

---

## AlmaTourism

Journal of Tourism, Culture and Territorial Development

---

### Challenges for the International Tourism Industry in Japan – An Agent for Economic Recovery and Development

Zhang, R. \*

Nishinippon Institute of Technology - Kitakyushu, Fukuoka (Japan)

McCornac, D. C. †

Loyola University Maryland – Baltimore (USA)

---

#### ABSTRACT

Japan's successful bid to host the 2020 Summer Olympic Games in Tokyo is expected to bring a windfall to the tourism industry with an increasing number of visitors coming from abroad. Taking advantage of this opportunity to develop the newly-emerging tourism industry will be major task, but one that can significantly impact the future development of the country. The purpose of this paper is to undertake a review of the current situation of international tourism in Japan and examine the problems which may limit the international competitiveness of Japan's tourism industry. We offer a number of solutions on how to improve tourism quality to better address the expectations of foreign visitors and for Japan to meet the goals of the Tourism Nation Promotion Basic Law (Act No.117 of 2006) which defines the basic plan for "Realizing a Tourism Nation".

---

**Keywords:** International tourism, Economic recovery, Economic development, Japan, Olympic Games

---

\* E-mail address: [zhang@nishitech.ac.jp](mailto:zhang@nishitech.ac.jp)

† E-mail address: [dennis@dcicornac.com](mailto:dennis@dcicornac.com)

## Introduction

According to the “Tourism Nation Promotion Basic Law” enacted in December 2006 by the Japanese government and the decision by the Japanese Cabinet in June 2007 that focused on tourism, the “Realization of a Tourism Nation” has become one of the essential national goals for the development of the Japanese economy in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (MLIT, 2013a). The expansion of international tourism, i.e., attracting more foreign tourists to Japan, ranks at the top of the list of tasks formulated in the basic law.

In recent years, a steady increase in the number of foreign visitors to Japan has been seen, particularly following the *Visit Japan Campaign* which began in 2003. The Japanese government has instituted a number of programs to stimulate the tourism market and the success of these endeavors is evident. The total number of foreign tourists, for example, increased from slightly over 5.2 million in 2003 to over 10 million in 2013 (Figure 1). These results have occurred despite the negative effects of the global economic recession in 2008, the swine flu epidemic in 2009, political confrontations with China in 2010 and the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011.

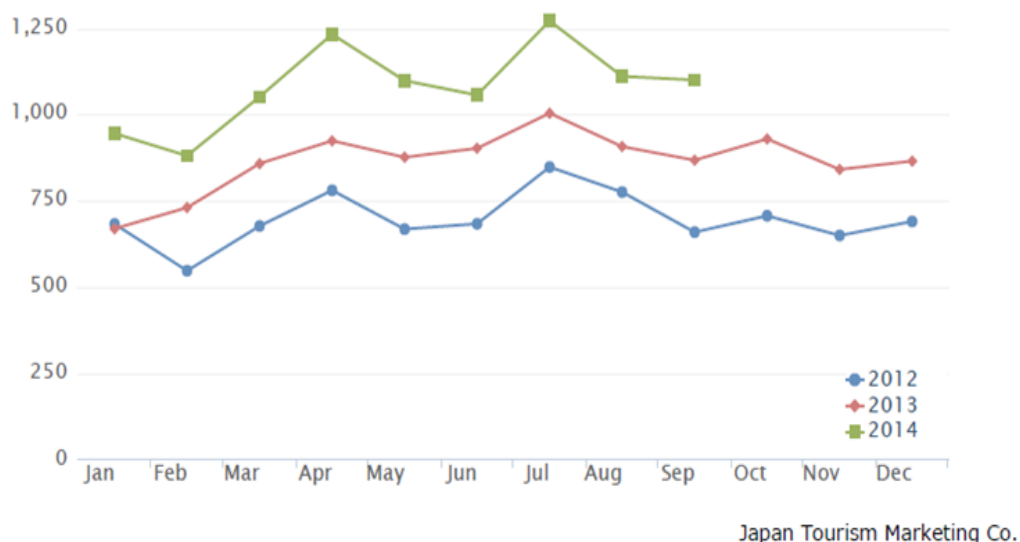
**Figure 1 - Changes of Foreign Visitors to Japan**



Source: Japan National Tourism Organization, 2014.

A disaggregation of the data by month further highlights the positive tourism trends. Figure 2 looks at the period of 2012 through the third quarter of 2014 and the average monthly data show a continuing increase in the number for foreign visitors to Japan and visitors in 2014 are expected to exceed the previous year's totals.

**Figure 2 - Number of Visitors to Japan from January 2012 – September 2014**



Source: Japan Tourism Marketing Co, 2014.

The awarding of the 2020 Summer Olympic Games to Tokyo is anticipated to have a significant positive impact on Japan's tourism industry. This event will require Japan to accommodate diverse groups of foreign visitors, many with differing and specific needs and desires. As the host country, Japan faces a great challenge to improve international tourism quality by creating a more desirable environment for tourists and heightening the satisfaction of foreign visitors. Nevertheless, the hosting of the 2020 Olympic Games can be a powerful engine to propel the development of the international tourism industry in Japan.

The strengthening of Japan's international tourism industry is one component designed to foster the current economic recovery as a "a healthy economy should be diverse and stand on a foundation of many factions...Tourism has the potential to fulfil a long standing vision of increased economic diversity and a more equitable distribute of wealth to smaller communities" (Northwest Territories, 2014). Tourism can also play an active role in promoting internationalization by giving sufficient respect and consideration to human diversity (Botterill, 1989).

This purpose of this study is to summarize the current situation of international tourism in Japan and examine the major problems the industry faces within the framework of policy-making and an investigation of existing practices. In addition, suggestions will be made on how Japan can improve tourism quality to better meet the various expectations of foreign visitors. A systematic and comprehensive study of this type is urgently needed as an increase in the international competitiveness of Japan's tourism industry will contribute to fulfillment of its national goal of the "Realization of a Tourism Nation."

## 1. Tourism Policy and Economic Development

A number of studies have shown that tourism, as well as business travel, make contributions to the development of international trade (Cristea, 2011; Hovhannisyan and Keller, 2011; Kulendran and Wilson, 2000; Shan and Wilson, 2001). Business travel, for example, facilitates face to face communication and enhances the possibilities for the various parties to negotiate successful deals. Many studies have offered evidence to prove the significant contribution of international tourism to the growth of the local economy. Schubert, Brida and Risso (2011) reconfirmed that there is a long-run relationship among economic growth, international tourism earnings and the real exchange rate (see also Vita, 2014). In addition to the traditional form of tourism for entertainment and relaxation, medical and health care tourism has become the new trend and countries have benefited from its market by making efforts to meet the consumers' needs (Connell, 2006; Moghimehfar and Nasr-Esfahani, 2011; Yu and Ko, 2012).

There are a number of successful examples of effective policies and practices which have driven the development of the national or regional economy. A study of tourism in the United States suggests that "mechanisms to increase the revenue of tourism related industries can potentially be successful in the long-run, even in the face of sustained economic stagnation" (Tang and Jang, 2009). In New Zealand, the opening of the Museum of New Zealand in 1998 brought about tourism growth in Wellington's short-term commercial accommodation sector (Carey, Davidson and Sahli, 2013). Macau is reported to rely on its gambling revenue to attract large number of investors from overseas (Ching-chi and Si, 2010; Zeng, Prentice and King, 2014) and China employs tourism as an effective measure to assist the poor rural areas to realize the goal of poverty alleviation and generate more socio-economic effects (Zenga and Ryanb, 2012; Su, 2011; Su, 2013). Similar practices can be seen in the case of rural areas in South Africa (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004). Less developed African countries have also attempted to increase their socio-economic gains by offering more competitive tourism products (Carlisle, Kunc, Jones and Tiffin, 2013). Researchers have even explored the possibility and potentiality to develop tourism in Afghanistan within its current commercial and cultural framework (Coulson, MacLaren, McKenzie and O'Gorman, 2014).

International tourism can be an indispensable part of the national economy and the promotion of international tourism not only contributes to the economic growth of the economy, but can also promote intercultural understanding. Tourism boosts cultural exchange because tourists from other countries learn about the local culture and history and bring about new perspectives to the local region. In many studies, culture has been taken into account when discussing the development of tourism. Matheson, Rimmer and Tinsley (2014) found that spirituality, attitude and the motivations of cultural adventure and escape lead to more active participation of the festival event. Amuquandoh (2011) argued that a thorough understanding of tourists' concerns about

traditional foods is necessary for the promotion and development of successful food tourism in Ghana. In a religion-dominated country such as Iran, it has become a very challenging task for the government to prepare national strategies on tourism development without sacrificing any fundamental social and culture values (Khaksari, Lee and Lee, 2014). Researchers also found that identity-related motivations are closely related to tourism experience and individuals use tourism “as a means to explore, maintain and even disengage from particular aspects of their identity” (Bond and Falk, 2013).

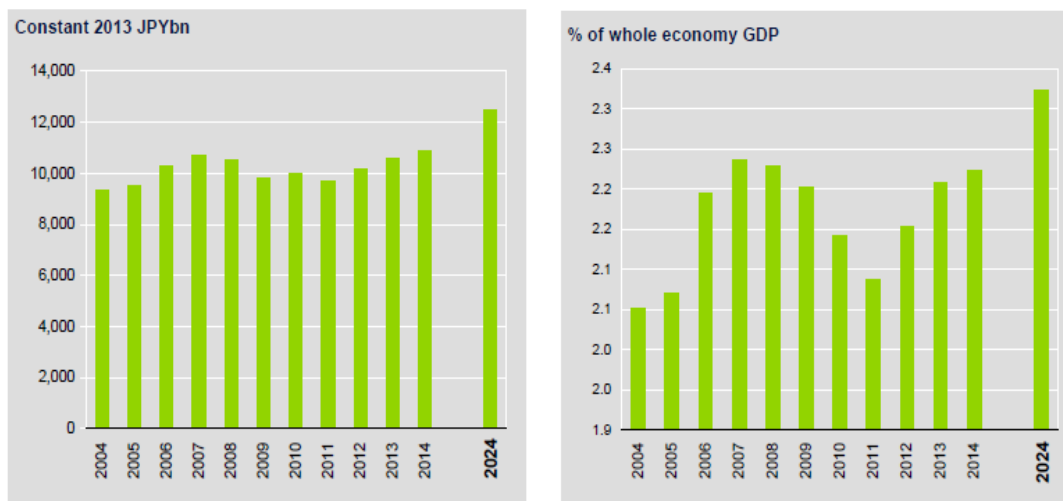
Japan has realized the importance of tourism in its economic development and has made efforts to integrate this into its fiscal agenda. According to the 2012 White Paper on Tourism (MLIT, 2013b), the main tourism nation promotion actions include (1) the development of the nation’s economy; (2) the promotion of international mutual understanding; (3) the stabilization and improvement of citizens’ daily lives and; (4) reconstruction from the earthquake disaster.

Following up on the earlier tourism promotion campaign of 2006, a new “Tourism Nation Promotion Basic Plan” was approved by the cabinet in 2012 and strongly pushed by Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe as a component of the new economic plan often referred to as Abenomics (Warnock, 2014). Combining fiscal stimulus, monetary expansion as well as deregulation, Abenomics is an economic strategy designed to overcome the recession in the domestic economy. Included are plans to “broaden the base of tourism” and “improve the quality of tourism” (MLIT, 2013a). The goal is to annually attract eighteen million foreign visitors to Japan by 2016, twenty million by 2020 and thirty million by 2030. And as the previous data show, early results have been encouraging, albeit an occasional hiccup (Warnock, 2014).

One important index reflecting the status of the tourism industry to the economy of a country is international tourism receipts. According to a World Travel & Tourism Council’s report, (WTTC, 2014), the total contribution from Travel & Tourism to the global economy rose to 9.5 percent of GDP with close to 1 out of 11 jobs in the world supported by tourism.

In Japan, as Figure 3 shows, the direct contribution of tourism to GDP in 2013 was JPY 10, 598 billion, which was 2.2 percent of GDP and the data indicate the contribution will rise close to 2.4 percent GDP by the end of 2014. Furthermore, the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP is expected to grow by 1.4 percent per annum over the next decade (WTTC, 2014).

**Figure 3 – Direct Contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP**



Source: World Travel & Tourism Council Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2014 Japan.

## 2. Current Challenges

The 2020 Olympic Games will provide a good opportunity for Japan to advertise itself to the world and increase its engagement in the world competition to attract tourists. Sport events have always been leveraged as a chance to boost tourism, but how best to accomplish this task can be challenging. The hosting of major sporting events is often subject to intense competition among nations, despite studies showing the economic impact of the large financial commitment is often very limited (Baade and Matheson, 2002; Baumann, Engelhardt and Matheson, 2010; Song, 2010; Szymanski, 2011). In addition, the long-term economic legacy effects appear to be quite modest (Kasimati and Dawson, 2009; Billings and Holladay, 2012; Mehrotra, 2012).

One notable exception, however, is the Australian Olympic Games held in Sydney in 2000. These games, along with the associated positive tourist impacts are deemed a great success with Morse (2001) concluding that the pre-games strategy and tactics developed by the Australian Tourism Commission were the most important contributing factors. These pre-game strategy and tactics have been recognized by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) as a benchmark on how to maximize benefits for both the Games and the host country (Morse, 2001).

In order to emulate the Australian Olympic experience, Japan needs to develop pre-game strategies and tactics that focus on the development and engagement of human resources in tourism services, make concerted efforts to satisfy the requirements of travelers, and create a more favorable environment for tourists from abroad.

In this section, the major issues with the current tourism market will be addressed and suggestions are given to solve those problems so that a continued growth of the tourism industry can be realized in Japan.

## 2.1. Services should be offered to focus on the needs of tourists with a great variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds

According to statistical data for 2013, travelers from Asian countries (7,951,000 people) comprise 76.7 percent of the total number of foreign visitors to Japan (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2014). South Korea, Taiwan, China, and Hong Kong are the four major Asian markets and the United States and Europe are the major western markets for international tourism in Japan (MLIT, 2013b). Promotion and advertisement campaigns supported by the government have been very successful in making Japan well-known to travelers for these countries. At the same time, many services provided at hotels, restaurants, stores and other public facilities in Japan have also been designed to meet the requirements of these visitors. In many souvenir shops, for example, staff who can speak Chinese or Korean are employed. However, it is often difficult to find someone who can communicate well in English. Thus, travelers from the United States and Europe often have trouble, particularly in areas regarding transportation due to the complexity of the system and limited number of signs in English. Menus may have pictures of food, but lack sufficient English explanations. Tourists from western countries complain about their experience due to insufficient explanation (Gordenker, 2014).

Although the White Paper for Tourism (MLIT, 2014) suggested Japan should place more attention on increasing revenue from inbound travelers to Japan from Asian countries, Japan should also focus on increasing tourists from other areas as part of its long-run development plans. Since tourists from Europe accounted for 51.6 percent of the total number of international tourists worldwide in 2012, a 17 percent increase over 2011. Japan should strengthen foreign language education in order to increase the number of individuals who can offer good service to tourists speaking different languages (The Japan Times, 2014). Insufficient foreign language services ranks top among all the complaints from foreign tourists (Takakura, 2014).

A positive effect of improved language services is the expansion of the number of areas which tourists may desire to visit. It has been pointed out, for example, that, “the typical tourist travel pattern to date has been the package tour, whereby tourists are taken around famous tourist sights” (Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet, 2014). However, with more tourists visiting, participatory or experience-focused tours could be expanded to respond to changing tourism needs.

Another issue that negatively impacts tourists from foreign countries is that traditionally, Japan is a mono-ethnic and mono-lingual country. The Japanese place high priority on their own cultural identity and have a tendency to reject people from different cultures (Zhang and McCornac, 2013). This may be a factor contributing to Japan’s delay in international exchanges (Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet, 2014). Such prejudices may negatively impact tourism and it has been contended that Japan usually pays more attention to the spreading of its own culture than accepting others (Zhang, 2006). But if Japan wants to realize its goal of attracting foreign tourists, Japan may need to improve its citizens’ intercultural awareness and highlight the issue

of intercultural communication education. Tourists with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds show differences in their expectations and attitude towards traveling and visitor experiences. Thus, different programs should be established to address the needs and interests of foreign visitors (Kirillova, Fu, Lehto and Cai, 2014; Packer, Ballantyne and Hughes, 2014). In order to better serve international tourists, linguistic capacity should always be enhanced within the framework of cultural contexts (Hogg, Liao and O'Gorman, 2014). More emphasis on cultural awareness in the services provided to foreign tourists will lead to higher satisfaction and more positive perceptions of international tourism in Japan.

Increasing cultural awareness may also alleviate some of the negative effects to the host country that tourism sometime brings. Conflicts between local residents and foreign travelers sometimes occur as local residents feel a large number of foreign tourists disturb their daily life (Mitchell and Ashley, 2006; Garst, 2014; South China Morning Post, 2014). Prices in the local area could be affected due to increased demand by tourists and foreign tourists have reported being rejected at local hotels because of racial discrimination (McCurry, 2008). While tourists are expected to be cooperative in communication and management (Liu and Tsaur, 2014), policy making authorities will need to propose the optimal solution to balance the interests between these two parties.

2.2. In order to increase receipts from international tourism, Japan should establish more optional tourism plans for tourists by focusing on those areas of its tourist market that are underdeveloped

According to Tanaka (2013), geographic concentration is the most remarkable feature of foreign tourists in Japan. Foreign travelers concentrate their visits extremely few locations such as Tokyo and Kyoto, and a number of prefectures in Japan have a very small number of foreign visitors annually. This indicates there might be a large potential for Japan to develop more attractive and enriching traveling programs for international tourists. The government should make efforts to increase the international arrivals in local areas in order to alleviate the pressures on Tokyo for accommodation. In addition, more options of traveling routes would also be expected to be more attractive to repeat tourists. As Briednhann and Wickens (2004) point out, tourism routes can function as an effective tool for the economic development of rural areas. Developing these markets may be the key to the success of the full recovery of the economy of the entire country. Hiwasaki (2006) notes that over time there has been an increasing demand for community-based ecotourism and green tourism, which are features more common in locally protected areas in Japan. The enhancement of tourism in those areas can bring vibrancy to their economies.

Tourism development should support opportunities in all regions, not only in the large cities and popular destinations. In order to maximize investment in the underdeveloped regions, a partnership approach could be an effective way to help



those regions to advertise themselves. Traveling routes for international tourists might include not only well-known traveling spots but also those underdeveloped regions so that the tourism market will expand gradually. Certainly, in this case, the construction of related facilities is necessary to help tourists easily access these destinations.

A positive factor that is conducive to the expansion of tourist areas is Japan's well established transportation network. The bullet trains, as well as express trains and local trains, connect most areas within the country (Taniguchi, 1992). Although a number of airports have been built as a result of "exaggerated demand forecasts and rampant, costly and arguably pork-barrel construction projects" (Aoki, 2012), Japan should take advantage of these airports to develop tourism in those local areas. These airports can function as a convenient transportation device for foreigners to reach the remote places more quickly.

An additional benefit of increasing tourist destinations may be the extension of the time spent in the country. Additional revenues could also be generated if international tourists prolong their stay nights. For the first time visitor to Japan, the bullet train, Mount Fuji and the famous temples of Kyoto are often the focus of the visit since these are considered the symbols of Japan. But if Japan aims to increase receipts from international tourism, more options should be offered so that travelers might spend more time in the country.

According to data from the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (2013) the average stay of a foreign national in a given prefecture is 1.47 days with the longest of 2.03 days and the shortest of 1.05 days. As can be seen, the number of days a tourist spends in one prefecture is very short. When considering the time needed to travel from one place to another, it is really difficult to experience the highlights of each place within one day or two. Considering that the bed occupancy rate and the guestroom occupancy rates in Japan are 36.3 percent and 54.6 percent, respectively (MLIT (2013) there is indication the capacity to accommodate more tourists from abroad is already in place.

Attracting more tourists is an important step in the development of the tourism industry and further efforts should focus on how to both extend visitor's stay as well as make the tourism market more dynamic and energetic so that more enriched and attractive traveling plans could be available for repeat tourists. These endeavors are actually more challenging, but may significantly impact receipts from international tourism.

### 2.3. Government can play an important role in developing tourism by implementing tourist-friendly policies and incentives for investment

International tourism is still a newly-emerging industry in Japan. It differs from other traditional industries, like production of cars and electronic appliances, where a solid base has been well established. For any newly-emerging industry, support from the government often plays a vital role and "at a policy level, there needs to be better

coordination among agencies responsible for sport and those responsible for tourism.”(Gibson, 1998)

Too often, however, investors are afraid of investing in tourism because of the high risk of failure inherent in the industry (Northwest Territories, 2014). But at the initial stage, capital investment and proper conditions lay the foundation for the development of any industry. Therefore, the governmental and administrative institutions can function as leaders and directors to ensure the establishment of related policies and regulations which favour the growth of international tourism.

Tanaka (2013) suggests that visa policies and transportation infrastructure can also play a role in the decision of international tourists both before and during their visit to Japan. That is, governmental and administrative organizations need to postulate more favorable policies to facilitate the visits of international tourists.

Obtaining a tourist visa is still a complex process and simplifying procedures would do much to foster tourism. The recent relaxation of visa requirements for Thailand, Malaysian citizens is an example of the positive benefits of such policies. Tourists from Thailand and Malaysia visiting Japan in 2013 amounted to 630,000, a 61 percent increase in the number compared with 2012 and this increase is attributable to the visa waiver (Dayrit, 2014). This trend appears to be continuing Japan Tourism Marketing Co. (2014) and the government has set a goal to increase the number of visitors from that region to 2 million by 2016 (Aoki, 2013). It is suggested that more relaxed visa requirements should be provided to increase travellers from Southeast Asian countries including Indonesia, Philippines, and Vietnam in order to attract more tourists from these countries (The Japan Times, 2014).

Since 2005, more international conferences have been held within Japan and further efforts should be implemented to continue this trend. This would be instrumental in improving the image of Japan as well as increasing the number of foreign visitors. On a positive note, Japan Convention Services, the nation’s leading professional congress organizer, has offered support for more international conferences, including enabling organizations to apply for subsidies from the Japanese government (Japan Convention Services, 2014).

## **Conclusions.**

Tourism offers a powerful means of carving a path to a national or regional future (Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet, 2014). The development of the international tourism industry can play an important role in contributing to the growth of the Japanese economy. Tourism not only generates revenue for firms directly involved in providing services, it can also be an agent to drive the development of other industries as well.

In order to achieve the above objectives, Japan needs to devote efforts to improve human resources in this service industry, and make adjustments in its efforts to satisfy the requirements of travelers with a variety of needs. Creating a better environment

for tourists from abroad should be a first priority and the challenges discussed above must be addressed.

To strengthen the international competitiveness of Japan's tourism industry, it is of crucial significance for Japan to make full use of its tourism resources while enhancing the managerial abilities of its tourist destinations to make Japan a charming country to foreign tourists.

The 2020 Olympic Games is a good opportunity for Japan to advertise itself and engage in the world competition to attract tourists. Japan can become a well-established tourist brand if foreign visitors are well satisfied with the services provided.

## References

Amuquandoh, F. E. (2011). International tourists' concerns about traditional foods in Ghana. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 18, 1-9.

Aoki, M. (2012, February 7). Bubble era's aviation legacy: Too many airports, all ailing. *The Japan Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2012/02/07/reference/bubble-eras-aviation-legacy-too-many-airports-all-ailing/#.Uzuo7rmKCbs>

Aoki, M. (2013, June 26). Relaxed visa program for Southeast Asian visitors starts. *The Japan Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2013/06/26/national/relaxed-visa-program-for-southeast-asian-visitors-starts>

Baade, R. and Matheson, V. (2002). Bidding for the Olympics: Fool's gold? In Barros, C., Ibrahimo, M. and Szymanski, S. (Eds.), *Transatlantic sport: The comparative economics of North America and European sports* (pp.127-151). London, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Baumann, R., Engelhardt, B. and Matheson, V. (2010). The labor market effects of the Salt Lake City Winter Olympics, Working Paper Series International Association of Sports Economists.

Billings, S. and Holladay, J. (2012). Should cities go for the gold? The long-term impacts of hosting the Olympics, *Economic Inquiry*, 50, 754-772.

Bond, N. and Falk, J. (2013). Tourism and identity-related motivations: Why am I here (and not there)? *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15, 430-442.

Botterill, D. (1989). Humanistic tourism? Personal constructions of a tourist: Sam visits Japan. *Leisure Studies*, 8, 281-293.

Briedenhann, J. and Wickens, E., 2004. Tourism routes as a tool for the economic development of rural areas – vibrant hope or impossible dream? *Tourism Management*, 25, 71-79.

Carey, S., Davidson, L. and Sahli, M. (2013). Capital city museums and tourism flows: An empirical study of the Museum of New Zealand Te Papa Tongarewa. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15, 554–569.

Carlisle, S., Kunc, M., Jones, E. and Tiffin, S. (2013). Supporting innovation for tourism development through multi-stakeholder approaches: Experiences from Africa. *Tourism Management*, 35, 59-69.

Ching-chi, C. L. and Si, C. W. (2010). Hotel occupancy rate in a gambling destination: A longitudinal study of the Macao hotel industry 2004–2007. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 17, 34-43.

Connell, J. (2006). Medical tourism: Sea, sun, sand and ... surgery. *Tourism Management*, 27, 1093-1100.

Coulson, A. B., MacLaren, A. C., McKenzie, S. and O'Gorman, K. D. (2014). Hospitality codes and social exchange theory: The Pashtunwali and tourism in Afghanistan, *Tourism Management*, 45, 134-141.

Cristea, A. D. (2011). Buyer-seller relationships in international trade: Evidence from U.S. States' exports and business-class travel. *Journal of International Economics*, 84, 207–220.

Dayrit, T. (2014, April 15). Japan “makes arrangements” to waive tourist visa for Pinoys, *Kicker Daily News*. Retrieved from <http://kickerdaily.com/japan-makes-arrangements-to-waive-tourist-visa-for-pinoys>

Garst, W. (2014, February 25). HK anti-tourist protest good for no one. *China Daily*. Retrieved from [http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/business/2014-02/25/content\\_17304027.htm](http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/business/2014-02/25/content_17304027.htm)

Gibson, H. (1998). Sport tourism: A critical analysis of research. *Sport Management Review*, 1, pp. 45–76.

Gordenker, A. (2014, May 19). Shocking baths of Japan. *The Japan Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2014/05/19/reference/shocking-baths-japan>

Hiwasaki, L. (2006). Community-based tourism: A pathway to sustainability for Japan's protected areas. *Society & Natural Resources: An International Journal*, 19, 675-692.

Hogg, G., Liao, M. and O'Gorman, K. (2014). Reading between the lines: Multidimensional translation in tourism consumption. *Tourism Management*, 42, 157-164.

Hovhannisyán, N. and Keller, W. (2011). International business travel: An engine of Innovation? NBER Working Paper Series, No. 17100.

Japan National Tourism Organization. (2014). Press release -- Number of visitors to Japan. Retrieved from [http://www.jnto.go.jp/jpn/news/data\\_info\\_listing/pdf/pdf/131023\\_monthly.pdf](http://www.jnto.go.jp/jpn/news/data_info_listing/pdf/pdf/131023_monthly.pdf)

Japan Tourism Marketing Co. (2014). Retrieved from <http://www.tourism.jp/en/statistics/inbound>

Kasimatia, E. and Dawson, P. (2009). Assessing the impact of the 2004 Olympic Games on the Greek economy: A small macroeconometric model. *Economic Modelling*, 26, 139–146.

Khaksari, A., Lee, T. J. and Lee, C. (2014). Religious perceptions and hegemony on tourism development: The case of the Islamic Republic of Iran. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16, 97-103.

Kirillova, K., Fu, X., Lehto, X. and Cai, L. (2014). What makes a destination beautiful? Dimensions of tourist aesthetic judgment. *Tourism Management*, 42, 282-293.

Kulendran, N. and Wilson, K. (2000). Is there a relationship between international trade and international travel? *Applied Economics*, 32, 1001–1009.

Liu, J. and Tsaor, S. (2014). We are in the same boat: Tourist citizenship behaviors. *Tourism Management*, 42, 88-100.

Matheson, C. M., Rimmer, R. and Tinsley, R. (2014). Spiritual attitudes and visitor motivations at the Beltane fire festival, Edinburgh. *Tourism Management*, 44, 16-33.

McCurry, J. (2008). Japanese hoteliers turn backs on foreign tourists. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2008/oct/10/japan-japan>

Mehrotra, A. (2012). To host or not to host? A comparison study on the long-run impact of the Olympic Games. *Michigan Journal of Business*, 5, 61-92.

Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT). (2013a). The tourism nation promotion basic plan, 2006. Retrieved from <http://www.mlit.go.jp/kankocho/en/kankorikkoku/kihonkeikaku.html>

Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT). (2013b). White paper on tourism in 2012. Retrieved from <http://www.mlit.go.jp/common/000221177.pdf>

Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT). 2014. White paper on tourism in Japan – the tourism situation in FY2012. Retrieved from <http://www.mlit.go.jp/common/001018364.pdf>

Mitchell, J. and Ashley, C. (2006). Tourism business and the local economy: Increasing impact through a Linkages approach. ODI Briefing Paper. Retrieved from <http://www.odi.org.uk/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/2592.pdf>

Moghimehfar, F. and Nasr-Esfahani, M. H. (2011). Decisive factors in medical tourism destination choice: A case study of Isfahan, Iran and fertility treatments. *Tourism Management*, 32, 1431-1434.

Morse, J. (2001). The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games: How the Australian tourist commission leveraged the Games for tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7, pp. 101-107.

Northwest Territories – Industry, Tourism and Investment. (2014). Tourism 2015, a Discussion Paper. Retrieved from <http://www.iti.gov.nt.ca/sites/default/files/Tourism2015IndustryConsultationPaper.pdf>

Packer, J., Ballantyne, R. and Hughes, K. (2014). Chinese and Australian tourists' attitudes to nature, animals and environmental issues: Implications for the design of nature-based tourism experiences. *Tourism Management*, 44, 101-107.

Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet. (2014). Outline of the report (main text) by the Japan Tourism Advisory Council. Retrieved from [http://japan.kantei.go.jp/policy/kankou/houkoku\\_s\\_e.html](http://japan.kantei.go.jp/policy/kankou/houkoku_s_e.html)

Schubert, F. S., Brida, J. G. and Risso, W. A. (2011). The impacts of international tourism demand on economic growth of small economies dependent on tourism. *Tourism Management*, 32, 377-385.

Shan, J. and Wilson, K. (2001). Causality between trade and tourism: Empirical evidence from China. *Applied Economics Letters*, 8, 279–283.

Shankman, S. (2014). 15 countries with biggest gains in tourism receipts in 2013. Skift. Retrieved from <http://skift.com/2014/01/20/15-countries-with-biggest-gains-in-tourism-receipts-in-2013>

Song, W. (2010). Impacts of Olympics on exports and tourism. *Journal of Economic Development*, 35, 93-110.

South China Morning Post (2014, April 15). Anti-Chinese feelings in Thailand high as influx of tourists angers locals. Retrieved from <http://www.scmp.com/news/asia/article/1483307/anti-chinese-feelings-thailand-high-influx-tourists-angers-locals?page=all>

Su, B. (2011). Rural tourism in China. *Tourism Management*, 32, 1438-1441.

Su, B. (2013). Developing rural tourism: the PAT trogram and 'Nong jia le' tourism in China. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15, 611–619.

Szymanski, S. (2011). About winning: The political economy of awarding the World Cup and the Olympic Games. *SAIS Review of International Affairs*, 31, pp. 87-97.

Takakura, M. (2014). Hospitality? Foreign tourists see 'Galapagos-pitality.' *Nikkei Asian Review*. Retrieved from <http://asia.nikkei.com/magazine/20140320-Son-the-acquisitor/Culture/Hospitality-Foreign-tourists-see-Galapagos-pitality>

Tanaka, A. (2013). Geographic concentration of foreign visitors to Japan. Research Institute of Economy, Trade & Industry, IAA. Retrieved from <http://www.rieti.go.jp/jp/publications/dp/13e008.pdf>

Taniguchi, M. (1992). High speed rail in Japan: A review and evaluation of the Shinkansen train. The University of California Transportation Center (UCTC). Retrieved from <http://www.uctc.net/papers/103.pdf>

Tang, H. and Jang, S. (2009). The tourism–economy causality in the United States: A sub-industry level examination. *Tourism Management*, 30, 553-558.

The Japan Times (2014, January 6). Attracting more tourists to Japan. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/opinion/2014/01/06/editorials/attracting-more-tourists-to-japan/#.U3xGtHadRSE>

Today. (2014, May 21). Japan retailers target new big spenders. Retrieved from <http://m.todayonline.com/business/japan-retailers-target-new-big-spenders-tourists>

Vita, G. D. (2014). The long-run impact of exchange rate regimes on international tourism flows. *Tourism Management*, 45, 226-233.

Warnock, E. (2014). Abenomics shrinks Japan's tourism deficit. *Japanrealtime*. Retrieved from <http://blogs.wsj.com/japanrealtime/2014/01/15/abenomics-shrinks-japans-tourism-deficit>

World Bank (2014). International Tourism, Number of Arrivals. Retrieved from <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.ARVL>

World Tourism Organization Regional Support Office for Asia and the Pacific. (2013). Retrieved from <http://www.unwto-ap.org/image/news/50-2.pdf>

World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTTC) (2013). Economic Impact Research. Retrieved from <http://www.wttc.org/research/economic-impact-research>

Yu, J. Y. and Ko, T. G. (2012). A cross-cultural study of perceptions of medical tourism among Chinese, Japanese and Korean tourists in Korea. *Tourism Management*, 33, 80-88.

Zeng, Z., Prentice, C. and King, B. E. (2014). To gamble or not? Perceptions of Macau among mainland Chinese and Hong Kong visitors. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16, 105–112.

Zenga, B. and Ryanb, C. (2011). Assisting the poor in China through tourism development: A Review of research. *Tourism Management*, 33, 239–248.

Zhang, R. (2006). International or self-conscious? --A slip of Japanese government in policymaking. In Figueroa & Garate (ed.), *Studies in contrastive linguistics* (pp.1091-1098). Spain: Universidade de Santiago de Compostela.

Zhang, R. and McCornac, D. (2013). Intercultural awareness via improvements in intercultural communication: The need for change in Japan. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*. Retrieved from <http://immi.se/intercultural>