in Oltenia Region), the churches built during 13th-18th centuries in various architectonic styles and the palaces and noble men houses displaying in the present moment different phases of conservation. They played during those times a certain role of defense, being inhabited or hosting different craft works whereas today they are part of various systems of tourism valuing (especially of cultural type).

A non-modern network of main roads was gradually built linking the entire assembly of urban settlements and the most important fairs. In time rural roads added mostly in the plain and hilly regions. Therefore the infrastructure of those times included the transcarpathian traditional axes of communication (in the Apuseni Mountains, the Transalpina Road, on the Olt – Loviștea – Sibiu or

Câmpulung – Bran – Moldavia corridors) or roads overlapping the large valley corridors (Danube, Mureş, Siret, Prut, etc.) with connections towards various European regions. One could also add the paths leading to sheep farms in the mountains or to transcarpathians cols. Accommodation and catering units were barely represented in 16th-17th century by inns and bars in towns and cities or by shanties in the mountain regions.

The very few writings that appeared in the Antiquity period, usually in chronics or writings of foreign visitors hosted at noblemen's residences in the 15th-18th centuries are the only ones that remind among other aspects the specific of daily urban activities, the appearance of palaces and noblemen houses and, more rarely, the greatness of some natural objectives. One should also mention as important issues the geographical, historic and ethnographic etc. information containing tourism elements which appeared in *Descriptio Moldavie* masterpiece written by Dimitrie Cantemir.

Therefore the above mentioned centuries outstand as a long phase of accumulation of natural and human elements considered later on as tourist attractions. During this period, tourism activities, as they are perceived today, were not performed yet and one may state rather the occasional trips for knowledge or usage of benefic elements found in thermal or mineral waters (Băile Herculane, Felix Baths near Oradea, some springs in the Subcarpathians).

b) *The planning-centered phase or the phase of organization and development of tourism activities* lasted till the first half of 20th century.

In 18th-19th centuries an important progress was registered in tourism development for the main regions of Transylvania compared to the extra Carpathian regions. As a consequence of the close connections with Central Europe and of the Austrian influence one should mention for this province in the first place a revival of the spa tourism based on thermal waters (e.g. Băile Herculane, Geoagiu, Moneasa, Episcopiei Baths (1 Mai)) or on mineral springs (e.g. Borsec, Sângeorz Băi, Vatra Dornei, Buziaş, Bazna, Ocna Sibiului). All these places became tourist destinations where specialized units for medical and relaxation purposes were built (providing mainly therapeutic and accommodation services). Another type of leisure activities for the second part of 19th century were the ascensions towards Carpathian summits especially in Făgăraş Mountains, in the mountains located in the southern part of Braşov County, in Bihor or in other parts of the Carpathians. Mountaineering activities were organized not only for recreation purposes but also for scientific reasons (especially to study the glacial relief and big rivers' gorges). They were organized mostly by foreigners and German ethnics inhabiting mountain areas, mainly under the influence of the Western Europe. Therefore ski tracks and various paths in the mountains located nearby the cities of Cluj, Oradea, Sibiu, Braşov etc. were registered as planned tourism infrastructure during that period.

At the same time impressive buildings and monuments ornamented with traditional architectonic motives (Romanian, German, Hungarian) combined with elements inspired by the art in the Central Europe (baroque, rococo, secession, etc.) were built. Other aspects important to be mentioned for tourism development during this period were the development of the ways of transport (including the cruises on the Danube from Vienna to Orșova and on Bega Canal); the presence in the great cities of some artistic and scientific personalities (Cluj, Timișoara, Oradea, Sibiu, etc.) or cultural and high-education institutions (Cluj and Timișoara had universities at the end of the 19th century) etc. which constituted in the end the germs of cultural tourism in Romania.

A great importance in implementing tourism activities had some societies (founded on the model of those in the Western Europe) which organized excursions on the summits of the Romanian Carpathians having as a main interest the study of the natural environment in the mountain areas as well as in the neighboring area of great cities and the training of guides. For more than 60 years distinct activities were linked to The Transylvanian Carpathian Society of Tourists (Sieben bürgische Karpaten Verein – SKV) which was founded in 1880 in Brașov and had branches located also in other cities. The society was involved in the planning of chalets and mountain paths and the publishing of about 56 works in the domain and had a rich informational data basis (referring to Carpathian Mountains, spa resorts, medieval fortresses, etc.).

Within the other Romanian provinces the beginning of tourism activities was registered later (mostly in the second half of the 19th century) and only in some regions with a particular specific. Bucegi Mountains outstand as the place where the first excursions were organized between 1833-1845 in locations such as: Peștera, Omu Peak, Caraiman Peak. Another destination was the upper Prahova Valley – around Sinaia which displayed as main attractions: the monastery, the Peleș Castle, some villas, 2 hotel units and was accessed by an important road leading from Bucharest to Brașov. In Moldavia important events were the tour of the Bishop in 1805 and of Gh. Asachi in 1838 in Ceahlău as well as the pilgrimages of literate people and of foreign journalists to monasteries, to whom we owe the first literary, artistic and scientific testimonials. Relevant for this period are as well the geographic researches of Emm. de Martonne for the Southern Carpathians and also geologic and naturalist researches entreprised by scientists who described in valuable works different destinations, based on data obtained from their traveling. Activities meant to value and promote both at national and European level (through presentations at international reunions – Viena, Paris etc.) Romanian spa resorts (e.g. Slănic Moldova, Băile Govora, Călimănești, Băltătești, etc.) may be added. In Bucovina (occupied by the Austro-Hungarian Empire) one may remark the commemorative celebrations of Putna Monastery, organized in the memory of Ștefan cel Mare, which gathered great personalities of Romanian culture and

had a complex symbolic value with rich religious and historical nuances. To all these events the activities of the Romanian Geographical Society should be added. Founded in 1875 and comprising among its members great personalities of our country (politicians, economists, historians, geologists, naturalists, writers etc.) the Society intended among its objectives to contribute to the knowledge and popularization through conferences and publications of the environment in our country at both national and international level.

Therefore in the 19th century the dominant tourism activities to be met in the Romanian provinces were the excursions to Carpathian summits, the traveling to monasteries (either as pilgrimages or for various cultural and patriotic manifestations e.g.: Putna 1871), the stays in spa resorts which were in the early stage of their evolution, the tours in the main urban centres (Iași, București, Târgoviște), the trips along the important valleys (Moldova, Suceava, Bistrița, Olt etc.). Impressed by the natural beauties and by the human settlements some writers (Gr. Alecsandrescu, C. Hogaș, Gh. Asachi, Al. Vlahuță etc.) created real literary masterpieces. An important role in the planning of mountain tourism in Bucegi Mountains was played by the Sinaia Carpathian Society, created in 1893 on the purpose to study nature in the region, to dwell accommodation units and shelters for travelers (e.g. Cu Dor Peak, Furnica, Peștera, Caraiman, Omu Peak) or winter sports facilities etc.

c) *The first half of XXth century* marks the beginning of *the tourism activities – centered phase* during which tourism was perceived as an economic activity in itself. The first period is to be placed in time especially after the great Union achieved in 1918 and has distinct characteristics for the development of Romanian tourism system among which one should mention:

- the expansion of the area containing tourist attractions by including alpine and subalpine objectives in Bucegi, Făgăraș, Retezat, Rodnei, Ciucas etc., medieval fortresses, spa and littoral resorts, museums of national interest, famous historical places (commemorating great battles), monasteries etc. On the Black Sea coast the first tourist units appeared in Constanța area (1800-1920), followed by Carmen Silva, Movila Baths, Eforie (1892) and Techirghiol (a sanatory since 1907) structures.
- the expansion of the tourism planning system (roads and railways, marked paths in many mountain chains, chalets, refugees and mountain huts, inns, hotels in towns, ski and sledge runs especially at Sinaia, Predeal, Păltiniș etc.).
- the tourism valuing of many scientifically studied natural objectives; the construction of numerous monuments dedicated to historical events or to great personalities etc.; the planning of museums

around a historical, artistic or an ethnic and folk theme (e.g. the Village Museum in Bucharest).

- the development of already existing tourism activities (mountain trips, winter sports, relaxation, medical treatment, training and education, cultural tours to monasteries, cities).
- the foundation of tourism societies and associations which contributed to the development of this domain. An important name was “The Romanian Tourist Society”, founded in 1903 by a group of personalities among whom one should mention the geologists Gh. Munteanu Murgoci and L. Mrazec, the geographer S. Mehedinți, the naturalist Gr. Antipa, the chemist C. I. Istrati, the mathematicians Tr. Lalescu and Spiru Haret, the writer Al. Vlahuță or many remarkable politicians: Petre P. Carp, Ion I. C. Brătianu, Tache Ionescu, D. D. Sturdza, I. Cantacuzino, etc.. The society had as main objectives the organization of trips in the country (in different ranges of the Romanian Carpathians at Slănic Prahova Curtea de Argeș, Târgoviște, at monasteries in Muntenia, Moldavia etc.), the printing of guides about the important tourist regions, the presentation of Romanian tourist attractions at conferences and events, the organization of exhibitions of promoting materials, the development of shelters and chalets in the intensely frequented mountains, etc.. Other important societies were The Romanian Touring Club, founded in 1926, which had an important journal of alpinism, The Association of Backpackers in Romanian Mountains (1929) which played an important part in the development of infrastructure in the Carpathian area etc. The Romanian National Tourism Office – ONT was founded in 1926 and limited its activity to spa resorts until 1933 when it was invested with complete functions as an authority for all tourism regions and types of destinations in Romania. Its main attributions were to stimulate Romanians internal and international traveling as well as to develop the incoming tourism. The first president of this institution was the great geographer G. Vălsan.

d) During *the between wars period* tourism books and maps were published, among them an outstanding title being the “Romanian Tourism Encyclopedia” (1941) signed by Mihai Haret. One should also remark the publishing of numerous maps of the mountains frequently climbed by tourists (e.g. Bucegi, Gârbova, Piatra Mare, Retezat etc.). They were designed at big scales and with a satisfactory detail level so as to stimulate the trips (e.g. those organized by Mihai Haret). In 1984 all tourism societies and associations were

disestablished and their patrimony was taken over by the state under the umbrella of “The Association of Popular Tourism” through some ministers.

Therefore the first half of the 20th century would be generally defined by the tourism planning system based on the gradual expansion of tours within the mountain regions and the big cities; the dominance of several spa resorts; the inclusion of some littoral sectors (south from Constanța); the development of structures and services according to the financial and human resources of the moment; the diversification of domestic tourism activities (e.g. trekking, hiking, winter sports, relaxation, spa treatment, trainings, cultural and special interest trips etc.) as well as the development of the outgoing tourism especially to Europe (for cultural trips and relaxation) but also to other continents (expeditions); the elaboration of a rich volume of information (articles in newspapers, books, maps etc.); the presence of geographers in the leading councils of some tourism associations, organizing and supporting the planning of expeditions or of trips in the Carpathian areas or to historical places and promoting the value of tourism resources at the national level (through conferences, descriptions, maps, etc.). Journeys were enterprise by individual planning or through existing tourism organizations and included also educational trips which comprised physically demanding activities.

e) *The second half of XXth century – between 1950 and 1990* marks the phase of central control and planning of tourism activities during which there was a total dominance of a state centralized tourism system. Its main attributes referred to: the public ownership and administration of both natural and human tourism resources; the development of the infrastructure needed to provide various activities in this domain (e.g. trekking, entertainment, spa treatment, relaxation, cultural services, winter and water sports, fishing, hunting, hiking, cave tourism, etc.), all designed at a mass scale.

Tourism organized, at the beginning of this period, only by trade unions or through the Ministries of Education and of Health gradually expanded especially after the founding of O.N.T. Carpați and of the Tourism Ministry (in 1971). This is the phase during which the individual tourism overlapped the one of organized groups and when tourism displayed a modernized infrastructure especially in the spa resorts (e.g. Sinaia, Băile Herculane, Felix, 1 Mai, Borsec, Vatra Dornei, Eforie Nord and Eforie Sud, Techirghiol, Bazna, Buziaș, Slănic Moldova etc.) but also in other regions with important tourism resources. In the mountain areas a network of shelters and chalets was built and many tourism paths were marked. The first ski domain with proper tracks was planned at Poiana Brașov in view of the International Students Winter Olympics (which took place in 1951) after which similar domains were also built at Predeal, Sinaia, Semenic, Păltiniș etc.

The period also marked the beginning of outgoing group excursions (mainly to socialist destinations) while the incoming tourism was developed especially after 1965 when a priority was the building of seaside resorts on the southern part of the Romanian littoral and of modern accommodation, catering and treatment basis in other already famous national resorts. New organizations, specially designed for tourism, appeared (e.g. B.T.T. – The Youth Tourism Office, a department on the UNCAP Cooperation, departments within various ministries or trade unions). At the same time a clear separation between the attributions of O.N.T. Carpați and those of county tourism offices was made. The first institution organized tours in collaboration with various foreign partners located mainly in communist destinations both for the outgoing Romanians and for incomers. Inbound tours were planned towards different Romanian regions (Bucovina, Bucharest, Danube Delta) or for longer stays on littoral or spa resorts (Felix, Herculane, Neptun, Căciulata, Sovata, Covasna, Eforie Nord etc.). County tourism offices imposed themselves as the main authority in the planning of domestic tourism, performed especially for relaxation or theme trips in mountain, rural or spa destinations. In this way the organized tours became the main form of tourism, involving most people. Organized tourism was favored by standardized low prices and the variety of programs existing on the market despite the not very updated services and infrastructure.

During this period two major elements contributed to a great extent to tourism development. One of them referred to the building of infrastructure, an important issue being the construction of large relaxation and treatment units (usually providing in a single building accommodation, catering and medical services for mass tourism) in the most important and famous existing spa resorts after 1965, but especially between 1970 and 1975. Other directions were the planning of infrastructure according to the tourist profile based on age, motivation, etc. (e.g. Costinești for youth, Năvodari as a scholar camp for pupils, Izvorul Mureșului and Pârâul Rece for students, etc.); the planning of a large number of scholar camps in each county; the dominance on a local or a regional level of an important number of spa resorts for treatment and relaxation with different degrees of development in terms of services; the beginning of valuing through tourism of areas surrounding reservoirs in the mountains regions (e.g. those on Bistrița, Olt, Danube, Semenic region etc.) or of lakes for fishing within plain or hilly regions; the construction of important transcarpathian roads (e.g. Transfăgărășan road), etc..

A second element that contributed to tourism development during this period was the detailed knowledge and promotion of tourism resources for different regions, towns, mountains, littoral areas, etc. Beside the articles on tourism topics that were published in different newspapers one should remark the existence of „România pitorească” Journal and also the editing by various publishing houses of several works on tourism themes, among which several

collections could be enumerated (e.g. „Munții noștri” designed as a tourism guide which tried to underline tourism complex reality of the most frequented mountain ranges in the Romanian Carpathians, the theme collection „Tourism with the history / litterature / ethnography / handbook” describing tours for various regions in Romania, „Nature reserves and tourism” etc.) or of synthesis works for different historic provinces, counties or for the whole national territory. Cartographic works for tourism (tourism maps for the national territory and for the regions of Romania, the Road Atlas of Romania etc.) should be also mentioned.

Individual tourism continues to exist orienting more towards weekend tourism for trekking and relaxation purposes. Another developing form is the one of small groups organized by different associations especially with a sport profile and oriented towards active forms of tourism (e.g. hunting, fishing, hiking, ski, canoning, etc.).

After 1980 on the general context of economic decline essential changes occurred. The financial diminution affected not only the construction of tourism infrastructure destined for different services but also cancelled the opportunity of modernizing and maintaining the existent one, including the general transport infrastructure. Another aspect was the diminishing of service quality and the increase of prices. In these conditions tourism activities entered a decline in terms of the volume, frequency, length of stay of tourism demand and of number of objectives visited by tourists during their tours. However tourism activities connected to trekking purposes, spa treatments, special interest trips still determined an important volume of traveling in spite of decreases registered for the length of stay and the group size (e.g. for winter sport tourism).

Geographers played an important part in the evolution of the tourism system in: the organization of trips and camps for pupils and youth mainly in the Carpathian area; the participation as guides in leading tourist groups on various itineraries or accompanying and animating them during summer camps; the emphasis and valuing of tourism resources through different paper works including diploma thesis, PhD thesis; punctual analysis of the tourism phenomenon and its presentation at various scientific manifestations; the participation in guides and tourism labor force training.

f) ***The postcommunist period after 1990*** met significant transformations for all the components of the tourism system within the general transition process which displayed profound social, politic and economic changes.

In the first place old structures in tourism domain were replaced with new institutions meant to diversify and revive this economic sector. Therefore in the present moment among the main organizations and associations acting in the tourism domain in Romania one should mention: ANAT (The National Association of Tourism Agencies), ANTREC (The National Association of

Rural, Ecologic and Cultural Tourism), FIHR (The Patronal Federation of Hotels in Romania), F.P.T. (The Patronal Federation of Tourism), OPTBR (The Patronizing Organization of Romanian Spa Tourism), R.C.B. (Romanian Convention Bureau), A.N.T. (The National Youth Association), I.N.C.D.T. (The National Institute for Research and Development in Tourism), A.G.V.P.S. (The National Association of Hunters and Fishing Men in Romania) etc.. The supreme forum that focused on the elaboration, promotion and monitoring of the strategy and national policy in the tourism domain and on its multiple elements was the Tourism Ministry (known under various denominations due to the multiple transformations that it suffered in the last two decades) which shared this function with the National Authority for Tourism (between 1998 and 2007). At regional and local level numerous private institutions and societies played a part in planning and organizing tourism in general or of its different components in particular.

The state owned tourism structures, especially with accommodation and catering functions suffered a long and slow privatization process. In the first decade after the Revolution in 1989 the exploitation of tourism infrastructure and the lack of investments for its maintenance and modernization led to a continuous degradation especially of the large structures designed and destined for mass tourism during the communist period. This aspect determined an important loss in tourist demand (almost entirely for foreign tourist demand) in many tourist destinations. However an important part of tourism infrastructure managed to be rehabilitated in time whereas other new and modern units and equipments (e.g. transport infrastructure, ski lifts, entertainment and cultural units, sport infrastructure etc.) were put in place. As a result of these changes a new network of tourist units destined to winter sports, relaxation, entertainment, etc. appeared. All regions with tourist resources witnessed the rising up of boarding houses either along roads or within tourist villages as agricultural and rural tourism became recently popular forms of tourism.

A major change produced in tourism programs was their gradual orientation towards the demand motivation. This factor determined the shaping of several directions for tourism development namely: the outgoing traveling for organized groups; the individual or small groups tourism for trekking, relaxation, weekend tourism, seasonal active tourism (ski, hiking, hunting, fishing, extreme sports etc.); tourism in the Danube Delta and on the littoral; business tourism; tourism to religious attractions (pilgrimages organized in Romania or abroad for domestic demand). In parallel, the special interest trips and tours ponder diminished to a great extent for the internal demand.

In this new epoch of tourism development and dynamics, geographers are a growing part of the domain for which they contribute in a first place by identifying, presenting and promoting tourism resources through writings, books, guidebooks, maps, atlases and tourism brochures. Secondly they also

contribute to the organization of tourism activity as they are part of the tourism societies councils; they participate in the planning of tourism programs along tourism agencies, in the training of tourism labor force; they contribute to the elaboration of laws for tourism and environment protection and conservation; continue their studies in the domain through PhD thesis or through collaboration contracts in different institutions of the profile industry and contribute to publications in tourism domain (maps for tourism purposes, guides, brochures and other promoting materials, books and even encyclopedias, etc.).

REFERENCES

- Cantemir, D. (1973), *Descriptio Moldaviae*, Edit. Academiei, Bucureşti.
- Cândea Melinda, G. Erdeli, Tamara Simon, D. Peptenatu (2003), *Potențialul turistic al României și amanajarea turistică a spațiului*, Ed. Universitară, Bucureşti.
- Dincă, Ana-Irina (2013), *Turismul durabil în Culoarul transcarpatice Gura Humorului – Câmpulung – Vatra Dornei – Bârgău*, Edit. Universității din Bucureşti (in print).
- Ielenicz, M. și colab. (2003), *România. Enciclopedia obiectivelor turistice*, Ed. Corint, Bucureşti.
- Ielenicz, M. (2005), “Harta turistică și legenda sa”, *Revista Terra*, Bucureşti.
- Ielenicz, M., Laura Comănescu (2006), *România – potențial turistic*, Ed. Universitară, Bucureşti.
- Milea, N. (1985), *Actiunea patriotică pionierescă "Asaltul Carpaților" – Marcaje turistice în Carpați*, Întreprinderea Poligrafică "Bucureștii Noi", Bucureşti.
- *** (1934), TCR, *Calendar săptămânal turism, alpinism, vilegiatura, balneologie, ski, flora, fauna, vânătoare*, prim-redactor Haret, M., Ed. Cartea Românească.
- *** (1942), TCR, *Enciclopedia turistică Românească*, vol. IV.
- *** (1943), TCR, *Enciclopedia turistică Românească*, vol. X.
- *** (1955), *Stațiunile balneo-climatiche din Republica Populară România*, Consiliul Central al Sindicatelor.

URBAN REGENERATION AND AFFECTIVE CONNECTIONS TO PLACE IN BUCHAREST CITY CENTRE

LILIANA DUMITRACHE¹, MARIANA NAE¹

Abstract

“Place” represents an important issue for human geographers. This paper deals with the process of urban change that has affected the historical centre of Bucharest over the course of the last decade. The urban regeneration process could transform the cultural meanings of the ‘sense of the place’ and contribute to a reinvention of an urban identity dimension. The aim of the paper is to contribute to the formulation of a critical perspective on urban regeneration, by highlighting the absence or otherness of cultural urban meanings in creating a place identity among the citizens during the (post)communist period. The authors advance and test the hypotheses that the historical importance of the city and the regeneration process in the sense of place construction are different among the residents.

Keywords: sense of place, historical city centre, place identity, urban regeneration, Bucharest.

Introduction

Places are all over the world. They may be unique spots embedded in everyday human life experience. This paper deals with the process of urban change that has occurred in the historical centre of Bucharest City over the past decade. Over the time, these places acquire their own identity and history, depending on certain elements: historical context, urban changes, functionality, and different events that are engraved in the collective memory.

Our investigation focuses on the following objectives: 1) to identify new elements and places in the areas with historical importance; 2) to visualize all the representative events of the city centre, as well as its transformations, alterations and redesign themes; 3) to explore the current identity of the places or “world of places” among citizens in a particular place i.d. the city centre.

Social scientists, researchers and humanists have long been focused on notions like “place” and “sense of place”. The human geographers consider place an important issue for their field of study (Tuan, 1977; Relph, 1976; Cosgrove D., 1978, 1994; Buttiner, 1980; Jackson P., 1989; Jackson P. and Penrose, 1993; Harvey D., 1993; Sack, R.D., 1997, 2004; Creswell, 2004;

¹ University of Bucharest, Faculty of Geography, Department of Human and Economic Geography.

Massey, 1993, 1994). Likewise, the anthropologists investigate the relation between place and culture (Lamb, 1993; Feld and Basso, 1996).

Environmental specialists explore the human behaviour and the place (Altman and Low, 1992), while architects and planners are concerned with social control and space (Cuthbert 1995b, Cuthbert and McKinnell, 1997) or inhabited places (Lyndon, 2001).

Related to the sense of belonging is the place attachment. Scholars studied the connections between environmental and community psychology literature on subjects like place attachment (Manzo L., Perkins, D, 2006,) and mobility (Gustafson, 2001), the relations between communities and place (Hargreaves, 2004), place branding and “place selling” (Anholt, 2006; Dinnie, 2008; Kearns and Philo, 1993; Kotler *et al.*, 1993; Ward, 1998; Warnaby, 2009, Campelo *et.al.*, 2009, Kaltenborn B. & Williams D., 2002), and the “cultural power” (Zukin, 1992, 1993, 2010).

According to Creswell (2004), people transform the spaces into meaningful places through personal experience and specific activities. Those experiences are very important in creating relationships among individuals, creating a bond called ‘topophilia’, a term coined by Yi-Fu Tuan (1974b, 4). Tuan constructively summarizes Lowenthal (1961) and Gendlin’s (1962) ideas on the sense of place.

The places could be located everywhere within films or other cultural products forming a cultural geography ‘all over the place’ (Shurmer-Smith, 1994). The place is a construction ‘carved’ out of space of human culture (Sack, 2004), or the place could be constituted on three parts: ‘location, locale and sense of the place’ (Agnew and Duncan, 1989).

People are living in communities and are sharing their experiences and activities of everyday life. These connections are articulated through a personal experience based on emotional attachment. The people ‘define themselves through a sense of the place’ (Crang, 1998:2). All the meanings resulted by interactions with a place are revealed by the sense of the place.

The sense of place is started to be appraised with the well-known cognitive mapping developed by Kevin Lynch (1960) that used people perception of the connectivity between space, place, social, physical or built environment. The sense of place is often related to cultural landscape or lived landscape. The “lived landscape” (Seyer-Ochi, 2006) is understood in relation with the built, historical layers and the natural landscape.

The role of political dis(interest) is important for explaining the building of the sense of place. The new political elites have sought to create a breach in the local government strategy by embracing a new master plan in the second half of the 1990s. In the last ten years, Bucharest has tried to get out of the anonymity of a postsocialist city, through a slow and contradictory regeneration process, which over the time has entailed economic and social changes and mutations. These changes have emerged in a delicate context, depending on the dis(interest) of all urban stakeholders. Thus, the city has developed and has

been re(built) according to the policy regulations issued after 1989, beginning with the slow privatization process of communist enterprises, relocations, financial investments and the interest of real estate developers.

Unfortunately, this regeneration process has occurred quite chaotically, without a coherent and visionary plan, without a harmonization of the decisions and know-how elements of the urban stakeholders. For several decades, the historical centre could not accomplish its role as central place for social and civic life within the city.

Historical Background of the City Centre

The higher headland on the left side of the Dâmbovița River represents the core area of ‘Târgul Bucureștilor’, the old Bucharest market city. In the second half of 14th century, here was a brick fortress on which developed the new settlement. At that time, Bucharest resembled a ‘castrum’, as is mentioned in most documents of the time (Mănuțu-Adameșteanu, 2002).

On the edges of the Royal Court, ‘târgul din lăuntru’ ('the inside market') came into existence as the first commercial centre of the city, with merchant shops or sails booths (Giurescu, 2009:101). Today, the ruins of the Princely Palace (The Royal Court) represent a protected archaeological site, which shelters the Old Court Museum.

According to the archaeological discoveries, the oldest medieval dwellings in this area belong to the second half of the 15th century. At the same time, the remnants of some furnaces used for iron and copper processing seem to suggest the intensity of craft activities. In 1659, the city became the capital of Wallachia and, before long, began to spread and develop. Fortified churches and inns were erected and many craft workshops were established on the main streets: Gabroveni, Șelari, Covaci, Lipscani, Băcani etc.

From the urban morphology standpoint of the pre-modern period of the city (according to the Borroczyn Plan, 1852), the city centre was a compact commercial and residential area, with inns lying on the east side of the present day Victoriei Avenue. The main axis of the area was the Lipscani Street. Later on, the Jews gradually insinuated on Gabroveni, Lipscani and other streets, replacing the Bulgarian, Romanian and Greek merchants. In the beginning, they had rented the commercial spaces, but in a short while, they came to own them.

The modernization process of the inner city started with the promulgation of the Organic Regulation (1831), which had significant effects on the core area. Thus, the street network around St. George Inn was retraced (in the aftermath of the big fire of 1847), avenues were built near the University building (the present shape of the University Square was completed between 1906 and 1911), while the Dâmbovița channel was straightened (1880-1883) (P.U.Z., 2002). Because of the accelerated urban sprawl, several inns were replaced by imposing public buildings like the National Bank, Post Office

Palace, Dacia Română Insurance Company (today BCR Bank), Colțea Hospital, Colțea Church and Ministry of Agriculture.

In the first half of the 20th century (according to the City Plan of 1911), the inner city developed and altered substantially due to the construction of the Hristo Botev Avenue and the North-South axis, which connects the Unirii Square to the University Square. At the same time, the administrative and banking area was completed (Marmorosch Blank Bank, Romanian Credit Bank, Crisovelloni Bank, the new building of the National Bank).

After 1945, the political, economic and social context affected the territorial development of the city. Most of the buildings, erected in neoclassical and baroque style, were nationalized in 1948. Urban sprawl continued and collective housing emerged. Human interventions in the historical area were considered by specialists to be minor; nevertheless, they changed the architecture of the relations with the adjacent area (the metro South section, the enlargement of the University Square junction, the building of the civic centre etc.).

The emergence of commercial urbanism in the 1970s was felt in particular by the construction and extension of the large commercial spaces (Cocor and Unirea stores). After 1990, the historical city centre has continuously degraded, and its patrimonial value spoiled, even though most of the urban texture has been preserved.

After 1989, the local authorities and the architects have been increasingly concerned with the future of this place. Consequently, they have come out with many initiatives aimed at preserving and revitalizing the area.

The new political elites pursued a different strategy by adopting a new master plan in the second half of the 1990s. The historical city centre was defined by the Government Emergency Ordinance 77/2001, as an area of 34 hectares, comprising 436 buildings, of which 240 were historical monuments, and about 1.5 ha inbuilt surfaces. The process of rehabilitation is a very complex one. For that reason, the historical centre circumscribed by Calea Victoriei (West), Carol and Elisabeta avenues (North), Hristo Botev Avenue (East), Corneliu Coposu Avenue and Spaiul Dâmboviței (South) has been identified as a pilot area. The Urban Zone Plan (PUZ) was developed in partnership with the Ion Mincu University of Architecture and the General Council of Bucharest Municipality.

The urban governance raised special and delicate issues. The coherence and aestheticized landscape challenged the urban debate behind the city planning rules, the haziness of legislation and the contradictions regarding the historical monuments and the preserved area.

“The lack of effective public administration and consistent urban policies has delayed the realization of winning urban design projects from several competitions, leaving downtown Bucharest as a vacant playground for consumerism.” (Ioan, 2006:346)

Some of the buildings in the historical centre of Bucharest City are already notified (they have an unclear juridical situation) and therefore they should return to their owners. The representatives of the Real Estate Administration argue that municipality has not finished yet the notification of all the buildings, in order to see exactly which ones can be returned and which not, so that to be managed by the local authorities.

According to the Real Estate Administration representatives, about 60% of the estates are notified and only 40% belong to the State housing stock and may be the subject to renovation and conservation, based on the decisions of municipal counsellors. However, municipality representatives argue that these works may not be accomplished in a short term, because at this moment there is no legal basis for them. A solution for the restoration of the historical centre, as suggested by experts, is that the buildings with clear legal situation be auctioned and leased with the detailed clauses, i.e. the new owners/managers could be obliged to royalty payments to the municipality.

For most inhabitants, the historic centre of the city means “the old centre”, i.e. the place lying on both sides of the Lipscani Street. For this reason, subsequent investigations will focus on this space.

But beyond the urban regulations and divisions, and leaving aside the inconsistencies of the town planning documents, the historical centre (the “old centre”) remains in the consciousness of the inhabitants as a small-size area associated with Lipscani and some adjacent streets (the left side of the map) (*Fig. 1*).

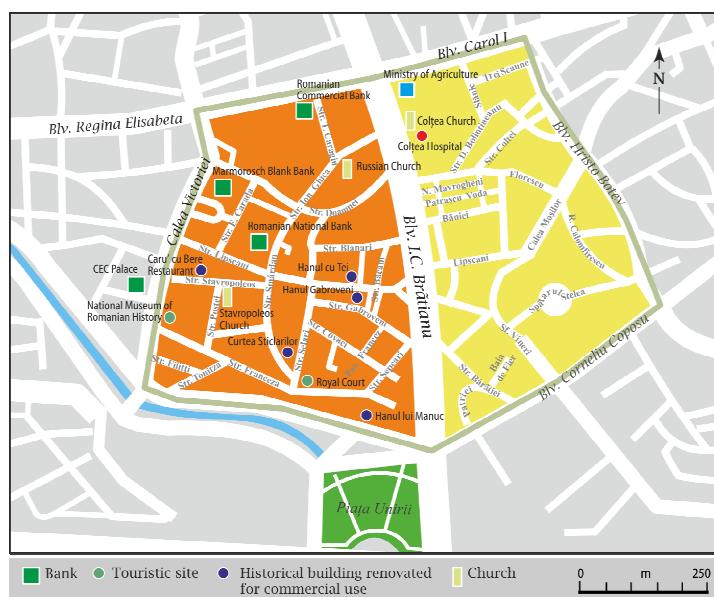


Fig. 1. The historical city centre of Bucharest

Interpreting the Built Environment as Visual: the Commercial Streets and the Inns

The identity of a place is therefore grounded in a supposed relation between the physical and the mental based on intersubjective and subjective orientation towards space. Therefore, regeneration projects based on a “viable” perspective have to be seen as social production of space in a double sense.

Following this idea, from the functional perspective, the historical centre and the Lipscani commercial axis were intended for service and banking activities. Today, some people call this area with the demanding attribute ‘the City’, because the historical centre is particularly based on the visual interpretation of the built environment. The area includes several buildings that used to be the headquarters of some of the banks built during the interwar period (Marmorosch Blank, the Romanian Credit Bank, Crisovelloni Bank). Today, they shelter financial and management institutions, ministries, firms and multinational companies with high patrimonial value according to CNMASI (1992).

From the architectural point of view, many buildings in the area bear the imprint of the eclectic French school, because they were erected either by famous French architects or by Romanian architects who had studied in Paris, who were perfectly capable of recreating the image of the metropolis in its faithful “colony” (Boia, 1997). The most important of these buildings are the following: the National Bank, 1883-1885, designed by Cassien Bernard and Albert Galleron, and decorated by sculptor Ioan Georgescu; Ministry of Agriculture, 1896; the CEC building, 1896-1900; the new building of the University, 1921-1934, designed by Nicholas Ghika-Budeşti and the National Museum of Romanian History, 1900, designed by Alexandru Săvulescu.

The architect Augustin Ioan reinforced the idea that ‘in the inner city, the residential quarters built with stucco and bad plasters are eclectic as well, but “carnevalesque” reflections of the original French eclecticism (Ioan, 2003).

In addition to coffee shops, art galleries and various workshops, which are found here, the tourist encounters all around stalls with breathtaking goods or different warehouses selling building materials. The remnants of the old inns (Zarafi, Ţerban Vodă, Grecilor and Constantin Brâncoveanu), the medieval houses on the Franceză Street and a wall belonging to the Royal Palace standing on the Gabroveni Street, all were returned to the public.

Lipscani Street, also known as the *Uliţa Mare* (the Main Lane), was an important axis lying in the neighbourhood of the Old Princely Court. From it, one could easily reach the neighbouring commercial streets; but it also ensured the connection with the entire city, as far as the road leading to Târgovişte, the former capital of the country. Architectural styles are different, from classical to baroque and neoclassical facades.

The street was named after the German tradesmen born in Leipzig (called Lipsca), who in 1750 gave up using the Saxons as sales agents and began to sell themselves their merchandise here. The merchants were organized in guilds, paid some taxes, but also enjoyed some special exemptions. The small shops, which used to be called *bolta*, had facades of about three meters high and, more often than not, they possessed cellars. The tiny shops lining the street were grouped according to their specific activity on guilds: merchants with beads, accessories, with cloth, linen drapery and tissues.

One of the most important inns, now in ruins and under restoration, is the *Gabroveni Inn*. The construction was erected in 1739 on a piece of land belonging to the merchant Hagi Teodosie Gabroveanu. On the onset of the 20th century, the inn was turned into Gabroveni-Universal Hotel. During the communist period, it was used primarily for commercial purposes. The name of the inn comes from the Bulgarian merchants, who brought goods and products from Gabrovo (hence the name of Gabroveni Street). The edifice, which is now in the administration of municipality, is currently under restoration: the interior will shelter the City Hall Center for Cultural Projects (ARCUB), while near the inn a new building will be erected, which will possess a Performance Hall.

Hanul cu Tei (The Lime Trees Inn) was built in 1833 by two merchants who had their own shops. It was conceived to have two entrances: one on the east (with 14 shops) and the other on the west (14 shops), the access being possible from two streets (Blănarî and Lipsca). The first renovation of the inn dates back to 1970. Since then, it has been turned into an art gallery, coffee shop and exhibition. The eclectic façade facing the Lipsca Street is presently renewed.

Another landmark of the old centre is the *Manuc Inn*, which was completed by Manuc Bei in 1808; it was built according to a new architectural style and in the early 19th century, it had the following composition 15 vaulted cellars, 23 shops and 1 tunnel that could host 500 people. Upstairs, there were 107 guest rooms. Today, (after having been returned to the Cantacuzino family) the inn is renewed and turned into a privately owned restaurant.

The Difference that Place Makes...

Generally, the city has more or less been forced to develop and regenerate from the outskirts to the centre, which generated lots of malfunctions. But the city centre has somehow escaped the forced renovations and rehabilitations, thus remaining a little bit behind the rest of the city.

What has happened so far? Why the historical area of the city has not been of any interest to the investors? There could be several causes, but the most likely ones seem to be the lack of regulations, the uncertainty of the ownership regime, the lack of cooperation and coordination between the local

authorities, and the unattractiveness of the area. Further, we will try to understand the economic and social context that has determined and foreshadowed the involution of the area.

The historical centre of a city is an important milestone in the process of building a (new) identity. This complex process is determined by several factors and it requires time, strategies and vision. The centre needs to be revived and restructured. In the past 20 years, we can speak of an agony of the historical centre.

Under the municipality management, it became *an anonymous space*, an obsolete area thrown into oblivion. Today, the centre changes continuously, turning into an urban area full of Balkanic type contrasts: from in vogue consumption precincts, with various bohemian cafes, to the desolated and derelict places, with stray dogs. How and where are we looking for an authenticity of urban design taking into account the shrinking of the urban space during the (post)communist period?

Many studies reinforced the authenticity of urban design focusing on urban conservation and heritage revealing its tourist vocation. Authors and specialists claimed that this authenticity could not be mixed with the creation of new historical illusion such as the disneyfication. A good urban design concept in the older city districts might be the creation of sense of place as an imageable physical setting with a strong meaning, which affords several urban activities (Ouf Salah, 2001:87).

The idea of authenticity and symbolic representation are closely linked to the urban design, to idea of place and placemaking based on identity and self-identity (Carter *et. al.*, 2007, Massey 1994). All the elements which construct the authenticity and symbolic representation are tied to the place and placemaking and to the space of everyday life.

The authenticity is closely linked to the origins. Zukin underlined that ‘a city is authentic if it can create the *experience* of origins. This is done by preserving historic buildings and districts, encouraging the development of small-scale boutiques and cafés, and branding neighbourhoods in terms of distinctive cultural identities’ (Zukin, 2010:3).

Despite some efforts to rebuild some historical inns, the central area is struggling with *the endless rehabilitation of infrastructure, sewage system and monuments’ façades*. To begin with, how is the history to be represented? And whose history should it be? In the absence of a genuine cultural and symbolical capital, the historical centre has become too fast a “space of consumption”.

In other words, the rapid turn of the central area into a consumption space has adjusted to the rules and laws of the financial capitalism and to the fashion of consumerist societies (fancy cafes and bars), which is only a substitute for a successful urban regeneration.

The symbolical capital is tied on added value and investment and the production of symbolical capital is closely related to the production of cultural capital.

"This means to capture some aspects of historical or cultural development and the desire to package this for sale as some kind of new experience that retranslates or transcends the old." (Cuthbert, 2006:190)

But, in our case, even this approach failed!

The historical centre has been turned into a space of consumption, thus becoming a space in vogue. The rental prices have soared and the business environment thrived. Gentrification is at the beginning. Regeneration and renovation processes have determined entrepreneurial initiative.

Thus, according to the Entrepreneurial Association, 30 pubs were opened in the area in 2008 and only one year later, the number was twice as large. If we take into account the number of tourists who came by with the occasion of different events (musical concerts), the same association appreciated that in 2010 the number of people who entered these pubs amounted to 60,000. The record was established in June, when the AC/DC rock band performed in Bucharest.

Posh cafes are found everywhere. According to press articles releases, the rental prices (from 2,700 to 23,000 euro per month) are very high for an area under a continuous transformation and renovation. From this point of view, the historical centre is more expensive than the Dorobană area, which is another "fancy place" of the city.

Towards the Construction of a (New) Identity of the Historical Centre? Research Findings

Does the historical centre still preserve its own identity? Does it (still) keep those representative symbolical attributes that create the sense of place? Are there (still) any identity landmarks that define this space and are valued by people? Does the regeneration process alter the meaning of place? What are the effects of urban regeneration on the meaning of place? In order to answer these questions, we used both qualitative and quantitative methods. The data were gathered both through participative observations (in March 2012), which consisted in 15 in-depth interviews and 5 focus groups (with 3-6 participants), and through informal and unstructured interviews with the citizens (in April 2012).

Participative observations allowed us to collect information on urban environment: the presence of patrimony edifices and other buildings that are in various stages of physical degradation.

At the same time, we administered a questionnaire to the people we found in the area, residents and non-residents, shop employees and bar tenders. The questionnaire ($N = 250$) included both open and closed questions, which focused on visual and symbolical interpretation, on the attachment to a certain place and on the effects of urban regeneration.

The respondents were asked which are the buildings or the historical monuments that are genuine landmarks of the built-up area, which are the buildings that impress the people and lend personality to the historical centre and which are the positive and negative elements induced by the urban regeneration process. The data were processed with the SPSS 17 software.

At the same time, we tried to analyze the opinions expressed with the occasion of the interviews, in order to discover the narrative perspective that creates the sense of place.

According to Stedman (2003: 826-827), ‘a more robust and more useful theory of sense of place will require descriptive research into the specific meanings that places have for different people and groups, how these meanings are created and evolve, the relationship between sense of place and behaviour, and the influence of the physical environment on sense of place’. The qualitative content analysis is a legitimate methodology based on epistemological and ontological elements. The qualitative content analysis have an advantage that the ‘research lens is appropriately focused on the people involved in message creation and consumption since these involve power relations’ (Baxter J., 2009:278).

Despite the contrasting landscape, the landmarks that articulate the meaning and identity of the place can be grouped into three categories: architectural landmarks with strong “public icon” character, as is the case of the banks’ headquarters, identity historical landmarks, like the site of the historical fortress (Royal Court) or the former inns, and religious landmarks, such as the old churches, which are included in the UNESCO patrimony (e.g. the Stavropoleos Church).

The National Bank of Romania is cited by respondents (29%) as being the building with the most historical significance.

Undoubtedly, it plays the role of ‘power architecture’, a public icon meant to capture popular imagination. The objects may have a dual significance, a “double focus”, according to Maurice’s Halwachs or “double movement” (Roland Barthes), “where architecture is always dream and function, expression of a utopia and instrument of convenience” (Barthes 1964: 239). We are interested in the symbolic dimension of public buildings, social memory and identity. The respondents have chosen this building given its importance in construction the national identity following its own criteria: representativeness, wealth, power, and prestige.

Another reason for choosing this building is the ‘appeal to historical memory’. Memory plays a crucial role in representing and articulating identities. The recent discovery of the ruins of the Ţerban Vodă Inn in front of the National Bank of Romania has entailed a clearer articulation of the social or collective memory. The ruins have been restored and are being preserved by the financial support provided by the bank. They have been considered spectacular, involving emotions and attachment, once again revealing the characteristics of a city-palimpsest.

The second building with importance in creating particular impression is considered the Royal Court Palace. The former inns seem to reinforce the memory place of the historical centre. Manuc Inn and *Hanul cu Tei* (Limes Trees Inn) have been renovated in the last years. The first is known both to the people and tourists due to its promotion in the tourist guides, while the second has been renovated and transformed into art gallery, coffee shops and restaurants. There are other historical edifices as well, like Stavropoleos Church and the CEC Palace, which are very important for the construction of cultural and symbolic heritage.

Geographers in recent years have used the notion of affect to explore the relationship between the body and the world around it (Jones and Evans, 2012:2320). The place is an embodiment phenomennon and the affective and emotional connections could enhance the sense of the place.

Despite the regeneration and gentrification efforts made by the local authorities and private initiative, the historical core is indeed changing, but it hardly seems to recover its charm of the interwar period. From the residents' perspectives, the cultural meanings of place appear "scattered" around the antinomy *old – new*.

Using the Internet *Wordle* software, we will try to offer an image of a cultural landscape by mapping the words. The font size is determined by the frequency of word occurrence in the text processing. The responses highlight the cultural dimension of the city.

Some occurrences emphasize the historical character of the centre, based on representative visual elements of the urban environment: eclectic architectural style, old buildings, relaxed atmosphere, old town, pedestrian streets, etc. Other opinions highlight its rapid transformation, through processes of gentrification and regeneration: posh pubs, coffee shops, street artists, young people, entertainment areas, etc (*Fig. 2*).

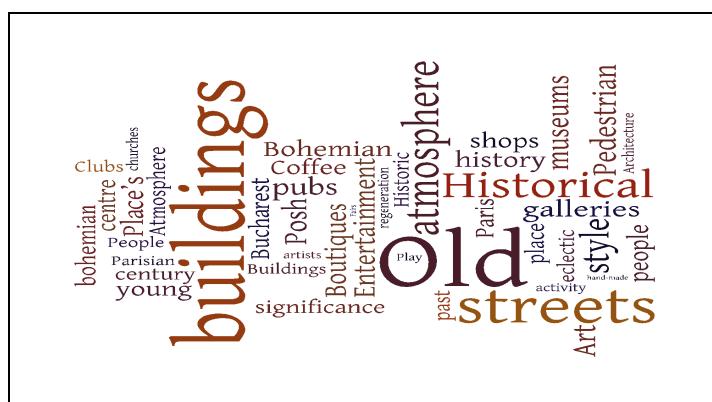


Fig. 2. The mapping of the meanings underlying the Sense of place for the historical centre of Bucharest City (using Wordle software)

The landmarks having an exquisite architectural value are less mentioned by the respondents. Not even the National Bank is brought up, which is definitely an imposing building, noticed by everybody who has known the area after 1997 (the year when renovation works began). For the younger generation (20 years old), the landmarks have changed. The answers point frequently to the monumental buildings, to those with architectural value (the National Bank), or to the old streets, but especially to the clubs and terraces, which proves beyond doubt that the whole place has turned into an *entertainment area*.

Today, the historical centre acquires other cultural dimensions: it becomes a space of consumption, dominated by all kinds of clubs and pubs, which lend it a cosmopolitan character.

The younger generation perceives the historical centre as being in a process of change, a blend of new and old. The people do not really know too many details about the history of the place, they are not aware of the important buildings. For them, the information plates on the historical monuments are nothing else but references to historical details. What really counts is the entertainment places, the fancy clubs, the atmosphere, because socialization is the most important value. If these entertainments are found within the patrimonial edifices, then the places are “cool”.

Adult generation has other perceptions of the sense of place, articulated around the memory and the history of the place. Symbolic representations originate in the identity of the place. Yet, it goes without saying that things are far more complex than that.

As E. Relph (1976: 63) said: ‘The most meagre meaning of ‘sense of place’ is the ability to recognise different places and different identities of a place’.

We are entitled to claim that for the adult generation the sense of place is more loaded with symbols, emotions and attachments, which pertain to interactions and affinities. The buildings with patrimonial value have a special significance, because they are not mere edifices, but buildings that render the place unique. Many people know a lot of things about their history, architectural style and patrimonial value.

Conclusions

The findings of this research support and contribute to the geographical literature on the ensemble of elements that help create a sense of place. The conclusion drawn is that the city centre is transforming in pace of regeneration process. The regeneration process may be an effective means of creating a sense of place that enhances the attractiveness and the entertainment. This is evident in the overwhelmingly positive opinions residents in 250 surveys conducted in the area.

Likewise, men and women have different perceptions regarding the sense of place and the urban identity. Scientific investigations show that women are more interested in the architecture of the place, paying more attention to the details and the overall image.

We started from the hypothesis that urban regeneration process can change the sense of place of this area. The opinions of the younger and the older generations differ significantly, depending on their cultural values and life experience. Without concrete urban regeneration policies, the sense of place of the historical centre may be lost or may suffer various alterations.

Thus, historical core may lose its personality and become placelessness. Unfortunately, the media can undermine the identity of a place. According to E. Relph, mass media is responsible for mass culture, mass communications, big business and the power of central authorities. The emergence of clubs and posh pubs has changed the collective image in favour of space consumption, entertainment and atmosphere.

Special or unique places are strongly connected to the patrimonial value and the memory of the place. They may become the targets of mass tourism. There is a risk of what J. B. Jacskon (1970:64-65) called “other directed architecture”, which is deliberately directed towards outsiders spectators, passers-by and all above consumers. The historical core may lose its authenticity under the impact of tourist activities and mass consumption. Newspapers and magazines like *Time out*, *Sapte seri* (Seven evenings), *Afterhours*, wikis and blogs underlined the must-see itinerary for anyone who wanted to be in the now about new cultural trends.

The present study has also some drawbacks. Additional questions would have created more correlations and relationships in the construction of the sense of place. More case studies would have led to a better understanding of the sense of place and attachment. Consequently, further research is needed to reveal the relationship between the sense of place and gentrification process.

REFERENCES

- Agnew, J., 1993, “Representing Space: Space, Scale and Culture in Social Science”, in Duncan, J., *American Geographers*, 78 (4):642-664, *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 91, 683-93.
- Agnew, J., J. Duncan, 1989, *The Power of Place: Bringing Together Geographical and Sociological Imaginations*, Unwin Hyman, London.
- Altman, I., S. M. Low, 1992, *Place Attachment*, New York, Plenum Press.
- Anholt, S., 2006, *Competitive Identity: The New Brand Management for Nations, Cities and Regions*, London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Barthes, R., 1964, *Elements of Semiology*, Seuil, Paris.

- Baxter, J., 2009, "Content Analysis", in Rob Kitchin and Nigel Thrift (eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Human Geography*, p. 275-280, vol. I, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Boia, L., 1997, *Istorie și mit în conștiința românească*, Editura Humanitas, București.
- Bucharest Municipality, 2000, *Planul Urbanistic General al Municipiului București*, Consiliul General al Municipiului București.
- Bucharest Municipality, 2002, *P.U.Z.*, Centrul istoric București – etapa I/2002.
- Bucharest Municipality, 2004, *P.U.Z.*, Zona Central Istorico al Municipiului București – faza II/ 2004.
- Buttmer, A., D. Seamo, 1980, *The Human Experience of Space and Place*, St. Martin's Press, New York.
- Buttmer, Anne, 1980, *Home, Reach, and the Sense of Place. The Human Experience of Space and Place*, 166-186, London: Croom Helm.
- Campelo, A., R. Aitken, J. Gnoth, M. Thyne, 2009, *Place Branding: Representing Sense of Place*, ANZMAC.
- Carter, J., P. Dyer, B. Sharma, 2007, "Dis-Placed Voices: Sense of Place and Place-Identity on the Sunshine Coast", *Social & Cultural Geography*, 8, 755-73.
- Cosgrove, D., 1978, "Place, Landscape, and the Dialectics of Cultural Geography", *Canadian Geographer*, 22, 66-72.
- Cosgrove, D., 1994, "Worlds of Meaning: Cultural Geography and the Imagination", in Foote, K. E., P. Hugill, K. Mathewson, J. Smith (eds.), *Re-reading Cultural Geography*, University of Texas Press, Austin, 387-395.
- Crang, M., 1998, *Cultural Geography*, Routledge, London.
- Cresswell, T., 2004, *Place: A Short Introduction*, Maiden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Cuthbert, A. R., 2006, *The Form of Cities. Political Economy and Urban Design*, Blackwell Publishing.
- Cuthbert, A. R., 1995b, "The Right to the City: Surveillance, Private Interest and the Public Domain in Hong Kong", *Cities*, 12(5), 293-310.
- Cuthbert, A. R., K. McKinnell, 1997, "Ambiguous Space, Ambiguous Rights? Corporate Power and Social Control in Hong Kong", *Cities*, 14(5), 295-312.
- Dinnie, K., 2008, *Nation Branding: Concepts, Issues, Practice*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Feld, S., K. H. Basso, 1996, *Senses of Places*, Santa Fé, New Mexico, School of American Research Press.
- Gendlin, E. T., 1962, *Experiencing and the Creation of Meaning*, New York: Free Press of Glencoe.
- Giurăscu, C., 2009, *Istoria Bucureștilor*, ediția a II-a revizuită și adăugită, Editura Vremea, București.
- Gustafson, P., 2001, "Roots and Routes: Exploring the Relationship between Place Attachment and Mobility", *Environment and Behaviour*, 33 (5), 667-686, Sage Publications.
- Hargreaves, A., 2004, "Building Communities of Place: Habitual Movement around Significant Places", *Journal of Housing and Built Environment*, 19: 49-65, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Netherlands
- Harvey, D., 1993, "From Space to Place and Back Again; Reflections on the Condition of Postmodernity", in J. Bird et. al. (eds), *Mapping the Futures: Local Cultures, Global Change*, Routledge, London.
- Ioan, A., 2003, *Arhitectura Sacră Contemporană (Sacred Architecture Today)* (in Romanian), Noi Media Print, Bucharest.
- Ioan, A., 2006, "Urban Policies and the Politics of Public Space", in *The Urban Mosaic of Post-socialist Europe, Space, Institutions and Policy*, Sasha Tsenkova and Zorica Nedović-Budić (eds), part IV, 337-348, Physica-Verlag, a Springer Company.
- Jackson, P., J. Penrose (eds.), 1993, *Constructions of Race, Place and Nation*, UCL, London.
- Jackson, P., 1989, *Maps of Meaning: An Introduction to Cultural Geography*, Unwin Hyman, London.
- Jackson, J. B., 1970, "Other – Directed Architecture", in *Landscape: Selected Writings*, of J. B. Jackson, E. H. Zube (eds.), University of Massachusetts Press.
- Jones P., J. Evans (2012), "Rescue Geography: Place Making, Affect and Regeneration", *Urban Studies*, 49 (11) 2315-2330.

- Kaltenborn, Bjørn, D. Williams, 2002, "The Meaning of Place: Attachment to Femindsmarka National Park, Norway, Among Tourists and Locals", *Norks Geografisk Tidsskrift – Norwegian Journal of Geography*, 56, 189-198, Taylor & Francis, Oslo.
- Kearns, G., C. Philo (eds), 1993, *Selling Places: The City as Cultural Capital, Past and Present*, Pergamon, Oxford.
- Keith, M., S. Pile (eds), 1993, *The Politics of Identity*, Routledge, London.
- Kotler, P., D. H. Haider, I. Rein, 1993, *Marketing Places: Attracting Investment, Industry, and Tourism to Cities, States and Nations*, New York: The Free Press.
- Lamb, D., 1993, *The Sense of Place: Listening to Americans*, New York, Times Books.
- Lowenthal, D., 1961, "Geography, Experience, and Imagination: Towards a Geographical Epistemology", *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 51: 241-60.
- Lynch, K., 1960, *The Image of the City*, Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Lyndon, D., 2001, "Caring about Places", *Places*, v. 14, p. 2-3.
- Mănuțu-Adameșteanu, G., 2002, *Ceramică de la Curtea Domnească din București: secolele XV-XIX. Catalog selectiv*, Muzeul Municipiului București, București.
- Manzo L., D. Perkins, 2006, "Finding Common Ground: The Importance of Place Attachment to Community Participation and Planning", *Journal of Planning Literature*, vol. 20, 4 (May 2006), Sage Publications.
- Massey, D., 1993, *Space, Place and Gender*, Polity Press, Cambridge.
- Massey, D., 1994, "Power-Geometry and a Progressive Sense of Place", in J. Bird, B. Curtis, T. Putnam, G. Robertson, L. Tickner (eds.), *Mapping the Futures: Local Cultures, Global Change*, Routledge, London (pp. 59-69)
- Ministerul Culturii și Patrimoniului Național, 1992, "Lista Comisiei Naționale a Monumentelor, Ansamblurilor și Siturilor Istorice (C.N.M.A.S.I.)", revizuită în 2010, actualizată și aprobată prin Ordinul nr. 2.361 din 12 iulie 2010, *Monitorul Oficial*, nr. 670 bis, 1 octombrie 2010.
- Ouf Ahmed Salah, 2001, "Authenticity and the Sense of Place in Urban Design", *Journal of Urban Design*, vol. 6, no. 1, 73-86.
- Parlamentul României, 1998, "Ordonanța nr. 129 din 29 august 1998 privind declararea ca zonă de interes național a unui ansamblu din perimetru central al municipiului București, incluzând Noul Centru Civic și Centrul Iстoric, și stabilirea condițiilor de realizare a investițiilor pentru ansamblul urbanistic din această zonă", *Monitorul Oficial al României*, nr. 328, 29 august 1998.
- Parlamentul României, 2001, "Legea 422 din 18 iulie 2001 privind protejarea monumentelor istorice" (Legea 422/2001), *Monitorul Oficial al României*, 407, 24 iulie 2001 (M. Of. 407/2001).
- Parlamentul României, 2001, "Ordonanța 77 din 30 august 2001 privind reabilitarea și revitalizarea Centrului istoric București" (Ordonanța 77/2001), *Monitorul Oficial al României*, 541, 1 septembrie 2001 (M. Of. 541/2001).
- Programul de dezvoltare a Municipiului București, 2000, *Centrul istoric, Sfera de aplicabilitate a programelor și proiectelor (2000-2008)*.
- Ralph Edward, 1976, *Place and Placelessness*, London: Pion Limited.
- Sack, R. D., 1988, "The Consumer's World: Place as Context", *Annals of the Association of Geographers*, 78, 642-64.
- Sack, R. D., 1992, *Place, Modernity, and the Consumer's World*, Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Sack, R. D., 1997, *Homo Geographicus: A Framework for Action, Awareness and Moral Concern*, John Hopkins University Press, London.
- Sack, R. D., 2004, "Place-Making and Time", in Mels, T. (eds), *Reanimating Places: Re-Materialising. Cultural Geography Series*, Ashgate, Aldershot, 243-253.
- Seyer-Ochi, I., 2006, "Lived Landscapes of the Fillmore", in Spindler and Hammond (eds), *Innovations in Educational Ethnography: Theory, Methods, and Results Mahwah, NJ*: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. (p. 169-234).

- Shumer-Smith, P., K. Hannam, 1994, *Worlds of Desire Realms of Power: A Cultural Geography*, New York, Routledge.
- Stedman, R. C., 2003, "Sense of Place and Forest Science: Toward a Program of Quantitative Research", *Forest Science*, v. 49, p. 822-829.
- Tuan, Yi-Fu, 1974a, "Space and Place: Humanistic Perspective", *Progress in Human Geography*, 6:211-252.
- Tuan, Yi-Fu, 1974b, *Topophilia: a Study of Environmental Perception, Attitudes, and Values*, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
- Tuan, Yi-Fu, 1977, *Space and Place: The Perspective of Experience*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Ward, S. V., 1998, *Selling Places: The Marketing and Promotion of Towns and Cities 1850-2000*, London: E. & F. N. Spon.
- Warnaby, G., 2009, "Towards a Service-Dominant Place Marketing Logic", *Marketing Theory*, 9 (4): 403-423, Sage Publications.
- Zukin S., 2010, *Naked City. The Death and the Life of Authentic Urban Places*, Oxford University Press, New York
- Zukin, S., 1992, "Postmodern Urban Landscapes: Mapping Culture and Power", in S. Lash, J. Friedman (eds), *Modernity and Identity*, Blackwell, Oxford.
- Zukin, S., 1993, "Market, Place and Landscape", *Landscape of Power: From Detroit to Disney World*, 3-25, Berkeley, University of California Press.

VIAȚA ȘTIINȚIFICĂ

LE SAVANT FRANÇAIS EMMANUEL DE MARTONNE ET LA GÉOMORPHOLOGIE ROUMAINE

MIHAI IELENICZ¹, MARIANA NAE¹

The end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th marks the beginning of the founding of a modern geography in Romania through the scientific and organizational contribution of some great personalities. Among them the French scientist Emmanuel de Martonne imposed himself through numerous scientific works connected to various geographic units in Romania (over 40 of them focus on geomorphologic topics), through the multiple ways to make the results of his research known (articles and books, conferences, work papers presented at Congresses and scientific reunions organized in Romania or in other countries, etc.), through supporting actions of the young researchers' scientific training (including PhD thesis on topics focusing on the Romanian space). Priority directions in which he had original and long term contributions for the scientific knowledge and for the renown of the Romanian geomorphologic school are: the analysis of erosion surfaces, of terraces, of glacial and karst relief forms, etc. in different geographic units; the establishment of the origins, evolution and age of different types of relief, the formation and the evolution of the valleys network, the origins and the characteristics of depressions in the Subcarpathians and the Carpathians; the creation and the appliance of an investigation system in the relief study (based on researches, measurements, the detailed description of relevant segments for analysis, interpretations of the connections between relief and different geographic, geologic, human elements that determine evolving nuances in the relief landscape, etc.) which became a morphogenetic model of approach applied by Romanian geomorphologists; a prodigious didactic activity (at Cluj University), but also of scientific coordination (based, mainly, on research) of many Romanian geographer generations who elaborated geomorphologic complex studies afterwards; the imposition of the field trip as a main comparative analysis tool and of debate for geographic issues, etc. All these are arguments meant to strengthen his position of founder and leader of the Romanian Geomorphological School.

Keywords: Emmanuel de Martonne, geomorphologic school, erosion surface, glacial relief, Subcarpathian depression, valley system evolution.

1. Le savant Emmanuel de Martonne et le début dans la recherche géographique dans notre pays

La fin du XX^{ème} siècle correspond tant pour la géographie que pour d'autres domaines scientifiques la transition d'une étape des faits encyclopédiques à une

¹ Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest, Contact e-mail: mirellanae@yahoo.com.

étape moderne soutenue par des recherches, analyses multiples et nombre de synthèses qui sont devenus à travers le temps des symboles théoriques et pratiques. Ceux qui se sont imposés dans cette démarche représentent une génération de jeunes, qui, grâce à une formation scientifique extraordinaire, talent et passion en matière de recherche, sont devenus les représentants des forums académiques, justement reconnus comme des fondateurs d'écoles dans le domaine où ceux-ci s'y sont consacrés.

Parmi eux, dans la géographie, une position distincte occupe le savant français Emmanuel de Martonne, qui s'était imposé dans le monde par des œuvres et esprit d'organisationnel, classé comme un emblème dans la recherche, analyse, représentation cartographique et théorie scientifique. Il a été professeur dans plusieurs universités en France, le secrétaire, mais aussi président de U.I.G. (après 1935), où il s'est affirmé par une pensée pleine de sagesse, créativité et le désir de toujours rechercher la vérité. Il a soutenu non seulement la fondation d'une école géographique en France, mais aussi l'affirmation de cette discipline ou certains domaines joints dans d'autre pays, parmi lesquels un rôle particulier a joué la Roumanie.

Dans notre pays, durant plus de trois décennies (dans des laps de temps différents), il s'est distingué comme un érudit passionné et profonde, un communicateur sage et impartial, un professeur de marque à l'Université de Cluj-Napoca, un excellent organisateur d'excursions scientifiques géographiques, un auteur prolifique qui a écrit et publié abondamment sur la Roumanie (entre 1899 et 1933) plus de 70 recherches (plus de 60 articles et études, 6 livres), parmi lesquelles deux thèses ayant obtenu le titre de docteur en lettres (1902) et sciences (1906). Cependant, il a été également un fin connaisseur et amoureux du peuple roumain, un analyste accompli de l'histoire et d'évolution en accord avec l'époque géostratégique et historique.

Tout cela aboutit à l'idée que Emmanuel de Martonne, d'une manière directe et indirecte, a apporté une contribution distincte à créer et à soutenir le développement de la science géographique en Roumanie, qui à coté de Simion Mehedinți, a été un mentor remarquable dans orientation des directions sûres dans les débuts de la formation des écoles de géomorphologie, géographie régionale, géographie humaine. Ses œuvres sont remportées sur des activités qui les a rigoureusement respectées : *documentation - recherche approfondies* sur le terrain, où il élaborait des observations, descriptions, proportions variées (notamment dans les endroits où il ne disposait pas de cartes détaillées), *cartographies poursuivis d'analyses cartographiques, illustrations et analyses complexes* dans lesquelles la connaissance génétique et évolutive et le reflet dans le paysage des rapports entre le milieu naturel et la présence humaine à travers des activités diverses en constituaient la primauté.

Les mérites incontournables de ses études résident dans le fait qu'elles se sont appuyées notamment sur la connaissance de la réalité du terrain et sur les

interprétations logiques basées sur quelques principes : *comparaison, causalité, évolutionnisme, du particulier à la synthèse*. Les recherches ont été menées avec acribie, il y a 100-120 ans, dans des unités géographiques présentant différents degrés d'accessibilité, de la difficulté extrême dans les Carpates (ils ont été bien boisés et généralement seuls les sentiers), au franchissement difficile des collines et des plaines (routes battues, plus rarement pavées). Cependant, il n'y avait pas d'études géographiques, les cartes à grande échelle et les données géologiques (analyse morphogénétique absolument nécessaire et chronologie) étaient peu nombreuses et avec un haut degré de généralisation. Puis, d'ailleurs, il s'est développé le support théorique de la structure géologique de grandes unités naturelles grâce à des gens remarquables dans le domaine, de l'intelligence et de puissance de l'abstraction, y compris L. Mrazec, Gh Munteanu Murgoci, qui n'étaient non seulement des amis, mais aussi ceux qui lui avaient offert un minimum d'informations essentielles).

Dans ces conditions, durant une dizaine d'années d'activité soutenue, il a mené une enquête approfondie sur un immense espace (les plus hautes montagnes de la Roumanie jusqu'au Danube), a examiné une série de questions géographiques, (y compris des informations géomorphologiques abondantes), il fait communiquer les conclusions les plus importantes et il fait publier aussi quelques résultats sous la forme d'articles (plus de 30) et leur synthèse (dans les deux thèses doctorales) bien appréciées – pour *La Valachie* – le Prix Fabien de l'Académie Française.

Ce fut une période féconde durant laquelle il s'est attaché de la nature et aux habitants qu'il aimait et appréciait, en essayant toujours d'exprimer avec tant d'authenticité une multitude de particularismes. Tout cela représente une contribution remarquable dans la connaissance véridique de la Roumanie, compte tenu de ses analyses géomorphologiques effectuées et la multitude d'activités entreprises (en Roumanie, France et U.I.G.) ; grâce à cette activité, il a soutenu la vocation et la carrière de plusieurs géographes à travers la complexité de problèmes du relief (envisagé comme une composante intrinsèque et en interaction avec d'autres composants du milieu géographique). *Le professeur Emmanuel de Martonne a représenté un facteur clé dans l'initiation de ce domaine non seulement en Roumanie, mais aussi dans le développement et l'affirmation d'une école géomorphologique féconde, reconnue également dans le monde.*

En bref, ses contributions principales qui aboutissent à soutenir ce jugement sont nombreuses, et qui peuvent être saisies en quelques directions.

2. Emmanuel de Martonne, le premier et le géographe le plus prolifique dans l'analyse du relief dans plusieurs régions de la Roumanie

Les résultats des recherches sur Roumanie (qui débutent vers 1898 et finissent durant la troisième décennie du XX^e siècle) ont été signalés à travers plusieurs communications (soutenues en Roumanie, France et aux différents congrès géographiques et géologiques), dans les livres et les articles (publiés entre 1898-1942). Cela constitue une contribution inéluctable à la création d'un trésor roumain géographique, d'une nette orientation géomorphologique. Il a été acquis par des recherches approfondies, analyses inédites portant une problématique variée du point de vue génétique (à partir des surfaces d'érosion, terrasses et vallées, relief glaciaire et nival, karst, la formation et l'évolution du système oro-hydrographique etc.) aux études régionales (Carpates, espace collinaire, plateaux, gorges, etc.). Dès le début, toutes ces idées, ces solutions et ces approches étaient à la fois des nouveautés ayant un caractère de début dans la littérature de spécialité et des vérités pour ceux qui les avaient ultérieurement étudiées, ils en avaient tenu compte et les avaient amplifiées (en particulier les détails). L'analyse de ses œuvres met l'accent sur trois problèmes géomorphologiques majeurs, ainsi que sur d'autres au caractère local et régional.

L'évolution pré-quaternaire du relief à partir de l'étude sur les seuils de nivellation

Cette analyse portait sur l'identification, description, distribution spatiale en soulignant les différenciations imposées par les mouvements néotectoniques (notamment à la fin du Pliocène et du Quaternaire), la roche et le niveau de fragmentation de trois plateformes (surfaces) d'érosion qui l'avait nommées Borăscu, Râu-Şes, Gornovița dans sa thèse de doctorat (La dénomination, après les dires d'Emmanuel de Martonne, a été introduite dans la littérature par P. Lehmann et amplifiée par la suite à un espace régional plus large), *Les Alpes de la Transylvanie*, (il a mis en place le développement spécifique d'âge de l'évolution, les développements ultérieurs). Ayant comme point de départ les idées de la théorie de l'évolution développées par W.M.Davis, il croit que les étapes (cycles) qui ont conduit à la genèse des trois plates-formes ne sont pas identiques. Par conséquence, bien que le système génétique général soit commun, d'où les éléments proches géomorphologiques, en particulier, elles se distinguent par leurs caractéristiques (pas toutes les plateformes sont des pénéplaines ; le relief est créé différemment selon l'évolution, l'âge et la fragmentation ultérieure).

À cet égard, pour la plateforme supérieure Borăscu sont caractéristiques les plateaux alpines dominés par des sommets de type monadnock et crêtes,

issus d'une évolution complexe qui a produit une pénéplaine durant une période longue de temps. Par la suite, celle-ci a été fragmentée tectoniquement (mouvements epirogéniques d'intensités inégales dans les sous unités).

La plateforme Râu-Şes (interfleuves plates et allongées, bassinets suspendus aux altitudes moyennes) est fréquente dans toutes les sous unités montagneuses, avec l'extension plus large (y compris à l'est de Prahova) relève un caractère de maturité.

La plateforme d'érosion Gornovița (marginale), située à l'extérieur des Carpates, y pénètre dans les montagnes sur des vallées et possède un caractère génétique mixte (un rôle important joue l'abrasion).

Toutes les plateformes appartiennent à l'évolution préquatinaire. En raison de leur corrélation avec les formations géologiques des montagnes de l'extérieur et la succession de plusieurs phases de mouvements epirogéniques (déformations tectoniques régionales, rebonds inégaux, soulèvement brutale que dans l'ensemble, on engendré la transition d'un cycle d'évolution à l'autre) ; ces plateformes ont été datées comme de l'Eocène celle supérieure, Miocène la moyenne et Pliocène l'inférieure).

Cette façon de penser a conduit à l'admission de l'idée de continuation de leur modélisation après la formation. Leur développement ultérieure a nécessité une phisionomie déterminée non seulement par la fragmentation fluviale, glaciaire, mais aussi par la production différenciée des mouvements epirogéniques.

Après 1921, il a appliqué son système génétique - évolutif analysé dans les Alpes de Transylvanie et d'autres chaînes des Carpates (Monts Apuseni, Montagnes du Banat, Monts Rodna), en réalisant *les premières corrélations importantes*. Au XX^e siècle, ce système a représenté la base théorique et méthodologique non seulement pour les travaux de géomorphologie régionale (Carpates Orientales, M. Rodna, M. Vrancea, les montagnes autour de la dépression Brașov et le bassin de Trotuș – avant 1950 – pour que l'on retrouve ensuite amplifié dans de nombreuses thèses de doctorat sur les espaces carpathiques et les zones collinaires plus ou moins élargies, soit sur les M. Bucegi M. Godeanu, M. Parâng, Carpates de Courbure, la Bucovine, etc.), soit dans les diverses synthèses morphologiques et chronologiques dans les Carpates et donc toutes les unités adjacentes (Sous Carpates le Plateau moldave, Dépression collinaire de Transylvanie).

La glaciation dans les Carpates

La question de modélisation glaciaire, sujet prioritaire de recherche à la fin du XIX^e siècle et le début du XX^e siècle en Europe a attiré premièrement l'attention de quelques géologues : P. Lehmann, L. Mrazec, Gh. Munteanu Murgoci. Le premier géographe, non seulement disciple de A. Penck dans ce

domaine, mais aussi un fervent passionné pour la connaissance de la modélisation glaciaire dans les Carpates du Sud, a été Emmanuel de Martonne, qui a réussi lors des plusieurs voyages entre 1889-1904, à identifier, analyser les situations représentatives pour le relief glaciaire des massifs de ce système montagneux (présentées à travers des articles et synthèses durant plusieurs décennies) et à ouvrir de nouvelles directions dans leur exploration (ces travaux ont été reconnus par les grands glaciologues européens et ensuite appliqués dans d'autres régions alpines, y compris Roumanie). Importantes en sont aussi les résultats scientifiques à juste valeur pour la géomorphologie et géographie :

La mise en œuvre d'une méthode morphologique propre dans l'exploration de l'espace affecté par les glaciers (étude de grande envergure et l'identification des situations représentatives: à voir les complexes Soarbele, Pietrile, Bucura, Capra); cartographie sur des cartes à grande échelle, ainsi que la mesure et la description des formes de relief spécifiques; relèvements topographiques et l'analyse des dépôts selon la composition pétrographique et structurale de la région.

Mise en place de la position de la limite des neiges pérennes et le nombre de phases de la modélisation glaciaires (environ 1800-1900 m et lors de l'expansion maximale \pm 2000 m à une petite échelle) en examinant les composants du relief glaciaire ;

Mettre en place deux types du relief glaciaire Borăscu (des cirques glaciaires qui festonnent la plateforme d'érosion Borăscu dans les régions montagneuses, où celle-ci est en pleine expansion et est à une hauteur de plus de 1900 m) et *Făgărăș* (complexes glaciaires en crêts valées, seuils glaciaires, roches moutonnées et des stries) ;

Définition du paysage glaciaire alpine des Carpates Méridionales (cirques complexes aux vallées glaciaires jusqu'à 6-8 km longueur, cirques glaciaires suspendus, dépôts de type moraines de fond situé à 1300-1400 m, stries atténuerées grâce aux caractéristiques des rochers, secteurs inférieurs issus des cirques aux pentes élevées créés par l'érosion glaciaire ; l'évolution post-glaciaire active génératrice des masses épaisse de débris couvrant parfois les formes glaciaires en particulier des moraines et des stries.

Soit une seule phase glaciaire, qui, d'abord, a été une période intense de la modélisation avec une limite de neiges éternelles à 1900 m (compte tenu des formes complexes, avec une expansion significative), puis l'affaiblissement (la limite des neiges a grimpé à plus de 2000 m) et qui a généré seulement des cirques suspendus, soit *deux étapes glaciaires distinctes, mais avec une grande intensité*.

Le lien génétique entre l'extension et la complexité du relief glaciaire dans les massifs aux facteurs favorables (altitude, pente, exposition, composition lithologique, caractéristiques du relief glaciaire reflétées dans l'érosion plates-formes d'érosion, des vallées profondes et aux bassins de réception larges) et

des facteurs limitatifs de la genèse (roche) et au même rôle d'escamoter (masses de débris post-glaciaires);

La définition du cirque glaciaire (acceptée par les glaciologues) en précisant leurs caractéristiques morphologiques qui le distinguent des autres formes présentes dans la zone alpine.

L'importance des éléments dans la zone alpine (dépôts glaciaires) et *extra glaciaire* (éléments fluvio-glaciaires sur certaines vallées à basse altitude ou des argiles dans des dépressions Făgăraș, Hațeg, Petroșani) pour la corrélation avec modélisation glaciaire.

Dans l'ensemble, l'analyse a montré l'existence dans les Carpates d'un relief créé par de glaciers sur un fondement morphologique tertiaire, avec des plates-formes et génération de vallées, mais aussi avec des atténuations issues de l'évolution postglaciaire. Leur étude et les résultats ont servi de base pour des observatoires propres dans les montagnes Bihor et Rodna et de nombreuses recherches dans les Carpates (en particulier élaborées par les géographes roumains – Valeria Velcea, Gh. Niculescu, Silvia Iancu, E. Nedelcu, P. Urdea etc.), qui a abouti à l'amplification d'une manière ciblée et initiée par le scientifique français. Ces résultats ont constitué aussi la propension de concevoir des synthèses portant sur la glaciation dans les Carpates présentées lors de diverses conférences internationales (Emmanuel de Martonne, Vienne 1904, Th. Kräutner, 1929, St. Pawłowski, Varsovie, Gh. Niculescu, E. Nedelcu, Silvia Iancu, 1960, Stockholm) ou des volumes (Gr. Posea *et al.*, « Le relief de la Roumanie ») et des cours universitaires.

Une approche de la création et l'évolution unités géomorphologiques régionales

Elles sont considérés comme des systèmes dans lesquels les composants sont dans des relations dynamiques entre eux, mais aussi avec celles situées en proximité ou lointaines, et qui se reflètent dans des paysages distincts. D'où la nécessité d'étudier, d'analyser, de comparer, distinguer les éléments généraux dans des circonstances différentes (limite, l'origine, les stades d'évolution) de ceux spécifiques (données morphométriques, de composition, de position géographique), l'analyse des facteurs favorables et restrictifs (tectoniques, eustatiques, dynamique actuelle). Il a réalisé ce travail très tôt (entre 1899-1904), avec une thématique restreinte et limitée spatialement (relief glaciaire des massifs divers (Parâng, Retezat), terrasses, plates-formes, la Vallée de Jiu), travail amplifié par la suite dans deux thèses de doctorat et d'autres études d'envergure. Formé sur la base de la documentation complète, plusieurs activités de recherche sur le terrain conçus pour permettre à plusieurs interprétations morphologiques et envisager les problèmes dans leurs déroulements successives (emplacement, éléments de base et caractéristiques géologiques et du relief, en décrivant des

situations représentatives, des corrélations avec des éléments de soutien ou de différenciation de l'espace adjacent ou lointain, lancement des hypothèses dans l'analyse, des conclusions, des illustrations essentielles), y compris la discussion des points de vue opposés, etc. Il insiste sur les corrélations portant sur la formation, la forme, la taille, l'aménagement du territoire, le rôle des mouvements néotectoniques ou des variations eustatiques du climat au cours du temps, et l'exposition locale, etc. (à voir l'analyse dans les massifs glaciaires, des dépressions sous carpathiques, du Plateau Mehedinți, Monts Apuseni, Banat et d'autres unités collinaires).

Cette approche est ensuite trouvée en particulier dans les œuvres représentatives de nombreux géographes roumains, telles que les thèses et les grandes synthèses régionales, etc. De cette façon, le modèle a fourni à la fois non seulement l'unité de l'étude, la compréhension logique des processus et des résultats de l'évolution, mais une suite (profondeur, correction) des résultats du savant français. Une place distincte à l'unité et l'analyse du modèle et de l'interprétation est donnée par la problématique du relief, y compris des significations particulières qui peuvent être liés à:

- **La formation et l'évolution des vallées dans les Carpates.** C'était l'une des thématiques préférées de chercheurs, à côté de l'érosion des plates-formes et la glaciation des montagnes (en particulier les géologues), à partir de la fin du XIX^e siècle. En Roumanie, il y a eu plusieurs avis, tous développés par les géologues, qui ont invoqué le facteur tectonique comme un facteur déterminant dans la création de grandes gorges dans les Carpates. Emmanuel de Martonne c'est le premier géographe qui cherche non seulement sur le terrain en détail les couloirs de Jiu et Olt, du Danube, mais qui développe ses observations afin de compléter les idées portant sur la genèse et l'évolution (de la dépression Petroșani vers le nord à Hațeg, de couloir de l'Olt vers le nord au bassin de Visa vers Târnava Mare et à l'est de dépressions Făgăraș et Bârsa et vers le Danube dans plateaux de Mehedinți et Miroci, et aussi au long du défilé en insistant sur le secteur Milanovăț – Gura). Il analyse de façon critique les hypothèses élaborées des prédécesseurs portant sur des levées géomorphologiques, des gradins d'érosion, mesures altimétriques, analyses des dépôts des terrasses sur d'autres points de surfaces repère, la configuration des vallées affluentes par rapport à Jiu, Olt et du Danube, en établissant le rôle pour la morphogenèse de la position de niveaux de base, des mouvements néotectoniques et les différences régionales de la résistance des formations géologiques, l'évolution karstique des massifs calcaires dans gorges du Danube, etc. Leur interprétation a conduit à l'admission des lignes de partage de cours d'eaux et des captures effectuées par des rivières du sud (de Valachie) sur celles du nord (de

Transylvanie). Les remaniements possibles entre la rivière de l'Olt et rivières du plateau sont plus argumentés morphologiquement.

- **Les dépressions sous carpathiques dans le sud et le sud-est des Carpates.** Leur étude a permis de déterminer sur la base de la corrélation entre les caractéristiques morphologiques et géologiques (développement et les caractéristiques structurelles au contact des unités géographiques limitrophes) la phisyonomie et la composition des bassins des dépressions, les traits morphologiques des vallées, l'identification des certaines situations spécifiques de la région. En outre, par la façon de traiter la problématique de la genèse et d'évolution des réseaux de vallées, il a créé leur premier système d'analyse. Parmi ces problèmes importants sont abordés: la délimitation des dépressions des Carpates, le contact tectonique et de l'érosion différentielle avec les montagnes; l'origine tectonique des dépressions sous carpathiques; la présentation des sous unités aux caractéristiques morphologiques distinctes avec l'âge relativement élevé (plus récentes vers l'est) et une évolution dont la complexité augmente vers Vrancea ; la description, la date, détermination du degrés de la déformation tectonique (deux alignements évidents dans l'Est), la modalité d'acheminer vers les unités voisines au sud (en Valachie directement dans la plaine où il y avait un processus d'affaissement tectonique permanent) et l'âge. Sur cette base, il a développé pour la première fois *la formation et l'évolution du système de vallées dans les dépressions sous carpathiques* dont on fait distinguer *une phase primaire des cours longitudinales* (dans les dépressions) et *une phase de constitution progressive* (la seconde partie du Quaternaire) de la structure actuelle (caractère transversal par rapport à l'alignement des dépressions), *par la création des captures latérales*. Elles ont été effectuées par les rivières qui avançaient de l'extérieur de la zone carpathique en coupant les collines qui fermaient les dépressions et qui disposaient d'un potentiel d'érosion active, stimulé par les mouvements néotectoniques (élévation des Sous Carpates et descentes vers l'extérieur).
- **Les problèmes morphologiques dans d'autres unités régionales.** Ils sont utiles par la nouveauté, les corrélations et l'ouverture pour les études à venir, qui pour la plupart lui ont confirmé ses idées. Dans le Plateau Mehedinți, une unité avec une composition carpatique aux altitudes basses et qui pendant le Quaternaire a été soumis à une fragmentation continue, ayant les caractéristiques d'un plateau, indique la présence de deux plates-formes de l'érosion (Miocène, très fragmentée, Pliocène – plateaux); sa continuité morphologique et structurelle dans le Plateau Miroci ; les formes de relief karstique relevant une évolution complexe particulière ; le rôle des mouvements

néotectoniques et l'abaissement du niveau de base dans l'évolution du plateau ; témoins d'érosion d'une phisyonomie particulière – des cornets composés à la fois de calcaires et de roches cristallines.

- **Les résultats des excursions géographiques – un modèle d'analyse géomorphologique et de l'organisation.** Les excursions ont été organisés durant l'été de l'année 1921 par l'Université de Cluj-Napoca sous l'égide du Professeur Emmanuel de Martonne en collaboration avec des professeurs des universités de Jassy et de Bucarest et de divers officialités ; elles se sont déroulées pendant 45 jours sur les sentiers des monts Apuseni, montagnes du Banat, les Carpates du Nord, Transylvanie et Dobroudja. Les résultats visibles de ces excursions ont été transposés en Roumanie et ont reflété le savoir-faire et les compétences du professeur lors de son expérience professionnelle en France depuis 1905.

Les résultats ont été publiés en 1924 dans "Les travaux de l'Institut de géographie de l'Université de Cluj-Napoca, le premier volume (1922). Leur analyse a conduit à des idées nécessaires sur les travaux pratiques dans les recherches directes dont on mentionne : le rôle décisif d'investigations sur le terrain (sur le site) pour la connaissance réelle des particularismes du relief et d'autres facteurs environnementaux; *le besoin de corrélations avec des situations dans les régions différentes*, la profondeur et la rapidité des explications concluantes en comparant la réalité géographique du site ; l'évolution du relief, reflétée par l'érosion des plates-formes et terrasses avec extension claire ; *le développement du relief et glaciaire et glacio-nival*; *les types de contacts morphostructuraux*, *l'effet des mouvements tectoniques et des changements climatiques dans la configuration du relief* (dans les montagnes et dans la Dobroudja) ; l'évolution du réseau des vallées ; la complexité du relief karstique dans les montagnes Bihor et Anina et la variété pétrographique de la Dobroudja avec des effets directes dans le paysage; *corrélations réalisées entre le degré et le type de l'habitat, l'utilisation des terrains, établissements, les particularités du peuplement, les noms de lieux traditionnels*, en insistant sur les termes liés à la configuration du relief et connexion entre eux et les métiers de base ; *l'introduction dans la littérature de termes définissant le relief* (les Collines de Transylvanie), identification des *rappports morphogénétiques entre les unités de relief limitrophes* (montagnes – dépressions, montagnes – collines et plateaux de Transylvanie) qui aboutissent à la clarification de l'évolution et évaluation chronologiques ; *appréciations argumentées par formes de relief* (le type, le déploiement, la complexité), mais aussi par des éléments liés à d'autres composantes du milieu à savoir *les limites importantes à l'évolution du relief* (les neiges éternelles et la végétation) ou l'impact des *processus morphogénétiques*

qui conduisent à des situations de risques (inondations, tremblements de terre etc.) ; une *l'analyse et l'interprétation réalistes des idées de ses prédecesseurs*, ainsi que les déductions et des recommandations dans les cas où les analyses sont équivoques, etc.

- **Professeur Emmanuel de Martonne – promoteur de la recherche géomorphologique et la formation universitaire en Roumanie.** Pendant 40 ans (1887-1937), il est présent en Roumanie, dans des différentes intervalles de temps, soit en tant que chercheur (surtout entre 1897 et 1907 à 1921), soit professeur « invité » à enseigner à l'Université de Cluj-Napoca ou à soutenir des conférences à la Société des Géographie, à l'Académie et dans diverses universités, des occasions dans lesquelles il a été honoré avec des prix d'excellence pour son activité scientifique (membre honoraire de la Société de Géographie en 1915, Docteur Honoris Causa de l'Université de Cluj-Napoca en 1929 et 1938 à Jassy, membre correspondant l'Académie Roumaine en 1912, membre honoraire étranger de l'Académie Roumaine en 1919, citoyen d'honneur de la ville de Cluj-Napoca etc.

Suivant sur une formation géographique complète, combinée à un désir de comprendre et de décrire authentiquement tous les milieux naturels de notre pays, et leurs liens avec la société roumaine, il entreprend de multiples activités de recherches, des situations où il réussit à établir des relations avec de nombreuses personnalités, y compris les géologues L. Mrazec, Gh. Munteanu Murgoci, I. Popescu Voitești. Il reçoit les informations géologiques (structure géologique, tectonique), mais aussi de l'amitié et de soutien parmi ses déplacements dans les Carpates et les régions collinaires. C'est ici qu'il a forgé son *système d'enquête approfondie* (descriptions minutieuses, observations, mesures, levées topographiques, des cas représentatifs distingués, corrélations avec toutes les composantes du milieu géographique, l'élaboration des profils, des croquis panoramiques, photos) et *production scientifique* (articles, livres, les deux thèses de doctorat qui sont considérées comme des créations scientifiques inédites). Peu à peu, il a acquis le respect, la compréhension et la gratitude du peuple roumain, l'appréciation de nombreux universitaires, ainsi que de nombreux jeunes géographes roumains, qui, dès la première décennie du XX^e siècle, ont obtenu des bourses pour étudier en France. Certains d'entre eux ont bénéficié de l'appui et des conseils du magister (il a été enseignant reconnu à l'Université de Lyon et depuis 1909 à la Sorbonne, Paris) tels G. Vâlsan (il a pensé et élaboré la thèse de doctorat sous sa direction et, qui suite à la recommandation du professeur, due à l'imminence de la guerre, il allait la soutenir à Roumanie en 1915). Avec G. Vâlsan, le professeur a entretenu des liens étroits d'ordre scientifique et a préservé des liens d'amitié.

En 1921, à la demande du Ministère de l'Education, il a choisi de soutenir des conférences et des séminaires pendant un mois à l'Université de Cluj-Napoca

(sur la morphologie des Alpes et des Carpates), des conférences et des voyages en week-end (étudiants et enseignants) aux environs de Cluj-Napoca. Il a organisé quatre voyages en collaboration avec les enseignants G. Vâlsan et V. Meruțiu dans les grandes unités géographiques en Roumanie, impliquant des groupes de 15-20 personnes et des universitaires de Roumanie (V. Meruțiu, M. David, V. Mihailescu, Sabin Opreanu, Romulus Vuia, Ioachim Rodeanu, Gh. Munteanu Murgoci, Iuliu Prodan), jeunes géographes français (R. Ficheux, Odette Girard, G. Verger Trichom, etc), les enseignants du secondaire, des chercheurs, etc. Ces excursions ont contribué grâce à leur l'organisation, déroulement et résultats à la création *d'un excellent modèle de recherche sur le terrain en équipe portant sur des questions géographiques* (à dominance géomorphologique) s'appuyant sur les interférences des composants naturels et leurs effets rendus sur les activités humaines, sur la collaboration entre géographes et spécialistes divers, sur les enjeux de la formation des jeunes géographes à l'égard les connaissances et la méthodologie.

De nombreuses leçons apprises peuvent être reconnus dans leurs approches scientifiques futures, y compris des thèses de doctorat (M. David, V. Mihailescu, T. Morariu, A. Nordon, R. Ficheux), tous ces ouvrages faisaient référence à l'espace roumain.

Dans les années suivantes, le professeur est devenu déjà célèbre dans le monde, ses contributions allaient guider les jeunes géographes roumains (T. Morariu, D. Burileanu, N. Popp, N. N. Orghidan Victor Tufescu etc.) par une approche moderne fondée sur la recherche, corrélations, interprétations d'ordre génétique et de l'évolution chronologique, estimations sur l'évolution des systèmes des milieux ; pour ce faire, certains géographes ont été reconnus au niveau national et dans le monde entier, en particulier à travers les œuvres de la géomorphologie.

Ce bref aperçu de quelques instants et événements qui ont eu une importance dans de multiples activités axées sur la connaissance du savant français grâce à la recherche et à l'analyse complète du relief de la Roumanie, la orientation distincte dans la formation d'un grand groupe de jeunes géomorphologues roumains et l'élaboration d'un trésor riche des œuvres dans ce domaine, représentent tant d'arguments à considérer **l'Académicien Professeur Dr. Emmanuel-Louis-Eugène de Martonne comme le principal fondateur de l'école roumaine de géomorphologie**. Cela s'inscrit d'une manière intrinsèque dans les contributions mondiales dans le domaine de cette science, avec un travail fabuleux et une présence active dans divers organismes géographiques en France et à l'étranger (principalement U.I.G).

BIBLIOGRAPHIE SÉLECTIVE

- Chabot, G. (1973), „Souvenir d'étudiant”, *SC.G.G.G.*, Geografie, XX, 1.
- Demageon, J. (1973), „A-propos d'Emmanuel de Martonne”, *SC.G.G.G.*, Geografie, XX, 1.
- Dragomirescu, Ș. (1973), „Actualitatea concepției geografice a lui Emmanuel de Martonne”, *Analele Academiei R. S. România*, 107, Sr. IV, XXIII.
- Dresch, J. (1956), „Emmanuel de Martonne (1873-1955)”, *Bul. Géol. de France*, VI.
- FICHEUX, R. (1973), „Emmanuel de Martonne”, *SC.G.G.G.*, Geografie, XX, 1.
- MIHĂILESCU, V. (1957), „Emmanuel de Martonne”, *Probl. de Geografie*, V.
- MIHĂILESCU, V. (1973), „Contribuția lui Emmanuel de Martonne la dezvoltarea geografiei mondiale”, *Analele Academiei R. S. România*, 107, Sr. IV, XXIII.
- MORARIU, T. (1973), „Emmanuel de Martonne și geografia românească”, *Analele Academiei R. S. România*, 107, Sr. IV, XXIII.
- POSEA, G. (1973), „Tratatul de geografie fizică a lui Emmanuel de Martonne – concepție, principii, actualitate”, *Analele Academiei R. S. România*, 107, Sr. IV, XXIII.
- TUFESCU, V. (1957), „Creația lui Emmanuel de Martonne în geografia fizică”, *Analele Academiei R. S. România*, VII, 1.
- TUFESCU, V. (1973), „Amintiri despre Emmanuel de Martonne”, *SC.G.G.G.*, Geografie, XX, 1.
- TUFESCU, V. (1981), „Emmanuel de Martonne, fauritor al geografiei moderne și rolul său în formarea geografiei românești”, în *Emmanuel de Martonne. Lucrări geografice despre România*, vol. I, Editura Academiei R. S. România.

**THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE – UNDERSTANDING LAND,
PEOPLE AND ENVIRONMENT: RESEARCH AND TEACHING
PERSPECTIVES ON GEOGRAPHY**

ANA IRINA DINCA¹

The conference entitled *UNDERSTANDING LAND, PEOPLE AND ENVIRONMENT: RESEARCH AND TEACHING PERSPECTIVES ON GEOGRAPHY* was organized by the Department of Human and Economic Geography, between 10 and 11th of November 2012, within the frame of the yearly traditional scientific event organized by Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest.

The conference was envisaged as a significant international event to cover a wide range of geographic topics and themes coming both from human and physical geography disciplines and intending to raise debates inside the vast approaches of research and teaching geography. Given the vast area of scientific interest the conference organized the diversity of discussion themes/subjects under the following main thematic pillars and their subsequent themes of interest:

1. Recent Dynamics and Challenges of Territorial, Economic and Social Processes
 - a. *Dynamics of Urban and Rural Territorial Changes*
 - b. *Spatial Dynamics of Demographic, Economic and Social Processes under the Global Crisis*
2. Geomorphology in the relation with human society
 - a. *Geomorphic, pedogenetic processes and hazards*
 - b. *Methods in Geomorphology*
3. Challenges of Environment and Human Dimension
 - a. *Landscape: linking Nature and Environmental Practices*
 - b. *Recent environmental changes*
4. Living with Weather, Climate and Water
 - a. *Weather and Climate Events: Risks and Responses*
 - b. *Water and Society*
5. Teaching Geography between traditional and modern
 - a. *Didactic Strategies and Curricula*
 - b. *Geography Education Management*

¹ Phd Assist. Lect. at Bucharest University, Geography Faculty.

The conference aimed to stimulate debate inside each suggested thematic pillar by inviting speakers from higher education, school education and research oriented institutions or environments.

Given the themes and the general attractions for both researchers and didactic practitioners in the field of geography invited keynote speakers and their presented papers were personalities and themes of general and real interest for both Romanian and foreign geographers, namely Mihai Ielenicz, Professor, Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest, who presented – “Simion Mehedinți – The Parent of Modern Geography and Geographers in Romania; Dan Bălteanu, Member of the Romanian Academy, who drew the attention on “The Topicality of Simion Mehedinți”; Ioan Ianoș – Professor, Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest, who debated on “The ‘haunting ghost’ of the continent: the European territorial cohesion and Steluța Dan, inspector of geography, Ministry of Education who discussed on the “Present day condition of geography in the Romanian preuniversity education system”.

A reference event for Romanian geographers the conference organized by the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest registered over 200 paper works and posters and over 300 contributors from Romania and abroad.

The full papers were published in the specialized journals of the Faculty of Geography, University of Bucharest (e.g. Human Geographies – Journal of Studies and research in Human Geography; Journal of Urban and Regional Analysis; Anale Universitatii din Bucuresti, seria Geografie; Comunicări de Geografie; Revista Școlii Doctorale “Simion Mehedinți” UNIVERSITAS GEOGRAPHICA).

**TEZE DE DOCTORAT SUSȚINUTE ÎN PERIOADA
IANUARIE 2012 – DECEMBRIE 2012**
– SISTEMUL BOLOGNA –

PUIA OANA

| Nr. crt. | Numele și prenumele doctorandului | Data susținerii publice | Titlul tezei de doctorat | Profesor coordonator |
|----------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. | Avram Mihaela | 08.03.2012 | Muscelele Argeșului. Studiu de toponimie | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Nicolae |
| 2. | Toarcă Ionela Viorica (Bălășoiu) | 08.03.2012 | Craina Serbiei. Studiu etnografic | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Nicolae |
| 3. | Cristuțiu Marinel Ioan | 19.04.2012 | Studiu geomorfologic al bazinului Vârbilău cu privire specială asupra proceselor de degradare a terenurilor | Prof. univ. dr. Mihai Ielenicz |
| 4. | Ciocan Elisabeta | 28.04.2012 | Evoluția agriculturii în Câmpia Desnăjuialui și implicațiile sale asupra mediului geografic | Prof. univ. dr. Cristian Braghiș |
| 5. | Ghiuță – Țarălungă Vlad Ioan | 15.06.2012 | Relația climă-poluare atmosferică în arealul Municipiului Piatra Neamț | Prof. univ. dr. Bogdan-Andrei Mihai |
| 6. | Hanganu Diana | 10.07.2012 | Histria – studiu de geoarheologie | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |
| 7. | Păun Elena | 10.09.2012 | Dinamica urbană a municipiului Alba Iulia | Prof. univ. dr. Melinda Cândea |
| 8. | Schvab Andrei Csaba | 10.09.2012 | Procese teritoriale adaptative în dinamica zonei de influență a municipiului Baia Mare | Prof. univ. dr. Ioan Ianoș |
| 9. | Ion Florentina | 11.09.2012 | Dinamica așezărilor rurale din spațiul adiacent axei București-Ploiești | Prof. univ. dr. Cristian Tălăngă |
| 10. | Ionescu Daniela | 13.09.2012 | Studiu geografic al așezărilor rurale din bazinul hidrografic Șușita | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Marin |

| | | | | |
|-----|------------------------------------|------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| 11. | Kanovici Adrian Lucian | 17.09.2012 | Balcanii. De la spațiu de conflict la structurile euroatlantice. Analiză geografică și geopolitică | Prof. univ. dr. Silviu Neguț |
| 12. | Pătrășcoiu Paul Roberto | 17.09.2012 | Dezvoltarea urbană integrată în contextul politiciei regionale europene. Studiu de caz: Municipiul Craiova | Prof. univ. dr. George Erdeli |
| 13. | Dumitrescu Alexandru | 19.09.2012 | Spațializarea parametrilor meteorologici și climatici prin tehnici GIS | Prof. univ. dr. Nicoleta Ionac |
| 14. | Neagu (Simion) Oana Alexandra | 19.09.2012 | Geopolitica spațiului ex-sovietic: între hegemonia Rusiei și structurile euroatlantice | Prof. univ. dr. George Erdeli |
| 15. | Păsculescu (Teltecu) Camelia Eliza | 19.09.2012 | Resursele de apă din Dobrogea de Sud și valorificarea lor | Prof. univ. dr. Liliana Zaharia |
| 16. | Suditu (Popescu) Simona | 19.09.2012 | Impactul restructurării economice asupra resurselor umane din municipiul Râmnicu Sărat | Prof. univ. dr. George Erdeli |
| 17. | Mihoc Adrian Cătălin | 20.09.2012 | Confortul ambiental în spațiul interior al unei clădiri de birouri | Prof. univ. dr. Nicoleta Ionac |
| 18. | Vâlceanu Daniel Gabriel | 20.09.2012 | Calitatea locuirii urbane în Regiunea de dezvoltare Sud-vest Oltenia | Prof. univ. dr. Liliana Dumitache |
| 19. | Vlad Ioana Maria | 20.09.2012 | Analiza geografică a calității vieții în orașele din Regiunea de dezvoltare Sud-est a României | Prof. univ. dr. Liliana Dumitache |
| 20. | Mihalache (Achim) Daniela Paula | 21.09.2012 | Studiul fizico-geografic cu privire specială asupra tipurilor genetice de relief, în bazinul hidrografic Sălătrucel-Coisca | Prof. univ. dr. Mihail Grigore |
| 21. | Ploaie Mihaela (Teodorescu) | 21.09.2012 | Valorificarea turistică a spațiului depresionar Câmpulung în contextul dezvoltării durabile | Prof. univ. dr. George Erdeli |
| 22. | Tudoricu Anca | 21.09.2012 | Turismul de eveniment în România – caracteristici și tendințe | Prof. univ. dr. Liliana Dumitache |

| | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| 23. | Mirea Delia Adriana | 24.09.2012 | Metode de evaluare a efectelor reconversiei peisajului industrial în starea mediului municipiului București | Prof. univ. dr. Maria Pătroescu |
| 24. | Şerban Paul Răzvan | 24.09.2012 | Mecanismele creşterii complexității spațiale în medii social-economice dezavantajate | Prof. univ. dr. Ioan Ianoş |
| 25. | Cârstea Cătălina | 25.09.2012 | Semnificația operei lui Ion Conea pentru cercetarea geografic românească | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Nicolae |
| 26. | Popescu Polixenia Gabriela | 25.09.2012 | Dobrogea – studiu de geografie culturală | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Nicolae |
| 27. | Rusei Nicolae | 25.09.2012 | Dinamica peisajelor în bazinul hidrografic al Tazlăului Sărat în ultimul secol | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Marin |
| 28. | Şandor Ciprian | 25.09.2012 | Resursele de apă din depresiunea Bârsei, valorificare și implicații în peisaj | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Marin |
| 29. | Frujina (Cherascu) Ramona Mariana | 26.09.2012 | Gestiunea socială a ariilor protejate din Regiunea de dezvoltare Sud Muntenia. Studiu de caz: Situl Natura 2000 Munții Făgăraș | Prof. univ. dr. Maria Pătroescu |
| 30. | Huzui Alina Elena | 26.09.2012 | Analiza cantitativă și calitativă a peisajului urban. Studiu de caz orașul Sinaia | Prof. univ. dr. Ileana Pătru-Stupariu |
| 31. | Mureşean Felicia | 26.09.2012 | Potențialul turistic cultural din bazinul hidrografic Hârtibaciu și valorificarea sa | Prof. univ. dr. Mihai Ielenicz |
| 32. | Soare Alexandru George | 26.09.2012 | Zonele de slabă polarizare urbană în România | Prof. univ. dr. Silviu Neguț |
| 33. | Ungur Călin Ionuț | 26.09.2012 | Valențele geostrategice ale resurselor energetice în spațiul ex-sovietic | Prof. univ. dr. Silviu Neguț |
| 34. | Cocerhan Constantin | 27.09.2012 | Bazinul râului Suceava pe teritoriul României, valorificarea potențialului turistic | Prof. univ. dr. Mihai Ielenicz |
| 35. | David (Spanu) Alina Diana | 27.09.2012 | Tărmul lagunar al Mării Negre în sectorul Perișor – Cap Midia. Studiu de geomorfologie litorală | Prof. univ. dr. Emil Vespremeanu |

| | | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------|------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| 36. | Flutar Monica | 27.09.2012 | Influența condițiilor naturale asupra evoluției teritoriale și a dezvoltării durabile a orașului Galați | Prof. univ. dr. Mihai Ielenicz |
| 37. | Ginjulete (Ovejan) Dana Maria | 27.09.2012 | Evaluarea vulnerabilității așezărilor umane din bazinul Lotrului | Prof. univ. dr. Cristian Braghină |
| 38. | Tudorie Florin | 27.09.2012 | Geopolitica traseelor energetice europene | Prof. univ. dr. Silviu Neguț |
| 39. | Alexandru Raluca Georgiana | 28.09.2012 | Bazinul hidrografic Săsăuș. Studiu de geomorfologie dinamică | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |
| 40. | Cloșă Gheorghe | 28.09.2012 | Dinamica potențialului ecologic și exploatarea biologică a habitatelor de interes comunitar (SCI) din corridorul fluvial al Dunării. Studiu de caz: sectorul cuprins între Gura Văii – confluența Olt-Dunăre | Prof. univ. dr. Maria Pătroescu |
| 41. | Matei Daniela | 28.09.2012 | Metode moderne de predare – învățare utilizate în studierea orizontului local și regional. Localitățile Constanța, Medgidia, Cumpăna, Cobadin | Prof. univ. dr. Mihai Ielenicz |
| 42. | Novăcescu Petronela Anișoara | 28.09.2012 | Dinamica așezărilor rurale în bazinul Cernei | Prof. univ. dr. Cristian Tălăngă |
| 43. | Vlad Daniela | 28.09.2012 | Bazinul hidrografic Eșelnita – studiu de geomorfologie dinamică | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |
| 44. | Albu (Dinu) Maria | 29.09.2012 | Bazinul morfohidrografic Călmățuiul teleormănean – geneză, evoluția și dinamica reliefului | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |
| 45. | Buciu Cristina (Mihălțeanu) | 29.09.2012 | Dinamica peisajului rural în Dobrogea de Sud | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Marin |
| 46. | Cătescu Georgian | 29.09.2012 | Bazinul hidrografic Mislea. Studiu de geomorfologie dinamică | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |
| 47. | Mușat Ancuța | 29.09.2012 | Managementul teritorial în ariile dezavantajate din Regiunea de Dezvoltare Sud-Vest | Prof. univ. dr. Cristian Braghină |

| | | | | |
|-----|----------------------------------|------------|---|------------------------------------|
| 48. | Pisargeac (Puia) Andreia Oana | 29.09.2012 | Potențialul de dezvoltare al așezărilor rurale din județul Sălaj, la est de aliniament Benesat-Surduc-Gârbou | Prof. univ. dr. Ion Marin |
| 49. | Radu Alexandrina | 29.09.2012 | Peisajul geografic în arta plastică românească. Studiu de geografie culturală | Prof. univ. dr. Ioan Ianoș |
| 50. | Tăble□ Paula | 30.09.2012 | Intervenții specifice în cazul producerii fenomenelor atmosferice de risc pe teritoriul României | Prof. univ. dr. Nicoleta Ionac |
| 51. | Marian Elena Cristina | 27.10.2012 | Evoluția funcției balneoclimaterice în Câmpia și Dealurile de Vest | Prof. univ. dr. Melinda Cândea |
| 52. | Vicol Ioana | 29.10.2012 | Influența activităților antropice asupra diversității lichenilor epifitici în ecosisteme forestiere din aria metropolitană a municipiului București | Prof. univ. dr. Maria Pătroescu |
| 53. | Ignat Petru | 28.11.2012 | Factorii pedogenetici determinanți și rolul lor în evoluția învelișului de sol din Câmpia Mizil-Sărata | Prof. univ. dr. Floare Grecu |

ANALELE UNIVERSITĂȚII BUCUREȘTI (AUB) GEOGRAFIE

ÎN ATENȚIA COLABORATORILOR

Pentru o cooperare eficientă între editori, autori și casa editorială, autorii de articole și de recenții sunt rugați să respecte următoarele norme:

- ✓ Articolele pot fi trimise în engleză, franceză, italiană, spaniolă, germană, rusă.
- ✓ Articolele trebuie să fie trimise pe suport electronic (e-mail sau CD) în format WORD (.doc or .rtf).
 - ✓ Articolele trimise trebuie să conțină numele și afilierea instituțională a autorilor, ca și adresa de e-mail.
 - ✓ Articolele trebuie să fie însoțite de un rezumat (10-15 rânduri) în engleză, urmat de 5-7 cuvinte-cheie (font Times New Roman, corp 9, la un rand, în engleză).
 - ✓ Toate articolele și recenziile vor fi redactate cu diacritice; dacă sunt folosite fonturi speciale (*Fonetec, ArborWin* etc.), se va trimite și tipul de font folosit.
 - ✓ Formatul documentului: pagină A4 (nu Letter, Executive, A5 etc.).
 - ✓ Marginile paginii: sus – 5,75 cm; jos – 5 cm; stânga și dreapta – 4,25 cm; antet – 4,75 cm; subsol – 1,25 cm.
 - ✓ Articolele trimise trebuie tehnico-redactate cu font ***Times New Roman, corp 11, la un rând***.
 - ✓ ***Titlul*** articolului trebuie să fie centrata, cu majuscule albine (font Times New Roman, corp 11).
 - ✓ ***Numele*** (cu majuscule albine) trebuie să fie centrata, sub titlu (font Times New Roman, corp 9).
 - ✓ ***Rezumatul*** (însoțit de titlul articolului tradus, dacă articolul este în altă limbă decât engleză) precedă textul articolului (font Times New Roman, corp 9, la un rând); cuvintele-cheie (Times New Roman, corp 9, italic) urmează rezumatului și sunt precedate de cuvântul ***Keywords*** (italic și bold).
 - ✓ ***Notele*** trebuie să apară în josul paginii (cu font ***Times New Roman, 9, la un rând***).
 - ✓ ***Trimiterile bibliografice, indicarea sursei pentru citate*** – se vor indica în text, după următoarea convenție: (Autor an:(spațiu)pagină) – (Pop 2001: 32); (Pop/Ionescu 2001: 32).
 - ✓ Se pot utiliza în text ***abrevieri, sigle*** (RRL, tome L, n^{os} 3-4, p. 216) care vor fi întregite la bibliografia finală, după cum urmează:

RRL – *Revue Roumaine de Linguistique*, tome L, n^{os} 3-4, 2005.

- ✓ ***Bibliografia*** va fi indicată după următorul model:

- (1) Pentru ***cărți, volume, monografii*** se indică numele, prenumele autorului, anul apariției, ***titlul*** cu italic, orașul, editura (eventual volumul sau numărul de volume). În cazul în care una dintre componentele trimiterii bibliografice lipsește, se vor folosi normele consacrante – [s.l.], [s.a.]. La volumele colective se va indica îndrumătorul/coordonatorul/editorul prin (coord.) sau (ed.)/(eds.) după nume și prenume. În cazul în care există mai mulți autori/coordonatori/editori, doar primul nume va fi inversat (Zafiu, R., C. Stan...).
Kleiber, Georges, 2001, *L'anaphore associative*, Paris, Presses Universitaires de France.

Zafiu, R., C. Stan, Al. Nicolae (eds.), 2007, *Studii lingvistice. Omagiu profesorului Gabriela Pană Dindelegan, la aniversare*, Bucureşti, Editura Universităţii din Bucureşti.

(2) Pentru **articole din volume colective**:

Rand Hoare, Michael, 2009, “Scientific and Technical Dictionnaires”, in A. P. Cowie (ed.), *The Oxford History of English Lexicography*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp. 47-94.

(3) Pentru **articole din reviste** se indică numele autorului, prenumele autorului, anul, titlul articoului între ghilimele, urmat de *in* + numele revistei cu italic (neabreviat), volumul/tomul, numărul, pagini. În cazul în care există mai mulți autori, doar primul nume va fi inversat.

Fischer, I., 1968, « Remarques sur le traitement de la diphongue *au* en latin vulgaire », in *Revue Roumaine de Linguistique*, XIII, nr. 5, pp. 417-420.
 Cornea, P., 1994, „Noţiunea de autor: statut și mod de folosință”, în *Limbă și literatură*, vol. III-IV, pp. 27-35.

Toate referințele bibliografice din text trebuie să apară în bibliografia finală.

Articolele trimise vor fi discutate de o comisie de specialiști în domeniile filologice: lingvistică, literatură, studii culturale și de traductologie.

Articolele trebuie trimise la următoarea adresă de e-mail: dincaanairina@gmail.com

THE ANNALS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BUCHAREST GEOGRAPHY

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

The authors of the articles and book reviews are requested to observe the following publication guidelines:

- ✓ The articles can be edited in English, French, Italian, Spanish, German, Russian.
- ✓ The articles should be submitted electronically (by e-mail or CD) in a WORD format (formats .doc or .rtf).
- ✓ The articles should contain the author's full name and affiliation, along with the author's e-mail address.
- ✓ The articles should contain an abstract (10-15 lines), followed by 5-7 Keywords (Times New Roman, 9, single spaced).
- ✓ All the articles and book reviews must be edited using diacritical marks; if there are special Fonts, these should also be sent.
 - ✓ The page format: paper A4 (no Letter, Executive, A5 etc.);
 - ✓ The page margins: top – 5,75 cm; bottom – 5 cm; left and right – 4,25 cm; header – 4,75 cm; footer – 1,25 cm.
 - ✓ The articles submitted for publication must be typed *single spaced*, in **Times New Roman, 11**.
- ✓ **The title** of the article should be centered, bold, all capitals (Times New Roman, 11)
- ✓ **The author's name** (bold capitals) should be centered, under the title (Times New Roman, 9).
- ✓ **The abstract** (with the translated title, if the article is written in other language than English; Times New Roman 9, single spaced) precedes the text of the article; the Keywords (Times New Roman 9, bold) follow the abstract and they are preceded by the word **Keywords** (in italics, bold).
- ✓ **The notes** should be indicated by superscript numbers in the text and typed at the bottom of the page (single spaced, Times New Roman 9).
- ✓ **The references** or **the quotations sources** should be indicated in the text, following the format: (Author year:(space)page) – (Pop 2001: 32); (Pop/Ionescu 2001: 32).
- ✓ **The abbreviations** or **abbreviated titles** (RRL, tome L, n^os 3-4, p. 216) can be used in the papers; they will be included completely in the listed references at the end of the article, as it follows:

RRL – *Revue Roumaine de Linguistique*, tome L, n^os 3-4, 2005.

- ✓ **The references** should observe the following styles:

1. Books Basic Format: Author, A. (, B. B. Author, C. C. Author), Year of publication, *Title of Work*, Location, Publisher.

Kleiber, Georges, 2001, *L'anaphore associative*, Paris, Presses Universitaires de France.

2. Edited Books Basic Format: Author, A. A. (, B. B. Author, C. C. Author)(ed./eds.), Year of publication, *Title of Work*, Location, Publisher (only the name of the first editor inverted).

Zafiu, R., C. Stan, Al. Nicolae (eds.), 2007, *Studii lingvistice. Omagiu profesoarei Gabriela Pană Dindelegan, la aniversare*, Bucureşti, Editura Universităţii din Bucureşti.

3. Articles or Chapters in Edited Book Basic Format:

Rand Hoare, Michael, 2009, “Scientific and Technical Dictionnaires”, in A. P. Cowie (ed.), *The Oxford History of English Lexicography*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp. 47-94.

4. Articles in Journals Basic Format: Author, A. A. (, B. B. Author), Year of publication, “Title of the article”, in *Title of Periodical*, volume number (issue number), pages.

Fischer, I., 1968, « Remarques sur le traitement de la diphthongue *au* en latin vulgaire », in *Revue Roumaine de Linguistique*, XIII, nr. 5, pp. 417-420.

All the bibliographical references should appear in the final bibliography.

All the papers will be peer-reviewed by a committee of specialists in different philological fields: linguistics, literature, cultural studies, translation studies.

The first version of the articles should be submitted to the e-mail address: dincaanairina@gmail.com

Tiparul s-a executat sub c-da nr. 588/2013 la
Tipografia Editurii Universității din București
