Countries’ Involvement in Whaling and the Impacts on Their Tourism Industries
2012

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Marine Science

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Bachelor of Science
In the Honors Program at
Coastal Carolina University
May 2012

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Abstract

Since the expansion of whale watching as an industry, many countries have converted from whaling as a source of revenue. There are still some countries that partake in whaling and also conduct whale watching tours. The belief is that these two industries cannot coexist in a country and that whaling will have a negative impact on the whale watching sector and the tourism industry all together. A comparative analysis of scholarly articles was conducted alongside a survey to examine the impacts of whaling on the whale watching industries of certain countries. The results showed whaling and whale watching can coexist in a country with no negative impacts on the country’s economy.

Introduction

In 1955, people paid $1.00 to see whales in their natural habitat (Parsons & Rawles 2003). This was the initial price to participate in a whale watching tour in California, where this attraction first took place. Today people pay $100.00 or more to watch whales in their natural habitat. The attraction to see these enormous animals in the environment has been expanding since that first tour and this growing fascination has become an important source of revenue for many countries. Countries that are capable of offering these tours in their country now rely on it as profit for their tourism industry.

Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) define the term “whaling” as hunting of larger whales, for this paper, smaller whales will be included in this definition. In 1986, the International Whaling Committee (IWC) implemented a moratorium prohibiting countries from whaling; it was supposed to last for four years, but was extended every four years until 2002, when it was made
indefinite (Herrera & Hoagland 2006). Today, countries, such as Japan and Iceland, receive permits for scientific whaling. These countries, that currently receive these permits, were the countries that have been protesting the moratorium since it was first implemented. For pro-whale advocates, it is these countries that are a concern since they originally whaled for commercial use. However, with the growing interest in whale watching, these whaling countries now offer tours as well. This “double standard” is causing issues between the whaling nations and ones that only have the whale watching industry. The debate to allow both industries to occur together in one country continues to be argued.

Although the ethical debate is important, there are also many economic consequences. Many countries do not realize how their involvement in whaling impacts their economy. For many countries, tourism is a growing industry that brings in billions of dollars every year. A country’s connection to whaling may have a negative impact on their tourism. The issue of whaling is taken more seriously now than ever before. There are people that take it so seriously that they will not travel for leisure to countries that still whale, thus decreasing a country’s tourism profits. Countries that offer whale watching tours and still hunt whales need to be careful how they present this to the public, as people may see it as hypocritical and choose not support that country.

This paper will discuss the level of involvement in whaling of certain countries and how that affects their tourism industries. The connections between whaling and whale watching on a country’s tourism industry were analyzed. In addition, a short survey was conducted to see if whaling impacts travel plans to certain countries. There should be an impact on a country’s tourism industry if it is highly involved in whaling, especially in their whale watching sector of tourism.
Whaling: Past & Present

Whales can be divided into two groups: Mysticeti (baleen whales- meaning “mustache”) and Odontoceti (toothed whales) (Tonnessen & Johnsen 1982; Ellis 1991). The Bay of Biscay, located in Western Europe, northeast of Spain and northwest of France, is believed to be the site of the earliest whaling, in the ninth century. The “Basques” are credited with the first intentional hunting excursions known to date (Ellis 1991; Herrera & Hoagland 2006). The Basques were known to hunt right whales and there are some records of them hunting the Atlantic gray whale, a whale which became extinct during the Baques’ hunting years (Ellis 1991). The techniques of whaling in the ninth century differ from the techniques used today. There is evidence of 25-foot whaling boats used for hunting expeditions between the 11th and 16th centuries. These boats required about six men, to row and harpoon the whales (Ellis 1991). During the 17th century, new techniques were used to build modernized boats. These ships weighed between 200-400 tons and were about 100 feet in length; the crew was made up of 30-50 men with a captain and a speckioneer (the blubber cutter) (Ellis 1991).

This business of whaling has been around for centuries, and yet many men did not know what whales looked like until the 1600s (Ellis 1991). Men that would hunt these whales began creating maps with these aquatic beasts on them. Once the world knew what they were capable of with these animals, the hunting of them became increasingly varied. A very important note is that early whaling must be kept in its historical perspective and present day ethical and political views cannot be applied to the 17th century hunters (Ellis 1991). The species of whales hunted
has changed slightly since those days, but the majority of countries today hunt what their ancestors hunted, given that they are permitted to and the whale stocks are sufficient.

**Whale Watching: Definition and Background**

Whale watching is defined as tours provided to the public either via boats, air or land to view, listen to, or sometimes swim with whales, dolphins and/or porpoises in their natural habitat (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002; Kuo, Chen & McAleer 2011; Parsons & Rawles 2003). Whale watching operations began in the 1950s in California (Parsons & Rawles 2003; IFAW Report, 2009). Since that first tour, which cost US$1.00, the whale watching business has grown to become a large scale international tourism business (Corkeron 2004). The original tours would take place once a day on the family’s fishing boat. As the industry grew, companies were created and new, more efficient boats were built. Beach and Weinrich (1989) describe the boats used in the 1970s as vessels that range from 60-100ft in length, are powered by diesel engines and can hold up to 150 passengers. These tours occurred 2 times a day during the off season and 3 times a day during the summer, with each trip lasting between 4-5 hours, although there were full day excursions offered (Beach & Weinrich 1989).

Orams (2001) stated that it was not until 1983 that the IWC considered whale watching a “use” of whales. The U.S. presented this non-consumptive use of whales and a decade later the IWC formally recognized whale watching as an actual part of the tourism industry (Orams, 2001). It was in 1986 that whale watching really flourished as an industry and was only going to grow for the next two decades (Herrera & Hoagland 2006). The whale watching industry quickly became a multimillion dollar industry (Beach & Weinrich 1989). The IFAW report in 2009 compared the industry’s growth rate between 1998 and 2009. In 1998 there were 87
countries and territories that carried about 9 million passengers on tours generating just over US$1 billion. These numbers are impressive but into 2008 the numbers continued to grow. There were 119 countries and territories involved now with over 13 million people participating and in this year the total generated expenditure was US$2.1 billion. Herrera and Hoagland (2006) also stated that there are over 9 million trips taken each year across the world. Globally, whale watching has increased greatly but examining specific countries will help identify the trends of each tourism industry.

**Moratorium: Background and Debate**

The IWC proposed and passed the moratorium at the 1982 meeting; it would go into effect at the conclusion of the 1986 season (Herrera & Hoagland 2006; Ellis 1991). The moratorium was implemented as a conservation measure and designed to protect whales from extinction (Herrera & Hoagland 2006; IFAW 2009). It was to “phase” out commercial whaling between 1982 and 1985, and have zero catch limits by 1986 all over the world (Sigurjónsson 1989). The moratorium did not, however, exclude whaling for scientific purposes (Sigurjónsson 1989). The moratorium was initially implemented for four years, until 1990, at which the IWC would examine the scientific evidence received from research over the four years and determine if the whale stocks had returned back to sustainable levels (Ellis 1991). The moratorium is still in effect today and issues permits, but is due to expire in 2012 (IFAW 2009).

**The Debate**

There are many issues involved in a country’s decision to be involved in whaling or not. Since ecotourism and tourism in general, are growing industries, many countries offer whale watching tours as a source of profit. And since this has become a booming industry, many countries now rely on it to produce a significant percentage of profit within their economies.
Still, there are countries in which the economy thrives on the industry of whaling, not whale watching tours. These are the countries that cannot afford to have whaling removed altogether because their economy would suffer with just offering tours, if they are even capable of offering the whale watching tours.

**Impactful**

There are those who now worry that if a country that offers whale watching tours sanctions the activities of whaling, it will have a negative impact on their tourism industry (Herrera & Hoagland 2006). Herrera and Hoagland (2006) also mention that many environmental groups say tourists could potentially be deterred from visiting these countries if the whaling continues. If whale watchers or pro-whale advocates have a choice to watch whales in a country that does not support whaling, they are more likely to select that country (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002). Areas where whaling and whale watching would really come into conflict are those that have “high potential for growth of whale watching industry as well as a tourist industry important to the local economy, or where whale watching is important to the tourism sector, or both” (Herrera & Hoagland 2006). Herrera and Hoagland (2006) tested this model in countries like Japan and Canada to individual states of the U.S. and little islands in the Caribbean. They came to the conclusion that small islands or states, such as those in the Caribbean, where whaling is considered an “artisanal” custom, but it is hard to prove that whaling is done for indigenous purposes, are the best examples of the conflict. These little islands have extremely high potential for growth of whale watching industry, which many islands are trying to expand, and their tourism industry is very important to their economy, as most of the islands are destination spots for vacationers. Ris (1993) demonstrates that whales are actually worth more alive than dead and that a “carefully-developed” whale watching industry
will benefit communities. Many communities have been transformed by the whale watching industry, bringing their community to life (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002). The town of Kaikoura, New Zealand was a suffering city in the 1980s. Their economy was depressed and had climaxed at a very low level. However, the introduction of whale watching in 1987 revitalized their economy and the overall morale of the city. By 1994, more than 25 times the number of visitors came to Kaikoura than in 1986 (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002).

The question of whaling impacts on tourism has been tried to be answered for many years. Many surveys have been taken and nearly all of them show that tourists are less likely to visit a country that sanctions whaling. Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) surveyed Americans in which 70% opposed commercial whaling under any circumstance. Another survey conducted specifically on New England whale watchers that showed 83% agreed it is morally wrong to kill whales regardless of the reason (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002). Another survey conducted in Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Canada showed that on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) – 5 (strongly agree) whale watchers averaged a response of 4.42 to the statement ‘commercial whaling should be stopped’ (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002). Parsons and Rawles did a survey and showed that “91.4% of whale watchers would not engage in whale watching tours in a country that hunts whales for commercial benefit,” (Higham & Lusseau, 2005). This survey shows that many people would not partake in the activity of whale watching but does not specify if the tourists would travel to that country. But the 2001 visitor survey conducted in Iceland by the Tourists Board showed that 40% (of visitors) would not return to Iceland if whaling was resumed (Bjorgvinsson 2002), showing that some tourists wouldn’t even return to the country if whaling was permitted. This is supported by a survey presented by Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) that in Tonga, 78% of airplane visitors and 62% of yacht visitors would be less likely to vacation at a
location where whales were hunted. If tourists choose not to travel to whale hunting country, then this could reduce tourism industry revenues (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002).

If the tourism industry is impacted, then the money generated will be influenced. There are certain situations in which whale watching generates more revenue than whaling does (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002). A country that recognizes whale watching generates greater revenue, but still allows whaling to occur within the country, is essentially “shooting themselves in the foot.” Herrera and Hoagland (2006) state explicitly that when pro-whale advocates react negatively to whaling, then surplus losses will occur. Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) show that when tour operators in Tonga were asked if whaling practices would be detrimental to their tour business, they all agreed their businesses would suffer greatly; and in Iceland 11 of the 13 tour operators opposed the resumption of whaling in their country. The fall in tourism profits received for the area can be directly related to the failing of whale watch tour operators.

Iceland is a very prominent example of these detrimental happenings. Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) indicated that in Iceland, the number of tourists would only have to drop 7% in order for the revenue loss to equal the whaling income of about $20 million in the mid 1980’s when it peaked. Williams (2008) states that tour bookings for 2007 dropped 25% in the two weeks right after Iceland publically announced their resumption of whaling. Countries like Iceland need to realize that these decreases in visitors will cost them in the long run. Norway is another country that can hurt financially from the impacts of whaling. Herrera and Hoagland (2006) stated that there were export losses between $1-2 million when Norway resumed commercial whaling in 1993.

Another way that whaling countries are losing money is through boycotts. This is an indirect cost, but it is still affecting the economies greatly. When Iceland resumed its
commercial whaling, there were several boycotts that took place. Higham and Lusseau (2006) showed that there were many travel cancelations and decrease in holiday bookings from their British and German tourists, providing some evidence for a potential tourist boycott. Another boycott took place in the U.S. in which Americans boycotted Icelandic products (Ellis 1991). There were also several travel boycotts in the Caribbean because some countries were selling their IWC votes to support Japan’s whaling (Herrera & Hoagland 2006).

Herrera and Hoagland (2006) stated that countries that have larger ecotourism divisions should be less willing to be involved in whaling or at a minimum decrease their intensity. Some of these countries that have large tourism divisions are ones that are still involved in whaling. The potential still exists for whaling to have a significant impact in a country’s economy, particularly on ecotourism activities such as whale watching (Herrera & Hoagland 2006). Kuo, Chen and McAleer (2011) show that in Norway and Japan the annual growth of whale watching industries is evidence that whaling has negative impacts on whale watching and tourism industries. Iceland, for example, had an average annual growth of 251% between 1994 and 1998, but between 1998-2008 the average annual growth was only 14% (Kuo, Chen, McAleer 2011). This decrease in tourists average annual growth rate is another example of the negative impacts of whaling in the whale watching industries. These countries probably should cut back or completely halt their whaling activity if they don’t want their economy to suffer.

No Impact

Many countries that initially rejected the moratorium hold the stance that whaling and whale watching can coexist in a country. Some countries even believe that whaling produces more revenue than whale watching and that whaling is necessary to maintain other jobs in the country. Bjorgvinsson (2002) argues that in Iceland, the pro-whaling advocates believe whaling
is needed because if there are too many whales, then the fish stocks will begin to deplete affecting the fishing industry, which is also a large job and money source in Iceland. This statement is also supported by Corkeron’s (2004) statement that the fisheries peaked in the late 1980s and have since been on a decline. Aron, Burke and Freeman (2000) stated that many coastal villages in Norway and Iceland suffered serious financial losses with the imposition of the moratorium in 1986. The moratorium also affected people in Japan because they are not legally allowed to fish, shrimp, or shellfish off their boats (Aron, Burke & Freeman 2000). Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) show that prior to the moratorium, whaling industry in Norway offered between 250-300 jobs over a two-month season, versus the whale watching industry, which only offered 9 full time and 52 part time jobs. This moratorium essentially prevented many of these people from having jobs to provide for their families. These cutbacks on job opportunities are extremely detrimental to the countries’ economies. In fact, Herrera and Hoagland (2006) state that countries that have valuable fish stocks that are the preferable food source of whales will find it more cost-efficient to partake in whaling.

With the loss of many jobs in these countries, there must be some type of setback of the communities’ economies. Moyle and Evans (2001) show that in both Japan and Norway, whale watching would be an inadequate whaling substitution for revenues and thus the economy would suffer greatly. The whaling industry was one of the leading sources of revenue for these countries and they “could not subscribe to policies that would threaten their domestic economy,” (Ellis, 1991). Many other governments also claimed that whaling is essential to their countries’ economies (Williams 2008). Pro-whale advocates are arguing that the tourism industry is going to suffer greatly when a country allows whaling to co-exist with whale watching, but there is no coherent evidence that says it will suffer to an ending extent. Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002)
support these findings with the notion that even if whaling industries were to resume, the countries can still attract tourists of other kinds: (a) tourists that say they wouldn’t come to a whaling country but still do, (b) tourists that want to support whale watching operations within whaling countries, or (c) tourists that support or are unaffected by the idea of whaling. Corkeron (2004) showed that both Norway and Japan have whaling and whale watching occurring at the same time; it should be noted that the animals hunted differ from those being watched.

As in anti-whaling cases, there have been surveys taken to see the impact of whaling on tourists’ decision to visit a country. Williams (2008) presented a survey conducted in 2006 in Iceland that showed 70-80% of local people supported commercial whaling. Aron, Burke and Freeman (2000) showed a similar response in two surveys, one conducted in Japan and the other in Iceland. The survey given in Japan asked locals the question “if managed rationally, should whaling be permitted?” to which 70% said “yes.” The survey conducted in Iceland showed that 80% of participants supported the resumption of whaling. Another interesting aspect of these whaling countries is the understanding between the two sectors. Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) mentioned that in Norway, whale watching operators and whalers seemed to have a higher tolerance for each other than in other countries. Maybe it is this understanding of one another that makes whaling and whale watching coexist as it does in Japan, Norway and Iceland.

Many pro-whaling advocates argue that whaling today is much different than whaling 35 years ago when the moratorium was set in place. Many of the whale stocks have begun to recover and as they do whaling advocates are pressuring the IWC to loosen up on the moratorium (Herrera & Hoagland 2006) or at least offer a reason that is relevant to the current situation. Ris (1993) states that “the argument against the killing of whales can no longer be based on preventing extinction, so a different rationale is required.” So if this rationale is no
longer applicable, then what is the pro-whales’ new reason? Herrera and Hoagland (2006) also offer the possibility that if the moratorium became less restricted, the whale stocks most likely would not be threatened because limitations would be put in place. Whalers also have argued the longevity of the whale watching industry. It is, or was, a booming industry, but the main question that must be considered is how long tourists will continue to pay to see whales in their natural habitat. In the past several years, the industry in many countries has begun to plateau (IFAW 2009). Many governments, that say whale watching is producing more revenue than whaling, are under the “assumption that the existing demand for whale watching is inelastic,” (Moyle & Evans 2001). What happens when people don’t want to go on whale watch tours any more, but a country has banned whaling? Jobs will be lost, revenues will drastically drop and the economy will eventually suffer. Whalers are not saying that the whale watching sectors should be removed from the tourism industry; in fact, they are suggesting that whaling and whale watching can coexist in countries.

**Methodology**

A short survey was conducted parallel with the journal comparisons of the study. The survey consisted of 10 questions and was given online (Appendix 1). Six of the ten questions were open response that required the subjects to explain their answers. The survey was posted on a free online survey host, SurveyMonkey.com, for 2 weeks and open to the public. The survey link was posted on the surveyor’s Facebook page and also distributed to Coastal Carolina University professors whom then forwarded to their students. After the 2 weeks the survey answers were taken from the site and analyzed.

**Results:**

**Comparative analysis**
A comparison within certain countries was conducted for Iceland, Japan, Norway, and the U.S. By using the 2009 IFAW report, the data from 1998 and 2008 can be evaluated in these areas. The number of whale watchers, average annual growth rate (AAGR), number of tour operators, and total expenditures was examined between the 10 year span with in each country.

Husavik, Iceland took nearly 23,000 tourists on whale watching tours and quickly became the whale watching capital of Europe, (Bjorgvinsson, 2002). Between 1998 and 2008 the country had an average annual growth rate of 14% with 114,500 whale watchers in 2008, (IFAW Report 2009). Bjorgvinsson (2002) stated that the total expenditure for Iceland in 2001 was US$13 million and IFAW (2009) reported in 2008 the total expenditure was over US$16 million. This makes Iceland second highest in the revenues produced in Europe (17% of total).

In Japan, the number of whale watchers and total expenditures was higher than Iceland. The country was computed as a whole, not split into separate islands. As stated in the IFAW (2009) report, 102,000 tourists visited Japan in 1998 and in 2008 it grew to 192,000 tourists. The total expenditure for 2008 was just under US$23 million.

Norway does not have as high numbers as the other two pro-whaling countries, but still has an increasing number of whale watchers since 1991. Between 1998 and 2008, IFAW (2009) reported an increase in whale watching tourists from 22,300 to 35,300 and the number of tour operators increased from 1 in 1991 to 20 in 2008. Norway’s total expenditures for whale watching in 2008 generated just over US$10 million (IFAW Report 2009).

The United States is the largest and is one of the most mature and well established whale watching industries in the world, the others being Canada and Mexico. The 2009 IFAW Report does break down the United States into regions, but for this paper the entire United States was analyzed. Because the United States was the location of the first whale watching tour, its
average annual growth rate of tourists is not as high. In both 1998 and 2008 more than 4 million watchers participated in the tours. Although the average annual growth did not increase drastically, the number of tour operators did. Between 1998 and 2008, 191 operators opened up for business (IFAW Report 2009). In 2008 alone, the United States generated a total expenditure of US$960 million, (IFAW Report, 2009).

Comparisons of the four countries discussed above are compared in three main categories; number of whale watchers, average annual growth rate (AAGR), and total expenditures (Appendix 2). Both Japan and Norway have relatively small AAGR and a decrease in total expenditures. Iceland had the highest AAGR (14.20%) over the 10 years and fairly steady increase in total expenditures. The USA had the overall highest expenditures and number of whale watchers for both years and a significant increase in expenditures between the years. However, the USA had the smallest AAGR, only increasing some 600,000 watchers.

Survey

Of the 78 participants surveyed, 19 had already been on a whale watching tour. All of the 19 participants went a boat tour as opposed to the land or air tours. A majority, 59, of the participants had never been on a whale watching tour. And there were 2 participants of the 59 that had mentioned seeing whales while on another type of tour or trip; these were accounted for in the “by accident” column (Appendix 3). The countries that the tours took place in ranged all over the world (Appendix 4). The countries with the asterisk are the countries that participants saw whales “by accident.”

The next question that was analyzed asked the participant if the opportunity of a tour be a consideration in their travel plans. A majority, 64 of the 78, responded in the affirmative that a tour would be a consideration in their plans. There was 1 participant who was undecided if
he/she would consider it and 12 who said it would not be a consideration (Appendix 5). One of the participants failed to answer this question.

With the ethical debate of whaling in mind, participants were asked first is scientific whaling was a valid reason and then if commercial whaling was a valid reason. More than half of the participants, 48, said that whaling for scientific purposes was not a valid reason. Of the 78, 17 said that science was an acceptable reason for hunting whales. And 13 participants responded with a statement of uncertainty or a situational statement (Appendix 6).

The participants’ responses for commercial whaling had the same trend but a much higher peak. More than 75% of the participants said commercial whaling was not a valid reason. There was a drop in “yes” from the scientific whaling of 17 to 8; although these 8 were part of the scientific 17 yes responses. There was also a slight drop for the “depends/unsure” column to 7 participants (Appendix 7).

The question that was of most interest was the last question; it asked the participants the level of influence whaling in a country has on their plans to travel there (Appendix 8). The question was ranked by a number scale where 1 was no influence and 10 was very influential. Neutral, 5, had the most participants, 15. And “no influence” had the second highest with 12 participants. There was a small peak around 8, but then a large drop at the “very influential” end of the spectrum.

**Discussion**

Based on the research conducted for this paper, few studies have analyzed the connection between whaling, whale watching and tourism. However, this is understandable because whale watching as an industry did not flourish until a couple of decades ago, shortly after the whaling moratorium was implemented. Those that have conducted experiments to try and configure a
relationship have had limited information up until very recently. The data needed to determine if whaling has an impact on tourism industries must be offered by each individual country or the scientists must have permission from those countries to conduct experiments/surveys within the country. When considering the question “what are the impacts of whaling on tourism industries?” it must be noted that there are several ways to “impact” the industry. Overall, any impacts will affect the profits of the industry. However, it can be impacted by boycotts on goods from that country, traveling boycotts to that country, or boycotting the whole whaling/whale watching industry.

Scientists seem to be split in their conclusions. Studies conducted in whaling countries show that whaling does not affect tourism and should be continued. These studies also showed that whaling is an important asset to the country. It provides many jobs, year round, and it has been seen that certain economies cannot survive solely on the whale watching industry. Many of the studies that showed this also showed that most of the surveyed participants were locals. In order to get an unbiased response for this particular experiment the idea of whaling and tourism must be kept separate from whaling and culture or heritage. These are two different ideas and must be analyzed separately.

The studies that were conducted in non-whaling countries conclude that whaling will impact the tourism industries of countries. These studies also showed that countries that have both whaling and whale watching industries are more prone to boycotts. These boycotts, both direct and indirect, would eventually lead to loss in profits for the tourism industry. It is hard for many people to separate their personal views of whaling from just analyzing the hard data.

Data received from the survey conducted showed that whaling was not a valid reason, scientific or commercial. However, more participants said science was more of an acceptable
reason for whaling. And a small percentage said it was a situational question that needed more information. These results show that the participants believe that whales should be protected, but only to a certain degree. This data is supported by a survey presented by Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) that showed 83% of New England whale watchers thought it was morally wrong to kill whales for any reason. Another survey showed that 70% of Americans are against commercial whaling (Hoyt & Hvenegaard 2002).

The last question given to the participants was of the most interest to the surveyor. The question asked the level of influence (1-10 scale) whaling had on travel plans to a country. A higher percentage said that there was no or little influence on their travel. It can be inferred from the data that majority of the participants would travel to a country despite its involvement in whaling. This data is supported by the conclusions drawn from Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002) on the types of tourists that will still travel to a country regardless of the whaling stance. They said there were three different types; the first are people that say they won’t travel and travel anyways, the second are tourists that want to support whale watching efforts within whaling countries, and the third consist of people that are unaffected by whaling. The third type of tourist seems to correspond best with the participants of the survey conducted for this paper. These findings refute the original hypothesis that states whaling in a country would impact its tourism industry. The participants would still travel thus not impacting the tourism industries of the countries. The results suggest that whaling and whale watching can successfully coexist together in one country.

Conclusion

Whaling in a country will have an impact on the tourism industry within that country. This is verified by many surveys that have been conducted over the years in many countries.
Surveys presented by Hoyt and Hvenegaard (2002), Higham and Lusseau (2006), and Bjorgvinsson (2002) are just come examples that have been given for support. Although these surveys support the original hypothesis, the survey conducted parallel with this paper refuted the hypothesis. The participants would still travel to a country with whaling thus not affecting the tourism industry. This survey adds to the growing data of this multifaceted topic.

There are many aspects of this subject that can be analyzed. The relationship between tourism and whaling must be more closely examined to acquire more accurate data. Surveys given to both locals and tourist must continue to be conducted along with the analysis of job availability within each industry. An intense comparison of revenues and costs of each sector is also key to analyze the impacts between the two industries. With this data, nations can make more educated decisions that will ensure their economies will not be so harshly impacted.

References:


Appendices:

**Appendix 1: Survey**

1. Age: 18 & under 19-25 26-35 36-45 45 +
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Occupation: __________________________
4. Times traveled outside the US?
   - Never
   - 1
   - 2-5
   - 5-7
   - 7 +

Whaling is defined as the act to hunt, injure, and or kill whales. Whale watching is defined as the act to watch whales in their natural habitat either via boat, air or on land.

5. Have you ever traveled to country that practices whaling? If yes, where? (if not sure state the country you think may have)

6. Have you ever been on a whale watching tour? If yes, where? ______________. Was the tour by boat, air, or on land? ____________ How did you feel about this tour? Pros, cons, concerns. Would you go again? (Somewhere else, same place, or both?)

7. Would you travel to a different country just to go on a whale watching tour? If yes, which country? If no, would the opportunity of a whale watching tour be a consideration or a positive aspect in your travel plans?

8. What is your opinion on hunting whales for scientific purposes?

9. What is your opinion on hunting whales for commercial purposes?

10. If you knew a country hunted whales (scientifically or commercially), would this prevent you from traveling to that country? Why or why not?
11. Overall, how does the existence of whaling in a country influence your decision to travel to that country? Please rate 1-10 (1= no influence, 10= very influential)

**Appendix 2: Table 1**
Table 1: Below is a table of the 4 countries that were compared between the years (1998-2008, not from 1991). Iceland has the highest AAGR between the 10 years and the USA had the highest total expenditures and number of whale watchers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Whale Watchers</th>
<th>Growth between 1998-2008</th>
<th>Total Expenditure (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>30,330</td>
<td>114,500</td>
<td>14.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>102,785</td>
<td>191,970</td>
<td>6.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>22,398</td>
<td>35,360</td>
<td>4.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4,316,537</td>
<td>4,899,809</td>
<td>1.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Appendix 3: Figure 1**

Figure 1: Shows the participant distribution of those who have been on tours and those who have not. Of the 78 an amazing 59 have not been on whale watching tour; 2 of these have seen whales by accident on another tour. There were 19 participants who have been on a tour and all were by boat.
Appendix 4: Table 2
Table 2: Shows a list of countries in which surveyed participants partook in whale watching tours. The number of participants who went on a tour is 21, including the 2 who saw whales by accident on another tour. Three of the participants did not give a location for the tour but just stated they were on one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th># of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabo*</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>IIIIIIIIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia*</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstated</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nantucket</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 5: Figure 2

Figure 2: This graph shows the breakdown of the participants’ responses of their consideration of whale watching tours in their travel plans. Of the 78, 64 said that they would consider a tour in their travel plans whereas only 12 said it wouldn’t be a main consideration; and one said they weren’t sure.
Appendix 6: Figure 3

Figure 3: This figure shows the categorization of the participants’ responses to scientific whaling. It shows that more than 50% of the participants stated scientific whaling was not a valid reason. A smaller number of 17 said it was an adequate reason for hunting whales. And a slightly smaller amount of participants, 13, said they were unsure or it depended on something for it to be a valid reason.

Appendix 7: Figure 4

Figure 4: The graph shows the distribution of responses for the validation of commercial whaling. Eighty-one percent of the participants said it was not a valid reason and only 10% said it was a valid reason. There were 7 participants, 9%, that said they were unsure or gave a situational explanation.
Appendix 8: Figure 5

Figure 5: This is the breakdown of the participants and the influence of whaling in a country. There were a total of 36 participants that registered on the “no-low influence” side of the graph and only 27 that chose the “more-very influential” side. The “neutral” (5) had the most participants of any of the columns with 15.