

## ZOLTÁN WILHELM

*PhD, habilitated Senior Lecturer*

*Head of Department for General and Applied Environmental Geography and  
Director of the Asia Centre at the University of Pécs, Faculty of Sciences, Institute  
of Geography*

*wilhelm@gamma.ttk.pte.hu*

---

# **Water as a Natural Resource, Cultural Heritage and Tourism Attraction in India**

## **Abstract**

*The present study aims to discuss a social heritage that is based on a commonly utilised natural resource. The natural resource, in this case, is the groundwater and the infrastructure is the groundwater exploiting facility. This type of infrastructure is much more than a simple well or water extracting facility: it is part of the social heritage. This heritage appears through those wonderful stepwells out of which, luckily millions can still be found in the dryer, northwestern parts of India. As everyone knows, India is outstandingly rich taking into consideration its tourism attractions. Its natural and manmade attractions are incomparable. These attractions, at the same time, are exploited with an extremely low efficiency. Compared to other countries outstanding in tourism or in other aspects of world economy, the country significantly lags behind in terms of the international inbound tourism. In addition to the presentation and a more effective marketing of the stepwells of India—as well as the broadening of the tourism supply—the visitors could come to know such a traditional, sustainable water management method which, with its breath-taking art implementation, draws attention to the importance of the planet Earth's ever decreasing natural resources.*

## **Key words**

*Sustainable water management; Cultural heritage; Tourism; Natural resources*

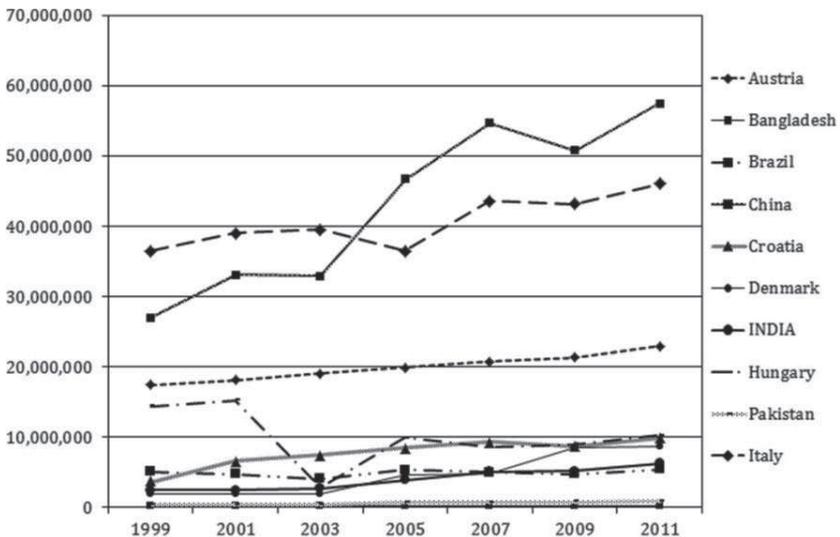
## Introduction

Although, *India (Figure 1)* is the *Earth's* second most populous country and the seventh largest by land area, it is not listed among the most well-known and most popular tourist destinations. *China* and *India*



**Figure 1 – Map of the 28 states and 7 union territories that form India**  
*Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)*

have very similar aptitudes, both from natural and cultural aspects; however, in 2011, nine times more visitors (57,581,000) arrived to *China* than to the *Land of Gandhi*. Compared to *Europe* and its most important touristic countries, *India* also shows a rather huge fallback. In 2011, *Austria* was visited by 3.5 times more, *Hungary* more than 1.5 times, but still, *Denmark*, which is not a so important touristic destination, was visited by more tourists than *India* (Figure 2).



**Figure 2 – Total number of foreign visitors in selected countries between 1999 and 2011** (In the case of Bangladesh, Denmark and Pakistan data are available only until 2010.)

Source: ATKEARNEY (2008); NATIONMASTER (2008); UNWTO (2012); Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)

Looking at the pure numbers of tourism statistics, a better overview can be obtained, if the number of international visitors are ranked per unit land area (e.g. number of people per km<sup>2</sup>), i.e. the specific number of visitors (Table 1).

This statistical parameter is an important index of nations of large land area, as these types of countries likely have heterogeneous physical environment or natural attractions. *India* belongs to this latter type

of countries: the physical environment here is characterised by a large-scale heterogeneity. In *India*, the spectacular peaks of the *Himalayas*, large alluvial plains as well as vast tropical sandy beaches can be found. Compared to large countries of similar environmental characters, *India* (0.84 visitor per km<sup>2</sup>) has more international visitors per a square kilometre than *Brazil* (0.48 visitor per km<sup>2</sup>), but has four times fewer than that of *China* (3.44 visitors per km<sup>2</sup>), and almost five times less than the *USA* (4.10 visitors per km<sup>2</sup>). If the number of visitors is projected to one local resident, then even worse touristic statistics can be found than in the case of the previous index, mainly compared to the similar European indices and values. However, in general these latter values are somewhat better than those of the neighbouring countries.

**Table 1 – Selected tourism related statistical data of India and other selected countries (2008)**

Source: ATKEARNEY (2008); CIA (2008)

Country	Area (km <sup>2</sup> ) (1 km <sup>2</sup> = 0.386 mi <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2008)	Population / International visitors		
		International visitors (2008)	„Visitor density” (visitor/km <sup>2</sup> )		
India	3,287,590	1,148,000,000	5,367,000	0.005	1.6
China	9,596,960	1,330,045,000	53,049,000	0.04	5.5
Hungary	93,030	9,931,000	8,814,000	0.89	94.7
France*	547,030	60,876,000	78,449,000	1.29	143.4
Croatia	56,542	44,92,000	9,415,000	2.1	166.5
Austria	83,870	8,206,000	21,935,000	2.7	261.5
Denmark	43,094	5,485,000	4,503,000	0.82	104.5
Italy	301,230	58,145,000	42,734,000	0.73	141.9
Brazil	8,511,965	19,1909,000	5,050,000	0.03	0.59
Bangladesh	144,000	153,547,000	467,000	0.003	3.2
Pakistan	803,940	167,762,000	823,000	0.005	1.02
USA	9,826,630	303,825,000	57,938,000	0.2	5.9

\*Without French Guyana, Guadeloupe, Martinique, and Reunion.

Nevertheless, *India* has internationally well-known „trade-marks”, such as the *Himalayas*, the *River Ganges* and the *Bengal tiger* (*Panthera*

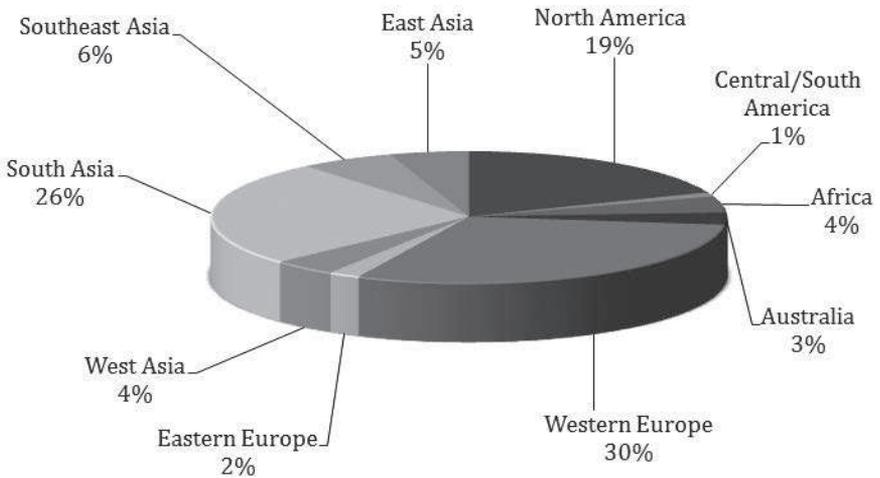
*tigris tigris*), or man-made edifices like the *Taj Mahal*. Despite the apparent secondary role of the Indian tourism, the touristic sector is one of the most important income sources of the country. In 2004, this sector provided the second largest income preceded by the gem export. It is also noteworthy that, compared to the number of visitors in 1947 (the year of independence), the number of foreign tourists has increased by 151-fold (*Table 2*).

**Table 2 – Changes of the number of foreign visitors in India**

Source: KHULLAR, D. R. (2006)

Region	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991
North America	3,628	33,268	62,027	107,410	153,502
Central/South Asia	63	1,833	3,441	11,157	11,819
Africa	268	17,701	24,716	45,278	62,127
Australia	247	2,903	13,931	26,993	30,535
Western Europe	8,088	18,552	104,081	331,326	514,541
Eastern Europe	170	5,482	7,912	27,855	46,073
West Asia	772	4,766	9,822	93,036	118,530
South Asia	1,711	18,027	27,999	539,846	590,621
Southeast Asia	1,146	12,431	31,788	65,179	78,966
East Asia	768	4,841	13,885	35,267	67,793
Stateless	38	-	1,393	863	3,001
<b>Total</b>	<b>16,829</b>	<b>139,804</b>	<b>300,995</b>	<b>1,279,210</b>	<b>1,677,508</b>
Region		1999	2000	2001	2002
North America		334,869	432,305	417,747	441,780
Central/South Asia		37,988	23,131	31,413	18,591
Africa		136,595	94,523	104,106	84,892
Australia		101,237	67,567	66,336	63,617
Western Europe		807,885	875,908	821,112	730,466
Eastern Europe		59,893	49,764	42,568	41,197
West Asia		110,806	95,580	99,051	93,341
South Asia		624,945	673,917	672,133	630,653
Southeast Asia		142,358	148,513	142,614	150,302
East Asia		125,108	147,674	130,809	116,053
Stateless		244	8,912	9,393	13,487
<b>Total</b>		<b>2,481,928</b>	<b>2,617,794</b>	<b>2,537,282</b>	<b>2,384,364</b>

Everything is true in *India*. Even its opposite is true. This statement is also valid for tourism. By analysing the latter statistics, certain factors can be found that shade the increasing trend of the latter numbers. If we analyse the visitors according to their country of origin, we find that the majority of international visitors come from the neighbouring countries (*Table 2* and *Figure 3*). Furthermore, the primary goal of the trip is family reunion and visiting relatives. However, due to the large number of foreign Indian Diasporas, from this latter aspect, countries like the *UK* are the major countries of origin. Half of the *Western European* visitors, i.e. 15% of the total number of foreign visitors come from the *UK*. Other 15% of all visitors come from the *USA*.



**Figure 3 – Percentage of international visitors according to their countries of origin in 2004**

Source: KHULLAR, D. R. (2006); Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)

Although, *India* has less than 0.5 per cent of the total number of visitors worldwide, several positive and promising trends in the Indian tourism have been observable since 2000. Obviously, in a country with more than 5,000 years of history, the primary destinations of foreign visitors are historic, architectural and religious attractions. *India* is abundant in attractions of these types. There are 29 sites in *India* that

are listed on the *UNESCO's World Heritage* list (2012); 34 more sites are expected to join this list in the very near future. However, over the past few years, touristic attractions and destinations have become more diverse in *India*. Today, there is plethora of trekking, mountain climbing, rock climbing, skiing, paragliding and caving, and ecotourism opportunities in the majority of *India*. At the same time, less active holidays are also available on the tropical beaches.

**Table 3 – Temporal trends of economic growth in India (%)**

SOURCES: PANAGARIYA, A. (2008);\* THE WORLD BANK (2012);\*\* INDIA IN BUSINESS (2012)

Year	Growth	Year	Gr.	Year	Gr.	Year	Gr.
<i>On 1993–94 prices</i>				<i>On 1999–2000 prices</i>			
1951–52	2.3	1969–70	6.5	1987–88	3.8	2000–01	4.4
1952–53	2.8	1970–71	5.0	1988–89	10.5	2001–02	5.8
1953–54	6.1	1971–72	1.0	1989–90	6.7	2002–03	3.8
1954–55	4.2	1972–73	-0.3	1990–91	5.6	2003–04	8.5
1955–56	2.6	1973–74	4.6	1991–92	1.3	2004–05	7.5
1956–57	5.7	1974–75	1.2	1992–93	5.1	2005–06	9.0
1957–58	-1.2	1975–76	9.0	1993–94	5.9	2006–07	9.2
1958–59	7.6	1976–77	1.2	1994–95	7.3	2007–08	9.8*
1959–60	2.2	1977–78	7.5	1995–96	7.3	2008–09	3.9*
1960–61	7.1	1978–79	5.5	1996–97	7.8	2009–10	8.5*
1961–62	3.1	1979–80	-5.2	1997–98	4.8	2010–11	10.5*
1962–63	2.1	1980–81	7.2	1998–99	6.5	2011–12	6.2**
1963–64	5.1	1981–82	6.0	1999–2000	6.1	2012–13	5.0**
1964–65	7.6	1982–83	3.1	2000–01	4.4		
1965–66	-3.7	1983–84	7.7	2001–02	5.8		
1966–67	1.0	1984–85	4.3	2002–03	4.0		
1967–68	8.1	1985–86	4.5	2003–04	8.5		
1968–69	2.6	1986–87	4.3	2004–05	6.9		

The extremely high economic development of the country (*Table 3*) has also generated a significant business and conference tourism. The Indian version of health tourism has also dramatically increased over the recent years. Private hospitals and health care centres with their expertise, promptness and prices attract a large crowd of foreign visitors. Physicians, who studied and trained in *Europe* or in the *USA*, pro-

vide state-of-the-art medical services at incredibly low costs. For instance, a bypass surgery costs a mere £500 in *India*, while patients pay ten times more for the same surgery in the *UK*. While hip replacement costs £6,600 in the *UK*, the same surgery is completed for only £860 in *India*.

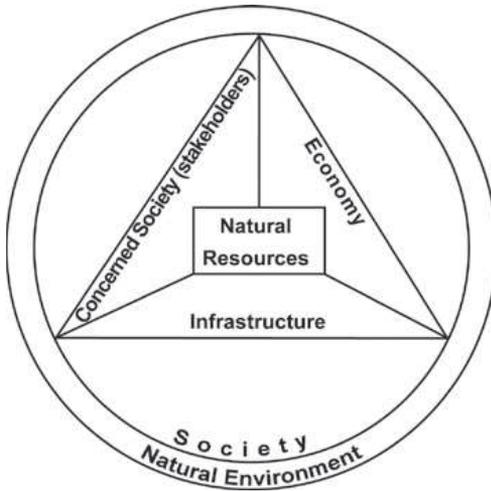
Today, about 20.5 million people are employed in tourism and tourism associated industries in *India*; this number equals 5.6 per cent of all employees nationwide. By 2015, an estimated 25 million directly and 40 million indirectly employed people will have worked in tourism. The efficiency of tourism is reflected appropriately in the following statistics: 1 million rupees each invested in the tourism creates 89 new employment opportunities; this number totals only 44.7 in agriculture and only 12.6 in the general industry (KHULLAR, D. R. 2006).

### **1. Man-made heritage, based on natural resources**

Today, following the pre-industrial and industrial phases, human development experiences a new socio-economic phase, commonly named as the post-industrial phase. During the post-industrial phase, the mutual interaction between the physical and social environment strengthens and approaches an ideal equilibrium, i.e. the socio-economical space, i.e. the geographical environment becomes total (TÓTH, J. 2001). In this context, in the socio-economic space, the increasingly broadening (in number as well) natural resources play special roles. For instance, history of crude oil extraction started in 1859, only 154 years ago; hence, it is an essential part of our everyday life without which we would be almost non-functional.

Consequently, natural resources are embedded in the socio-economic space. They are part of the physical environment, but without social demand they are non-interpretable. Natural resources are primarily important for our economic activities, but, obviously, they are essential and crucial for our everyday existence. Their exploitation usually requires a substantial infrastructure. Their utilisation demands the active involvement of the local residents and, in general,

the society. However, local communities are not prerequisites for their exploitation (*Figure 4*).



**Figure 4 – Functional location of natural resources in the socio–economic (geographical) space**

*Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2008)*

The present study aims to discuss a social heritage that is based on a commonly utilised natural resource. The natural resource in this case is the groundwater; the infrastructure is the groundwater exploiting facility whose type of infrastructure is much more than a simple well or water extracting facility; it is a part of the social heritage.

Water is the most characteristic substance on *Earth*. Undoubtedly, this is the most unique natural resource that is provided by our planet. Despite its unambiguous importance, water management is often erroneous. Water availability for human consumption continuously decreases. In addition, average water quality is worsening at the same time. Thus, maintaining appropriate aquifer qualities is a strategic and unavoidable project of the present and the near future.

In *India*, both water scarcity and excess water are characteristic and observable throughout the year. Thus, appropriate water man-

agement is extremely important. Consequently, local residents developed expertise in water harvesting, water drainage and various preventing techniques to mitigate economic and life loss due to excess water (WILHELM, Z. 2008a).

Water budget of *South Asia* primarily depends on the monsoon. With the exception of *Sri Lanka* and *the Maldives*, in the majority of *South Asia*, 70% to 90% of the total annual precipitation is received by the summer monsoonal rains. Besides the monsoonal rains, the northern part of the studied region receives a considerable amount of rainfall from the westerly cyclones, as well. Despite the well-known consistent behaviour and onset of the monsoon effect, monsoonal rains show a considerable spatial and temporal variability. Long-term temporal variability depends on the thoroughly studied *El Niño anomalies*. Out of the 22 documented draught-impacted years between 1871 and 2002, 11 years were affected by the *El Niño effect*. In all the seven most characteristic *El Niño*-affected years, between 1901 and 1990, annual total precipitation was below the long-term average (KUMAR, K. R. *et al.* 2003).

When and where available per capita, water is considered as a pronounced difference that is observed among the individual countries of the studied region. However, it is noteworthy that per capita consumption varies to a large degree among the individual countries. Nonetheless, each country has considerable liquidity water reserves (*Table 4*). Surface waters are primarily available over the period of monsoonal rains (June to September), however, their majority flows unutilised to the oceans. Water flow of Indian rivers varies considerably throughout the year. The ratio of water flow between dry and wet seasons in the *Brahmaputra river* is 1 to 4, in the *Ganges* 1 to 6, in the *Godavari* 1 to 10, and in the *Narmada* 1 to 12 (WILHELM, Z. 2001).

This high-degree dependence on the extremities of natural resources put water into the focal point of the economic life. No other region on *Earth* owns as many religious beliefs associated with water as *India* does. The importance of water was also noted in the cultic world of the previous residents of the area. In the life of the early civili-

sation along the *River Indus (Harappa Culture)* reservoirs, pools were tagged with sacral meaning, just like in the case of the *Large Spa of Mohenjodaro*. In the southern states of *India*, where the *Dravidic* language is widely used, early settlement structure has been maintained. These settlements include pools and spas surrounded by churches or church complexes in their downtown area (WILHELM, Z. 2008b).

**Table 4 – Annual per capita freshwater availability and consumption in South Asia, 2002 (m<sup>3</sup>) (1 m<sup>3</sup>~1000 litres)**

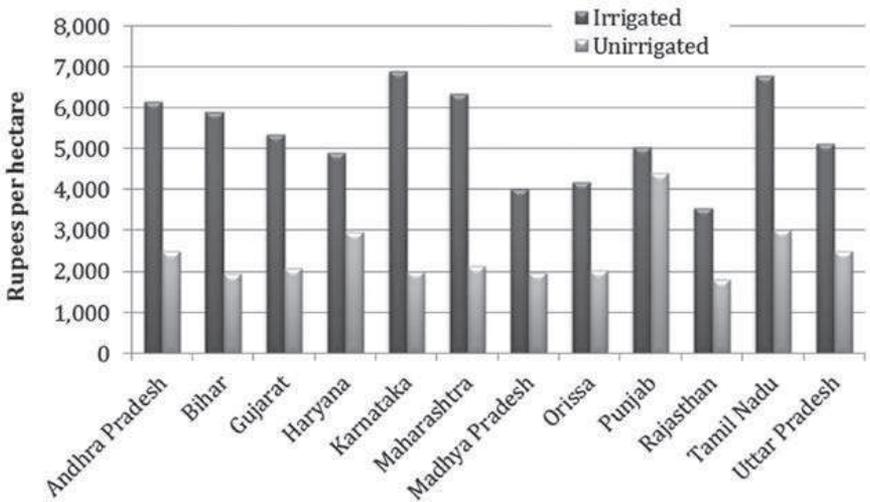
Source: MONIRUL QADER MIRZA, M. – AHMAD, Q. K. (2005)

Country	Availability	Consumption
India	2,158	612
Pakistan	3,250	1,269
Bangladesh	19,210	217
Nepal	7,623	154
Bhutan	120,405	13
Sri Lanka	2,642	573

The apparent religious demand of the collection and utilisation of available water is naturally based and is perceived as an economic force. The economic success of *India*—simultaneously with the so-called green revolution, population increase and the adaptation of the western lifestyles—has unambiguously reflected in increasing water consumption over the past decades. Household water use increased six times between 1990 and 2000, while industrial water use doubled over the same period (MADARI, D. M. 2007).

Increasing water demands are also present in agriculture. Agricultural employment and profitability is primarily determined by the presence or absence and utilisation efficiency of the available water (Figures 5 and 6). Excessive groundwater usage has dramatically decreased the level of groundwater tables at several locations in *India* (Figure 11), since—in despite of the traditions—water used for irrigation purposes is primarily obtained from wells. The only exceptions are the poorly financed small farms where water for irrigation is based on the traditional tank system (traditional Indian reservoirs are called

tanks). Due to the increasing water use and increasing impact on the environment, conventional water harvesting and utilisation techniques need to be revitalised. Consequently, studies on the revitalisation of such water management techniques have been undertaken. From another point of view, but with a similar goal like in *Europe*, studies of water management problems are as similarly vivid on the *Indian sub-continent* as on the *Old Continent*.

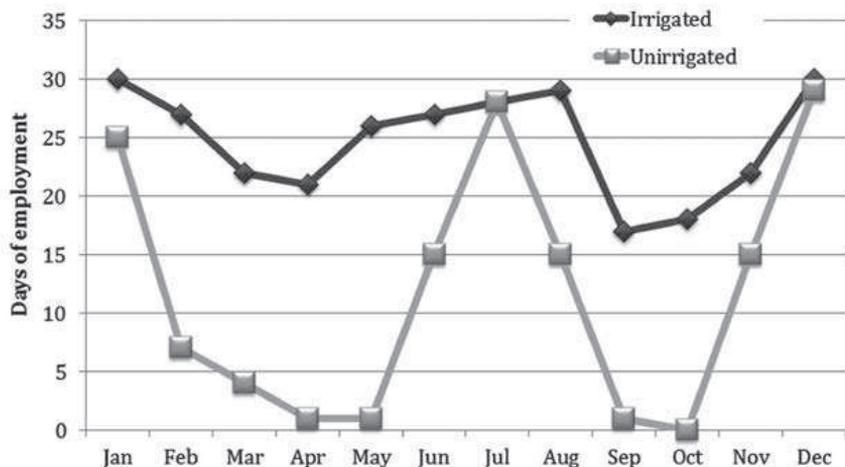


**Figure 5 – Differences in income\* between irrigation and dryland farming in selected states of India**

Source: BRISCOE, J. – MALIK, R. P. S. (2006); Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)

\* 100 Indian Rupees (INR) = 1.21 Pound Sterling (GBP) (23.04.2013)

Based on both literature and field works, the author documented and studied more than 50 conventional water harvesting and water managing methods in *India*. In this paper, he provides a relevant technique for the edited book on sustainability; this water harvesting technique is predominantly employed in the states of *Rajasthan* and *Gujarat* and is called *vav*, *vavdi*, *baoli*, *baori* and *bavavdi*. The word by word translation of the word in English is stepwell.



**Figure 6 – Average monthly number of days of employment of agricultural day-workers on irrigation and dryland farms**

Source: CHAMBERS, R. (1988); Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)

## 2. Stepwells (vav/vavdi/baoli/bavadi)

Conventional stepwells in *Gujarat* are called *vavs* or *vavdis*, while their name is *baoli* or *bavadi* in *Rajasthan* and in *Northern India*. Wells of this type were built by noblemen partly for strategic and partly for humanitarian reasons. They are non-religious edifices with water being available for everyone. Wells of this type were decorated with statues and inscriptions indicating their social and artistic relevance. Location of stepwells showed the purpose of their use. If the well was situated in a settlement or at its margin, it was a location of public meetings and gatherings. If the well was found between settlements along a trading route, it functioned as a rest area. Several stepwells are found along military and trading routes.

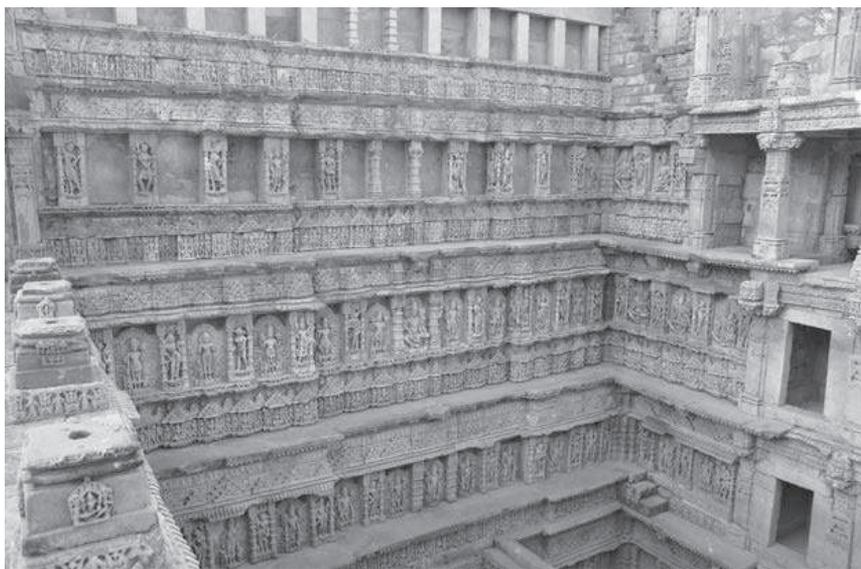
The city of *Patan* can be found 130 km (80.8 mi) northeast from the metropolis of *Gujarat* which is primarily visited by tourists due to its fantastic stepwell, the *Rani-ki-vav* (Figure 7–8). The settlement preserved the capital rank of an ancient *Hindu kingdom* for a long period of time. In 1024 A.D., however, it got under the Muslim occupation and lost its significance. This change of power structure, however, did not

inhibit the construction of the sensational stepwell which was first put in practice in 1050. Through time, the maintenance of the well was more and more neglected and it was completely silted as a consequence of which it was preserved in an excellent quality and was only excavated again in the 1980s.

The vav of the city of *Adalaj*, also in *Gujarat* (19 km/11.8 mi north from *Ahmedabad*), is much younger (*Figure 9*). It was first put into practice in 1499; its erector was *Queen Rudabai*. The well itself is 5 floors deep and, like the *Rani-ki-vav*, it is decorated with breath-taking carvings and art implementations, as well. The year 1499 was written with golden letters in the book of the stepwell architecture in *Gujarat*, since the *Dada-Hari-van* reached completion in *Ahmedabad* (*Figure 10*). About 200 m (0.22 mi) away, there is another stepwell, as well (the well of *Mata Bhavani*) which is now used as a Hindu temple.

The demolition of the spatial structure of the stepwells was considerably enhanced by the increasing agricultural activities. These public wells are extremely valuable in the eyes of the public. They create not only access to natural resources, but, at the same time, serve as public meeting points and locations for information exchange. Simultaneously, they are living museums of conventional water extracting facilities. Unfortunately, the groundwater table has been decreasing significantly since the beginning of large scale agricultural activities. Due to the decreasing volume of local aquifers, many of the stepwells lost their water entirely and were completely dried out. Consequently, they lost their original function. Today, communal water supply is widely available in *India*, thus, residents rather use taps than trek to the magnificent edifices of stepwells. Furthermore, nowadays several *baolis* simply function sadly as garbage depositories.

In *India*, where several-thousand-year old buildings are integral and common parts of the landscape, little attention is paid to the remaining, artistically valuable stepwells. Likely, an international collaboration is needed to direct the attention of local residents to these undeservedly neglected architectural values and to appropriately manage stepwells as their real cultural heritage. Many of the stepwells



**Figure 7 – One of the ornate lateral walls of the Rani-ki-vav of Patan**  
Photographed by WILHELM, Z. (2009)



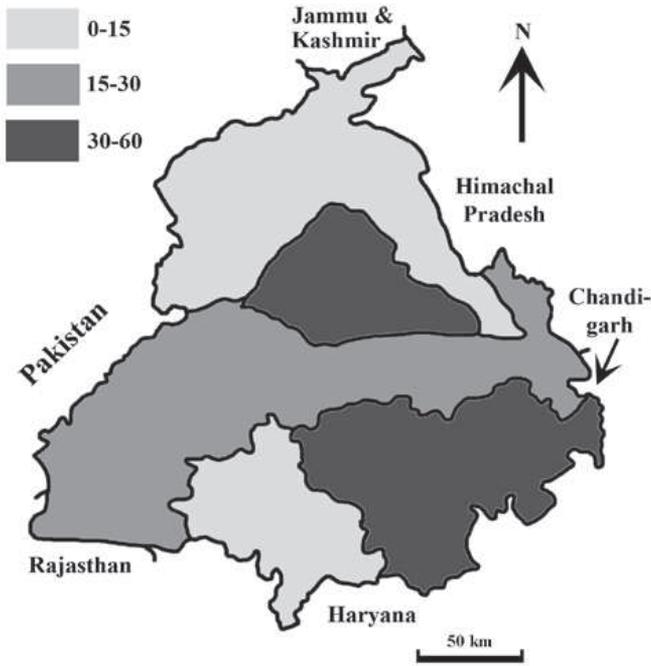
**Figure 8 – Some from the thousands of stone sculptures of the Rani-ki-vav**  
Photographed by WILHELM, Z. (2009)



*Figure 9 – Some details of the underground world of the Adalaj-vaav  
Photographed by WILHELM, Z. (2009)*



*Figure 10 – The sink building of stepwell of Dada-Hari-vaav in Ahmedabad  
Photographed by WILHELM, Z. (2009)*



**Figure 11 – Drop of groundwater table (%) in Punjab between 1966–1996**

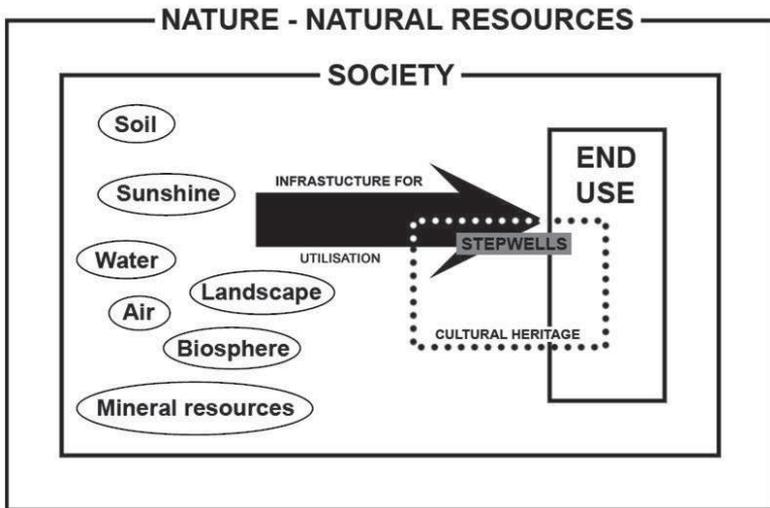
Source: KAUR, D. (2007); Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)

could potentially function as touristic attractions. By changing their fundamental role, stepwells could function just like many years earlier: they could generate income and could provide and supply life.

### 3. Summary

In this article, the author have shortly analysed the tourism positions of *India* on the international market from which he has pointed out that this is rather weak compared to its supply and opportunities. Moreover, he has demonstrated the peculiar role of water as a natural resource on the sub-continent. Since water takes place in the focus of the social-economic life in *India*, it has been extremely appreciated over history. As a result of this appreciation, these work-of-arts were born that of their functions were the provision of water to people. That

is how these wells (stepwells) have also become a part of cultural heritage (Figure 12.). The *Rani-ki-Vav* of *Patan* has been on the tentative list of the *UNESCO World Heritage* since 1998. When it obtains the title, it will certainly serve as an outstanding example for exhibiting a traditional and sustainable water management method and together with other stepwells, it can contribute to the broadening of the tourism supply in *India* by increasing the income in the tourism industry.



**Figure 12 – The possibilities of social–economic exploitation of water as a natural resource (the location of stepwells)**

*Edited by WILHELM, Z. (2013)*

## References

- BRISCOE, J. – MALIK, R. P. S. (2006). *India's Water Economy*. – Oxford University Press, World Bank, New Delhi, 79 p.
- CHAMBERS, R. (1988). *Managing Canal Irrigation*. – Cambridge University Press, 308 p.
- KAUR, D. (2007). *Impact of Agriculture on Water Tables: The Case of the Indian Punjab*. In: ROBINSON, P. J. – JONES, T. – WOO, M. (eds.) *Managing Water Resources in a Changing Physical and Social Environment*. – Societa Geografica Italiana, Rome, pp. 57–65.

- KHULLAR, D. R. (2006). *India – A Comprehensive Geography*. – Kalyani, New Delhi, p. 860.
- KUMAR, K. R. *et al.* (2003). *Climate Change in India: Observations and Model Projections*. In: SHUKLA, P. R. – SHARMA, S. K. – RAMANA, P. V. (eds.) *Climate Change and India*. – Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, New Delhi, p. 32.
- MADARI, D. M. (2007). *The Economics of Urban Water Supply*. – Kalpaz Publications, New Delhi, p. 67.
- MONIRUL QADER MIRZA, M. – AHMAD, Q. K. (2005). *Climate Change and Water Resources in South Asia*. – A.A. Balkema Publishers, Leiden, p. 5.
- PANAGARIYA, A. (2008). *India – The Emerging Giant*. – Oxford University Press, New York, p. 5.
- TÓTH, J. (2001). *A társadalomföldrajz alapjai*. In: TÓTH J. (eds.) *Általános társadalomföldrajz I.* – Dialóg Campus Kiadó, Budapest–Pécs, pp. 17–19.
- WILHELM, Z. (2001). *Bengál környezeti jellemzői a XX. század elején*. In: KOVÁCS J. – LÓCZY D. (eds.) *Vizek és az ember*. – PTE TTK FI, Pécs, pp. 283–302.
- WILHELM, Z. (2008a). *Fenntartható vízkezelési módok Indiában és ezek magyarországi hasznosíthatósága*. In: OROSZ Z. – FAZEKAS I. (eds.) *Települési környezet*. – Kossuth Egyetemi Kiadó, Debrecen, pp. 272–276.
- WILHELM, Z. (2008b). *Adatok az indiai urbanizáció folyamatának vizsgálatához*. – *Modern Geográfia*, 2008(2), pp. 1–57.

#### *Electronic sources*

- ATKEARNEY (2008). *Compendium of Tourism Statistics*. ATKearney [Online]. (*pdf*). Available at:  
<[http://www.atkearney.com/shared\\_res/pdf/Tourism\\_data\\_2005\\_S.pdf](http://www.atkearney.com/shared_res/pdf/Tourism_data_2005_S.pdf)>  
[Accessed 13 September 2008]
- CIA (2008). *The World Factbook*. CIA [Online]. Available at:  
<<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html>> [Accessed 13 September 2008]
- INDIA IN BUSINESS (2012). *Economic Snapshot: Recent Trends in Indian Economy*. Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India, Investment & Technology Promotion (ITP) Division [Online]. Central Statistics Office (CSO), Ministry of Statistics & Programme Implementation, Government of India. Available at:  
<[http://www.indiainbusiness.nic.in/economy/economic\\_snapshot.htm](http://www.indiainbusiness.nic.in/economy/economic_snapshot.htm)>  
[Accessed 11 April 2013]

- NATIONMASTER (2008). *Economy Statistics: Tourist arrivals by country*. Nation-Master.com [Online]. Newest data sourced. Available at: <[http://www.nationmaster.com/graph/eco\\_tou\\_arr-economy-tourist-arrivals&int=-1](http://www.nationmaster.com/graph/eco_tou_arr-economy-tourist-arrivals&int=-1)> [Accessed 16 May 2011]
- THE WORLD BANK (2012). *GDP growth (annual %)*. The World Bank [Online]. World Development Indicators. Available at: <<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG?page=1>> [Accessed 11 April 2013]
- UNESCO-WHC (2013). *India*. UNESCO World Heritage Convention [Online]. Available at: <<http://whc.unesco.org/en/statesparties/in>> [Accessed 16 April 2013]
- UNWTO (2012). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2012 Edition*. World Tourism Organization [Online]. (pdf) 16 p. Available at: <[http://dtx tq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/docpdf/unwtohighlights12enlr\\_1.pdf](http://dtx tq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/docpdf/unwtohighlights12enlr_1.pdf)> [Accessed 27 February 2013]