

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM INDUSTRY IN JAPANESE SOCIETY

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This report is based on my research in Kyoto, Japan for one and a half months. One of the aims of this research is to understand the development of the tourism industry in Japanese society. Although the aim of the research is not to make a comparison between Japan and other countries like Indonesia, the research is expected to assist understanding of how Japan has been successful in developing its tourism industry. From the Japanese experiences we can understand how Indonesian tourism could be developed, since both countries are seeking to develop cultural and eco-tourism.

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PREFACE

This book is based upon Dr. I Ketut Ardhana's research on the development of the tourism industry in Japan for one and a half months. His discussion on tourism does not only touch on the present situation but also covers the historical perspective. Japan has been very successful in developing its tourism industry apart from the rapid growth of the manufacturing industry. He attempts to compare the Japanese strategies in developing such industry with those of Southeast Asian countries, particularly Indonesia and Malaysia. Japan would appear to be ahead of the Southeast Asian countries in tourism development.

Indeed, this book contributes to our understanding of Japanese society in relation to its economic activities. This report is a first step in the understanding of the Asia Pacific region in which the Research Center for Regional Resources intends to develop in depth studies of the region. It is expected that this publication will bring us inspiration to study further on the Asia Pacific region.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I.1. The Issue

Japan is a leading industrial state in Asia, with China and Korea. Even though Japan is highly developed economically, this does not mean that the country does not pay any attention to the social and cultural aspects of Japanese traditions, which are strongly rooted in the past. Therefore, Japan has succeeded not only as an industrial state, but also as a state, which strongly defends its culture from the negative impacts of globalization processes e.g. “westernization”. On the one hand, the Japanese have maintained their traditional life and on the other hand have improved the people’s living standard through education and modernization. These two factors have determined the characteristics of the Japanese in modern times. This period when the region was opened up by the West particularly the Americans, saw the rapid development of the Japanese and their culture. It was followed by the Meiji restoration in the Seventeenth Century. Later, government policies on the tourism industry determined strongly the success of the Japanese in its development.

The succeeding history of the Japanese tourism industry can be understood when we highlight the dynamics of Japanese society, culture, politics and economy. Japanese society has succeeded in utilizing the old traditions as capital “assets” that can be “sold” to tourists. It is very important to understand and appreciate the old traditions, family system, architecture and historical buildings, such as museum. It is interesting also to look at the relationship between

the everyday life of the Japanese in regard to their ethos, tradition and the paradigm of tourism itself. In terms of the political aspect it is important to look at the strategies and policies that have been implemented by the Japanese Government. The Government has applied the policies through laws and regulations, which protect the old culture from foreign influences. It seems that both the government and the people in general have encouraged the existence of such strategies and policies.

It is no longer surprising to meet with Japanese tourists in all parts of the world although we do not know much about the increasing numbers who visit Europe, Australia, and Southeast Asia. It is important to understand the causal factors, especially the economic, political and social and cultural aspects, particularly to know why for example the Japanese are interested in visiting these regions. Martinez (1990: 110) notes that Japan has succeeded economically with the result that the Japanese afford to pay for overseas trips. This is of course due to Japan's industrial success. Another aspect of the development where there is a growing-trend to look inward into Japanese culture, to discover its worth and to reject outside influences.

In order to have a better understanding of tourism in Japan, the analysis of this research, therefore, will be focused on the historical background of Japanese society from the earlier period to modern times, particularly government policy related to the tourism industry. In addition, it is necessary to seek a model in order to differentiate between Japan and other societies in the region. Based on the above

explanations, I shall analyze which aspects have played dominant roles, and have had major impacts on the development of tourism industries, not only in Japan itself, but also in other neighboring countries in the region. In so doing, I shall address the pertinent questions: Why do foreign tourists travel to Japan? What are the cultural values that support the tourist industry? What kind of infrastructure is needed for the tourist industry? How far have the general policies of the Japanese Government developed this tourist industry? As a result, we can say that the Japanese strategies and policies, particularly on sustainable tourism, have distinctly different characteristics when compared with other countries, including those of Southeast Asia.

I. 2. Aims

The aims of this research are:

- 4 To study the Japanese historical dynamics in terms of the Japanese Government's strategies and policies on the development of its tourism industry.
- 5 To understand to what extent the tourism industry in Japan is successful.
- 6 To understand the policies of the Japanese Government in terms of trade, industrial economic, social cultural aspects of tourism and bilateral relationships with their neighboring countries.

I. 3. Research Method

The empirical research has been carried out at, the Kyoto University, and at the Japanese Tourist Center, Kyoto Station, Kyoto, for approximately one and a half months. I interviewed a number of Japanese scholars who are concerned with tourism industries.

I sought data from different sources, including writings on tourism industries by both Western and Japanese writers. In-depth interviews were conducted with many groups. Bernard's discussion of the use of unstructured and semi structured interviewing is very useful (1995, Chapter 10). Geertz's research methods, such as his conceptualization of fieldwork as 'thick description', are also very important for our research (Geertz, 1973).

In-depth interviews were conducted with government officers in Kyoto, who are in charge of the tourist industry in Japan, especially the Japan Tourist Center. In order to collect the data on tourism I started with collected sources on tourism. These include: D. P. Martinez, "Tourism and the Ama: The Search for A Real Japan", in Eyal Ben Ari, Brian Moeran and James Valentine, *Unwrapping Japan: Society and Culture in Anthropological Perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1990. In this article the author contributes to the understanding of the anthropological approach to tourism by exploring the reaction and attitudes of the 'native' when they perceive themselves to be the object of domestic tourism; Herman Hidayat, "Tourism in Japan: A Case Study in Kanshai, in *Ilmu dan Budaya*, XI, September 12, 1989. Hidayat describes how Japan is not only considered as industrial state, but also how Japan

has paid more attention to the industrial sector. Therefore most of the foreign tourists have not only visited cosmopolitan cities like Tokyo, but also other cultural cities, such as Kyoto, Nara, Hiroshima, and Osaka; John H. and Phyllis C. Martin, *Tokyo: A Cultural Guide to Japan's Capital City*. (Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Company, 1996). This article reports that although Tokyo today is a sprawling urban patchwork of towns and wards, each of the city's districts retains a unique charm and character; Paul Hunt, *Hiking in Japan: An Adventurer's Guide to the Mountain Trails*. Tokyo: Kodhansa International, 1988). This book illustrates how foreigners see the roads to the top of the mountains and the beautiful volcanoes. Natural or planted forests cover more than 60% of the whole area of Japan. There are 28 national parks, in which the geologists have protected animal and plant species; Richard Lloyd Parry, *Japan: History, Art, Temples, Gardens, Language, Travel, Hotels, Restaurants, Nightlife, Shopping* (Connecticut: The Globe Pequot Press, 1995). His description goes beyond the high-tech facades of modern Tokyo and Osaka. Japan has a remote rural hinterland with the earliest wooden buildings and a living, mature region as old as recorded history; Tadao Umesao. Harumi Befu and Ishimori Shuzo, *Japanese Civilization in the Modern World, IX: Tourism*. Osaka: National Museum of Ethnology, 1995. This book compares tourism in Japan and in other civilizations. The main points; discussed are to see Japan as a case to be comprehended in the context of a general theory of civilization rather than as an exceptional unique case. The book analyses why people travel, what cultural values support travel, what institutional infrastructure is needed for successful tourism and how does technological advancement change the forms of tourism?

CHAPTER II GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS

To understand the development of tourist industry in Japan, we cannot separate the geographical background and the earlier development of tourism in the country. The dynamics of earlier Japanese history is strongly related to the surrounding regions. Hunt (1988: 29), for example, mentions that based on the early history of the Middle East, the Japanese were called the East or *'Asu'*, meaning sunrise, while the people of the West were named *'Eleb'*, meaning sunset.

Hunt further explains that there is European influence on the Japanese world views in the word *Nippon* or *Nihon*. The word *Nippon* or *Nihon* means 'origin of the sun' in the Japanese language. In addition, the term 'land of the rising sun' is synonymous with Japan and is depicted on the national flag. From historical evidence we know that Marco Polo was the first Westerner who learned about Japan from Chinese sources. Later, he used the Southern Chinese name of *Jihpan* or *Jihpangu* in naming these remote islands (Hunt, 1988: 29).

II.1. Geographical Background

The Japan archipelago is situated in Northeastern Asia between the North Pacific and the Sea of Japan. The total area of Japan is around 377,873 square kilometers, which is nearly equivalent to Germany and Switzerland in Europe. The Japan archipelago consists of several thousands of islands. More than 4,000 are small islands that surround

the four big islands. The four big islands are Hokkaido (northern island) around 83,000 square kilometers, Honshu (main island) approximately 231,000 square kilometers, Shikoku (smallest island) about 19,000 square kilometers, and Kyushu (southern island) around 42,000 square kilometers. The Sea of Japan separates the Asian continent from Japan. Japan's closest neighbors are Korea and China.

Hunt (1988: 30) notes that the four large islands consist of ninety seven percent of its total area of 377,483 square kilometers. These areas are divided into eight districts and forty-seven prefectures. Apart from the four main islands, there are more than 3300 smaller islands, extending in chains south toward Taiwan and into the Pacific Ocean. The total length of the Japanese archipelago extends 3000 kilometers from northwest to southwest. Its coastline is about 28,600 kilometers in length and this is an important factor in developing tourism in the region. Seventy five percent of the land consists of mountainous and hilly terrain, mostly forested with natural or planted forests that cover more than sixty percent of the area of Japan (Hunt, 1988: 30). Japan's natural environment of extensive coastlines, mountains, hills and forests is an important factor in the development of the tourist industry in the future. It has the potential to contribute significantly to the economy even if on a lesser scale than that of the manufacturing sector

Although the Japanese Government sees that the tourist industry does not play a major role in its economic development in the past, the Japanese government pays serious attention to the environmental issues. The country has a large area of coastlines with various sceneries, especially towering mountains, which are often volcanic, and winding valleys. Again these natural assets have become the attractions for visitors to come to Japan, which is often considered as the land mysterious nature.

Apart from the natural beauty, the characteristic of the seasons in Japan is also significant in the development of tourist industry. Winter lasts from December to February, spring from March to May, summer from June to August, and autumn from September to November. In the winter the temperature drops below 0 degrees, but it is usually relatively dry and sunny. Spring, especially April, is the most beautiful season when the blossoming flowers always attract large numbers of tourists. When the Japanese summer begins in June with three to four weeks of rainy season, farmers plant rice. It becomes really hot and humid from July onward. At this time, many Japanese enjoy bathing in the sea and relaxing at cool resorts in mountainous areas. In summer there are many interesting festivals and other events that are held all over the country. The autumn brings freshness with light breezes and cool temperatures after the hot and humid summer. It is also the time that all the forests are dyed in glorious autumn colors. The national forests cover approximately 20% of the total area of Japan and around 30% of all its forests ("Forestry for the People: New Trends in Japanese Forestry Policy", 1998: 5).

Table 2.1.
Average Temperature & Precipitation in Major Cities:

	Winter (Jan)			Spring (Apr)			Summer (Jul)			Autumn (Oct)		
	T(F)	T(C)	P	T(F)	T(C)	P	T(F)	T(C)	P	T(F)	T(C)	P
Sapporo	26.4	-3.1	131.5	43.0	6.1	123.5	72.0	22.2	194.0	52.9	11.6	24.5
Sendai	38.5	3.6	44.5	50.0	10.0	178.5	75.7	24.3	248.5	60.0	15.5	88.0
Tokyo	45.7	7.6	66.5	58.1	14.5	151.5	81.9	27.7	373.5	65.8	18.8	142.5
Nagoya	43.0	6.1	56.5	56.8	13.8	150.0	82.4	28.0	74.5	66.0	18.9	135.0
Osaka	44.6	7.0	52.0	58.3	14.6	77.5	83.7	28.7	42.5	67.5	19.7	126.5
Fukuoka	45.9	7.7	71.0	59.2	15.1	82.5	82.8	28.2	149.5	67.5	19.7	86.5
Naha	64.2	17.9	87.0	69.3	20.7	394.0	82.4	28.0	367.5	79.2	26.2	95.0

Key: "T" stands for temperature in (F) degrees Fahrenheit and (C) degrees Celsius; "P" stands for precipitation in mm.

Japan is one of the most heavily forested countries in the world. Its well-planned forestry has been the norm since the Edo period. One result of the Second World War was the degradation of large tracts of forests. This in turn resulted in flooding and associated water problems. The inauguration of Natural Arbor Day in 1950 has been a key element in redressing these problems. This festival, which focuses on replanting barren land, has helped to stimulate the greening movement in Japan. Since 1950, more than 300,000 ha have been planted with trees each year totaling more than 10 million ha (Forestry for the People: New Trends in Japanese Forestry Policy, 1998: 4).

II.2. Ethnicity

Similar to other parts of the Asian regions, the Japanese islands were originally inhabited by different ethnic groups. It is assumed they were probably related to other ethnic groups living in the regions of Siberia. From the archeological point of view, especially with evidence from the Jomon era (8000-300 A.C.) these ethnic groups have been depicted as cave dwellers, hunters and gatherers. Most of them produced their own distinctive kinds of pottery

In the following period namely the Yayoi period, the Japanese spread from Kyushu to Honshu. Most of them were plains dwellers, bringing their knowledge of rice cultivation with them. However, there is still a debate in relation to the origin of the Japanese. Based on physical similarities, people often relate them to the Mongols of Central Asia, but on the basis of their languages and architectural styles others relate them to the people of the South Pacific region.

Furthermore, Hunt (1988:30) reports that the Japanese settled in the surrounding islands. They moved northward, which in turn pushed the indigenous people further to the north. This process can be compared with what happened to the Celts in Europe and Britain. They were also pushed northward at this same period by the Angles (Saxon). The Angles and Saxons were different ethnic groups who moved westward from Europe into Britain. As a result the Japanese drove the Ainu north across the Tsugaru Straits into the northern island of Hokkaido, their last refuge, in the twelfth century. The Ainu trace their culture from its roots in the 7th century up to the 19th century. They lived on Hokkaido long before the "Wajin", who were

the Japanese from Honshu immigrating to this region. Meanwhile, the Japanese did not become the dominant settlers in Hokkaido until the nineteenth century, when the government began introducing development programs.

Development of Hokkaido indeed had been under way during the Meiji era (1868-1912), when Japan worked to modernize its economy in general. Under government encouragement, many Japanese occupied Hokkaido and had to struggle against a harsh environment, which they yet preserved. Today, the results of their pioneering spirit and effort are plainly visible in their well-developed industrial sector, and their agriculture and fishery, which have turned Hokkaido into a new frontier for the better future development of Japan. Hokkaido is actually one of the nation's major sources of food. In the meantime, there remains a small population of 15,000 Ainu in Hokkaido. In reality, they are being rapidly assimilated into the Japanese population by intermarriage. This assimilation has reduced the remaining Ainu into a mere tourist attraction for the hordes of Japanese tourists from the south (Hunt, 30). It is also important to note that immigration and development in Hokkaido reached their peaks during World War I. According to the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, the Japanese population will reach its peak in 2006. The rate of population growth is about 600,000 people per year. In 2002 the population of Japan is about 125,000,000. It can be also noted that the majority of the population are Japanese and more than half of the non-Japanese population is Korean (*Japan-Guide.com.*, 2002: 1).

II.3. Historical Background

As mentioned above, the inhabitants of the Japanese islands were hunter-gatherers and fishers during the Jomon era (13000 BC to 300 BC). It is interesting to note that the Jomon era is named for the pottery produced during that period of time. Later, in the Yayoi era (300 BC to 300 AD), rice cultivation was imported into Japan, around 100 BC. The impact of the introduction of agriculture saw the emergence of a distinct class structure within Japan's society.

From the beginning of the Kofun era (300 - 710), a center of power developed in the fertile Kinai region and by 400 AD the country was united as Yamato Japan with its political center in and around the province of Yamato. The Emperor was ruler of Yamato Japan and resided in a capital that was moved frequently from one city to another. However, the Soga clan soon took over the actual political power, resulting in the degradation of the emperors' whereby they acted only as the symbol of the state and performed Shinto rituals.

Apart from Shinto, the Japanese also believe in Buddhism, which was introduced to Japan around 538 to 552 and was promoted by the ruling class. During the Nara period, the great Buddhist monasteries in Nara gained strong political influence, one of the reasons why the capital was moved first to Nagaoka (784) and then to Kyoto (794). Ancient Kyoto has been well known as the imperial capital of Japan for over a thousand years.

Even though Shinto and Buddhism may exist separately in terms of 'formal ecclesia and doctrine', the different features of both religions are blended together to meet the spiritual needs of the common

people (Jeremy and Robinson, 1989: 58). It can also be said that Japan's two most important religions are Buddhism and Shinto. Recently, religion has not played a significant role in the everyday lives of most Japanese. The average Japanese just follows the religious rituals, such as those for births, weddings and funerals. Other religions in Japan beside Shinto and Buddhism are Confucianism, Christianity and Islam (*Japan-Guide.com*, 2002: 1).

Chinese culture has also played a dominant role in Japanese society. Shotoku for instance, has played an important role in promoting Chinese ideas. Imitating the Chinese model, a new government and administrative system was established. History states that all land was bought by the state and redistributed equally among the farmers in a large land reform program. The aim was to introduce the new tax system that was also adopted from China. The first permanent Japanese capital was established in Nara, a city, which was copied from the Chinese capital. Large Buddhist monasteries were built in the new capital. In order to protect the position of the emperor and central government, the capital was moved to Nagaoka in 784, and finally to Heian (Kyoto) in 794 where it remained for over one thousand years. There was a lasting period of peace for about 350 years (811-1155); said to be the longest peace, which Japan has ever attained in her history.

There was a transition from Chinese to Japanese influence. For example, in the arts, native Japanese movements became increasingly popular. The Fujiwara family controlled the political scene of the Heian period over several centuries through intermarriages with the

imperial family and by occupying all the important political offices in Kyoto and the major provinces. The Fujiwara supremacy came to an end in 1068 and the Chinese influence continued to be relatively strong during the Kamakura period. The Shogun stayed in Kamakura without much power while his deputies were located in Kyoto and Western Japan. By 1259, the Mongols had conquered China and then turned their attention toward Japan. This resulted in the first Mongol invasion attempted in 1274 on the island of Kyushu, but the invaders were forced to pull back because of bad weather conditions.

The Portuguese arrived in Kyushu in 1542 and introduced firearms and Christianity. The Japanese, who were keen to trade with overseas nations mainly for military reasons, welcomed Christianity. In the middle of the 16th century, the most powerful warlords were competing for control over the whole country. Nobunaga established Kyoto and continued to eliminate his enemies. In the 15th and 16th centuries, the influence of the Ashikaga shoguns and the government in Kyoto declined to practically nothing. Later, Tokugawa Ieyasu played a significant role in Japan, which he wanted to control as absolute ruler. After defeating Hideyoshi, in 1603, Ieyasu was appointed Shogun by the Emperor who established his government in Edo, later called Tokyo. The Tokugawa shoguns succeeded in continuing to rule Japan for over 250 years. Ieyasu tried to promote foreign trade by establishing relations with the English and the Dutch. The later Tokugawa shogun was Iemitsu who forbade traveling abroad in 1633, as a part of the so-called national seclusion edicts. These caused the isolation of Japan by reducing contact with the outside world to very limited trade relations with China and the

Netherlands through the port of Nagasaki from 1639. The edicts also banned all foreign books. Umesao Tadao notes that travelers continued to visit the islands of the Japanese archipelago. He also mentions that the concentration of national energies, which had been increasingly directed outward during the second half of the sixteenth century, were finally redirected inwards (see Umesao Tadao, 1995: 25). Umesao Tadao goes on to describe the status of tourism in the Edo era:

The background of the popularization of tourism in Japan's Edo period lies in the significant role, played by the practice of visiting and worshipping at temples and shrines. It was because this system of visiting temples and shrines for worship was recognized that, even during the shogunate's rule over feudal domains, commoners were permitted to travel outside their native villages. This made possible the distinction in practice between the official purpose (tatemae) of travel to worship at shrines and temples and the real motive (honne) of taking a pleasure trip (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 6).

This means that tourism did not really develop at that time. In addition, Edo was not originally well known for its tourist destinations because visitors to the area were extremely rare until the end of the medieval period. However, the number of travelers increased after the great fire in 1657. Umesao Tadao notes that by the late eighteenth century tourism was “*becoming an industry with great potential of growth*” (1995: 13 and 34).

Later, toward the end of the 18th century external pressure started to be an increasingly important issue when the Russians first tried to establish trade contacts with Japan, but without success. Other European nations and the Americans followed them in the 19th century. It was eventually Commodore Perry in 1853 and again in 1854 that forced Tokugawa's rulers to open a limited number of ports for international trade. In that year, the Tokugawa government concluded treaties with several foreign countries, allowing their ships to call only at Hakodate, in southern Ezo, and at Shimoda, south of Tokyo (JNTO, 2002: 2). Trade remained very limited until the Meiji Restoration in 1868, which saw the end of the Tokugawa era. The Emperor Meiji was moved from Kyoto to Tokyo, which later became the new capital.

The Japanese like other Asian nations, were forced to sign unequal treaties with Western powers. The agreement between the Japanese and the Westerners granted the Westerners one-sided economic and legal advantages in Japan. In order to regain independence from the Europeans and Americans, Japan sought to establish itself as a respected nation in the world. Meiji Japan, for instance, was determined to close the Western powers economically and militarily. Drastic reforms were carried out in practically all areas.

The transformation of the agrarian economy began in the Tokugawa era when Japan developed as an industrial country. Many Japanese scholars were sent abroad to study Western science and languages, while foreign experts taught in Japan. In addition transportation and communication networks were established by means of large

government investments. In the following period the Japanese government also encouraged businesses and industries to prosper. In the Meiji Restoration period the Westerners introduced a new mode of civilization to Japan. Most important of the aspects of Japanese society influenced by the West were the relationship between religion and tourism. Umesao Tadao (1995: 18-19) notes there are three reasons for the tourist development. First, in the years 1871-1873 many parks were built in imitation of European cities. An example can be seen in the grounds of Sensoji.

A law was also issued in 1871 to protect the traditional objects stored at temples and shrines, important places of worship for followers of Buddhism and Shinto respectively. In 1873 the government sent many of these objects to the World Exhibition in Vienna. Nara, a tourist spot of the past, had been declining in popularity. In 1873 the exhibition was held in the grounds of Todaiji and in 1875 the first Nara Grand Exhibition was organized by Nara Exhibition Company, called *Nara Hakuran Kaisha*. Later in 1887 an amusement park called Hanayashiki, the Panorama Pavilion, and Ryoukaku, a twelve-story building commanding a fine view, was built in Asakusa Park. Also built was an American style of amusement park by the name of Lunar Park in 1910 (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 18-19). Emperor Meiji died in 1912. Under Taisho, a weak figure (1912-26), the political power in Japan shifted from the oligarchic clique (*Genro*) to the parliament and the democratic parties. When the First World War broke out, Japan joined the Allied powers

Japan attacked the Allied powers at Pearl Harbour and several other points throughout the Pacific in December 1941. Japan was able to expand her control over a large territory that extended to the border of India in the West and New Guinea in the South within the following six months. On July 27, 1945, the Allied powers requested Japan in the Potsdam Declaration to surrender unconditionally, or destruction would continue. However, the military refused to consider such terms, especially after US military forces dropped two atom bombs on Hiroshima (August 6, 1945) and Nagasaki (August 9, 1945). Finally, on August 14, the more moderate emperor Showa decided to surrender unconditionally. This caused the devastation of Japan. All across Japan with the exception of Kyoto, industries and transportation networks were destroyed.

The historical background for the development of the tourist industry in Japan can be seen at the development around 1964. Japan's modern tourist industry began to develop from around 1964. Prior to the year of 1964, overseas trips by the Japanese people were almost entirely limited to matters of diplomacy or official affairs and participation in overseas study programs, academic conferences or major sporting events namely the Olympic Games, which were held in the same year in country city (interview with Masamitsu Sofuku on October 21, 2002). It can be said that in 1964, all restrictions on overseas travel were lifted. At that time the Japan Tourist Association (JTA) was established as the central organization for promoting domestic tourism. The aim of this organization was to advance and popularize national travel and to promote tourist exchange. Its first overseas office was established in Taipei in

November 1984 (*Tourism in Japan 2002*; 56). In 1964, advancement in airplane design, the primary mode of transport available to Japanese overseas travelers, and the introduction of jet planes on a large number of flights, brought about a radical expansion of air traffic volume, as well as greater diversity in overseas destinations and shortened flight times. The year of the Smithsonian system and the floating yen were initiated in 1971. The strengthened yen reduced the cost of overseas travel for Japanese people. Between 1971 and 1973, the outbound travel market increased yearly at rates of 40% or more and its peak was in 1973 when the annual growth rate was 64.4%. The number of Japanese overseas travelers more than doubled over this three-year period. The economic downturn generated by the first oil crisis in October 1973 shocked the Japanese economy, which was heavily dependent on oil. This situation brought about a drop in the growth rate back to single digit levels in 1974 and 1975, the first such lull since the removal of travel restrictions. In response to this situation one of Japan's many strategies was a shift to high technology industries. This did not mean that Japan left the tourist industry although when the second oil crisis occurred in January 1979, the market experienced its first setback since liberalization in 1964. This situation was attributable to higher prices for tour packages brought about by the rising price of airfares. The tourist market recovered and saw an increase in the number of young people and women traveling overseas. By 1984 the total number of Japanese overseas travelers had grown by 10.1% from 1984 (*Tourism Japan 2000*: 19).

CHAPTER III

THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENT IN THE TOURIST INDUSTRY

Why is the tourist industry becoming important in modern Japan? This is a pertinent question, which will be discussed in this chapter. Tourism in Japan has initially tended to be viewed as simply a matter of sightseeing. The tourist industry has been given less priority by the Japanese government than other areas of economic activity. It is because this industry has not developed as other industries, like manufacturing industry, particularly in terms of improving the environment. Its level of development is a reflection of government policy and attitudes toward tourism as its potential role in preserving and improving the environment has only begun to be realized.

Although the Japanese economy had continued on a slow recovery since April 1999, economic fatigue set in once again from the beginning of 2001. The reasons for this economic setback include exports and capital investment, factors that typically drive recovery, remaining weak, thus tipping economic recovery towards a dependency on foreign demand. It is also important to see here that in 2001 Japanese actual gross national product declined 0.6% in comparison with the previous year. Meanwhile, individual consumption and the apartment sales market, and house rentals remained largely unchanged. Also overall exports declined for the first time in two years. Besides that, the 2001 unemployment rate was the highest in Japan's history at around 5.0%.

The result of lasting economic stagnation has been obscure prospects for both businesses and individuals. In other words the Japanese economy is experiencing slight deflation. In the future, the tourist industry is expected to become the growth industry of the twenty-first century. The tourist industry affects travel-related consumption, which extends to accommodation, transportation, meals, souvenir sales and various other expenditures. Travel involves the consumption of a wide variety of commodities and services provided by various industries such as the travel, transportation, hotel, food and beverage, amusement and gift industries. This sector embraces the agriculture, forestry and fisheries industry, as well as manufacturers of chemical, petroleum and coal products, food products, textiles, and ceramics. Travel-related consumption accordingly has an economic effect on purchase of raw materials for commodities and services, generating production in manufacturing and other industries and increasing household consumption on the part of employees in those industries. The ensuing creation of industries and employment in Japan has a significant economic aspect (*Tourism in Japan 2002*: 14-15). These reasons answer the question of why tourist industry is believed to be capable of bringing changes into the life of Japanese society. The tourism industry is expected to be an industrial leader for the 21st century as its promotion will bolster business in other countries and provide an impetus to the economy as a whole.

Another important feature is that tourism has partly changed public attitudes in recent years. This can be seen through the increasing emphasis on leisure and the enjoyment of life, such as sporting

events and exhibitions, for cultural and natural tour planners, seminars and conferences, for meeting planners, overseas contacts and others. The tourist industry will also contribute to regional development and international understanding. Recently the role of the tourist industry has been recognized as significant, since interacting with others and participating in various activities foster a sense of self-fulfillment and solidarity. Such interactions foster the formation of healthy communities in the broadest of senses (Keidanren, 2000: 1).

III.1. The Early Development of Tourist Industry in Japan

The government and the people of Japan were the main architects of successful modernization, but a number of fellow Asians, Europeans and Americans also made major contributions. In the final years of the Shogunate of Tokugawa the government began to employ Dutch, French and British officers to modernize its navy. Europeans were hired to teach in the official language schools, and more progressive domains, such as Satsuma appointed foreign engineers to assist in new industrial ventures. Indeed by 1868 over 200 Westerners had served in Japan. Some of the foreign residents made remarkable progress in the study of Japanese language and culture. Before the fall of the Shogunate, a German doctor, Philip Franz van Siebold, had begun to carry out serious research into Japanese flora and fauna and in 1860, the young British diplomats Ernest Saton and W. G. Aston, who both acquired an astounding command of language, pioneered the study of Japanese history and literature.

In the 1860s-1870s Western diplomats believed that the study of the Japanese tradition was essential for understanding a contemporary Japan and they founded the Asiatic Society in Yokohama. The contributions of the Western scholars to Japan have been crucial for future academic studies.

Tourism has not been the subject of rigorous study in the Japanese academic arena. There have been few studies dealing with tourism. One of the important reasons is due to the lack of empirical research on this topic. Tourism is considered to be a pleasure activity (see Umesao Tadao, 1995: 2). Umesao Tadao also notes that in Europe studies on tourism became very significant in the 1920s and the 1930s, while in Japan similar studies were only taken up in the 1950s.

Studies on tourism have spread widely on the wave of the tourism development boom within Japan. For instance, the Japanese Society of Tourism Studies was formed in 1960. The study of tourism in Japan was centered on research for practical uses, particularly for the purposes of tourism development and hotel management. The result was that tourism studies developed the image of being concerned mainly with practical research. This reality was made plainly obvious when the Japanese Society of Tourism Studies applied for recognition as a scholarly organization to the Social Council of Japan. After being reviewed, it was considered to be a non-scholarly organization because many of its members were from the tourism industry. This caused the establishment of The International Academy for the Study of Tourism in 1988 (Tadao Umesao, 1995: 2).

By treating Japan as a culture worthy of dedicated and disciplined study, they complemented Japan's own effort to raise its cultural and political prestige in the world outside (Bowring, 1993: 264). Tokyo was formerly called Edo. This city became the political capital of Japan in 1603 and was renamed Tokyo in 1868. In the Edo era, transportation facilities were not developed yet. The reason was that the Shogunate's policy prohibited the use of mobile transportation facilities. This enforced the people to travel on foot (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 5).

At the present time, Tokyo is a dynamically ultra-modern metropolis, but we can still find small pockets of traditional cultures that have resisted adaptation to the fast paced city life (*Guide Book to Japan*). Tokyo's main centers are Shinjuku, Shibuaya, Ikebukuro, and Ueno, Nihombashi, Shimbashi and the famous Ginza. Each center has its own special flavor and its enthusiastic adherents. However, the Japanese have not only promoted Tokyo, but also Kyoto, which is also the central city for tourism in Japan, developing during the Tang Dynasty in China (Daniel, 1980:537). Kyoto is undeniably the cultural and historic center of Japan, and Kyoto exquisitely balances its traditional heritage with modern sophistication. The city and its environs are home to many temples and shrines.

Japan's influence has encouraged the Southeast Asian countries not only in terms of political and economic aspects, but also in the development of the manufacturing industries in its relation to the tourist industry. Indonesia, for example, as the destination for

Japan's offshore manufacturing industry or as the consumption destination for Japan's manufacturing industry has tried to look at the extent to which Japan is considered to be friendly nation, can be trusted. Based on interviews with Indonesians, 88% of the informants said 'yes', while 7% answered 'no'. Another important question is to what extent Indonesians welcome Japanese investment? The answer can be illustrated as follows: 93% of the informants said 'yes' and 6% 'no' (see Bowring, 1993: 320).

Unlike other Asian countries, such as Indonesia and Thailand that depend strongly on the tourist industry in solving unemployment issues, Japan has relied more on the manufacturing industries in seeking an alternative for solving its unemployment problems. The upheaval in Japan's employment continues with the breakdown of the lifetime employment system, a rising unemployment rate and increasing numbers of part time and casual employees in the job market ("Just the Job", 2002: 24). Recent statistics by employment type are part time employees (14.1%), part time workers (6,5%), contracted employees (5%), temporary employees (5%), and others (1,6%).

III.2. The Role of The Government Policy

After the end of the Second World War, Japan was devastated. It is said that all the large cities (with the exception of Kyoto), the industries and the transportation networks were damaged. At that time parties once again proliferated political parties. Shortly after Japan's defeat, the Tourism Business Council was established as an advisory body to the Prime Minister to examine tourist promotion

policy. Ishizaka Taizo, then President of Nippon Life Insurance, who later became chairman of the 1970 Osaka International Exposition Association, chaired this Council. It was a time when people were giving and receiving advice on how best to limit Japan's trade deficit to the smallest amount possible and how to earn even one more dollar in foreign currency. Shearwater quoting from Ishizaka notes that in the year 1936, shortly before the war, 42,500 foreign tourists visited Japan and spent 107 million yen. This amount ranked as the fourth in export earnings after cotton goods, raw silk, and rayon. This figure shows the importance of the international tourist business as an invisible export. (Shearwater, 1995: 56). It is interesting to note that the Japan Spa Association was established in 1931. The aim was to carry out studies on spa-related issues, including popularizing spas in Japan, preserving natural spa resources and improving facilities for bathers (*Tourism in Japan 2002*: 59).

In relation to the development of accommodation like hotels and inns, Shearwater also describes how hotels and inns display signs indicating that they are government registered international hotels and inns. These signs are vestiges of the policies of the 1940s and 1950s, the era of the slogan of "international tourism" and indicate that these establishments have sinks, toilets, and baths in each room to meet the standards set by the Ministry of Transportation and are designated as being promoted by that Ministry (Shearwater, 1995: 57).

After Japan's defeat, political issues emerged, in particular the democratic reforms of the Allied occupation that increased the political stakes for parties and intensified competition. The period of 1945-1955 was a formative one in which many changes were absorbed. The Japan Restaurant Association was established in 1959. The aim was to improve restaurant facilities and services and to promote tourism through advertising designed to attract foreign tourists. The period from 1960 to about 1975, the tourist industry showed two interrelated principal developments. In 1969 for instance, the Japan Auto-camping Federation was established. The aim of this organization was to simplify and increase the convenience of auto-camping travel in Japan, as well as to enforce regulations on auto-camping (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 59*). By mid 1970 the LDP was still the biggest single party, but the combination of votes from the opposition came close to challenging its supremacy. From the 1970s, however, things began to move in a somewhat different direction (Bowring, 1993:302).

The 1960s as well as the 1950s was the time of rapid economic rehabilitation and Japan was content to maintain a low profile in foreign policy, leaving initiatives on most issues to the United States. At the start of the 1970s, economic success led inevitably to an estrangement between the United States and Japan. It was caused by economic tension between the two nations on the one hand and by the United States initiatives towards China in 1971 on the other hand. These two developments were called 'Nixon Shock'. Japan spoke of its need for a more diversified foreign policy, less tied to the United States, and this became even more crucial with the oil crisis in

the mid 1970s when the Japanese had to build up the goodwill of the Middle East at short notice. For most of the 1970s Japan was trying to remold its relationship with the people of the Chinese People's Democratic Republic. After signing a number of treaties dealing with shipping (1974), air transport (1974), trade (1975), and fisheries (1975), Japan, in August 1978, finally concluded a peace and friendship treaty with China and a new era of Sino-Japanese relations emerged which has since gone from strength to strength (Bowring, 1993: 318).

Umesao Tadao notes that in the late 1970s tourism and its related industries were forecast to become key industries in the twenty first century, the reason being the expected dramatic increase in the number of tourists. In particular, he further reports that, in light of the linkage between cultural production and cultural engineering, tourist-related industries have the potential of becoming a key industrial sector. Therefore, he concludes that to achieve this, requires the skillful integration of cultural production and cultural engineering. (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 4).

Since the 1970s Japan has begun to develop other industries like tourism. In the years between the 1960s and 1970s Japan's international tourism was geared basically to sightseeing; most of the tourists were middle-aged people who traveled in groups, accompanied by a tour guide. At the present time, however, Japanese tourists prefer to travel alone or in small groups of friends and relatives. Like Western tourists, the Japanese go abroad alone, using economy package tours that are much cheaper. They consider that

group travel as being lower in status than individual travel. Recently there has been a strong trend toward individuality in modern Japanese society. Such a feeling can be associated with the notion of elitism (Moeran, 1989: 48). Moeran also notes that Japanese tourists wish to experience not sights but action, to participate by risking their own skins' in sports and hobby activities. He notes that it is the younger generation which is altering the face of Japan's international travel and bringing the goals of the country's tourism more in line with those of the West (Moeran, 1989: 39).

For many years the development of the tourist industry in Japan was not a high priority because of Japan's success in the manufacturing sector. Even so, tourism achieved moderate success and only in recent decades has it become more important to the economy. Moeran notes that since the end of 1970s, in Japan itself four million Japanese have been going overseas annually. Only since 1975 have young people begun to travel abroad in large numbers. Tourism is principally a product of urbanization. He says that up to 1978 almost one in four tourists came from Tokyo. Most of them live in cities and want to get out of what they see as 'artificial' surroundings and go back to 'nature'. Moeran (1989) states that since 1979 Japanese tourists traveling abroad have begun to take part in the activities of local communities they visit, rather than merely seeing the sights of the destination countries. This trend is related to the fact that young people now form a very large percentage of Japanese's tourists abroad (Moeran, 1989: 43).

In the 1980s, for instance, there was an idea, especially prevalent among the young people that life is to be enjoyed. Therefore, tourism is one of the better ways to enjoy life, which in turn has serious impacts for the society and economy of Japan as a whole. Figures show that Japanese tourists have increased drastically, from five million in 1986 to 6.8 million in 1987 increasing to around 8 million in 1988. In 1986 the Tour Conducting Service Association of Japan was established to develop business in tours and tour conducting services, thereby enhancing the profits derived from tourism and enhancing the value of travel and services for travelers. A process to promote mutual understanding through a series of exchanges between young Chinese and Japanese was also established in 1987 (*Tourism in Japan* 2002: 58).

Besides the United States and West Germany, Japan is one of the three largest international tourist nations in the world. Moeran (1989: 39-40) notes that of those traveling abroad in the 1980s, a very large percentage are unmarried women and retired couples, while honeymooners occupy more than half the places available on international package tours. In 1987 the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport initiated its "Ten Million Program" which incorporated measures designed to double the number of Japanese traveling overseas. Japanese tourists, who had numbered 5 million in 1986, surpassed the 10-million target in 1990.

Table 3.1. shows the development of the tourist industry in comparison with other leisure industries between 1982 and 1989:

Table 3.1
The Leisure Market in the 1980s (Y Billion)

	1982	Percentage	1989	Percentage
Eating and Drinking out	11.934.000	30.0	16.010	25.2
Games	5.570	14.0	14.063	22.2
Hobbies and education	7.822	19.7	10.774	17.0
Tourism and travel	6.545	16.4	10.616	16.7
Gambling	5.335	13.4	7.726	12.2
Sports	2.597	6.5	4.265	6.7
Total	39.803	100	63.454	100

This description is to show how the government's efforts to develop the tourist industry in the 1980s.

The effect of the Gulf War was to decrease of the number of the Japanese traveling overseas in 1991. However, until 1997 price reductions and the ease of overseas travel increased the number of Japanese tourists to set records for six consecutive years. In the second half of 1997 this trend was reversed. Japan's economy recorded negative growth (0.7%) for the first time in 23 years as consumption demand fell and production dropped. In 1998 industry stagnated as it assimilated adjustments to inventory and capital investment but consumer demand and the public sector have gradually recovered to show better prospects for the future for the economy as a whole (*Tourism in Japan 2000*: 19).

III.3. The Role of the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport

It is important to look at how the tourist institutions in Japan are structured. Listed below are the government's ministerial portfolios (See: *Look Japan*, January 2001, Vol. 46, No. 538: 10).

- 4 Minister for Social Missions
- 5 Minister for Public Management, Home Affairs
- 6 Minister for Justice
- 7 Minister for Foreign Affairs
- 8 Minister for Finance
- 9 Minister for Education, Sports, Science and Technology
- 10 Minister for Health, Labor, Welfare
- 11 Minister for Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
- 12 Minister for Economy, Trade and Industry
- 13 Minister for Land Infrastructure and Transport
- 14 Minister for Environment

The central authority directly in charge of tourism is the Tourism Department, Policy Bureau, within the Ministry of Land Infrastructure and Transport. The early development within the government of an organ in charge of tourism dates back to 1930. That year saw the establishment of the Board of Tourist Industry by the Ministry of Transport (then the Ministry of Railways). The aim of the Board was to promote travel to Japan and to improve foreign visitor reception services and facilities. Unfortunately, this Board was closed down during the Second World War, but the government's tourist activities were resumed when the Ministry of Transport established the Tourist Division in 1946. Later, the Tourism

Department was placed under the Office of Secretariat to the Minister of Transport, and with the reorganization of this Ministry, completed in 1984 the Department became a part of the Transport Policy Bureau, the Ministry of Transport in 1991. After further reorganization on January 2001 the Ministry of Transport was merged with the Hokkaido Development Agency, National Land Agency and the Ministry of Construction to establish the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport. This has resulted in the establishment of a Tourism Department under the Policy Bureau of the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 53-54*).

Recently, under this institution the government as the central administrative agency has some policies to encourage the tourist industry in the region. Recently, this institution has been responsible for implementing central government policies on tourism in the region that are aimed at its further development. This organization also represents the nation in the community of international organizations and at international gatherings relating to tourism (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 54*). For Japan, in relation to the National Tourism Policy, international tourism is extremely important in the fostering of international understanding, strengthening of international goodwill and contributing to world peace. In addition, international tourism as a forum for international exchange must be mutual if it truly enhances understanding amongst people from different countries. This also spurred the greater number of overseas visitors visiting Japan. This has contributed positively to Japan's economy, improving the international balance of payments that

comes with domestic consumption, and the stabilization and expansion of regional industry and employment (*Tourism in Japan 2000*: 29). Therefore the issues relating to domestic tourism should involve other government agencies, that have interests in common, such as the Ministry of Environment, the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (*Tourism in Japan 2002*: 54).

The administration of tourism in Japan is divided into multiple government agencies. Keidanren (2000: 4) highlights that this vertically divided structure has been blamed for the lack of consistency in government policy. When the new Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, and Transport was established in January 2001, the Tourism Department of the new Ministry's Policy Bureau was given a coordination function. This means that tourism policies can be integrated across the various ministries. Later a special tourism advisor was appointed to report directly to the Prime Minister. This makes it possible for organizational coordination in each region. There is also an institution, which manages the traditional administrative areas not directly connected with these organizations, with the task of enhancing the overall attractiveness of the regions through the organic linking of tourism resources (Keidanren 2000; 4).

The number of Japanese tourists traveling overseas has tripled in the last 15 years, reaching 16,215,657 in 2001. However, Japan welcomed only 4,771,555 foreign tourists visitors at the same time with most of them still concentrated in Tokyo and Osaka. In the latter half of the 1990s tourist numbers declined. The C

for Regional Internationalization through Tourism Exchange was convened in the mid 1990s and launched its 'Welcome Plan 21' in April 1996. It was an initiative of the Japanese government, to be administered under the authority of the Ministry for Land, Agriculture and Transport. The aim is to double the number of overseas visitors to 7 million in the year 2005. Legislation was enacted in June 1997 to promote inbound international tourism by diversifying destinations in Japan. The purpose of the policy was to target areas for foreign tourist promotion emphasizing economy tourism, upgrading visitor reception capabilities, and campaigning, through JNTO to promote the target areas to overseas tourists. This JNTO policy is aimed at fostering foreigners' understanding of Japan, promoting mutual understanding at the community level between Japan and other countries and vitalization of regional economies through tourism revenues. In other words, this effort is also to encourage foreign tourists to go to provincial destinations for a better understanding of Japan. The policy requires close coordination between the government and private sectors. Additionally, this effort is trying to develop more demand for Japan-bound tourism by creating a new image of Japan as a chosen destination. (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 29-30*).

III. 4. Cultural Tourism

The tourist industry in Japan has been based on cultural and eco-tourism that have also developed in other Southeast Asian countries. In terms of cultural tourism, under the 1950 Law, cultural properties of great value, either tangible or intangible, have been specified by the central government for their protection and the government is,

itself, responsible for that protection. Under this Law, various cultural properties having great value are classified into: first, tangible cultural properties; second, intangible cultural properties; third, folk-cultural properties and fourth, historic sites, places of scenic beauty and/or natural monuments; fifth, important preservation districts for groups of historic buildings. In addition to this, Law No.1 1966 says:

...historically significant structures, relics, ancient tombs and other artifacts, which contributes as a whole to the preservation of tradition and culture of ancient capitals in perfect harmony with the surrounding natural environment, should be protected from destructions and retained as cultural heritage for the Japanese people (Tourism in Japan 2002: 51-52).

The preoccupation with and emphasis on 'culture' is to be seen in the travel brochures at cultural institutions such as palaces, universities, cathedrals, ruins, museums, opera houses and theaters (Moeran, 1989: 45-46). Moeran (1989) reports that the notion of 'culture' is indeed born in cities, and the Japanese people living in the cities make use of it in order to set themselves apart from, and above, those living in the countryside. Japanese tourists want to go overseas as tourists or sightseers who intend not just to experience foreign cultures but also to make a comparison with their own. Moeran also adds that the Japanese go abroad when they are starting to search for their "roots" and when their primary interests are national "tradition" and "history". For instance, they travel to the White House in America partly to see the monuments and partly to see how these

compare with Japanese museums like the Todaiji temple. The theme of shopping is very much part of the Japanese tourists' desire to compare life abroad with that of back home. This situation can lead to 'ethnic tourism'. The Japanese do not buy such products of ethnic tourism for themselves but to give to others as gifts. It is understood that Japan is famous for its 'souvenir culture' (*omiyage bunke*); the giving and receiving of presents is very important as part of everyday social relations and in the Japanese economy as a whole. In 1981 for instance total expenditure on gifts by the Japanese amounted to 6.5 million, of this amount \$ 3 billion was spent on seasonal and \$ 2 billion on personal gifts. The gift industry has increased 10-15% in turnover every year (Moeran, 1989: 44-45). Many tourists do not just go around Tokyo, but also to Kanshai districts such as Nara, Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe and Hiroshima. These places are considered as the centers for Japanese culture of the past and the present times (Hidayat, 1989: 935-936).

Japan has anticipated the impact of tourism on the region. Umesao Tadao (1995: 3), for example, has criticized the tourist industry for destroying culture by tourism pollution and tourism activities and for plundering cultural heritage sites. Tadao suggests that the systematization of the tourist industry focused on the basic of cultural production has stimulated the formation of a creative tourism industry, and encouraged the establishment of a "Tourism Industry Research Center".

III. 5. Eco-Tourism

It is widely understood that Japan has already developed eco-tourism over a long time, for example, Japan passed a National Parks Law in 1931. One source, Sutherland and Britton, report that this law was in fact, only enacted twenty years after a petition was presented by citizens requesting that the Grand Shrines and forests at Nikko be placed under government care. In the following period, two years after the establishment of National Parks Association of Japan, the members included leading figures of letters and business. Five years later, between 1934 and 1936 there were twelve areas designated as national parks. The first three parks - the Inland Sea, Unzen, and Kirishima - were followed almost immediately by five more: Aso, Nikko, the Japanese Alps and Hokkaido's Akan and Daisetsuzan. Two years later, Towada, Fuji-Hakone, Yoshino-Kumano, and Daisen were added. When the Second World II ended, little time was lost in improving facilities in existing parks and creating new ones. Six more have been added since 1955 and some have been enlarged. Recently, in Japan there were around 27 national parks totaling about two million hectares (7,600 square miles) - 5.4 % of the total land area. The comprehensive 1957 National Parks Law replaced the legislation of 1931. The new system provides for three kinds of parks: national parks (*kokuritsu koen*), quasi-national parks (*kokutei koen*), and a large number of lesser local nature reserves called prefecture nature parks (*todofukenritsu shizen koen*). Finally, the 1972 Environment Preservation Law transferred administration of all parks from the Ministry of Health and Welfare to the Nature Conservation Bureau of the Environment Agency.

The government's budget for national parks is not large. Money paid out is twofold: firstly, direct subsidies to the prefectures, which are responsible for the day-to-day running of all parks with the assistance of about ninety national park rangers; secondly, direct expenditure for the upkeep of state owned land. In 1979 these amounts were 819 million and 1.059 million yen respectively.

The total number of visitors to Japan's national parks is a problem of paramount importance. Before becoming internationally ubiquitous tourists, the Japanese assiduously visited famous places in their own land. They visit their national parks in droves. Over 316 million people "used" the national parks in 1977. This means that every man, woman, and child in Japan passed through Fuji-Hakone-Izu, at about eighty million.

Access to many of Japan's parks has become very easy. More and more highways enable fast and comfortable trips to mountains once only accessible on foot. One can even drive halfway up Mount Fuji, close to major park roads on summer weekends. More remote parks, such as Iriomote, remain "unspoiled", but the residents are in a quandary. They wish to preserve their semitropical paradise but they also want to increase visitors for the sake of the local economy (Sutherland and Britton, 1988: 6-8). The Japanese government can implement laws to try to curb pollution and the disfigurement and destruction of nature. They can impose fines on those who disregard the laws. But in the end it is the individual who must observe them, the hikers no less than the entrepreneurs and the industrialists (Sutherland and Britton, 1988). Moeran (1989) notes that one of the

major themes of Japanese environmental tourism is the appreciation of nature itself. Japan is rich in flora, fauna, landscapes, and changing seasons. Japanese tourists enjoy nature. Their love of nature is motivated by the economic growth and industrialization within Japan that has led to over-crowded living conditions and to pollution of the environment. It can be seen in the brochures where the contrast between the peace and tranquility of Japan's countryside is contrasted with and the hustle and bustle of city life. The Japanese tourists also want to make use of nature, sun and sea. We can see this in the increase in the number of young tourists going overseas and their interest in experience as opposed to mere 'sight-seeing'. Generally, we can say that Japanese tourists are in the process of shifting from environmental tourism to recreational tourism (Moeran, 1989: 42).

The government has enacted the Natural Parks Law, which aims to protect places of outstanding scenic beauty and to encourage people to utilize them, thus contributing to national health, recreation and culture. The government classifies the parks as follows: First, National Parks, administered by the Ministry of the Environment on the basis of opinions put forth by the Nature Conservation Council and regional government; Second, Quasi-National Parks, designated by the Ministry of the Environment following the examination of an application sent by the prefectural authorities concerned and on the basis of opinions presented by the Nature Conservation Council. Some of them are, designated by prefecture authorities; Third, Prefectural Natural Parks designated by prefectural governments in relation to their respective ordinances.

	Number of Parks	Aggregate Area (Ha)	Park Area's Share of Total Area (%)
National Parks	28	2,056,556	5.44
Quasi National Parks	55	1,343,255	3.55
Prefectural National Parks	308	1,961,392	5.19
Total	391	5,361,203	14.19

Source: (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 50*).

In addition, National and Quasi National Parks cover more ecological sites within the boundaries of these parks that are designated as Special Areas. It is also noted that 13.1% of National Parks and 4.9% of Quasi National Parks are administered as Special Protection Districts, aggregating to 336,794 ha in March 2002 (*Tourism in Japan 2002: 50*).

CHAPTER IV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURIST INDUSTRY

Tourism has played a major role in Japan, beside other industrial sectors. There are valid reasons why the government pays serious attention to this sector. Firstly, tourism has been identified as an industry of great growth potential especially for the twenty first century. Recent data shows that the economic spin-off benefits from tourism include production valued at approximately ¥ 48 trillion and about 4.1 million jobs. This sector has strong relations with other sectors such as travel and accommodation. Secondly, it is important also to look at the role of the tourist industry in regional revitalization. In this case the regions that are able to successfully present their unique features attract visitors. This in turn can be expected to provide residents with an incentive to develop their communities. Thirdly, tourism can play an important role in terms of social stability. This can be seen when family members travel together. The shared experiences lead to better communication with the family and improve mutual understanding. Fourthly is the significance of tourism in terms of promoting international understanding. In other words, tourism can be considered to be a passport for peace. In Japan tourism has a significant role to play as a medium for the promotion of peace diplomacy and as a means of promoting "internal internationalization" (Keidanren, 20001-2).

IV.1. The Infrastructure of Tourist Industry

In this section, we will see the importance of the infrastructure, such as highways and roads, which connect one tourist destination to another. The Japanese recognized that an integrated and well-developed transport infrastructure was very significant to the development of travel as recreation. From the historical evidences we know that at least in the early years of the seventeenth century Japan was under the power of the Tokugawa Bakufu. The government moved quickly to take control of overland communications establishing a post-horse system on a number of central arteries that were later known as the Five Highways or Gokaido, such as the Tokaido, Nakasendo, Oshu kaido, Koshu kaido, and Nikko kaido. In addition, the major arteries in this road network, which ran from Shirakawa in Fukushima to Osaka in the Kinai region, came under Bakufu control. In addition, we can see the development in the Meiji era in which the Japanese government was trying to strengthen both the domestic economy and the military. The main task of the railroads throughout Japan was to facilitate the transport of goods and soldiers. Umesao Tadao stresses that the railway network had to be adapted to accommodate tourists traveling to hot springs, temples, and shrines located in various parts of Japan. For instance, more people, as tourists, began to visit historic Kamakura (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 19 and 26).

Later, the development of the infrastructure was extended to Japan's airports including Narita Airport. Facilities that service the needs of foreign tourists in tourist-related locations include airports, seaports and railway stations. The creation of a postal website provides

integrated and comprehensive information in foreign languages about the travel costs, access routes, local tourist resources, and the services and charges of hotels and inns throughout Japan. What is important to see here is that tipping is not practiced in Japan and the tourist just needs to pay the total shown on a taxi or restaurant bill. In addition, it is important to know that 5% consumption tax is added to the cost of goods and services (*Guide Book To Japan*). Hotels and inns are strongly encouraged to improve their reception system and establish interpreter and guide services.

Innovations to improve the tourist information infrastructure in Japan include the distribution of information about key tourist resources through video screens and Internet terminals in airports, railway stations and other places where tourist information is exchanged both within Japan and overseas. Another effort is an enhancement strategy based on credit card holder magazines, women's magazines and other publications targeted toward young women, who are believed to be a major market for travel (Keidanren, 2000: 3-4).

IV.2. Museums and Other Important Places: Office Buildings, Theatres, Galleries, Shrines, Gardens and Crafts

IV.2.1. Museums

There are many museums in Japan. Idemitsu Art Museum created by the president of the Idemitsu Oil Company is an important museum, which contains the finest collection of Asian art in Japan. It has four large rooms, which provide

space for the display of the riches of the collections. The main room presents objects from the museum's fine collection of Chinese ceramics, which range in age from prehistoric times to the eighteenth century. Japanese ceramics are also well represented with examples of Imari, Kutani, Seto, Nabeshima and Kakiemon wares. Another important museum is the Parliamentary Museum, which was established in 1972 to commemorate the establishment of the Diet a century earlier. The adjacent main portion of the Parliament Museum offers a model of the Diet on the second floor, which is accompanied by an audio-visual slide presentation in Japanese and English detailing the development of parliamentary democracy in Japan and the vicissitudes democracy and the building faced through the years. Other main museums are the Communication Museum, the National Museum of Modern Art, the Science and technology Museum, Okura Museum, Suntory Museum of Art, Tokyo Central Museum of Art, Fukugawa Edo Folk Museum, Riccar Art Museum, Kurita Museum, Currency Museum, Edo-Tokyo Museum, Shitamachi Museum, National Museum of Western Art, National Science Museum, Tokyo Metropolitan Art Museum, Paper Museum, Waseda University Tsubouchi Memorial Theater Museum, Tokyo University Art Museum, Century Museum, Meiji University Archaeological Museum, Criminal Museum, Transportation Museum, Maritime Museum, Azabu Museum of Arts and Crafts, Tokyo Metropolitan Teien Art Museum, Hatakeyama Kinenkan Museum, Hara

Contemporary Art Museum, Ota Memorial Museum of Art, Nezu Art Museum, Tobacco and Salt Museum, and Shinjuku Historical Museum.

IV.2.2. Other Important Infrastructures: Buildings, Theatres, Galleries, Shrines and Gardens:

IV.2.2.1 Buildings

Japan has several unique buildings, which often attract tourists. First is the Marumoichi Building, a unique building that was completed just before the 1923 earthquake. It marked the beginning of a new era for Marunouchi, for this eight-story building was the largest one in Japan at the time and geometrically planned streets. Other interesting buildings are Kokusai Building, Nissei-Hibiya Building, Teishin Building, National Diet Building, Kasumigaseki Building, Shizuoka Press Building, Spiral Building, Shinjuku Center Building, Shinjuku Mitsui Building, Shinjuku Sumitomo Building, Shinjuku NS Building, and Kinokuniya Building.

IV.2.2.2. Theaters

Japan theaters are each unique. For instance, Takarazuka Theater is one of the most interesting theaters in Japan. In the period of the United States occupation of Japan after 1945, this theater served as

the Ernie Pyle Theater for American troops, named for the famed World War II correspondent who was killed on Iwo Jima. The Ernie Pyle served as a movie and stage theater for almost a decade, its operation giving an exceedingly large Japanese staff employment, which might not have been available elsewhere in those post war days. The theater was restored to civilian control as the American occupation ended. In addition to this, there is the National Theater. The theatre is built in the style of the Shosoin treasure of Nara, which is a 1300-year-old wooden storehouse. The theater has two auditoriums with a seating capacity for 630, and is meant for Bunraku, Kyogen and other traditional forms of Japanese dance, music and theater (John H and Marty, 70)

IV.2.2.3. Galleries

Another important group of places for tourism is the galleries. In Japan, we can observe an important gallery, the Bridgestone Art Gallery, housed on the second floor of the Bridgestone Building (named for the company) that houses the collection of Shojiro Ishibashi. While the art of the French impressionists as well as modern Japanese paintings intrigued Ishibashi, he did not neglect to collect some Greek and modern sculpture. Other galleries are the Crafts

Gallery, Watarium Gallery and the Meiji Memorial Picture Gallery (John H and Martin, 117).

IV.2.2.4. Shrines

Shrines are very attractive places for overseas tourists coming to Japan because they not only have their architectural uniqueness but also their ritual function. Sanno Hie Shrine is one of the most important Shrines in Japan. The Sanno Hie Shrine was created in the year 830 and was located on the outer reaches of the future city of Edo, but in 1478 Ota Dokan removed it to the castle grounds as protection for the stronghold. In 1607 Tokugawa Ieyasu moved it to the hill to the west of the castle to the land on which the Supreme Court now stands, thus offering protection to the castle from the southeast in the same manner in which the Kan ei-ji temple in Ueno protected the castle from the northeast. The shrine was destroyed in the firebombing of 1945 and was recreated in ferroconcrete in 1967. Other interesting shrines are Namiyoke Shinto Shrine, Atago Shrine, Meiji Shrine and the Togo Shrine.

IV.2.2.5. Gardens

Japan is famous for its beautiful gardens that have unique designs. For tourists interested in gardens, a visit to the Imperial Outer Garden is essential. This portion of Tokyo has seen many transformations in the 550 years since Ota Dokan in 1457 first built his fortified mansion and two other fortresses on the heights above today's garden. The tiny town that Ota Dokan began below his hillside fortress received its name Edo from its location. The present parkland was created when Tokugawa Iyeyasu moved his headquarters from Shizuoka to the site of Ota Dokan's castle in the 1590s. Other important gardens are Kiyosumi Garden, Koishikawa Korakuen Garden, Shiba Detached Palace Garden and Shinjuku Imperial Garden (John H and Martin).

IV.3. The Role of the Japan National Tourist Organization (JNTO) in Tourist Promotion

The Japan National Tourist Organization was established in 1964 and has 13 offices in key cities of the world. The aim of this organization is to extend international exchange through tourism. JNTO is involved in a broad range of activities promoting tourist traffic to Japan. This organization supports its goal by conducting tourism-related research and publishing Japanese travel literature (JNTO, 2002: 3).

Recently, Japan has been trying to promote tourism internationally in order to attract foreign tourists, which in turn brings in foreign currency and encourages the Japanese to travel abroad. The popular theme now is "Promotion of travel abroad to reduce the balance of trade. Downplay publicity for international tourism" (Shirahata, 1995: 57). In Kyoto itself we can see how the government promotes tourism through the slogan: "Living in diversity, learning to accept our differences".

Keidanren (2000: 3) notes that to attract tourists to Japan, it will be important to offer internationally competitive travel products. Tourist-related industries are strongly expected to work together to bring down costs and raise the quality of services. This can be seen in the range of accommodation and travel options that have been expanded to include low-cost travel products. For this matter, a low-cost accommodation product that the tourists can use when traveling alone is the bed and breakfast establishment, which is common in England. Keidanren also adds that official costs, namely usage charges at Narita, Kansai and other Japanese airports, the aviation fuel tax, and fixed asset tax, are considered to be conspicuously higher in Japan than at airports in other countries. The implication is that the government should consider reducing the cost burden on airport users.

In relation to tourist promotion, several regions like the Chubu region have an industrial heritage with cultural value as evidence of the history of industrial development. The government calls for the use of this heritage for tourist

activities, such as visiting these old industrial facilities and factory structures. These efforts are a strategy to attract tourists, particularly from Asia through international campaigns that focus on this heritage, as well as by arranging technical visits to companies with high technology facilities. In addition to this, the target market could include foreign business people and trainees (Keidanren, 2000: 3). Recently the Japanese government under the Japan National Tourist Organization (JNTO) stated that

Visits to other countries embodying particular languages and customs can unquestionably serve to expand the scope of the traveler's knowledge and experience and lead to fostering of more beneficent roles essentials to establishing a truly peaceful and cooperative international community. Towards this end, nations the world over are now keenly focusing their efforts on promoting overseas tourism opportunities.

In relation to this trend, the Japan National Tourist Organization proposes to develop meridian activities in order to be able to encourage foreign tourists to visit Japan and deepen their understanding of Japanese history, culture, customs and people. In addition, the JNTO is engaged in a diverse range of tourism promotions overseas and operates two Tourist Information Centers for overseas visitors from various countries around the globe. The organization's activities derive from the mutually bracing pillars of marketing and support for international conventions, promoting inbound tourism by region/purpose and expanding international

exchange through the provision of international tourism support programs (JNTO). The profile of JNTO's activities can be explained as follows: Firstly, the Division of Production of Promotional Materials; a comprehensive offering of promotional brochures and videos is produced to attract foreign tourists; Secondly, promotion through overseas media: enticing promotional programs, articles and exposes on Japan are presented through TV stations, newspapers and other overseas media; Thirdly tourist Information supplied via the internet: up-to-date information is made accessible through JNTO's homepage "Japan Travel Updates" on popular tourist attractions and events in Japan as well as a host of travel trips for the budget-minded.

The division of International Tourism Exchange Support Activities (Tourism Exchange Department) provides a few services: Firstly, developing tours to Japan and promoting tour sales; Secondly reception service for overseas visitors, Thirdly operating national-level Tourist Information Centers and Fourthly giving the National Examination for Guide-Interpreters.

The Division of Marketing and Support for International Conventions (Japan Convention Bureau) provides Collecting Donations and Granting Subsidies: JNTO is authorized to function as a Special Public Interest Promotional Corporation. Accordingly any donation made through JNTO can be recorded as a debit up to a certain prescribed amount. In its role of accepting donations and providing subsidies, JNTO helps international convention organizers to secure the needed financial resources for covering the expenses of

organizing conventions and similar events. The Planning & Research Division conducts market research on international tourism and makes statistics and related materials readily available. The main publications issued by the division are: Firstly, *Tourism in Japan*: this publication provides a comprehensive introduction of matters fundamental to Japan's tourism, such as its national policies and laws. JNTO's activities and current trends being seen in its bound and outbound tourism. Secondly, *International Tourism Statistics of Japan*: this publication provides data on international arrivals and departures as well as on trends in the international tourism balance of payments. Thirdly, *JNTO White Paper on International Tourism*: this publication provides comprehensive analyses and data on trends in Japan's international tourism in comparison with other countries. Finally, *Marketing Manual*: this publication is a practical guide and data source for marketing major Japan-bound travel markets. It provides current market information as well as marketing expertise.

There is also the Japan Tourist Association (JTA), which was established in 1964. The Association promotes the understanding of the importance of tourism and publishes periodicals and statistical documents on tourism in Japan. In addition, a nonprofit organization, called Japan Travel Bureau (JTB) Foundation conducts research and studies on tourism trends. Besides that, it provides a consulting service for regional tourism, publishes tourism periodicals and works to educate and train tourism personnel. There are also other important organizations, such as the Japan Guide Association, the Japan National Trust (established in 1968), the Japan Hotel Association, the Japan Ryokan Association, the Japan Tourist Hotel

Association, the Japan City Hotel Association (established in 1974), the Japan Minshuku Association, the Japan Association of Travel Agents (JATA, established in 1959), and the All Nippon Travel Agents Association (ANTA, established in 1966).

IV.4. The Role of the Tourist Information Center

In the Tourist Information Center we can find maps, brochures, and general information for all of Japan that can be obtained from English-speaking staff. The office is open weekdays from 9.00 am to 5 pm and on Saturday from 9.00 am to 7.00 pm and from 11.00 am to 7.00 pm on Sundays (Martin, 1996: 45).

The Tourist Information Center also operates the Japan Travel Phone, a nation wide service for those in need of Information and assistance in English. Many prefectures, cities and towns operate their own tourist offices. These are principally aimed at Japanese tourists, but usually have some English-language information as well. They go under various names – tourist information office (*kanko annai jo*) or tourist association (*kanko kyokai*). Almost all of them are located in or opposite the JR railway station.

Japan's inns and hotels are among its biggest attractions. The inns are well known as *ryokan*, and are coordinated under the *Japanese Ryokan Association*. It is noted that 80.000 *Ryokan* are available in main cities and at tourist resorts throughout the country. Of these, 1,976 including 1,377 government-registered ones are members of the *Japan Ryokan Association* (as at August 1, 1999). The accommodation is first rate in every respect (*Japan Ryokan Guide*:

Japanese Style Hotel 2000-2001, 1). The top Tokyo hotels, such as the Imperial and the Okura and Kyoto *ryukan* like the *Tawaraya*, are as luxurious as anywhere in the world, but even in the modest family-run inns, standards of service and courtesy are uniformly high.

The most important consideration after price is whether tourists want to stay in Western style or Japanese style accommodation. Even within categories there are distinctions, but a Japanese style establishment will generally be in a low-rise building (sometimes, but not always, made of wood), furnished with *tatami*, with shared Japanese bath. Guests take off their shoes, sleep on futon mattresses lie on the floor and eat Japanese food in their rooms. Western style means you do not remove your shoes on entering and sleep on a bed in a room, which usually has a private bathroom. Some Western style hotels have Japanese style rooms or wings and vice versa. Nobody who visits Japan should miss the chance to stay at least once in a Japanese style inn. The cheaper *minshuku* are not expensive.

International hotels range from one-offs like the Imperial and Okura in Tokyo, to nationwide networks like the Tokyu, Otani, Prince, ANA and Hilton. All have English speaking staffs, multiple restaurants and business facilities, many mountain and seaside locations, and are aimed at holidaymakers rather than business people, with hot springs, golf links and often a floor of Japanese style rooms. Prices generally begin at a minimum of Y 12.000 for a single, more in the big cities.

Business hotels are designed for convenience, compactness and low prices. The basic standard hotel room – lavatory, bath, shower, sink, bed, TV, cupboard – is concentrated into an ingeniously small space. They seldom have much character, but are usually in good positions, close to railway stations and downtown. Nationwide business hotels like the Tokyu Inn, Washington and Sunroute chains often compete with the city hotels in terms of restaurants and facilities, with smaller rooms and lower prices (from about ¥ 6000).

Pensions are hardly Western style at all, though they may think they are. They are found in ski and hot springs resort areas and provide Western style rooms (beds and carpets), home cooking and friendly family service. Many are purpose-built in an allegedly Alpine `chalet style`, interiors often being `cute`, and include meals (Parry: 1995, 46-47).

National Holidays in Japan:

New Year's Day	: 1 st January
Coming of Age Day	: 2 nd Monday of January
National Foundation Day	: 11 th February
Vernal Equinox Day	: 20 th or 21 st March
Greenery Day	: 29 th April
Constitution Memorial Day	: 3 rd May
Children's day	: 5 th May
Maritime Day	: 20 th July
Respect for the aged day	: 15 th September
Autumnal Equinox day	: 23 rd or 24 th September
Health Sports Day	: 2 nd Monday of October

Culture Day	: 3 rd November
Labor Thanksgiving Day	: 23 rd November
The Emperor's Birthday	: 23 rd December

When	Contents
October 15 (Tue) - October 16 (Wed)	<u>O-Kusunoki Festival</u>
October 16 (Wed)	<u>Imahie-jingu Shrine Annual Grand Festival</u>
October 10 (Thu) - October 14 (Mon)	<u>Autumn Evening Viewing of Torii-in Temple</u>
October 12 (Sat) - October 14 (Mon)	<u>Mibu Kyogen</u>
October 13 (Sun) - October 15 (Tue)	<u>Awata-jinja Grand Festival</u>
October 14 (Mon)	<u>Rokusonno-jinja Annual Festival</u>
October 14 (Mon) - October 16 (Wed)	<u>Hikigoe Amida-kyo-e</u>
October 16 (Wed) - October 17 (Thu)	<u>Himukai Daijingu Annual Festival</u>
October 19 (Sat)	<u>Funaoka Festival</u>
October 19 (Sat) - October 21 (Mon)	<u>Hatsuka Ebisu Festival</u>
October 20 (Sun)	<u>Eukuoji-jinja Annual Festival</u>
October 20 (Sun)	<u>Jonangu Shrine Procession</u>
October 20 (Sun)	<u>Twenty-five Bodhisattva Prayer Ritual</u>
October 22 (Tue)	<u>Kurama Fire Festival</u>
October 25 (Fri)	<u>Nukiho (Harvest) Festival</u>
October 28 (Mon)	<u>Taishogunhachi-jinja Annual Festival</u>
October 29 (Tue)	<u>Yoko Festival</u>
October 31 (Thu) - November 4 (Mon)	<u>Old Books Fair</u>

Keidanren (2000:4) notes that the integrated cooperation among industries, universities, research institutes, government departments and other organizations is very important to the promotion of tourism in Japan. These institutions, such as universities, are responsible for the development of human resources capable of contributing to the future development of tourism in Japan. Therefore, the efforts to train people to give them an understanding of the characteristics and ideals of tourism, including tourism marketing and management are necessary. Government and industry can also play a significant role particularly through the participation of nonprofit organizations and similar groups, involved in Japanese development. Efforts need to be made to strengthen cooperation and

coordination based on roles for central and regional government and tourism-related organizations. A non profit organization called the International Tourism Center of Japan (ITCJ), was established on April 10 1990. Its role is the enhancement of mutual understanding and international goodwill through the promotion of two-way tourist traffic to and from Japan. A year later the Overseas Tour Operators Association of Japan was established in August 1991 followed by the Center for the Promotion of Performing Folk Arts in 1992. In order to promote cooperation with the private sector and business organizations, the Tourist Industry Association of Japan (TIJ) was also established in 2001. The aim of this organization is establishing connections among professionals in all aspects of the tourist industry, compiling reports on various issues facing the tourism industry, setting forth recommendations based on the reports and conducting activities to identify better solutions to problems, planning the development of an independent and sound tourism industry, assisting in the realization of rich, meaningful lives for the general public and contributing to the Japanese economy (Tourism in Japan 2001: 56-59).

IV.5 The Increasing number of tourist visits

In recent years tourism has become a major industry with millions of tourists traveling to all corners of the world. Tourism has a long history in Japan stretching back to pre-modern days. Shirahata Yozaburo describes a time when Japan sought to rebuild its economy by using tourist sources. This was just after the Second World War when Japan was a defeated nation. At that time when Japan had hardly any products that it could be exported or sold abroad, the

slogan "Establish a Nation by Tourism" came into use (Shirahata Yozaburo, 1995: 51). Entering the twenty-first century the Japanese government, at both the central and regional levels encourage working toward the goal of universal tourism. This means that tourism is understood as an activity that everyone can enjoy by developing truly barrier-free communities. Some improvements need to be made to achieve this, such as the provision of more escalators and the increasing use of pictorial signs to promote ease of access to facilities. It needs also to develop travel products for the elderly people and to offer options to suit their interests and capabilities. The policy of the government is also to avoid destruction of the natural environment and the creation of commercially oriented resorts, similar to tourism in some parts of Southeast Asian countries. Therefore the government focuses on the preservation of the natural environment and historical heritages, called "sustainable tourism". The policy of sustainable tourism in Japan is "green tourism" that is based strongly on agriculture, forestry and fisheries. That is why the government needs to review all the regulations that affect "green tourism". In addition, the government needs to pay serious attention to improving the environment for tourism promotion, such as strengthening systems for reception and distribution of tourist-related information, developing wide area, multi-agency cooperation systems, and creating a social environment conducive to leisure (Keidanren, 2001: 3-4).

It is well-known that one of the major developments of the late twenty century has been the enormous increase in the movement of people on a world wide scale. Umesao Tadao (1995: 1) notes that

according to one set of statistics, the number of people who traveled abroad in 1950 was a mere twenty-five million, whereas in 1990 that figure was 440 million. This is an eighteen-fold increase in a span of forty years. The World Tourism Organization noted that nine hundred million people would travel to foreign countries in 2000. Of this number more than 80% are expected to be tourists.

In Japan itself it was also noted that in 1988, more than 2 million foreign tourists visited Japan. Here, over ten million people traveled abroad in 1990 (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 25). When foreign travel for tourist purposes was liberalized in 1964, travelers going abroad numbered only 128,000 annually. In twenty-six years there has been a remarkable eighty-three-fold increase in tourists traveling overseas from Japan. It was predicted also that at the end of the twentieth century there would be close to twenty million Japanese going overseas yearly. This explosive mobility phenomenon on a global scale in the latter half of the twentieth century signifies the establishment of a system of civilization throughout the world that makes travel and tourist industry possible (Umesao Tadao, 1995: 1).

Table 4.1.
Visitor Arrivals, Japanese Overseas Travelers, International Travel
Receipts and Payments by IMF Formula 1964-2001:

Year	Visitor Arrivals	Change	Japanese Overseas Travelers	Change
1964	352,832	15.5%	127,749	27.7%
1965	366,649	3.9%	158,827	24.3%
1966	432,937	18.1%	212,409	33.7%
1967	476,771	10.1%	267,538	26.0%
1968	519,004	8.9%	343,542	28.4%
1969	608,744	17.3%	492,880	43.5%
1970	854,419	40.4%	663,467	34.6%
1971	660,715	22.7%	961,135	44.9%
1972	723,744	9.5%	1,392,045	44.8%
1973	784,691	8.4%	2,288,966	64.4%
1974	764,246	2.6%	2,335,530	2.0%
1975	811,672	6.2%	2,466,326	5.6%
1976	914,772	12.7%	2,852,584	15.7%
1977	1,028,140	12.4%	3,151,431	10.5%
1978	1,038,875	1.0%	3,525,110	11.9%
1979	1,112,606	7.1%	4,038,296	14.6%
1980	1,316,632	18.3%	3,909,333	3.2%
1981	1,583,043	20.2%	4,006,388	2.5%
1982	1,793,164	13.3%	4,086,138	2.0%
1983	1,968,461	9.8%	4,232,246	3.6%
1984	2,110,346	7.2%	4,658,833	10.1%
1985	2,327,047	10.3%	4,948,366	6.2%
1986	2,061,526	11.4%	5,516,193	11.5%
1987	2,154,864	4.5%	6,829,338	23.8%
1988	2,355,412	9.3%	8,426,867	23.4%
1989	2,835,064	20.4%	8,662,752	14.7%
1990	3,235,860	14.1%	10,997,431	13.8%
1991	3,532,651	9.2%	10,633,777	3.3%
1992	3,581,540	1.4%	11,790,699	10.9%
1993	3,410,447	4.8%	11,933,620	1.2%
1994	3,468,055	1.7%	13,578,934	13.8%
1995	3,345,274	3.5%	15,298,125	12.7%
1996	3,837,113	14.7%	16,694,769	9.1%
1997	4,218,208	9.9%	16,802,750	0.6%

Year	Visitor Arrivals	Change	Japanese Overseas Travelers	Change
1998	4,106,057	2.7%	15,806,218	5.9%
1999	4,437,863	8.1%	16,357,572	3.5%
2000	4,757,146	7.2%	17,818,590	8.9%
2001	4,771,555	0.3%	16,215,657	9.0%

(Source: Japan National Tourism Organization)

Table 4.2
Number of persons traveling overseas for
Tourism and Business, Japan. 2001

Nationality	Tourist (in 2001)	Business (in 2001)
Asia	154,167	49,178
Europe	22,107	14,349
Africa	389	421
North America	39,551	17,665
South America	749	160
Oceania	14,772	2,388

(Source: Japan National Tourist Organization)

The success of economic development has transformed the material condition of the nation, elevated its status in the world community, and promoted a flood of interest in the Japanese style of management and business organization. Jeremy and Robinson (1989: xi) argue that there are two separate factors, which enabled the Japanese to succeed in developing her economic and industrial sectors. On the one hand, adoption of essentially Western modes of production and management, allied probably to the extreme loyalty of Japanese consumers and the relative openness of foreign markets that has allowed industry to forge ahead so forcefully. On the other hand, the Japanese emphasize societal characteristics and behavioral qualities, which they are convinced to play a significant role in the

development of the Japan's industry and economic sectors. Thus, it can be said that Japan is has inevitably moved closer to the ideals, values, and ways of the West.

Table 4.3.
2001 Visitor Arrivals & Japanese Overseas Travelers

Month	Visitor Arrivals			Japanese Overseas Travelers		
	2000	2001	Change in %	2000	2001	Change in %
1 Jan.	335,621 (154,546)	416,490 (230,057)	24.1 (48.9)	1,228,599 (956,919)	1,361,711 (1,065,591)	10.8 (11.4)
2 Feb.	360,621 (212,346)	315,483 (158,491)	-12.5 (-25.4)	1,414,251 (1,173,549)	1,501,552 (1,234,317)	6.2 (5.2)
3 Mar.	365,689 (190,479)	401,054 (214,760)	9.7 (12.7)	1,573,517 (1,316,855)	1,612,008 (1,333,444)	2.4 (1.3)
4 Apr.	443,028 (267,123)	449,934 (268,171)	1.6 (0.4)	1,305,417 (1,035,616)	1,370,049 (1,085,581)	5.0 (4.8)
5 May	381,053 (205,664)	390,515 (212,344)	2.5 (3.2)	1,369,655 (1,105,893)	1,366,727 (1,096,767)	-0.2 (-0.8)
6 June	400,139 (239,635)	403,477 (242,995)	(0.8) (1.4)	1,421,924 (1,154,432)	1,460,542 (1,183,359)	2.7 (2.5)
1-6 Jan.- Jun.	2,286,151 (1,269,793)	2,376,953 (1,326,818)	4.0 (4.5)	8,313,363 (6,743,264)	8,672,569 (6,999,059)	4.3 (3.8)
7 Jul.	483,849 (312,480)	479,822 (303,132)	-0.8 (-3.2)	1,583,129 (1,295,357)	1,596,737	0.9
8 Aug.	423,361 (253,788)	433,490 (263,181)	2.4 (3.7)	1,759,090 (1,466,672)	1,791,166	1.8
9 Sept.	379,753 (200,097)	354,578 (183,370)	-6.6 (-8.4)	1,677,031 (1,386,873)	1,331,411	-20.6
10 Oct.	443,862 (240,971)	403,181 (220,911)	-9.2 (-8.3)	1,522,313 (1,222,428)	925,142	-39.2
11 Nov.	378,910 (195,990)	354,484 (187,675)	-6.4 (-4.2)	1,531,695 (1,252,261)	860,698	-43.8
12 Dec.	361,260 (220,238)	369,047 (232,335)	2.2 (5.5)	1,431,969 (1,215,621)	1,037,934	-27.5
7-12 Jul.-Dec.	2,470,995 (1,423,564)	2,394,602 (1,390,604)	-3.1 (-2.3)	9,505,227 (7,839,212)	7,543,088	-20.6
1-12 Jan.-Dec.	4,757,146 (2,693,357)	4,771,555 (2,717,422)	0.3 (0.9)	17,818,590 (14,582,476)	16,215,657	-9.0

(Source: Planning & Research Division, Japan National Tourist organization, 10 Apr 02).

No	Nationality	(12) 2000	(12) 2001	Change %
1	Grand Total	220,238	232,335	5.5
2	Asia Total	147,513	154,167	4.5
3	Korea	56,890	58,443	2.7
4	Taiwan	46,334	44,783	-3.3
5	China	3,659	4,737	29.5
6	Hong Kong	19,593	25,109	28.2
7	Philippine	1,348	1,405	4.2
8	Taiwan	2,076	2,274	9.5
9	Malaysia	4,007	3,305	-17.5
10	Singapore	9,517	8,001	-15.9
11	Indonesia	1,690	3,892	130.3
12	India	592	683	15.4
13	Israel	288	238	-17.4
14	Asia unclassified	1,519	1,297	-14.6
15	Europe Total	20,107	22,107	9.4
16	United Kingdom	7,593	8,947	17.8
17	Germany	2,171	2,091	-3.7
18	France	3,275	3,387	3.4
19	Russian Federation	689	1,065	54.6
20	Italy	1,010	871	-3.9
21	Netherlands	675	689	2.1
22	Sweden	713	786	10.2
23	Switzerland	640	710	10.9
24	Spain	430	436	1.4
25	Austria	312	251	-19.6
26	Ireland	319	437	37.0
27	Denmark	303	283	-6.6
28	Belgium	255	239	-6.3
29	Finland	304	265	-12.8
30	Norway	258	224	-13.2
31	Europe unclassified	1,269	1,326	4.5
32	Africa Total	312	389	24.7
33	North America Total	37,058	39,551	6.7
34	U.S.A.	28,884	30,751	6.6
35	Canada	7,388	8,023	8.6
36	Mexico	602	618	2.7
37	North America unclassified	184	159	13.6
38	South America Total	2,308	1,338	-34.3
39	Brazil	1,075	589	-45.2
40	South America unclassified	963	749	-22.2
41	Oceania Total	13,015	14,722	13.1
42	Australia	11,191	12,760	14.0
43	New Zealand	1,764	1,903	7.9
44	Oceania unclassified	60	69	-1.7
45	Stateless	66	61	-29.1
46	Asia Total	131,737	138,158	4.9
47	Europe Total	35,992	38,116	5.9
48	U.K. Total	23,369	24,956	6.8

(Source: Japan National Tourist Organization)

From the table it can be seen that the total number of Asian tourists who visited Japan has increased from 131,737 to 138,158 and the change is around 4,9%, the Europe tourists from 35,992 to 38,116% and the change is 5,9 and the UK tourists from 23,369 to 24,956 and the change is around 6.8. In addition, we can see the increasing number of the tourists who visited Japan between 2001 and 2002, such as Russian Federation (54.6), Ireland (37,0), China (29,5), Hong Kong (28,2) United Kingdom (17.8), and India (15.4). It is interesting to note that in the case of some countries, their tourist visits to Japan have declined, especially Brazil (-45.2%), Austria (-19.6%), Malaysia (-17.5%), Singapore (15.9%), Israel (-17.4%) Norway (-13,2%) and Finland (-12,8%). This decline may be the result of the rapid development and popularity of domestic tourism at the expense of international travel.

It is interesting also to compare the foreigners' images of Japan before and after their first visit

No	Before visiting Japan	Response rate %
1	A modern industrialized country	86
2	Unique traditions and culture	81
3	Efficient and organized	78
4	A safe and clean country	77
5	Diligent, energetic people	76
6	Beautiful natural scenery	68
7	High living/ educations standards	67
8	People are kinds and likable	63
9	Crowded and noisy	60
10	Mysterious	26
11	Closed to outsiders	26

No	After visiting Japan	Response rate %
1	People are kinds and likable	86
2	A safe and clean country	86
3	A modern industrialized country	83
4	Unique traditions and culture	78
5	Beautiful natural scenery	74
6	Efficient and organized	72
7	Diligent, energetic people	72
8	High living/ educations standards	61
9	Crowded and noisy	52
10	Closed to outsiders	25
11	Mysterious	19

(Source: *A Land Rich in Delightful Surprises*,
Official Government of Japan, JNTO)

The total travel and tourist-related consumption for 2000 in Japan was estimated to be around 22.6 trillion yen. Comprehensive industrial figures quantifying the economic impact of travel-related consumption indicate an estimated 53.8 trillion yen of generated production and the creation of employment for 4,222,000 people. These figures represent 5.7% of the gross national product and 6.3% of the entire workforce in Japan. The economic impact also extends to a broad range of individual industries (*Tourism in Japan 2002*: 15).

In 2001, tourist arrivals in Japan increased by 14,409 to 4,771,555, a slight increase of 0.3% over the previous year. However, this is enough to set a new record. The percentage breakdown of the total number of foreign visitor arrivals according to purpose of visit was: tourism (57%), business (26%), others (14%) and shore Excursionists. The largest increases in tourists are the arrivals from Korea 1,133,971 (+6.5%), Taiwan 807,202 (-11.6%), USA 692,192 (-4.7%), China 391,384 (+11.3%), and Hong Kong 262,229 (+7.8%) (*Tourism in Japan 2000*: 24-25). Japan's largest inbound travel market is China with the popularity of group tours to Japan, but this market,

in common with tourist arrivals from most other countries has also declined following the September 11th terrorist attacks in the United States. This has left figures for visitor arrivals for this one-year period at generally the same level as the previous year (Japan National Tourist Organization and Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport, 2002: 1). Overall, the total number of Japanese overseas travelers fell by 1,602,933 to 16, 215,657, a decline of 9.0% over the previous year and the first negative growth in three years. This is the fourth instance of negative growth in outbound travel, and the largest contraction since the Japanese were first given the liberty to travel overseas in 1964 (Japan National Tourist Organization and Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport, 2002: 2, 17 and 19). Looking at recent developments in the tourist industry following the Bali blasts the Japan Association of Travel Agents stated that reservations for package tours in December (2002) made through Japan's five main travel agencies were up to by 147 % from the same month in 2001. It also said that in 2002 the holiday exodus was nearly back to the pre-September 11 levels, reaching 92 % of the number of reservations made in December 2000. China is currently recognized as the fastest growing tourist destination for Japanese travelers, which is seeing a 206 % increase in tourists from Japan when compared with the same month last year, followed by Europe, which recorded a 187% increase over the previous year. The United States, including Hawaii and the Pacific islands of Guam and Saipan have long been the most popular destinations for the Japanese in terms of actual number of tourist traveling there. The increase in travel to china particularly has been attributed to this year's opening of a second runway at Tokyo's main international airport that

increased the number of flights to China. Travel to Bali plunged after the October 12 terrorist attack there, but for the holiday season about the same number of people are planning to go as in previous years (Japanese Tourism up again for holiday, 2002).

CHAPTER V CONCLUSION

There are many changes, which have already happened in Japanese society to the present time. Although Japan has been well-known as a progressive industrial country, it has also developed tourism so that Japan is now recognized as an attractive tourist destination. Japan has adopted a policy of moving its manufacturing industries offshore, to other countries in East Asia and Southeast Asia where marketing and labor costs are cheaper. In tandem with this policy has been the development of tourism in the Japanese islands. Japan is now positioned to compete for the tourist market with other countries of the region such as China, Korea, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore.

It is important to look at the role of central and local governments, the business sector, and individual Japanese that need to renew their awareness of the importance of tourism and to share this awareness. By providing cultural and eco-tourism, Japan has succeeded in developing its tourist industry through identifying the many interesting places which can be “sold” to the tourists, such as buildings, theaters, galleries, shrines and gardens. Another way in which Japan has succeeded in developing the tourist industry is by providing convenient accommodation for seminars, conferences and other international meetings.

They hope that tourism will become the starting point for a new approach to regional development in Japan that it will lead to a new phase of national revitalization based on the emergence of diverse and genuinely affluent regional communities and on contact between regions and nations. Currently, the Japanese believe that in order to be able to benefit from material prosperity, they need to abandon their traditional attitude of putting the economy above all else. In other words, they need to step out of their workplaces and enjoy nature and culture with their family and friends. They need to regain their emotional wealth and spiritual prosperity. This is a new trend in Japanese society that can serve as a source of motivation to encourage the tourist industry. Developing the tourist industry will provide the Japanese with many opportunities to look at their land, history, culture, and their way of life from new perspectives. Therefore, they are trying to develop a nation that is truly rich and filled with creative energy. If this "faceless" Japan is to gain the trust and understanding of the international community, they must first look inward and learn to understand themselves.

With this new perspective, it is not surprising that we meet the Japanese tourists everywhere in all parts of the world. This indicates that Japan has succeeded economically, with the result that the Japanese have the time and money to make trips. This is, of course, due to the success of industrialization. Another aspect of the development is the growing trend to look inward into Japanese culture, and the search to discover the good in Japan and to reject outside influences. With this new attitude, Japan has begun to review its policies by examining capital resources for developing the

tourist industry, a marked shift in emphasis away from earlier policies that focused almost exclusively on the manufacturing industry.

Historically, the tourist industry has been of secondary importance in Japan but, nevertheless, has long been firmly established. Therefore, it is not surprising that Japan has not encountered many difficulties in the current development phase of the industry. However, recent events underline the importance for Japan and other countries to address issues of international security by building bilateral and multilateral relationships in further developing the tourist industry in the future.

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