

# **Publicly Displayed Maps in Japan As a Cultural Testimony to a Wealthy Lifestyle**

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## **Introduction**

Related to the article which was published in this journal last year,<sup>1</sup> this one delves into maps on public display from the perspective of how they serve as a testimony of Japan being a highly developed, modern society through their contents, styles, and media. To do so, the following four sections address (1) why Japan might be considered a “developed, wealthy” country in which the pursuit of leisure has become statistically significant, (2) the fact that publicly displayed maps are of practical value for tourists and other users in society at large, (3) types of illustrations on the maps that pertain to tourism and recreation, and (4) how the illustrated maps in particular provide evidence of a highly developed society. An inherent theme within the article is that the illustrations on the maps draw attention not only to a highly developed country that is promoting leisure activities within the country, but also to one that is keen to continue cultivating its own culture.

## **Japan as a Developed, Wealthy Country That Promotes Leisure Activities Within**

A combination of selected statistics from two editions – 1996 and 2003, which cover most of the period during which the maps reproduced in this article and that published last year were photographed – of two publications focusing on Japanese social and economic conditions suffice to demonstrate that, materialistically speaking, Japan is a developed, wealthy country.<sup>2</sup> Average life expectancy at birth is the highest in the world, with figures showing a progressive increase for both females and males over the last fifty-plus years: 65.5 and 61.6 years respectively (1950-55), 70.2 and 65.5 years (1960), 83.0 and 76.6 years (1993), and 83.8 and 77.0 years (1995-2000). Birth and death rates, as well as the corresponding rates of natural increase, have been low in the last decade or so, although there has been a slight decline in the birth rate (10.0% in 1994, 9.6% in 1995, and 9.4% in 1999)

and a rise in mortality (7.1% in 1994, 7.4% in 1995, and 8.3% projected for 2000-05, with a projected rise to 13.0% in 2030-35 because of the increasing proportion of the elderly). Complementing these vital statistics is mathematical evidence of excellent nutrition, the daily caloric intake per capita in 1992 and 2000 having been 2736 and 2762 kilocalories and the per capita daily intake of protein for the same years having been 97.8 and 91.8 grams, both more than sufficient for a people whose average height and weight were, for 1993 and 2000 respectively, 171.4/171.8 cm. and 64.3/65.4 kg. for men and 158.4/158.5 cm. and 51.4/50.3 kg. for women.<sup>3</sup>

Several criteria could be used to demonstrate the economic strength of the country, but a few should suffice to point out that the theoretical average Japanese enjoys significant wealth. The gross domestic product per capita for 1994 stood at US\$36,863 and at US\$32,600 (via current exchange rates) or US\$26,500 (based on the cost of a basket of goods and services) for 2001, while the per capita gross national product for 1994 was US\$34,630 and the gross national income per capita was US\$35,620 for 2000. Gold and foreign exchange reserves, which reflect potential international purchasing power, increased favorably and remarkably from US\$69.0 billion in 1991 to US\$122.8 billion in 1994, US\$361.6 billion in 2000, and US\$402.0 billion in 2001. An eccentric, yet meaningful because of contemporary concerns, indicator of a wealthy lifestyle is the relatively high per capita emissions of carbon dioxide, which increased slightly from 9.0 tonnes in 1993 to 9.1 tonnes in 2000.

Unencumbered by statistics, personal observation and basically typical experience of Japanese material life since the mid 1980s also attests to a high standard of living. Although not everybody in Japan is well-to-do, and many with a reasonably comfortable existence compared to elsewhere in the world might like more material wealth, it is rather clear that such basic requirements for dignified survival as adequate nutrition, shelter from the hostile natural elements, and clothing for protection and modesty are readily accessible, the exception being for the emerging class of "homeless" people who have increased over the last fifteen years. This accessibility is universal throughout the country, and Japanese enjoy healthy diets (although "junk food" has been gradually diffusing throughout the country) and appropriate wardrobes of reasonable to high quantity and quality, while their housing (in many cases considered to be less spacious than desired, and partly to blame for the recently lower birth rates) and associated equipment are sufficient for the likes of eating, sleeping, and otherwise maintaining a dignified, comfortable existence. Added to this is the national health program, to which all

Japanese are supposed to be registered one way or another, and which provides for trivial care (e.g. common colds and minor injuries) all the way to treatment for serious conditions (e.g. cancers and life-threatening injuries) without financially ruining the patient. Other conveniences of an advanced technological nature and which are or can be enjoyed by Japanese include personal vehicles (e.g. bicycles and strictly regulated automobiles), public transportation (e.g. buses and electrified trains), paved roads, public sanitation systems for disposal of sewage and other wastes, and recently modern machinery (e.g. a variety of telecommunications gadgetry, computers, washing machines, and microwave ovens).

Alongside the materialistic convenience which can be enjoyed from factors such as these, and despite the time-consuming (not necessarily pleasant or desirable) social networking at or through the work place or elsewhere, Japanese do have the potential to engage in a variety of leisure activities. Free time from the perspective of most who work is not easily come by, and a lot of it can be eaten up by such activities as family duties and commuting, but the following statistics do suggest that working Japanese could have the equivalent of four and a half calendar months off the job per year: 104 days for weekends, 15 national holidays, and per capita authorized paid vacation days which ranged from 14.4 in 1980 to 16.9 in 1994, although the figure for weekends is probably more like 52 days and the number of per capita authorized paid vacation days that were actually taken ranged from 8.8 in 1980 to 9.1 in 1994 and stood at 9.0 in 1999. The statistically average worker aside, there are individuals of working age who have or can make available more free time per year, and these would include college students (although they seem to like filling their "free" time with part-time work), the partially employed, teachers, and practitioners in such learned professions as medicine and law, while many retirees nowadays not only have substantial free time but also have significant savings to make life meaningful, interesting, or comfortable.

A range of leisure activities exists, and the following list the top ten in order for 1994 and 2001: (1) dining out; (2) tourism in Japan; (3) driving; (4) karaoke; (5) zoos, botanical gardens, aquariums, and museums; (6) watching videos; (7) going to drinking places; (8) listening to music; (9) lottery tickets; and (10) amusement parks for 1994; and (1) dining out; (2) tourism in Japan; (3) driving; (4) karaoke; (5) watching videos; (6) listening to music; (7) zoos, botanical gardens, aquariums, and museums; (8) personal computers; (9) gardening; and (10) watching movies (but not on television) for 2001. Several of these do not require much in regard to travel,

but one (tourism in Japan) certainly does and three (driving, going to zoos etc., and going to amusement parks) generally do. The raw figures for these activities in 1994 were 63.6 million individuals for domestic tourism, 61.6 million for driving, 45.9 million for going to zoos etc., and 39.3 million for going to amusement parks, and for 2001 the first three stood at 64.3 million, 61.8 million, and 44.3 million, while the fourth had dropped to the thirteenth most popular leisure activity at 36.4 million.<sup>4</sup> Maps are useful for all four activities, and it would appear that printed versions (in atlases, in books and pamphlets, on sheets of paper) account for most, with cyberian versions on navigational screens inside vehicles now being very popular. Some of these maps are strictly informative, while others incorporate illustrations of various degrees of dominance inside the composition. Supplementing such maps, many of which are portable, are maps on public display that are often aimed at the domestic tourist in the sense that their information tends to identify and/or to advertise sites of interest, accommodations, car rentals, and the like. It is conceivable that without the sizeable group of recreational “geographers” mentioned earlier in this paragraph, many maps would not be published or, in the case of the publicly displayed ones as discussed from the subsequent set of examples and those reproduced in last year’s article, made and put up.

### **Publicly Displayed Maps as a Form of Applied Geography to Benefit Non-Specialists**

Publicly displayed maps in Japan have been anchored down and range in size from several centimeters squared to large billboards measured in meters. Although they might be viewed from a distance, where general shapes, the larger lettering, and some symbols or illustrations might be understood, they tend to be designed for up-close consultation where the pictorial and verbal details can be worked out relatively easily. A variety of materials have been observed to have been used for their construction, with metals and fiberglass appearing to be the most common media, followed by wood, and then ceramics and even paper, while some have a protective, transparent covering and many have a functional frame of metal or wood. Each surface requires certain techniques for executing a map in regard to the likes of lining, labeling, and coloring, and the final products required several stages to go through, notably an initial decision to commission the project, collection of relevant topographic information, drafting the composition so that it could be understood and viewed meaningfully from a selected point, presumably inspection and possible

revision, and the actual craftsmanship (including machine work) on the selected medium. Organizations that appear to commission such maps include municipal authorities (probably the most common group), civic organizations, private companies, Buddhist temples, Shintō shrines, and educational institutions.

Any particular map on public display may be seen to function as a device for way-finding or locating places, and unadorned urban district maps (map 1) as well as those of small areas with clusters of small businesses (map 2) seem to have been designed with only this intention in mind. A user can search for a place on the map either by name or by address depending on the circumstances, locate it, and find a route to it by using the general principle that, when looking at the map, what is toward the top of the map is in front of the user and what is to the right side of the map is to the right of the user (quite often there is a designated point accompanied by a message along the lines of "you are here"). Other types of publicly displayed maps also may be used for finding places or routes, but many also serve as advertisements for a particular place (e.g. settlement as a whole, area for tourism, religious institution, park), business, or group of businesses (e.g. rental car companies, accommodations, restaurants, local products, theme parks); in these cases the advertisement(s) might be the composition in its entirety, illustrations on the map, and/or verbal, numerical, or even pictorial information next to it (maps 3, 4, 5, 6). A third function would seem to be environmental ornamentation, as in an artifact that improves the visual appeal of a particular area, most commonly a



Map 1: *Jūkyō Hyōji Gaiku Annaiban* (Information Board about Streets and Districts to Indicate Residences), north to the left. Bunkyo Ward, Tōkyō, August 2001.



Map 2: Untitled map of land occupancy in a part of Sakyō Ward, north to the top. Kyōto, December 1999.



Map 3: *Ueno Onshi Koen Annaizu* (Guide Map of the Ueno Royal Park), north to the upper right. Taitō Ward, Tōkyō, April 1996.



Map 4: *Kōbe Nankin-Machi* (Nanjing Town of Kōbe), north to the top. Kōbe, May 2003.



Map 5: *Satsuma Tokusanpin Mappu* (Map of the Special Products of Satsuma), north to the top. Kagoshima (city), October 2000.



Map 6: *Cesar Musashiurawa Gaden Kensetsuji no Goannai* (Honorable Information about the Construction Site of the Cesar Musashiurawa Garden [condominiums]), north to the top. Minami Ward, Saitama (city), October 2002.

clustered urban site. While most of the maps are not eyesores, they are generally displayed in a way that blends unobtrusively into the local scenery (maps 7, 8) or that makes sense given a certain function (e.g. to determine which route to take while hiking in the mountains, to find out which sites might interest a tourist) (maps 9, 10), yet some are discrete, smallish enterprises that do little more than spruce up a rather bland environment (map 11).

Targeted audiences for such maps include practically everyone in one way or another. The generally unadorned area maps are useful for finding residences, businesses, bureaus, schools, and various other places, and these maps will get the



Map 7: *Jūkyō Hyōji Gaiku Annaizu* (Guide Map of Streets and Districts to Indicate Residences) along Tajima-dōri, north to the bottom. Minami Ward, Saitama (city), July 2002.



Map 8: *Yukemuri Yūhodō* (Steam Promenade), north to the upper right. Nakanojō, Gunma prefecture, November 1999.



Map 9: Untitled map for hiking on Mount Kawanori, north to the top. Okutama, Tōkyō prefecture, June 1995.



Map 10: *Azumino Hotaka Kankō Annai* (Information for Tourism in Hotaka of Azumino), north to the bottom right. Hotaka, Nagano prefecture, November 1998.

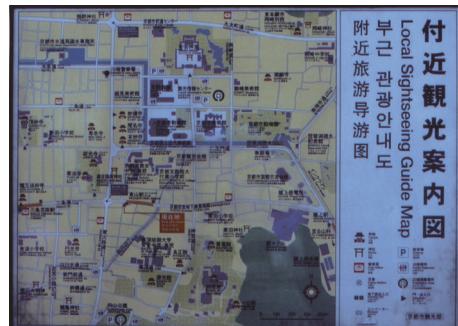
user to the required urban block or, in the smaller cities and towns, close enough. Given the intense clustering of buildings in Japanese urban areas, especially in the supercities, these maps are valuable aids when trying to locate a site for the first time in particular, especially when it is considered that asking for directions from passers-by can very likely get no useful result. Maps on public display can also target specific audiences, among whom would be visitors to large businesses (e.g. factories), educational establishments, parks and sports venues, public gardens,



Map 11: *Kameyama-Chō Annaizu* (Guide Map of Kameyama Town [i.e. Urban District]), north to the upper right. Yamaguchi (city), November 2002.



Close-up of Map 11.



Map 12: *Fukin Kankō Annaizu* (Guide Map for Tourism in the Neighborhood), north to the top. Higashiyama Ward, Kyōto, November 2002.

museums and other cultural sites, and religious institutions. Such visitors might be local residents, Japanese visitors or tourists, or even foreign tourists (given away by the use of English and in some cases other foreign languages as on map 12), but other users could be hikers (especially in the countryside and lesser built-up areas) and religious pilgrims to a particular site or on a circuit tour. Many of the maps which are aimed at tourists and pilgrims have illustrations, often attractive, that transcend “scientific” cartographic abstraction, and these have been categorized elsewhere into symbolic resemblances, idealized portraits, realistic portraits, and cartoon characters.<sup>5</sup>

## **Cartographic Illustrations in Regard to Tourism and Recreation**

Table 1 lists most of the types of pictures that are found in the illustrated maps reproduced in this article, while Table 2 does the same for those published in the article in last year's journal (see note 1) to provide more evidence. Two main

categories have been created – pictures which can be assumed to be connected rather strongly to tourism and recreation and pictures concerning local affairs that tourists might not be interested in – but it must be noted that in a couple of cases not every illustration on the map has been categorized in the tables, mainly because of the difficulty in checking the details from photographs. Still, it has been possible to make a sufficiently comprehensive classification to demonstrate that such maps are predominantly related to domestic tourism and recreation, which the tables divide into opportunities for sightseeing and visiting, physical exercise, and relaxation.

Taking sightseeing and visitation first, it is possible to note that the illustrations depict or refer to three types of site – physiographic, religious, and culturally secular – with a couple symbolically representing an area (the dragon and Chinese lady for the Chinatown at Kôbe, the bobbing-head cow for the Aizu Basin). Of those

**Table 1**  
**Types of Pictures in the Reproduced Illustrated Maps**

Map Number	Tourism and Recreation			Local Affairs
	Sightseeing and Visiting	Physical Exercise	Relaxation	
3	birds, pond, cherry trees, shrines, pagoda, temple, zoo, museums, statues	baseball player	festival hall	university, academy
4	gates, pavilion, toilet building, statues, dragon, Chinese lady		festival	shop products, department store
5	local scenes			locally produced foods and beverages
6				condominiums
10	mountains, trees, flowers, various secular sites	country clubs, swimming pool		<i>wasabi</i> fields
12	temples			

Notes: The contents listed for each map in Tables 1 and 2 are thorough but not necessarily complete. “Sightseeing and Visiting” includes physiographic scenery (including artificially set vegetation), religious sites, secular sites, and symbolic objects. “Physical Exercise” refers to activities or opportunities for participating in sports (including what appears to be recreational fishing) and games. “Relaxation” includes hot-springs resorts, dining and drinking, and other forms of amusement. “Local Affairs” are economic or related to government or education. Maps 1, 2, 7, 8, 9, and 11 in this article do not have illustrations and thus are not included in Table 1.

**Table 2**  
**Types of Pictures in the Illustrated Maps Reproduced in Last Year's Article** (cited in note 1)

Map Number	Tourism and Recreation			Local Affairs
	Sightseeing and Visiting	Physical Exercise	Relaxation	
1	mountains, rocks, sea creatures, cherry trees, pine trees, waterfall, shrines, temples, dam, Acorn Village, parks, castle ruins, museum	golf greens, skier, fisherman	spa bathers, festivals	tangerines, pear, tea, rice, pottery
2	trees, temple, historic buildings and gates, statue, birthplace monument			fruit
3	Mt. Asama, hardened lava, tree-covered landscape, reindeer, temples, park with buildings and walking paths			
4	mountains, trees, waterfalls, water pools along a river, building of cultural relevance, monuments	tennis players, gateball players, swimmers, hikers	spa bathers	
5	trees, mountains, imagined flatland, temple complex			
6	temples, burial mound			historical river transport of goods
7	mountains, temples, shrine		hot spring	television broadcasting building, fire department, university, high school

Map Number	Tourism and Recreation			Local Affairs
	Sightseeing and Visiting	Physical Exercise	Relaxation	
9	mountains, trees, waterfall, water hole, battlefield warriors	golfer, golfing green, sports stadium, hikers, boaters, horse rider	spa bather, beer hall, motorists	farm with cow, buildings, town hall
10	karstland, mountains, rocks, sea creatures, waterfalls, temples, pagoda, shrines, church, safari park, zoo, steam train, historic structures, lighthouse, castle ruins	fishermen, skier	spa bathers, campsite	airplanes, boats, fruit, factories
11	coral, trees, fish, local dances, agricultural garden	golfer, snorkelers, scuba divers, swimmers, children at play	restaurant, bull fight, boats, motorists	sugar field, shrimps, fisherman, cow shed, village hall, schools, gymnasium
12	trees, historic buildings, museum, tumulus with statues, bobbing-head cow			
13	trees, temple complex			
14	trees, shrine complex			
15	historic castle grounds			

Map 8 in last year's article does not have any illustrations and therefore is not entered in this table. See the "Notes" for Table 1 for an explanation of the categories.

referring to the natural environment, mountains and the often planted trees are quite common, but specific features such as waterfalls, an unusual terrain (e.g. Mount Asama and its nineteenth-century lava flow, the karst of central Yamaguchi prefecture), and fauna get their due attention. The religious sites are usually temples and shrines, although the occasional pagoda and even a church slips in, while secular sites include the likes of ruins, monuments, historical buildings,

museums, parks, and zoos.

Opportunities for physical exercise and relaxation emphasize amusement for the participant rather than something that is most likely simply observed or, at best, examined. Various sporting activities are illustrated, and these include those which imply travel with specific intent (golf, tennis, hiking, snorkeling, scuba diving, skiing), although those such as baseball and gateball (akin to croquet) are probably oriented toward local residents. Among the activities for relaxation is the immensely popular bathing in mineral waters at hot-spring spas, and festivals have been included in this category because, rather than engaging in such physical activities as carrying portable shrines or wrestling in mud, most people hang around with an eat-drink-and-be-merry attitude. Also included in the last group are dining, motoring, and camping.

The final category is “local affairs,” which tourists and other pleasure-seekers might take an interest in but, with the exception of products sold at shops catering to tourists, are not expected to. Economic themes are the most common in this category, with cultivated primary produce (fruit, tea, rice, sugarcane, shrimps), pottery, and factories being included, while means of transportation (airplanes, boats, even cars) and advertisements for goods (Chinese food and hats, condominiums) may be found. Also drawn on such maps are various buildings besides those of immediate interest to tourists and other recreational visitors, and among them are centers of local government, schools and college buildings, and gymnasiums which, while being important to local residents, might serve as landmarks for orientation.

It is worth noting here the insights that the illustrations on maps such as those reproduced in this and last year’s article, as well as in the other articles which are mentioned in note 5, give into domestic tourism and recreation in Japan. First of all, the use of the Japanese language either exclusively or, by being more common or larger and/or above one or more foreign languages, in a privileged position indicates that the maps are aimed predominantly at Japanese, which implies that Japanese have reasons to consult them. Similarly, the cute, happy, playful, colorful artwork and the views of selected sites have been executed stylistically in ways that are familiar to Japanese, and which arguably are extensions of historical experience in Japanese pictorial art; notable in this regard are the cartoon characters, which also promote enjoyment, and the portraits of religious compounds.<sup>6</sup> A third observation is that, the entries in Tables 1 and 2 being typical but not exhaustive, many of the subjects in the maps tie into some of the top-ten leisure activities that are

mentioned in the second section of this article – tourism inside the country, visiting zoos and museums (and the like), and driving, as well as to some extent dining out, going to drinking places, and visiting amusement parks – and others refer to such recreational or leisurely activities as sports, festivals, and bathing in mineral waters. Of these last three activities, it might be noted that attending festivals, some local and others distant, and relaxing at spas have long been popular in Japan, while the frequently depicted sports of golf and tennis seem to have become fashionable with the optimism and financial capabilities of the 1980s into the 1990s. A final point that might be made to link illustrated maps such as those discussed here with domestic tourism is that their pictures can draw attention to salient features of local physiography (Japanese are supposed to be “nature lovers”), economy, and history, things that are more likely to interest visitors than local residents who probably take the scenery for granted and are not so intrigued by local livelihoods or past events.

### **Illustrated Maps on Public Display as Evidence of Life in a Highly Developed, Modern Country**

Whereas the forms and content of the artwork and the predominance of the Japanese language in the illustrated maps reproduced here as well as in last year’s article and elsewhere (see notes 1 and 5) promote a cultural identity, including what a Japanese at play might like to do, some elements also reveal a modernness in lifestyle that is generally accessible to Japanese today. In regard to socioeconomic “development” as conveniently defined in an American textbook for an introductory course on human geography, “the process of improving the material conditions of people through diffusion of knowledge and technology,”<sup>7</sup> there are several indicators on or associated with the maps to suggest that Japan has done a rather good job. These are briefly explained here in the context of the quality of the maps, the fact that they require “consumers,” and the language and illustrations that point to current changes and conditions of comfort and enjoyment.

The maps themselves are of a high quality in content, execution, and employed materials, although there are cases where a map has been damaged by lengthy exposure to the natural elements or by vandals. At the time of their construction, the maps conveyed information that was current, and generally most of what is on such a map remains valid for several years if not longer. Some can be rather dense, as when the content involves a detailed layout of the streets or the names

of shops or landowners (usually in unillustrated cases), yet others are not very cluttered and rely on the likes of open spaces and curving lines to give a more relaxed feel. Regardless of where a specific map fits on such a spectrum of density, it can be assumed that the topographical information is trustworthy and properly located, at least in a useable sense of relativity, something that can be attested to by personal experience and by comparing the information to that on high-quality commercially produced printed maps. It might be noted that the maps have been oriented in a user-friendly way so that – in most cases observed “in the field,” and most likely the intent of the compiler(s) in nearly all the maps – anything from half to all of the area depicted on the map is in front of the viewer, and what is to the right on the map is physically to the right, and most of the maps indicate the cardinal directions which are generally not required for immediate use. Coloring, lining, labeling, and other lettering and numbering are all neat and internally consistent to avoid confusion, while both the abstract symbols and the pictures which are used are easily identifiable because of Japanese convention or visual likeness.

Whereas the above testifies to very good cartographic craftsmanship and implies that sufficiently educated personnel were engaged in the planning and execution of such maps, it is also worthwhile to point out that the maps are on materials which require special techniques and equipment for their actual manufacture. Two types of surface – wood and ceramic – have been around in Japan for a long time, while two of recent provenance are metallic and fiberglass; in all of these cases skilled craftsmanship and compatible paints are required, and the latter two and even ceramics, which has evolved with the times, involve reasonably complicated machinery that runs on energy provided by fossil fuels or atomic reactions. The precise machinery, tools and other equipment, and manufacturing processes which would be involved for each medium have not been investigated for this study or the related publications in notes 1 and 5, yet it might safely be assumed here that producing a map for public display in Japan is not technologically simple and that reasonably new, appropriate technologies would have been used as soon as they were available.

Because a lot of the topographical information on the maps on public display can be acquired in other ways (notably portable printed maps of varying qualities, maps in guide books, or oral directions), it might be argued that these maps are generally not necessary but are, hence, courtesy offerings to the public or even

ornaments. In the case of the unadorned maps that are primarily used to find residences, businesses, lines of transportation, or other things within a graphed landscape, it may be assumed that a civic organization has used “spare cash” to provide a convenience or complimentary service and that commissioning such maps would not be a high priority during times of fiscal hardship. On the other hand, the illustrated maps appear more to be advertisements than a complimentary service, so commissioning one of these would reflect an institutional willingness to promote a site or area by visual appeal or explanation. Keeping in mind that it is common and expected for an advertiser to promote a product as being better than it is and in an idealistic setting, the illustrated maps do a good job of fitting this pattern. The Chinatown in Kōbe, for example, is nowhere near as spacious and bright as map 4 suggests, and of course there is no dragon or even a beautiful woman walking around with a fan, but they are effective symbols that play on popular expectations for a Chinese community. Likewise, the map of (expensive) Shima Onsen in mountainous northwestern Gunma prefecture (map 4 in last year’s article) is advertising summertime sports and bathing in mineral waters through physically attractive, smartly dressed, appropriately equipped, and smiling cartoon characters, even though it is rather difficult to smile during a tennis volley or (at least for long) in a hot-spring bath and the physical condition of many visitors is not as good as what the pictures suggest. As for map 6 here, an example of how maps can be used in unabashed advertisements, it is understood that the finished building might look quite like that in the painting, but nobody truly expects the adjacent scenery to look so nice or open, especially in an already built-up urban district that includes a working-class residential complex next to the building site. Most of the pictures in the illustrated maps, as mentioned earlier, are of course showing places that are likely to interest visitors or to serve as landmarks for them.

The point is that the maps require “consumers” to justify their financial outlay, and in the case of the illustrated ones, these people are expected to be tourists or other transient visitors who are presumed for the most part to be Japanese nationals. Some of them might be very wealthy and even among the social elite, but most would be moderately wealthy, privileged through professional perks, members of (temporary) groups taking advantage of cost efficiencies, or members of a family with a bit of spare time. For most Japanese, some form of domestic tourism or recreation is within their means, but it is not cheap. The costs generally

increase with the distance traveled since the fares for transportation are so based (and travelers who go far typically do not have the luxury of time to take advantage of the very cheap stop-at-every-station ticket offered by Japan Railways), although the rates for accommodations can range from modest (say, ¥5000 or ¥6000 per night per person) to very expensive, it not being uncommon for example for visitors at mineral-water spas to pay at least ¥10,000 each for a place to sleep, bathing privileges, a (sumptuous) dinner, and a modest breakfast for each night stayed. Those staying at hotels, which is now common in the cities, might easily pay upward of ¥10,000 per night for lodging and meals, not to mention additional costs for intraurban transportation and admission fees to such sites as shrines, temples, museums, and zoos. Added to these financial outlays might be additional expenses for entertainment (e.g. drinks, massages, sex) and souvenirs that are likely to include local foods, beverages, trinkets, or crafts.

Visitors to any particular site – especially in a city such as Kyôto, Nagasaki, or Tôkyô – could come from anywhere in the country, although many markets such as those for spas, golf courses, and skiing resorts tend to be regional. This means that the services provided for them need to accommodate national expectations and sensitivities, and to be of a quality commensurate with the costs incurred, and the same may be said for the information which is directed at them on publicly displayed maps. The Japanese language on the maps is respectful, correct, and (where sentences are used) in the standard national idiom, with the characters and the vocabulary being current.<sup>8</sup> In specific regard to cartographic vocabulary, mainly in the titles of maps, a variety of words based on the character 図 (*zu*, diagram)<sup>9</sup> may be found, while evidence of contemporary linguistic change can be observed on maps that use such newer words as *mappu* (マップ, instead of *zu* or *chizu* (地図, literally “land-diagram”)) or *gaido* (ガイド, instead of *annai* (案内, information/guidance)) that have been derived from the English words “map” and “guide.” Similarly, the visual information on the maps meets contemporary expectations – including attire for various outdoor activities (e.g. the “pose” of the hiker or the tennis player), a towel on the head of a spa bather, casual clothing on museum visitors, contemporary vehicles and vessels for transportation, and the existing appearance of buildings new or old – and promotes activities, places, and scenes of interest to the modern Japanese at play. Perhaps the most suggestive pictures on illustrated public maps for using disposable income in a fashionable way are those about golf, tennis, and mineral-water bathing, but many others encourage

investing in regional discovery (geographical or historical), cultural understanding, or popular scientific knowledge, all of which imply the existence of a reasonably well educated, intellectually curious audience.

### In Perspective

Maps such as those reproduced in this article, that in last year's edition of this journal, and those listed in note 5 bear evidence of a technologically modern, "developed" society in regard to materialistic achievement and diffusion. They have been neatly prepared in a professional manner requiring several stages and special tools and/or machinery depending on their medium, and the fact that they may be found throughout the country indicates that there is no regional disadvantage in terms of access to ideas and technologies behind the maps. The illustrated ones in particular are aimed primarily at Japanese tourists and visitors engaged in recreational activities, the implied sizeable market being demonstrated by the relative popularity of and estimated numbers for participants in domestic tourism and related activities mentioned in the second section of this article. The roughly 64 million people who engaged in domestic tourism in both 1994 and 2001 is approximately half of the entire Japanese population, and on average each participated in 3.5 trips in 2001,<sup>10</sup> suggesting that the number of individuals with the financial capacity, time, and interest to engage in domestic tourism is immense. Simple driving and visits to zoos, museums, and other sites that combine recreation with informal education – all with large numbers of participants who engaged in multiple activities (see note 10) – suggest that the number of Japanese at play who might benefit from these maps is even larger. Most of these participants of course reside in the cities, but given that advertisements for domestic travel may be seen in travel bureaus all across the country, it may be deduced that practically any Japanese adult with at least modest means and the interest may take advantage of the opportunities for domestic travel and related leisurely activities. The myriad of publicly displayed maps throughout the country, and especially the illustrated ones, would seem to be a "service" for their benefit.

## Notes

1. Simon Potter, "Artwork in Publicly Illustrated Maps in Japan as a Medium for Cultural Insights," *Studies in Media and Culture* 3 (2007): 57-72.
2. Except for the information provided for notes 3 and 4, the statistics in this section were taken from Masayoshi Morita (ed.-in-chief), *Japan 1996: An International Comparison* (Tôkyô: Keizai Kôhô Center, 1995), 13, 17, 67, 80, and 102; Satoshi Nishiwaki (ed.-in-chief), *Japan 2003: An International Comparison* (Tôkyô: Keizai Kôhô Center, 2002), 14, 15, 17, 39, 102, and 115; Japan External Trade Organization (publ.), *Nippon 1996: Business Facts and Figures* (Tôkyô: Japan External Trade Organization, 1996), 17, 123, 134, and 156; and Japan External Trade Organization (publ.), *Nippon 2003: Business Facts and Figures* (Tôkyô: Japan External Trade Organization, 2003), 17, 120, and 147.
3. For the statistics on height and weight, see Yoshimasa Otsuka (ed.), *Japan Almanac 2003* (Tôkyô: The Asahi Shimbun, 2002), 204; this anthology gives lower daily per capita figures of 1948 kilocalories and 77.7 grams of protein for 2000, but notes that the latter "fulfills the recommended average nutritional requirement levels" (p. 203).
4. For the statistics about visitors to amusement parks in 2001, see *Japan Almanac 2003* [note 3], 249.
5. Simon R. Potter, "Contemporary 'Ezu' on Public Display in Japan, Continued," *Tsudajuku Daigaku Kiyô* [Journal of Tsuda College] 35 (2003): 91-92 (77-114 for the entire article); and "Illustrated Maps on Public Display in Japan: Geography and Artistic Tradition," *Geographical Review of Japan* 76, 12 (2003): 198-200 or 834-36 (187-206 or 823-42 for the entire article). The first is a continuation of "Contemporary 'Ezu' on Public Display in Japan: Examples of a Cartographic Tradition That Continues to Flourish," *Tsudajuku Daigaku Kiyô* 34 (2002): 97-128. Reproductions of publicly illustrated maps can be found in these three articles, that mentioned in note 1 above, and the following also by the author of this article: "Religious Sites in Japanese Illustrated Maps: Insights from the Literature about the Past, and Contemporary Examples from Maps on Public Display," *Saitama Daigaku Kiyô: Kyôyôgakubu* [Journal of Saitama University: Faculty of Liberal Arts] 39, 1 (2003): 51-95; "Addendum to the Annotated Translation about the Star Map Inside the Kitora Burial Mound," *Saitama Daigaku Kiyô: Kyôyôgakubu* 38, 1 (2002): 177-203; and "Publicly Displayed Maps in Chikusa-ku, Nagoya: Samples of Japanese Cartographic Art," *Gengo Bunka Ronshû* [Collection of Essays on Language and Culture] / *Studies in Language and Culture* 29, 1 (2007): 161-74 (published by the Graduate School of Languages and Cultures, Nagoya University).
6. A brief analysis of the relationship of the artwork in the illustrated maps to pictorial art in Japanese history is given in "Artwork in Publicly Illustrated Maps in Japan" [note 1], 58-60, and "Illustrated Maps on Public Display in Japan" [note 5], 202-03 or 838-39.
7. James M. Rubenstein, *An Introduction to Human Geography: The Cultural Landscape* (Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson/Prentice Hall, 2005), 299.
8. Whereas Japanese can expect the verbal information to be in good Japanese, foreigners must have lower expectations, especially with the English language. Given the nature of maps, most of the flaws are spelling mistakes (e.g. "hear" for "here" or "cite" for "city"),

but twisted vocabulary and grammar may be found in some accompanying explanations. There are literally tens of thousands of native-English users in Japan who have been educated at least to the bachelor's level, and hiring such personnel to correct and even to edit the publicly displayed English should be only a trivial expense in the manufacture of most of these maps. The same could be said of many more signs, noncartographic, throughout the country, so the most charitable explanation for the sloppy English that is found on public display is that Japanese consider arrangements of Roman letters to be ornamental.

9. *Zu* is the most common pronunciation for 圖, although it may be pronounced *to*, *haka*, and *zū* in some words, examples being given in Simon R. Potter, “Japan as a Cartographic Heritage Without a Word for ‘Map,’” *Tsudajuku Daigaku Kiyō* [Journal of Tsuda College] 33 (2001): 169-200. *Zu* (vocalized *tsu*) and *to* appear to have been two ways that ancient Japanese approximated the northern Chinese *tú*, a combination of phonemes that does not exist in Japanese.
10. Otsuka, *Japan Almanac 2003* [note 3], 249, which also notes that the average participant in 2001 went driving 14.5 times, visited zoos etc. 3.4 times, and went to amusement parks 3.5 times.