A socio-cultural approach to Japanese tourism

In line with its economic prosperity in the post-war period, in the last 30 years Japan has emerged as a key outbound tourism nation (Cooper, 2007). Japanese tourists can now be seen at the world’s leading tourist destinations in almost equal numbers to their more well-established European counterparts. The addition of the Japanese has brought new cultural dimensions to international tourism (Graburn, 1984; Moeran, 1983) to complement, and contrast, the ‘fly and flop’ tourism (Burns, 1996) associated with leisure travel from outbound nations such as the United Kingdom and Germany. In doing so, the Japanese have provided social and cultural observers of tourism with a rich vein of opportunities for study (Ahmed & Krohn, 1993; Balaz & Mitsutake, 1998; Foster, 2009; Hui & Yuen 1996; Ishiwata, 2008; Penn & Mooney, 1986).

Since Japan is an economic power many studies of Japanese tourism have assessed the international travel phenomenon in terms of this power. The merits of such an approach to understanding Japanese tourism are considerable and receive broad support (Carlile, 1996; Hui & Yuen 1996; Kim & Lee 2000; Lim, Min, & McAleer, 2008), however, by taking a ‘balance sheet’ analysis approach to tourism we can argue that the broader underlying social and cultural phenomena that influence travel decision making may be overlooked (Hashimoto, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2000; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Takai-Tokunaga, 2007; You et al, 2000). Moreover such a narrow perspective does not allow us to gain knowledge of how the social phenomenon of Japanese tourism fits into the broader social constructs of Japan itself (Gerster, 2006; Hobson & Christensen, 2001; Linhart, 1988; March, 2000; Moore, 1985; Shono, Fisher, & McIntosh, 2006; Tokuhisa, 1980; Umesao, 1995; Ziff-Levine 1990). Taking a socio-cultural approach will, by contrast however, help to reveal any culturally loaded differences in travel habits that may exist between Japan and other nations better. In doing so it may be possible to understand not only Japan, its tourism and its tourists better, but also to consider how this understanding fits into the wider paradigm of global international tourism (Divisekera, 2003; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1984; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; You et al, 2000). The benefits of a multidisciplinary approach to Japanese tourism thus seem clear.

In the English language academic community such Japanocentric socio-cultural tourism
research has brought together fields as diverse as social anthropology, applied geography, behavioural studies, marketing, and hospitality for over 30 years, and has integrated them into the wider body of work in tourism studies. Peer reviewed studies in journals such as *The Annals of Tourism Research* and *Tourism Management* by Agrusa (various years), Graburn (1983), (Kim, various years), and Moeran (1984) exemplify such work.

The study of Japan and its tourism is thus by no means new to researchers writing in English. With special issues on Japanese tourism in *The Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* (2000), and *Travel Review International* in 2006 and 2007, and *Japanese Studies* (Marriott, 1991), it is clear that Japanese tourism has become an important genre within tourism studies and the wider social sciences. These observations notwithstanding, there is nevertheless no English language research that brings together both the interdisciplinary breadth and longitudinal extent of such inquiries in a bibliographic format. It is the purpose here therefore to offer an updated account of the English language peer reviewed journal articles that examine the tourism phenomenon in Japan by producing an in-depth bibliography (Appendix 1). In doing so it is hoped a more comprehensive understanding of Japanese tourism research will emerge.

Japanese International Travel: beyond an economic perspective

In 1964 immediately after the ‘liberalization’ of international travel, just 64,000 overseas trips were made from Japan (or, just one DC-8 – the largest aircraft of the era – departure per day). Thus despite owning the ‘right’ to travel internationally Japanese citizens failed to take immediate advantage of it. Developments in transport technology (e.g. the launch of the wide-bodied Boeing 747 in 1970), successive devaluations of the yen (1966, 1968, 1971), and a booming domestic economy did little to change this apparently cautious and indifferent beginning, and by 1970 international travellers from Japan still numbered fewer than 1% of the Japanese population. This contrasts with international travel of the time in Western Europe where overseas ‘package holidays’ had already democratized travel for pleasure. Though some claim the ‘indifference’ and ‘caution’ of the Japanese was a direct consequence of the economic effects of consecutive oil crises, a more critical analysis might point to the social constructs of work, family, interpersonal relations (Riaz, 1975), opportunity, lack of confidence, and a poorly developed sense of leisure (Linhart, 1985) as key to explaining the slow development of international leisure travel from Japan. Indeed, even by 1979 – fifteen years after ‘liberalization’ – just 5% of the Japanese public were traveling internationally each year (Chart 1).

The development of infrastructure often heralds a new era and in Japan the successive developments of motorway and airport infrastructure in the late 1970s combined with awareness
of travel opportunities to help Japan embrace a new ethic towards leisure in the 1980s. The associated growth in outbound travellers from 3 million to 12 million by the end of the 1980s is often ascribed to these developments along with economic changes resulting from the currency adjustments of the Plaza Accord (1985), however, this period also saw significant social changes in Japan. Rights concerning equal opportunities (Nozawa, 1995), a widening role of the media in leisure and travel promotion (Creighton, 1997; Kim, 2007), and a greater societal acceptance of the pursuit of leisure as a lifestyle choice (Lang, 1994; Morris, 1991; Ziff-Levine, 1990) can be seen as significant developments. It thus seems highly appropriate to ascribe some of the change in demand for international travel to social phenomena as any prevailing economic realities.

![Chart 1: The evolution of Japanese outbound tourism (1964-2010)](chart)

However, as the Japanese economy and its equity weakened in the mid-1990s so did the growth in demand for international travel. The 16 million Japanese who travelled internationally in 1995, grew to just 17 million by 2000 suggesting that Harada’s leisure “renaissance” (1994) was in fact short-lived and that tourism had failed to genuinely establish itself as a lifestyle choice in Japan. One explanation is that Japan’s immediate neighbours were (are) not as attractive as the long haul destinations of North America and Europe (March, 1997). Moreover travel operators were, until the late 1990s, less likely to market China and South Korea as destinations of choice (Kim, 2005a; Kim, 2005b), and combined with the cultural norm for short vacation duration, long haul travel could not act as the foundation for a sustained international travel boom (Ahmed & Krohn, 1993).

The failure of outbound tourism from Japan to establish roots was further compounded by international crises such as the Gulf War (1991) and the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis (Raab & Schwer, 2003) which had a long-term impact on the safety, and value conscious psyche of the Japanese traveler (Hollier, 1991; Quintal, Lee, & Soutar, 2009). Moreover, since the underlying
societal-based reasons for travel (or equally, not to travel) amongst Japanese remained largely unchanged since the 1980s (Gilbert & Terrata, 2001; Heung, Quf & Chu, 2000), demand for outbound travel grew at a significantly lower rate in the late 1990s. Despite a greater stated desire to incorporate travel into their lifestyle, the constraints of the workplace (and underutilized holiday entitlement), the demands of changing family structure, and the growing costs of education continued to hamstring international departures from Japan.

This stall in the uptake of international travel has become more acute in the last 10 years as Japan’s immediate neighbours have kick-started their own tourism industries. Major infrastructure projects (both Seoul’s Incheon and Beijing Capital Airports dwarf Tokyo’s Narita), political reforms, the establishment of global budget airlines such as Malaysia’s Air Asia, and the holding of major event tourism initiatives including the 2008 Beijing Olympics and Shanghai Expo (2010) have all served to reduce any international tourism hegemony Japan may have held in Asia during the 1980s and 1990s. Japan - like its neighbours - has also placed greater emphasis and expectation on international travel as a means to get both its faltering economy, and its desire for ‘internationalisation’, back on track. Such efforts have however been stymied by the continuing domestic economic malaise; concerns over international terrorism; and the incidence of global health scares such as SARS, all of which have received widespread and, some would argue, overly sensational news coverage in Japan (Cooper, 2005; Mao et al, 2009).

Thus we can see that outbound travel from Japan has been influenced, not only by the economy, but also by competing countries, external geopolitical issues, and - despite a stated desire to travel - socially constructed constraints that block such desire. As a consequence international travel from Japan has failed to keep pace with other nations, many of which saw triple digit percentage growth in international tourism departures over the 1990~2010 period.

The Research Question

How has the cautious evolution of Japanese tourism in the 1970s, its rapid growth in the 1980s, and more recent stagnation been assessed by the English language social science research community in the field of tourism? Can patterns of particular research interest be seen to match the apparently evolutionary pattern of Japanese tourism itself (Carlile, 1996; Linhart, 1988; Shono, et al, 2006; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999)? By developing a bibliography of peer reviewed academic references, it is the intention of this paper to summarize the patterns, trends and approaches that the English language research community has taken in considering Japan and its tourism. In doing so, it is hoped that Japanese international tourism and research can be put into sharper focus, and its trends more closely revealed.
Methodology

In order to establish a quantitative measure of the English language research activity in the field of Japanese tourism, a detailed on-line literature search was undertaken and a bibliography was developed. Using the social science and other on-line research databases provided by publishers including Taylor and Francis, ingentaconnect, and academia.com, articles were considered for inclusion in the bibliography if one or more of the following key terms appeared in the title, keywords or abstract of the publication. These key terms were ‘Japanese tourism’, ‘Japanese tourist’, ‘Japanese travel’, ‘Japanese travellers’ (both U.S. and UK spellings), ‘Japanese visitors’, and ‘Japanese sojourners’. Only references with a published date between January 1980 and December 2009 (inclusive) were considered for inclusion in the bibliography. For each article, the main author (and details of any coauthors), date of publication and place of publication were noted. After the initial key term search, the abstracts, or full text articles were screened to assess each article’s suitability for inclusion (see ‘limitations of the study’, below). These screened articles were then coded by field of study using a grounded theory approach within each of the three decades under consideration.

Results

The initial key term search produced over 500 references which, after screening became a bibliography of some 187 references relevant to Japanese tourism and/or its tourists (see Appendix 1). The earliest article (Riaz, 1975) though published prior to 1980 was included since it represents the first English language peer-reviewed article of the Japanese tourism genre. The 187 articles were published in 67 different journal titles: 33 of which were tourism-specific and 34 titles which had less, or no direct relevancy to tourism studies (see Appendices 2 and 3). This near parity in the number of journal titles was not reflected in the number of articles in these two broad fields. Thus of the 187 articles, 145 articles were published in tourism-specific journals while just 42 were published elsewhere. Moreover just five tourism-specific journals (the Annals of Tourism Research, the Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, Tourism Management, and Travel Research International) published 50% (i.e. 94 titles) of all the resources in the 30-year bibliography.

The chronological distribution of articles over the 30 year period is described by Chart 2. Based on the methodology of the current research, it is apparent that the number of English language articles about Japanese tourism has grown considerably. In the period 1980-84 just 7 articles were published, this grew steadily to 32 articles by 1995-1999, and expanded to 80 articles in the 2005-2009 period.
The geographic distribution of researchers in Japanese tourism has evolved similarly over the 30-year period. Table 1 shows the affiliation of the lead author (by country) of each article. In the 1980s two countries (the UK and United States) dominated Japanese tourism research (11 of 17 articles), but by the 1990s and 2000s research was carried out in 17 different countries. Of particular note here is the research capability of Asia Pacific area countries including Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Australia. In Japan, for example, English language research capability grew from just one article in the 1980s to 27 articles in the 2000-09 period (23% of all articles in the decade). Also noteworthy is the premier status of the United States as a nation for Japanese tourism studies research throughout the 30-year period (53 articles in total).

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<td>Australia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td>South Korea</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Taiwan</td>
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<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<td>United States</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong>*</td>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
<td><strong>187</strong></td>
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*Note: Figures for the 1980s include Riaz (published in 1975).
A third important development is the change from predominantly single authored works to co-authored ones (Table 2). During the 1980s just 3 of the 17 articles (18%) were collaborative in nature but by 2000–2009 this figure had grown to 74 of 115 (64%); of these 74 articles 24 were authored by three or more contributors. Collaborative works between Asian-based researchers were particularly apparent in both co-authored and multiple author works.

<table>
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<th>1980s</th>
<th>1990s</th>
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<tr>
<td>Single author (%)</td>
<td>14 (82%)</td>
<td>31 (57%)</td>
<td>41 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co author (%)</td>
<td>3 (18%)</td>
<td>23 (43%)</td>
<td>74 (64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decade total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>115</td>
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A parallel development was found in the number of multiple works by researchers as single, or coauthors over the 30 years. Agrusa (7 articles in total); S.S. Kim (6); O’Leary (5); Lim (5); Cooper (4); Kimura (4) and Reisinger (4) produced works on Japanese tourism that (often) originated in different countries and/or were written in new sub-genres of Japanese tourism research. This phenomenon is important, firstly, as it shows continuity in the field of Japanese tourism studies, but also because it indicates that only a small number of authors are particularly active in the field of Japanese tourism studies at any one time. Authors with multiple studies were however the exception rather than the rule with 127 different authors publishing just one article in the 30 year period. This implies that many authors were either unable to develop Japanese tourism studies or were researching Japanese tourism as a part of other disciplines.

Japanese tourism research 1980–2009

i) The 1980s – the formative decade

Reflecting the embryonic state of tourism studies and Japan outbound travel in the time prior to 1980 there was little published research into Japanese tourism. The one notable exception was Riaz’s seminal account of communication by, and among, Japanese tourists in Singapore in 1975. With most overseas travel from Japan in the 1970s and early 1980s being Pan-Pacific in nature it is perhaps inevitable that following Riaz the first English language research studies into Japanese tourism were written by American based social anthropologists who examined tourism’s language and intercultural elements (Graburn, 1984; Gudykunst, 1984; Moeran, 1983; Moore, 1984; Penn & Mooney, 1986). In the wake of the Plaza Accord (1985), research began to develop
these themes to include leisure patterns (Linhart, 1988; Morris, 1988), and more specific issues such as consumer habits (Keown, 1989); in addition research began to originate in places other than the United States or UK (Leiper, 1989; Yacoumis, 1989). One unifying theme in articles of this decade was the ‘novelty’ that the Japanese brought to the largely western European definition of international tourism (Tokuhisa, 1980). Thus even at this early stage studies implied that Japanese tourism would provide the research community with a new paradigm of international tourism.

ii) The 1990s – the decade of growth

To best consider Japanese tourism in the 1990s and beyond it is instructive to separate the decades into five year periods. The rapid growth of Japanese outbound in the early 1990s was reflected in part by the growth in the volume of tourism articles over the same period (23 articles published as opposed to 17 in the 1980s). However it was the 1995-1999 period when Japanese tourism research began to expand in terms of sub-genres of research, and at the same time address a more practical socio-cultural agenda to complement the theoretical work of Moeran (1983), Graburn (1984), and others before.

a) 1990-1994

During the first half of the 1990s, building on the work of Keown (1989), there was a continued interest in the novelty aspect of Japanese tourists through studies of their ‘unique’ consumer behaviour (Ahmed & Krohn, 1993; Ayala 1991: Furuichi & Koppelman, 1994), their ‘special’ needs (Reisinger & Waryszak, 1994), and their ‘new tourism logic’ (Ziff-Levine, 1990). Similarly, while safety and communication issues for tourists were being widely reported in Japanese media [in particular the Gulf War (1991) and the ‘Hattori jiken’ (1992) were emphasized], scholars examined both Japanese travel safety (Hollier, 1991; Pinhey & Iverson, 1994) and the ways in which communication was vital to understanding the difficulties (and opportunities) of dealing with Japanese tourists (Childs, 1991).

The early 1990s was also a time of extensive Japanese corporate representation overseas. To reflect this, researchers examined the reciprocal relationship between Japanese tourists and these corporations (Desautels & Christensen, 1990; Murakami, 1990). Additionally, exploration of a new area of enquiry - Japan’s domestic tourism opportunities (Ehrentaut, 1993; Shishido, 1991) - emerged and expanded the understanding of tourism sociology in Japan itself. Thus new attitudes to tourism (Harada, 1994): the evolving role of Japanese females in the travel business (Nozawa, 1992); and the importance of language to developing Japanese tourism (Thomason, 1991) were part of a growing holistic social agenda to understanding Japanese international tourism.
As shown in Chart 2, the period 1995~1999 saw further increases in the volume of research into Japanese tourism to reach some 31 articles. This was accompanied by a further broadening in the scope of research (March, 1997). We can view these changes as allegories to the then rapid expansion of the Japanese tourism periphery.

One key research question related to tourist behavior. While Dace (1995), Langen et al (1997), Pizam & Sussmann (1995), Pizam & Gang-Hoan (1996), examined the behavior of Japanese *per se*, Iverson (1997a) and March (1997) undertook comparative behavioural research with culturally similar tourist individuals to the Japanese. New areas of the Japanese tourist profile were also researched extensively. Thus, even before Japan had made an impact at the FIFA World Cup in France, or held the Nagano Winter Olympics, research into Japanese sports tourism (Nogawa *et al*, 1996; Sullivan, 1996) was undertaken. Other new sub-genres of Japanese tourism research included entertainment (Agrusa, 1998) and medical tourism (Ng Walali, 1999), the latter a field that would develop significantly in the new millenium.

Reflecting the greater spatial extent of Japanese tourists, area case studies were conducted in places as diverse as Guam (Iverson, 1997b); Taiwan (Tsai & Wang, 1998); Hong Kong (Law & Au, 1999); Australia (Reisinger & Turner, 1999); Hawaii (Langen *et al*, 1997); Canada (Hui *et al*, 1996; 1998) and Central Europe (Balaz & Mitsutake, 1998), and showed Japanese international tourism was no longer simply a Pan-Pacific phenomenon. By contrast, the increasingly popular sub-genre of domestic tourism took on a mostly rural focus and was actively pursued by both non-Japanese (Creighton, 1995: 1997; Knight, 1996) and Japanese researchers (Yamamoto & Gill, 1999). In addition, like the former socio-cultural analyses of Graburn (1984), Harada (1994) and others, socio-cultural analyses broadened their scope. In doing so cultural understanding of Japan tourism’s historical antecedents (Umesao, 1995), as well as its particular approaches to marketing (Reisinger & Turner, 1999), and tourism gender issues (Leheny, 1995; Nozawa, 1995) helped to bring both historical context and contemporary relevancy to Japanese tourism research while making new insights into Japanese tourism demand (Carlile, 1996).

### The 2000s – towards maturity

The unpredictable growth of Japanese outbound tourism in the first decade of the 21st century (see Chart 1) is not reflected in the path, volume or breadth of research at the time. Unlike the number of outbound tourists which largely stagnated, research grew significantly. This was particularly so for the sub-genres of health tourism, domestic tourism, tourism marketing and evolving sub-genres such as those linking technology to Japanese tourism.
a) 2000-2004

The 2000-2004 period saw continued interest in socio-cultural consideration of Japanese tourism. In particular Caneen (2003) and Heung et al (2001) undertook such analyses to seek understanding of Japanese tourists' habits and norms. At the same time comparative studies assessing Japanese tourists with respect to culturally similar others such as Koreans (Park, 2000), and those diametrically opposed in the United States (Kim & Lee, 2000) and United Kingdom (You et al, 2000) complemented those studies of the late 1990s. These examples notwithstanding such comparative studies were less extensive in the early part of the 2000s suggesting an overall decline in interest in North East Asian tourism.

Meanwhile, and possibly in response to the stall in outbound tourism from Japan, there was a greater research emphasis on the characteristics of Japanese tourists' spending power. Studies by Hobson & Christiansen (2001), Jang et al (2004), Suh & Gartner (2004), and Hui & Yuen (2002), took such a focus as a way to understand behaviour in both the purchase of tourism products, and destination retailing. In addition, the purchasing power of market segments such as Japanese females continued to attract special interest (Hashimoto, 2000). A second marketing concept that received considerable attention was Japanese ‘customer satisfaction’, and in particular in the accommodation sector. In combination with customer ‘needs’ such research was made in respect of hotel facilities in the United States (Jin et al, 2004; Yamaguchi et al, 2000), Asia (Heung & Quf, 2000) and Europe (Osawa, 2003). These studies concluded that service standards need to be raised and tailored to individual needs and indicate that the accommodation sector had been failing its Japanese guests on a global scale.

Domestic Japanese tourism research continued to grow from its early beginnings with understanding sought about the role of rural hinterlands in tourism. Through both theoretical discussion (Rea, 2000) and practical approaches to developing Japan’s domestic forest tourism product (Knight, 2000; MacNaughton, 2003) research recognized rural tourism as a way to put Japanese international tourism into perspective. Finally, emerging tourism trends including the growth and opportunities offered by Japan’s aging society (You & O’Leary, 2000), and those related to health and clinical studies (Kano & Kimura, 2004; Khuroo, 2003) were highlighted. These new trends illustrate the growing awareness of wellness in Japanese tourism decision making in the decade.

b) 2005-2009

The second half of the first decade of the 21st century saw an exponential expansion in the number of articles written about Japanese tourism (80 in total). Driving this growth was (i) the volume of articles dealing with domestic tourism (12 articles between 2005~2009), particularly
in journals outside the field of tourism and, (ii) the emergence of health/tourism research (11 articles). In both cases there was a parallel growth in the number of Japanese authored works. To illustrate this first phenomenon, domestic Japanese tourism articles were found in journals as varied as *Society and Natural Resources* (Hiwasaki, 2006), *Applied Economics* (Ishikawa & Fukushige, 2007; 2009), and the *Journal of International Farm Management* (Ohe, 2007) and as can be seen were authored by Japanese researchers.

Meanwhile, the explosion in health studies articles was largely a consequence of the establishment in 2002 of the Japan-based English language journal, *Travel Medicine and Infectious Diseases (TMID).* *TMID* covers a range of practical clinical management issues of direct consequence to the discipline of tourism social sciences. Studies in *TMID* relevant to the bibliography have ranged from general health issues for overseas travelers (Mizuno & Kudo, 2009), to more specific issues of vaccination awareness in travelers (Mizuno *et al.*, 2007; Nakano, 2008), and the effects of travel related diseases on Japanese society (Tamashiro *et al.*, 2007). A unifying theme in these articles is risk (Tada *et al.*, 2008), along with travellers’ perception of that risk. In addition to *TMID*, the period from 2005 also saw significant scholarly interest in the effect of SARS on Japanese travel (Cooper, 2005; Mao *et al.*, 2005) an event that received widespread media attention in Japan. Thus the issues surrounding health protection required by tourists, who were beginning to visit destinations with unpredictable health outcomes with increasing frequency, was brought to the fore.

By expanding the reach of Japanese tourism studies to the fields of medicine and by including more Japanese contributors, we can say a certain level of maturity has been reached. This maturity is reflected in ever growing list of locations that have hosted Japanocentric research. Between 2005 and 2009, China (Lim *et al.*, 2005), the Maldives (Shareef & McAleer, 2007), Mongolia (Yu & Goulden, 2006) and Thailand (Hongsranagon, 2006; Yokota, 2006) joined this list. At the same time, research in established Japanese outbound destinations such as Guam (Dougan, 2007) and Singapore (Toh *et al.*, 2006) indicates the perennial status of such destinations for Japanese tourism. Also, these latter studies show that the Japanese market in these destinations still has much to offer the corpus of research.

Emerging trends between 2005 and 2009 included a renewed interest in Japanese sports tourism both at the local (Agrusa *et al.* 2006) and global scales (Agrusa *et al.*, 2009: Kim & Morrison, 2005: Tomlinson, 2005), and consideration of the role of new media and technology in tourism. In the latter, the influence of Korean TV dramas on Japanese outbound tourism to Korea (Iwashita, 2008: Kim *et al.* 2007) and the use of mobile technology (Forster, 2009: Katsura & Sheldon, 2008) in creating new dimensions of the tourist gaze are particularly noteworthy. It will be of great interest to see how such sub-genres of research develop in the future.
Finally, supporting these new trends and emerging sub-genres of Japanese tourism research, market segment analyses (Chang et al, 2006), comparative studies (Lee & Lee, 2009), economic considerations (Divisekera & Kulendran, 2006; Latzko, 2005; Rosenbaum, 2006) and sociological assessments (Yokota, 2006) continued to draw scholarly attention in this final five-year period. However, it is in the field of socio-cultural studies where efforts to link modern Japanese tourism to: its past (Watkins, 2008); to ‘identity’ (Gonzalez, 2008); to ‘nostalgia’ (Gerster, 2006), and to a ‘transformation’ in global tourism (Takai-Tokunaga, 2007) that we see the enduring allure of societal precedents over economic considerations in accounting for tourism. Such observations tell us that no matter how instructive a ‘balance sheet’ approach to understanding tourism may be, figures and numbers should only be considered in light of a socio-cultural context.

Limitations of the study

The purpose of this study was to build and examine a bibliographic resource of peer reviewed journal articles about Japanese tourism in the period 1980 to 2009. For methodological reasons, chapters in published books, articles in popular media, or articles unavailable via an online research were not included. Similarly, articles written in languages other than English were not considered. It is doubtless that these limitations led to many omissions and consequently the resulting bibliography cannot be considered as complete. These arguments notwithstanding, it is felt the list of 187 peer reviewed articles is a valuable resource that is both wide in range and deep in scope.

The key term approach to the development of the bibliography was also not without its limitations. This was largely due to the use of some of the key terms in disciplines other than tourism such as ‘Japanese visitor’ in medicine or ‘migrating visitors’ in ornithology. Thus articles about “Japanese hospital visitors”, or “migrating Japanese bird visitors” were picked up in the initial key term search. To screen such articles, reference to the abstract was usually sufficient to identify suitability for inclusion in the bibliography. However, in other cases where keywords were apparently less representative of the article itself, such as in research conducted with Japanese tourist respondents but not specifically about tourism, a more detailed examination of the full text article was necessary.

The decision to omit or include an article in the database was thus, at times, subjective. Consequently any omissions from the bibliography are a shortcoming of the current research rather than a comment on any poor choice of keywords by previous researchers.
Conclusion

The bibliography produced here (Appendix 1) shows that English language research in Japanese tourism studies has evolved over the last 30 years from its early formation in the field of social anthropology in a limited number of countries, through rapid growth in the 1990s, to an explosion of research in the last decade. By contrast the evolution of Japanese international travel has taken a somewhat different path with growth in both the 1980s and early 90s but stagnation for much of the last 10 years.

The explosion in research in the last 10 years can be explained by the focus on domestic Japanese tourism research and the emergence of health tourism as a research discipline. Coupled to the global tendency towards closer and more collaborative research communities this has produced a huge expansion in English language Japanese tourism research. These developments along with other new areas of research interest such as sports tourism, technology, and media can be seen as allegories to the expanding and diversifying ‘pleasure periphery’ of contemporary Japanese tourism. Thus despite stagnation in terms of absolute tourist numbers, by looking at the research into Japanese tourism we can hint at international tourism growth both in terms of direction and maturity.

The recurring narrative within this 30-year bibliography of research is the socio-cultural one. Tourism is said to be a ‘product’ but it is also a social activity guided by social considerations and conventions. This seems to offer us the clearest evidence that beyond ‘market segmentation’ and ‘spending power’ lays the key to understanding international tourism decision making. By changing its focus over time, research into Japanese tourism research has identified both problems and opportunities but has continued to emphasize the socio-cultural narrative. Such a narrative can help us to not only gain greater understanding of Japanese international tourism but may also help to unlock its true global potential.

1989 and earlier

17. Hui, T-K., & Yuen, C-C. 1996. The effects of exchange rate, income and habit on Japanese


35. Ng'Walali, P. M., Koreeda, A., Kibayashi, K., & Tsunenari, S. 1999. Fatalities by inhalation
of volcanic gas at Mt. Aso crater in Kumamoto Japan. *Legal Medicine*, 1, 180-84.


2000~2009


Appendix 2: List of tourism-specific journals publishing Japanese tourism articles

1. Anatolia: an International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research
2. Annals of Tourism Research
3. Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research
4. Cornell Hospitality HRA Quarterly
5. Current Issues in Tourism
6. Hospitality Management
7. Information Technology and Tourism
8. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management
10. International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration
11. Journal of Air Transport Management
12. Journal of Hospitality Management
13. Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism
14. Journal of Restaurant and Foodservice Marketing
15. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing
16. Journal of Travel Research
17. Journal of Vacation Marketing
18. Leisure Studies
19. Les Cahiers du Tourisme
20. Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research
21. The Service Industries Journal
22. Tourism Analysis
23. Tourism Culture and Communication
24. Tourism Economics
25. Tourism Geographies
26. Tourism Management
27. Tourism Recreation Research
28. Tourism Review International
29. Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development
30. Transport Resources Annals
31. Transportation Research
32. Travel & Tourism Analyst
33. Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease
Appendix 3: List of non-tourism specific journals publishing Japanese tourism articles

1. Acta Tropica
2. Applied Economics
3. Applied Economics Letters
4. Computers in Simulation
5. Cultural Diversity and Mental Health
6. Culture, Health & Sexuality
7. Development and Change
8. Environmental Modelling and Software
9. Ethnology
10. European Journal of Marketing
11. International Business Review
12. International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents
13. International Journal of Forecasting
15. International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management
16. International Social Sciences Journal
17. Japanese Studies
18. Journal of International Farm Management
20. Landscape and Urban Planning
21. Legal Medicine
22. Marine Pollution Bulletin
23. Mathematics and Computers in Simulation
24. New Zealand Journal of Asian Studies
25. Place Branding and Public Diplomacy
26. Renewable Energy
27. Senri Ethnological Studies
28. Small-scale Forestry
29. Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal
30. Social Identities
31. Social Science Japan Journal
32. Society and Natural Resources
33. Southeast Asia Journal of Social Science
34. The Professional Geographer
30 years of tourism research: a bibliography of Japanese tourism (1980~2009)

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Abstract

Since the 1980s Japan has emerged as a key international outbound tourism nation. The world over, Japanese tourists though valued for their contribution to respective inbound destinations’ economies are often however seen as a cultural curiosity when placed alongside their western counterparts. Based on these qualities of economic importance and socio-cultural uniqueness tourism from, and of, Japan is one of great potential that provides research with a distinct alternative to the European tourism model. Based on Japan’s international outbound figures, this potential is yet to be reached as both growth and stagnation have marked the last 30 years.

How has the English language social science research community assessed Japanese outbound tourism and its tourists over this period? What trends and patterns exist in research? And do these trends and patterns replicate themselves in the development of Japanese tourism itself? By developing an extensive bibliography of 187 peer-reviewed journal articles, the indication here is that as Japanese tourism has evolved so has research related to it. However, in contrast to Japanese outbound tourism which seems to have reached an impasse, new sub-genres of Japanese tourism research continue to emerge.