



Looking for Tourism Legacy for the Future: Social and Cultural Dimensions

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ABSTRACT

The investigation of socio-cultural impact of tourism has brought about a substantial number of case studies, still its assessment remains very poor. This paper aims to put under discussion some indices and instruments of measuring the socio-economic impact of tourism, such as tourism intensity, correlation indicators, covariance analysis, Kuznets curve, regional tourism development typology at European and national level. The results of this analysis should represent useful data for policy-makers and practitioners in order to consolidate tourism policy objectives and philosophies of development on medium and long term.

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1. Introduction

In many countries and world destinations, tourism has become a factor of change, frequently considered as an important generator and engine of national or regional endogenous growth (Matias et al., 2009), and its development represents one option that authorities have, before use the resources that can be limited in many cases (Khan, 2005). Tourism comprises qualitative, social, human and environmental aspects (Cristureanu, 1992) and represents a central component of modern social identity, which is constantly changing and has implications for the formation of nations, consumerism, cosmopolitanism and globalization (Fletcher, 2005). Tourism provides a measure of life quality and country's welfare.

Tourism is a stimulating factor of development, being often included in national, regional or local theories and strategies, as an important agent to support economic growth. It has expanded in many regions of the world, and various countries, in an attempt to seek development opportunities, have become receivers for worldwide tourists.

Various specialists have stressed the benefits generated by tourism at economic, social, cultural level, contributing to a high valorization of tourist resources, increasing foreign exchange, gross domestic product, creating value added, mitigating inter-regional imbalances, employment, generating a multiplier effect, stimulating production in other areas, etc. and constituting itself as a priority activity (Willis, 1977, Murphy 1985, Oldham et al, 2000; Minciu, 2000, Snak et al., 2001; Ennew, 2003; Glăvan, 2003; Stănculescu, 2004, Visser and Rogerson, 2004; Hall, 2005; Pao, 2005, Pender, 2005, Holden, 2008). Tourism stimulates other sectors of the national economy, such as industry and agriculture, construction, transport, trade, building materials, energy, telecommunications, culture and art etc. (Telfer and Wall, 1996; Stynes, 1997; Minciu, 2000, Snak et al, 2001; Glăvan, 2003; Nistoreanu, 2003; Karagiannis, 2003, Mc Bain, 2007).

International organizations as World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), European Travel Commission, The Organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development (OECD), World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), Pacific Asia Travel Commission (PATA) etc. supported tourism as an instrument to sustain growth and economic diversification, especially in developing and under-developed regions from different parts of the world confronting with economic problems, with limited development options (Asia, Africa, America), becoming a painless therapy for socio-economic diseases in the system (Singh, 2003).

Various specialists emphasize on economic impact of tourism which is significant in different regions and countries, offering various opportunities in terms of revenues, jobs, foreign currency earnings, economies of scale and so on, but social and cultural impact of tourism is undoubtedly more pronounced and difficult to measure and, in the end, to express in monetary terms. Previous studies assessing the socio-cultural impact of tourism were rather qualitative than quantitative, being undertaken in various locations, with a wide range of particularities, where stakeholders involved or affected (Clary, 1984; Saarinen, 2003; Khan et al., 1990; Tatoglu et al., 2002; Tosun, 2002; Su et al., 2005; Urtasun and Gutiérrez, 2006; Figini et al., 2009).

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Starting from the above mentioned aspects, this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 investigates the literature regarding the social and cultural impact of tourism. Section 3 discusses tourism intensity index and its correlation with other social indicators through statistical analysis. Section 4 discusses the inequalities in Romanian tourism, applying Kuznets curve and regional tourism development typology. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2. Social and cultural impact of tourism: the eternal fight between good and bad

In the attempt to synthesize the socio-cultural impact of tourism, both positive and negative effects were summarized, considering local environment – tourism impact on local socio-cultural environment and people – tourism impact on the lifestyles and culture of both residents and visitors. Tourism has impact on local **socio-cultural environment**, offering the opportunity of valorising local goods and endowments and commercializing them in a superior manner, contributing to the revitalization and preservation of local traditions, customs, cultural life, handicrafts, arts, culture, artists, identity and heritage, renewal of local architectural traditions (Swarbrooke, 1999; Tatoglu et al. 2002; Hashimoto, 2002; Mason, 2003; Irandu, 2004; Archer et al. 2005), which otherwise will be lost or will remain unexploited from economic, social and cultural point of view. While tourism raises awareness regarding social and cultural values, local authorities will pay greater attention to conservation and revitalization of local culture.

In time, if tourism proves to be beneficial for an area, in economic and social terms, it also be perceived as a force of stability in a society (Swarbrooke, 1999), which also increases the level of community involvement in the process of development and decision-making and local political autonomy, empowering local communities (Hashimoto, 2002). In this sense, good examples regarding the impact of tourism on social and cultural environment could be encountered in Romania, i.e. Bucovina, Maramures, Transylvania, where local handicrafts found a niche of development through tourism, traditional handicrafts being most appreciated by domestic and foreign tourists, while the local gastronomy became one strong point in attracting tourists during national and religious holidays. As the interest of tourists in local arts and crafts has increased significantly in the last past years, more Craftsmen's Fairs were organized.

However, there is a fine line between commercialization and over-commercialization of local heritage and maybe too often, this line is over-crossed, degenerating in commoditization, overexploitation of the resources, shortened and abbreviated versions of the cultural performances, kitsch, poor or cheap imitation of valuable arts exhibits, dances, craftworks, in the attempt to obtain money with the least possible effort or to satisfy the needs of visitors or to make it more understandable / acceptable to tourists (Hashimoto, 2002; Archer et al., 2005). Some places may lose parts from their original value because of the tourism exploitation and/or overexploitation, like religious sites, which can be disturbing for local communities, for which they have particular values and resonance. Even local pride and dignity may be affected if continuing with the over-exploitation of customs and local culture.

Local culture, customs, rituals, folk arts, local performers could change over time because of the pressure exerted by tourist consumption, and it may result in loss of authenticity (Wall and Mathieson, 2006), meaning and value of traditional objects (Mason, 2003). Loss of authenticity may also result from the fact that tourists may not understand local culture, rituals or have a very best travel itinerary and they do not have time to appreciate it (Hashimoto, 2002).

Another problem often encountered in many tourist destinations especially in Romania (e.g. Danube Delta, Maramures, Bucovina, Prahova Valley) is lack of urban and architectural planning, and construction of buildings without respective traditional architecture styles. In many tourist areas, the lack of urban plans seriously affected the general appearance of the resorts, making them unattractive not just for the 'tourist-eyes', but also long-term urban development. Through tourism, a destination, previously perceived as poor or unsafe, in time could change, because people come, see, spend their time and encounter a different environment and in the end they return with a positive, favourable image of the destination.

Tourism affects urban systems causing overcrowding (Mason, 2003; Archer et al., 2005; Wall and Mathieson, 2006) and as mentioned before, and desultory urban planning. The flows of tourist in one specific area generate higher population density and higher demand for facilities and services which, in the end, negatively affects both residents and tourists. Some facilities i.e. transportation, energy consumption is shared by the local population with visitors and if the demand is too high, discomfort may appear, rising the resentment of local communities toward tourism and reduces the value of the holiday experience for tourists (Archer et al., 2005). The competition between locals and tourism stakeholders will create social tensions. Overdevelopment to sustain tourism sector may generate overbuilding and changes in community appearance and views and property loss and destruction. It also can put pressure on social life of residents, which in turn may feel loss of privacy and degradation in the quality of life.

Swarbrooke (1999) appreciates that tourism has **impact on people and host population** through immigration of dynamic people to live and/or work in the community, thus reducing depopulation. Also, tourist areas could become attractive for retired people or seniors, which find very attractive to spend their lives in these surroundings, which could represent an extra-income for the community. Tourism represents also a

labour option for women and youth who never worked before and, consequently, represents an opportunity to enter on the labour market. They will gain new skills, new confidence, and new economic power, being able to control their own lives (Doswell, 1997). The negative side is related to the migration of local people from primitive and isolated areas, to other settlements or new areas because of too many visitors (Archer et al., 2005).

Tourism changes lifestyles and culture of both residents and visitors. Change is inevitable and as Doswell (1997) argues 'people who regret change will regret development'. These lifestyles and cultural changes could be both positive and negative. The magnitude and costs of these changes are determined by the extent of the differences between hosts and guests (Inskeep, 1991; Hall and Page, 1999; Hashimoto, 2002).

In the traditional approach, host communities are seen as victims (Swarbrooke, 1999; Hashimoto, 2002), while the guests or visitors are considered the 'bad guys', willing to impose their own values, but it should be a balance between the positive effects generated on local community and visitors, respectively.

Tourism development causes social and cultural changes felt gradually, and expressed in society's values, beliefs and cultural practices (Hall and Page, 1999; Tatoglu et al. 2002; Ryan, 2003; Wall and Mathieson, 2006). In the literature, this effect is encountered as 'demonstration effect' (Williams, 1998; Hashimoto, 2002; Mason, 2003; Archer et al., 2005). First, local residents have direct contact with visitors, having different backgrounds, levels of incomes, cultures, religion, political views (Archer et al., 2005), observe their behaviour and become influenced. If the contacts between hosts and guests become permanent or continuous, the transferred values and standards may be passed on to subsequent generations (Wall and Mathieson, 2006).

If rising awareness regarding local social and cultural values through tourism activities, local residents have the opportunity to present their own identity and who they are, therefore tourism becoming an empowering tool and preserver of cultural and social values. Local community and their residents may also experience a feeling of pride, having well-preserved cultural objectives, immaterial goods, facilities, tourism representing an opportunity to create a local brand. Until tourism develops in the area, local community may not realize the importance of a local and positive brand and its importance for the future economic development. But, if the pressure from the visitors is too high, tourism may induce loss of cultural identity.

Tourism may influence social and cultural cohesion of the resident community (Ryan, 2003). Tourist appreciation of natural and cultural heritage and the sense of connection with local environment and the awareness of local tourism richness could generate local residents to experience a filling of pride and willingness to do more for their community and thus to reunite their forces and support local development. On the other hand, local people can travel to other regions of their homelands and such movement can strengthen the political unity of a country, domestic tourism reinforce national sentiment, providing a sense of national unity and helping to prevent regional fragmentation (Archer et al., 2005).

It is worth mentioning that tourism is an industry of people for people, in which cooperation and networking have a particular importance. If previously, the community did not cooperate, developing networks, tourism represents an opportunity to strength them. Through networks, the indirect and induced economic impacts produced by tourism are maximized, as it stimulates bilateral relationship and coordination of policies between several organisations (Costa, 1996).

Because of the contact with richer people, having higher life standards, poor local residents may wish to improve their lives and thus, they will learn more, work harder in order to reach those standard of living or, on the other hand, they will dress, eat, and behave like the tourists. This encounter between tourists and hosts is seen as positive, and consequently many authors suggested that tourism foster better understanding between nations (Minciu, 2000; Snak et al., 2001; Mason, 2003; Archer et al. 2005).

To some point, tourist behaviour could be assimilated or copied, but if these disparities are so great, the adverse consequences could appear, the rejection and adverse reactions may come from both parts, like frustration, antipathy, hostility, aggression, deprivation, animosity. Under these circumstances, when tourists' tastes and habits have proved offensive to local population, Archer et al. (2005) substitutes the term 'demonstration effect' with the term 'confrontation effect'.

Hashimoto (2002) speaks about cultural imperialism and assimilation of the weaker culture, tourists from developed nations tending to impose their cultural values to the host community, which in turn may even embrace it, consciously or unconsciously. For example, foreign languages need to be learnt by local residents so they could interact with visitors, who usually are unwilling to converse in the indigenous language. English, French, Spanish became widely used because of people movement and need and desire to interact with each other.

Sometimes, tourists proved to be disrespectful to religious customs, local residents, cultural norms, which increased even more the tensions between hosts and guests. In many cases this occurs when people, whether they are hosts or tourists, are not opened enough to changes or the tourism pressure is very high, due to an inefficient tourism management.

In some circumstances, even if the tourism impact is negative, local residents are still favourable to tourism development seeing tourism's overall benefits to the community, this phenomenon being called 'altruistic surplus' (Faulkner and Tideswell, 1996, cited by Hall and Page, 1999). As long as tourism continues

to generate economic benefits for the community, the presence of tourists in destination areas is usually accepted and welcomed by the majority of the host population, having a higher willingness to participate in an exchange with visitors (Wall and Mathieson, 2006; Chen and Chen, 2010), but when economic benefits are disappearing, the community loses its optimistic attitude and acceptance of tourism activities and it opposes tourism development.

Tourism generates other social problems related to an increase in crime (e.g. pick-pocketing, robbery, mugging, illegal business, murder), drugs, terrorism, prostitution, spread of disease (i.e. HIV/AIDS), human rights abuse and the exploitation of vulnerable groups (Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996; Swarbrooke, 1999; Hashimoto, 2002; McLaren 2003; Goeldner and Brent Ritchie, 2003; Archer et al. 2005; Wall and Mathieson, 2006), both residents and tourists being exposed to these problems.

Not only local communities could experience the spread impact of tourism, but also visitors, concept often ignored in the literature (Hashimoto, 2002; Mason, 2003). Visitors have the chance to discover more about culture, history, religion of different places, to enlarge their experiences and to respect diversity, to learn new things, languages, to be more opened to other traditions and lifestyles and accept other civilizations. Mason (2003) suggests that the tourism experience generates changes in the tourist's way of thinking and in their attitudes and as a result in behavioural changes. Sometimes, social conventions and constrains may be absent in some regions (i.e. Amsterdam), and tourists' moral behaviour can deteriorate during their holiday and even after they return home (Archer et al., 2005). Also, tourists behave in a more liberal manner during their vacation, less inhibited and more opened. They are not aware of local system of pricing and sometimes this weakness may be exploited by locals, who can practice a dual pricing system and bargaining may be required for the purchase of goods and services (Wall and Mathieson, 2006)

Besides tourism impact on local community and visitors or in other words hosts and guests, there is also an impact on the places of residence of visitors, as when visitors will return to their homes, they will raise awareness among relatives and friends about other lifestyles, elsewhere in the world.

The approach regarding social and cultural impact of tourism gradually improved by taking into consideration both aspects of the development, not only benefits but also costs and integrating new sustainability development paradigms and keeping up with the latest instruments of measurement and stressing urgent problems facing humanity (e.g. population growth, climate change, pandemics, discrimination, terrorist attacks).

3. Some empirical discussions regarding tourism intensity

The measurement of the social impact of tourism requires both exploring residents' perception applying surveys at local and regional level, but also more empirical research in the area. Over time, in the attempt to estimate the socio-economic impact of tourism, Doxey (1975) developed the Irridex model or Doxey's Irritation Index, indicating that host community will modify their attitudes, moving from euphoria to apathy and even aggregation during different tourism development cycles. Another debated theme in the area regards social carrying capacity (Watson, 1988; Clark, 1990; Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Saveriades, 2000), measuring the level at which tourism activity becomes a stress for the social environment.

Tourism intensity index (TI), also called carrying capacity, expresses the ratio of nights spent relative to the total permanent resident population of the area. In terms of tourism intensity, in 2009, the number of nights spent per 1,000 residents registered the highest values in countries where tourism demand is very high, compared to the population number (such as Cyprus islands and Malta, but also Austria) and where the length of stays are high (e.g. holidays in coastal or mountain areas) (see Table 1). In 2006, for Malta and Cyprus, tourism intensity was 16.7 thousands and 16.3 thousands respectively, while Austria registered the value 12.3 thousands. On the other hand, very low values were recorded in the new Member States and in countries where the length-stay is low (e.g., city breaks, business tourism). This ratio takes values less than 3.0 thousand in Belgium, Bulgaria, Slovakia, Hungary, Poland, Latvia, Romania and Lithuania. In countries with tradition in tourism, this ratio takes higher values i.e. Spain (7600), Italy (6200), France (4600).

Table 1. Tourism intensity dynamics in European countries

	Growth rate				Growth rate		
	2009	2009/2008	2009/2000		2009	2009/2008	2009/2000
Malta	16,690	-13.5	...	Portugal	4,175	-6.3	1.5
Cyprus	16,318	-10.4	-35.3	Germania	3,831	-2.7	5.5
Austria	12,308	-2.2	8.6	Czech Republic	3,502	-7.5	-18.6
Spain	7,606	-8.3	-11.6	Finland	3,486	-5.1	12.4
Italia	6,175	-1.5	3.7	Estonia	3,076	-10.4	...
Greece	5,863	0.2	2.8	Belgium	2,742	-2.4	-3.9
Nederland	5,127	-0.4	0.1	Bulgaria	2,008	-15.6	92.3
Sweden	5,120	1.0	14.0	Slovakia	1,894	-16.6	-2.3
Denmark	4,807	-6.1	1.8	Hungary	1,865	-6.2	-6.7
France	4,578	-2.7	-1.1	Poland	1,443	-2.9	13.2
Luxemburg	4,572	-9.1	-23.6	Latvia	1,125	-27.0	80.6
UK	4,286	4.3	-10.6	Romania	806	-16.3	0.1
Slovenia	4,210	-4.6	28.5	Lithuania	761	-21.1	90.3

Obs: ... - no available data

Source: data processed from <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>

Compared with the values recorded in 2000, Cyprus registered the highest decrease in the number of nights spent per resident, by 35.3%, followed by Luxembourg 23.6%, and Czech Republic 18.6%. Quite the opposite, other countries have experienced increases, i.e. Bulgaria by 92.3%, Lithuania 90.3%, Latvia 80.6%. In Romania, tourism intensity is one of the lowest in Europe, of 0.806 nights / resident, decreasing by 16.3% compared to 2008, but increasing by 0.1% compared to 2000.

Tourism intensity indicator represents a useful tool in order to assess the dimensions of the tourism activity in a region. Considering the relationship between tourism intensity (TI) and gender inequality index (GI) and rubbery rate (RR) for 2008 in EU countries, the correlation coefficients were low, -0.07 and -0.06, respectively. It seems that tourism does not generate increase criminality, and gender inequality, even if the correlation is of a poor-intensity. Just in Malta, where the TI is high, GI is also high, in rest of EU countries, there were no evidences supporting the idea that tourism generates GI (see Figure 1).

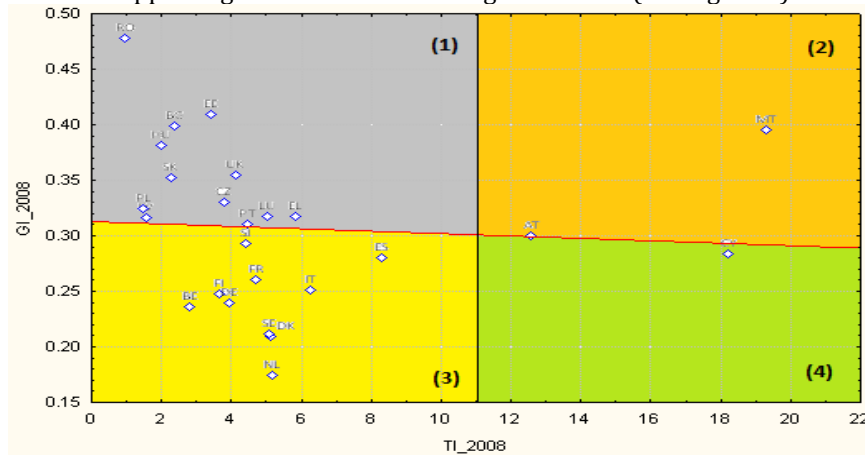


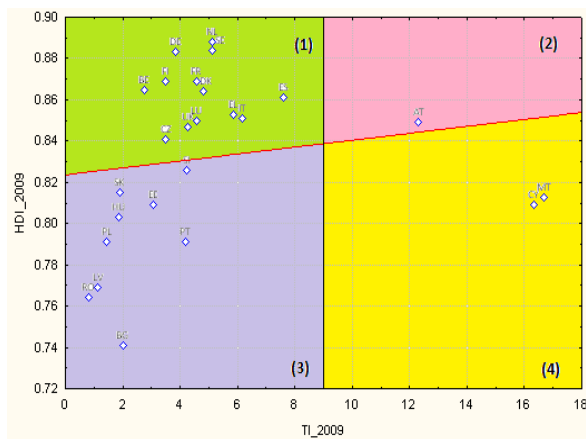
Figure 1. The relationship between TI and GI, year 2008

Note: AT - Austria, BE - Belgium, BG - Bulgaria, CY - Cyprus, CZ - Czech Republic, DK - Denmark, EE - Estonia, FI - Finland, FR - France, DE - Germany, EL - Greece, HU - Hungary, IE - Ireland, IT - Italy, LV - Latvia, LU - Luxembourg, MT -Malta, NL - Netherlands, PL - Poland, PT - Portugal, RO - Romania, SK - Slovakia, SI - Slovenia, ES - Spain, SE - Sweden, UK - United Kingdom. TI - Tourism intensity ('000), GI - Gender Inequality Index.

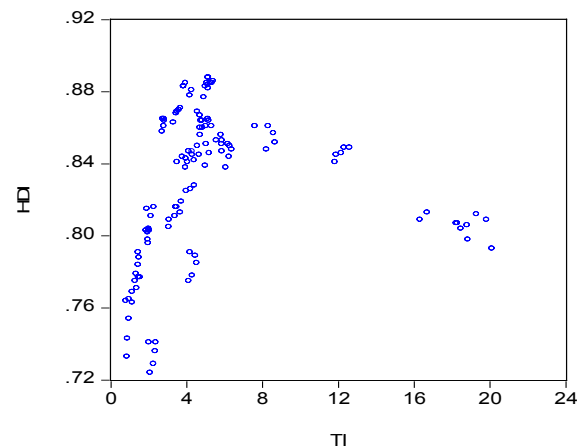
(1) - Countries with low-medium TI and medium-high GI; (2) - Countries with medium-high TI and medium-high GI; (3) - Countries with low-medium TI and low-medium GI; (4) - Countries with medium-high TI and low-medium GI.

Source: data processed by the authors using Eurostat and UNDP information

In 2009, tourism intensity registered low-medium values, and most EU countries also having relatively high values of Human Development Index (HDI) (see Figure 2.). Romania registers the lowest tourism intensity index, but the analysis should be carried out in more detail considering local impacts as we will see in future chapter.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2. Relationship between TI and HDI for EU countries

Note: AT - Austria, BE - Belgium, BG - Bulgaria, CY - Cyprus, CZ - Czech Republic, DK - Denmark, EE - Estonia, FI - Finland, FR - France, DE - Germany, EL - Greece, HU - Hungary, IE - Ireland, IT - Italy, LV - Latvia, LU - Luxembourg, MT -Malta, NL - Netherlands, PL - Poland, PT - Portugal, RO - Romania, SK - Slovakia, SI - Slovenia, ES - Spain, SE - Sweden, UK - United Kingdom. TI - Tourism intensity ('000), HDI - Human Development Index.

Image (a): (1) - Countries with low-medium TI and high HDI; (2) - Countries with medium-high TI and high HDI; (3) - Countries with low-medium TI and low-medium HDI; (4) - Countries with medium-high TI and low-medium HDI; year 2009 **Image (b):** Scatter-plot for TI and HDI, period of analysis 2005-2009.

Source: data processed by the authors using Eurostat and UNDP information

When considering the period 2005-2009, descriptive statistics for TI and HDI are displayed in Table 2. The correlation within EU between TI and HDI is positive, but low, but when considering the correlation coefficients for each country in the analysed period 2005-2009, the displayed values indicates high-positive correlation for Austria, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Latvia, Poland, Slovenia (see Table 3.).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics, TI & HDI, time period: 2005-2009

	TI	HDI		TI	HDI
Mean	5.373	0.829	Kurtosis	6.253	2.555
Median	4.286	0.843	Jarque-Bera	136.79	9.107
Maximum	20.10	0.888	Probability	0.000	0.011
Minimum	0.806	0.724	Sum	671.63	103.62
Std. Dev.	4.539	0.041	Sum Sq. Dev.	2555.15	0.21
Skewness	1.980	-0.623	Observations	125	125
<i>Covariance Analysis: Ordinary</i>					
Covariance		TI	HDI	Correlation	TI
	TI	20.44	0.0235	HDI	0.126
	HDI	0.0235	0.002		

Note: TI – Tourism intensity ('000), HDI – Human Development Index.

Source: data processed by the authors using Eurostat and UNDP information

Table 3. Covariance analysis, EU countries, 2005-2009 period

	Correlation	Covariance		Correlation	Covariance		Correlation	Covariance
AT	0.88***	0.0007	FR	-0.55**	-0.0001	NL	0.64**	0.0004
BE	0.56**	0.0001	DE	-0.70**	-0.0003	PL	0.91***	0.0004
BG	0.25*	0.0002	EL	0.86***	0.0016	PT	0.38*	0.0004
CY	-0.90***	-0.0065	HU	0.04	0.0000	RO	0.26*	0.0002
CZ	-0.12	0.0000	IT	0.59**	0.0003	SK	0.37*	0.0004
DK	0.44*	0.0001	LV	0.90***	0.0008	SI	0.91***	0.0014
EE	0.92***	0.0007	LU	0.54**	0.0009	ES	-0.42*	-0.0008
FI	0.96***	0.0003	MT	-0.37*	-0.0011	SE	0.73**	0.0001
						UK	-0.46*	-0.0002

Note: AT - Austria, BE - Belgium, BG - Bulgaria, CY - Cyprus, CZ - Czech Republic, DK - Denmark, EE - Estonia, FI - Finland, FR - France, DE - Germany, EL - Greece, HU - Hungary, IE - Ireland, IT - Italy, LV - Latvia, LU - Luxembourg, MT - Malta, NL - Netherlands, PL - Poland, PT - Portugal, RO - Romania, SK - Slovakia, SI - Slovenia, ES - Spain, SE - Sweden, UK - United Kingdom. Consider that: *** - strong intensity correlation; ** - medium intensity correlation, * - poor intensity correlation

Source: data processed by the authors using Eurostat and UNDP information

The data indicate that TI is not necessarily correlated to HDI, as most developed EU countries register medium-low values of TI in the analysed period. The impact of tourism is relatively higher in poor and developing countries, and this correlation is more strongly emphasized.

4. Inequalities in Romanian tourism: applying Kuznets curve and regional tourism development typology

In the second half of the last century, tourism has become one of the most powerful, yet controversial, socio-economic world forces (Sharpley and Telfer, 2008), idealistic approaches indicating tourism as an active agent of development or re-development generating multiple benefits to the destination. However, like any other phenomenon, tourism development might bring not only opportunities, but also problems related to insecurity, conflicts for analysts, planners, managers, policy makers, individuals and generating inequalities. Excessive development of mass tourism and multiple problems triggered have generated significant attention of specialists and practitioners about the negative effects of tourism related to environmental degradation, social and cultural framework, unequal distribution of financial benefits.

Starting from the literature, the authors have developed **Kuznets curve** as a hypothesized relationship between indicators tourism pressure and human development indicator. Applying Kuznets curve for the case of Romania indicates that, at regional level, overnights' inequalities increases over time, while Romanian economy was developing, and then, starting with 2008 the evolution of GINI coefficient estimated for night-stays is rather irregular (see Figure 3 – Image (b)). At county level, Kuznets inverted curve is even more irregular that at regional level (see Figure 3 – Image (a)). The representation shows that TI increases while the country is developing, HDI registering an increase, and then starting with 2009, after a certain attained value of HDI, TI begins to decrease, but in a superior pace (see Figure 3 – Image (c)).

Indices of regional tourism development typology: The analysis of regional tourism development typology implies a complex process identifying developed regions in progress, developed regions in decline; underdeveloped regions in progress; underdeveloped regions (Zaman and Goschin, 2005), using as index the ratio between the added value per tourist-day in hotel and restaurant sector at regional and national level respectively ($N_{j,t}$, $N_{n,t}$) and the number of overnight stays in accommodation units, and the growth rate of the

above mentioned indicators at regional and national level respectively (R_{cr}, R_{cn}).

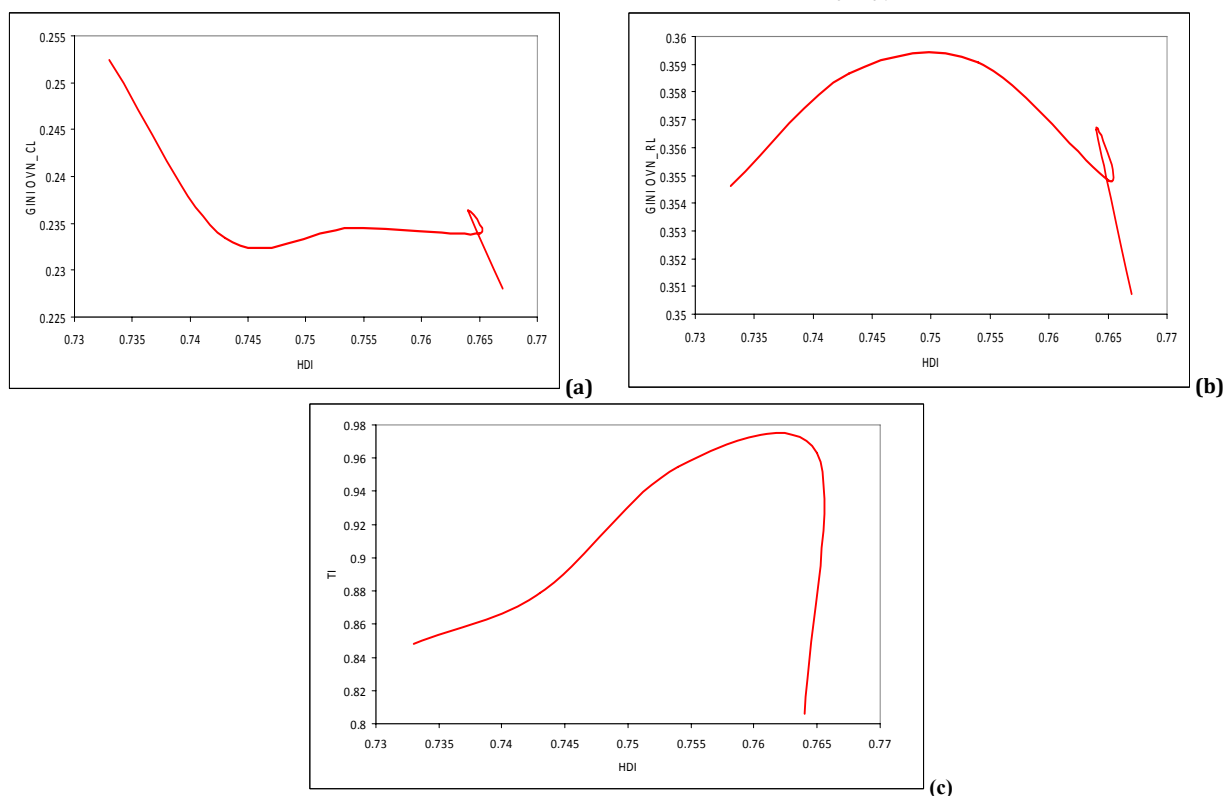


Figure 3. The 'Inverted-U' Kuznets Curve for Romania, Period 2005-2010

Note: *TI* – Tourism intensity ('000), *HDI* – Human Development Index, *GINI_OVN_CL* – GINI coefficient for overnight stays at county level, *GINI_OVN_RL* – GINI coefficient for overnight stays at regional level.

Image (a) – Kuznets curve for HDI and *GINI_OVN_CL*; **Image (b)** – Kuznets curve for HDI and *GINI_OVN_RL*; **Image (c)** – Distribution of *TI* in relation with HDI

Source: data processed by the authors using Eurostat and UNDP and Romanian NIS information

Considering the above mentioned information, the following regional tourism development typologies were observed during 2000 – 2008 period (see Table 4):

- ✓ Developed tourism regions in progress ($N_{j,t} > N_{n,t}$ and $R_{cr} > R_{cn}$) for 2000 – 2008 period: Bucharest – Ilfov region, North – East region.
- ✓ Developed tourism regions in decline ($N_{j,t} > N_{n,t}$ and $R_{cr} < R_{cn}$): no region.
- ✓ Underdeveloped tourism regions in progress ($N_{j,t} < N_{n,t}$ and $R_{cr} > R_{cn}$) for 2000 – 2008 period: Centre region;
- ✓ Underdeveloped tourism regions ($N_{j,t} < N_{n,t}$ and $R_{cr} < R_{cn}$) for 2000 -2008 period: North-West region; South East region; South Muntenia region; West region; South West region.

Table 4. Regional tourism development typology, 2000 – 2008 period

	Total	NW	C	NE	SE	S	BI	SW	W
2008	0.161	0.136	0.146	0.173	0.084	0.162	0.431	0.116	0.154
2007	0.130	0.117	0.123	0.170	0.064	0.134	0.310	0.100	0.125
2006	0.117	0.095	0.113	0.142	0.062	0.114	0.301	0.094	0.108
2005	0.104	0.083	0.108	0.129	0.053	0.103	0.286	0.081	0.090
2004	0.106	0.085	0.117	0.114	0.062	0.080	0.336	0.088	0.085
2003	0.095	0.092	0.103	0.093	0.048	0.074	0.325	0.083	0.086
2002	0.098	0.070	0.096	0.092	0.051	0.072	0.447	0.083	0.088
2001	0.095	0.084	0.095	0.117	0.052	0.079	0.392	0.080	0.069
2000	0.094	0.083	0.094	0.096	0.047	0.077	0.487	0.073	0.078
Growth rate	0.0829	0.069	0.0833	0.094	0.040	0.071	0.319	0.065	0.071
Average	0.1111	0.094	0.1108	0.125	0.058	0.099	0.368	0.089	0.098

Note: NW – North West region; C – Centre region; NE – North-East region; SE – South East region; S – South Muntenia region; BI – Bucharest Ilfov region; SW – South West region; W – West region

Source: data processed by the authors

Bucharest –Ilfov and North-East regions are developed tourism regions in progress. No surprises for the first region as the business tourism offers significant opportunities for the tourism economic agents. For the second region the results are due to shorter tourist stays, and increase in tourism expenditure, especially in tourism destinations in Suceava county. Centre region which has a rich heritage patrimony, including fortified churches in Transylvania included in UNESCO Patrimony, Sibiu - European Cultural Capital; Brasov city; Sighisoara medieval town; rural, spas, mountain destinations (Predeal, Covasna, Tusnad, Rasnov etc.) of major interest for foreign tourists, presents a real tourism development potential, but which requires a concentration of investments and promotional initiatives.

Regional growth typology offers various information for policy makers and practitioners aiming to sustain tourism development, prioritizing the regions with high perspectives of sustaining regional growth and directing investments especially in these regions. Tourism has become an option for sustainable development for regions, aiming as planning and management to generate socio-economic benefits on a wider society. Sustainability was seen as having considerable potential to become a tool to address problems related to negative impact of tourism and maintain its long-term viability (Liu, 2003). Economic dimensions (e.g. job creation, source of income), social (e.g. preservation of social identity, equitable distribution of resources, increased cultural identity, cultural exchanges) and environmental (e.g. sustainable use of renewable resources) of tourism allows for a sustainable development of regions (Gronau și Kaufmann, 2009).

The authors tried to underline few aspects related to the social and cultural impact of tourism, still remaining many aspects to cover. Each tourism destination has its own particularities and specific tourism effects will rise in specific situations.

5. Conclusions

Scale and complexity of the linkages between tourism and other economic sector, directly and indirectly, permanently or periodically, horizontal or vertical expressed, demonstrate important position of tourism in the economic mechanism structure and its active role in the development and modernization of the economy and society (Minciu, 2000). In the last decades, most papers does not limit in analyzing only the positive effects of tourism development (benefits), approaching also the negative ones (costs), economically undesirable (e.g. inflation, increase prices of real estate), social (e.g. social inequity, conflicts, increasing crime rate), cultural (e.g. kitsch, tradition loss), physical (overload carrying capacity, landscape deterioration, over-exploitation of tourism resources), etc. Quantitative and qualitative presentation of tourism costs and benefits is made using various indicators such as international tourism flows, international tourist receipts and expenditure, but also using complex indices such as tourism intensity analyzed in interconnection with other social indicators.

Tourism presents a dynamic and strong structure, highlighting the benefits and costs generated by this sector over regions with different level of economic development, expressed through GINI coefficient, Kuznets curve and indices of regional tourism development typology. The results of quantitative measures should be further used in order to develop reliable policies in tourism field. Tourism policy objectives and philosophies should integrate the economic, political, cultural, intellectual, environmental benefits for the people, destinations and countries in order to improve the quality of life (Edgell, 2006). It is therefore necessary assertion of tourism as a distinct sector of the economy, with real growth potential and able to stimulate development and to cope with different situation of risk and uncertainty, vulnerability, used by planners in order to support welfare, social and economic revival of countries and regions.

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